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ABSTRACT

Research on employee turnover dates back many decades. However, this research traditionally focused on either understanding turnover intentions or the factors preceding turnover, such as job satisfaction. Despite the challenge in SA being huge and organisations struggling to keep their talent, the research on employee turnover is quite limited. Understanding the different variables that influence employee turnover and providing practical solutions on how to mitigate turnover would be valuable to many organisations. The aim of this research project was to understand the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover. In addition, a comprehensive model of employee turnover was developed and tested.

The Five Factor Model was used to conceptualise personality, while (due to the limited nature of existing models) a new model was designed to conceptualise organisational climate. A sample of 1 536 people was drawn from a large retail organisation in SA, with 807 stayers and 729 leavers. Biographical, personality and organisational climate information was collected over a two-year period for both samples.

Results of the study were mixed; there were no significant differences in the two samples regarding the big five personality factors, except when nine bipolar scales were used. On these scales, leavers were found to be more assertive, persuasive and optimistic than stayers. All five personality factors moderated HR policies & procedures in determining turnover. There were differences between the stayers and leavers samples with regard to age, gender, tenure and absenteeism. Organisational climate was a key determinant of whether people left or stayed and organisations had more than one climate. Personality, organisational climate and absenteeism accounted for 29% of turnover. The proposed model of employee turnover met most of the requirements of goof fit measures when using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

KEY TERMS

Personality testing; Five Factor Model; organisational climate; collective climates; legislation; intention to stay; absenteeism; models of employee turnover; employee turnover; functional and dysfunctional turnover.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organisations across the world face many challenges. One of these is understanding why employees leave and what they can do to prevent this. Replacing staff involves a high cost for companies (Cascio, 1982) and has been a problem troubling organisations for decades (Zimmerman, 2008). The fact that the interest in unravelling this issue has not subsided yet, means that organisations have not quite come up with a satisfactory answer (Zimmerman, 2008). The current study investigated the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover. The topic, background and motivation for the research as well as the problem statement are introduced in this chapter. An outline of the aims of the research and the paradigm within which it is contextualised are also covered. A brief overview of the research design is provided and a chapter summary concludes this introductory chapter.

1.1   BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

Over the past decade, organisations have increasingly emphasised the fact that people are their most important resource, and that without them, most of the processes that take place in organisations would not be possible. This is why over and above understanding how to recruit the right people, much focus was placed on what should be done to retain staff (Woodruffe, 1999). The field of Human Resources in its evolution (Boninelli, 2004) is well known for having themes that emerge, depending on the prevailing discourse in organisations and society at the time. Competency-based recruitment, competency-based human resources (Ulrich, Brockbank, Johnson, Sandhotz & Younger, 2008), human capital management (Raymond, 2004), leadership development, war for talent (Woodruffe, 1999), talent management, employee engagement, employee retention (Mc Keown, 2002; Woodruffe, 1999) and human resources (HR) as a strategic partner (Ulrich, 1997) are some the themes that dominated discussions in the HR field in recent years.

Employee turnover research has been around for decades (Zimmerman, 2008), and dates back to as early as 1958, when a theory of organisational equilibrium was introduced by March and Simon (1958). In this theory it was proposed that job satisfaction reduced turnover as people who experienced more job satisfaction were less likely to leave the organisation. Historically, the studies in employee turnover focused on understanding and controlling factors in the work environment (Zimmerman, 2008) to reduce employee turnover. Over the years various researchers have investigated the individual characteristics of job satisfaction (Mobley, 1977), commitment and intention to quit as antecedents of turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993) and job embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom, Sablynski & Erez, 2001); while other researchers proposed that organisational factors may have an influence on employee turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Lambert, Hogan & Barton, 2001; Schneider, 1987). Some studies included biodata and organisational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1995) as antecedents to turnover, whilst the majority of authors investigated job satisfaction as an effective predictor of employee turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

A number of theoretical models have since been developed (Peterson, 2004) aimed at understanding the concept of employee turnover. Mobley's (1977) turnover model that links job satisfaction, people's intentions to quit and actual quitting is one of the most significant (Lee, 1996) and yet simplest (Peterson, 2004) models in this field. This model evolved (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979) to include individual differences like personality and impulsivity as determinants of employee turnover. Despite its popularity, the model incorporates individual/dispositional factors (Zimmerman, 2008) that affect turnover but it does not adequately address organisational factors that impact on employee turnover (Peterson, 2004).

In terms of contemporary theories of turnover, there are two models that have been most influential (Peterson, 2004). The first model is the Expanded Model of Turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). This is a comprehensive model and has been influential mainly as a process model (Peterson, 2004). It is multidimensional and includes precursors, antecedents,

individual factors, organisational factors and labour market factors (Peterson, 2004). The second model is the Integrative Model of Turnover Determinants (Hom & Griffeth, 1995), which is a turnover process model and includes antecedents of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Results have shown that these constructs have a reciprocal relationship with each other that can lead to a variety of outcomes, including turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Steps leading to turnover are clarified in the model and the role that the organisation plays in employee turnover is implied; however, the organisation is not the main focus of the model (Peterson, 2004). Johns (2002) mentioned that recent research tends to be about the withdrawal model, which focuses on attitudinal causes to turnover.

Due to the complex cognitive nature of the concept of employee turnover (Griffeth, 1981), there has been continued requests for more studies to be conducted to test different variables that influence turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). The focus should be on understanding employees' dispositional factors influencing turnover intentions and, once validated, this understanding should be used as part of the organisation's selection criteria (Riley, 2006) and human resources management strategy. In a meta-analysis that Zimmerman (2008) conducted on employee turnover, he found that there was an underemphasis of individual differences as an important contributor to turnover decisions. He found that personality traits have an impact on turnover intentions and behaviour. The direct effects of personality on turnover intentions and behaviour have shown evidence that looking at turnover from the point of view of job satisfaction or job performance is limited. According to this meta-analysis people may leave their jobs for other reasons besides the two frequently researched reasons namely; job satisfaction and withdrawal. This finding is similar to the turnover research that Drew (2003) conducted and indicated that personality can predict turnover intentions, which could be used effectively as part of the hiring process.

There has also been a call for the creation and testing of new turnover models (Griffeth et al., 2000) that will contribute to the development of empirically based theory that captures the changes in the world of work (Riley, 2006).

The availability of turnover research is important. Drew (2003) proposed that developing organisation-specific models of turnover that include predictors relevant for that organisation will lead to a deeper understanding of employee turnover in that organisation, rather than relying on generic models of turnover that may have little relevance for the organisation.

Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) in their study of dominant research themes in different sub-disciplines of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in South Africa, found that turnover research remained important across the three different timeframes under review, from 1980. A SABINET search on employee turnover research in South Africa was also conducted by the author in December 2012, this included theses and dissertations (current and completed) and SA ePublications. The search yielded 34 dissertations and thesis, from 1978 to present. Despite the topic being important in South Africa, the reseacrh output is lacking compared to international research on the subject (Zimmerman, 2008).

In the current South African climate of competing for skilled employees (Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda & Nel; 2006) and organisations battling to retain talent (Woodruffe, 1999), it is important for South Africans to conduct their own research on these matters. South Africa has an additional challenge of low levels of literacy and numeracy (Stats SA, 2012), implying that our education system does not equip learners with the skills required at tertiary levels and in the work environment. This means that the talent pool from which organisations can draw will shrink even further in the future.

1.2   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Employee turnover is not just a concern for HR professionals, whose role it is to help organisations manage their talent (Peterson, 2004). It is also a concern for managers and CEOs who are concerned about the risks posed by losing talent (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski & Erez, 2001). According to Birchfield (2007), staff turnover can be critical in some instances where organisations find it difficult to fill key positions with external people, as this

will have a negative impact on the organisation's ability to succeed. As 90% of turnover is avoidable, it is important for organisations to understand why people leave, as this information is important in developing effective retention strategies (Birchfield, 2007).

Volumes of research have been conducted on this topic. Despite this, there are shortcomings in this research, which are summarised below (Peterson, 2004):

- Too much emphasis is placed on the characteristics of the individual and the research does not sufficiently address the impact the organisation has on the decision to stay or leave. Mobley's theory (1977) is an example of a model that focuses on job satisfaction and its impact on turnover decisions.
- The relationship between the employee and supervisor, and the importance of providing career planning are not adequately addressed. An example would be the research by Hom and Griffeth (1995).
- In some instances the focus is on external variables over which the organisation has no control; these are factors relating to the external job market and availability of alternatives (Mobley et al., 1979).
- The majority of models include the element 'intention to leave' but do not extend this to the actual turnover decision (Mathiew & Zajac, 1990; Mobley et al., 1979; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). Research on models that do not cover actual turnover predicts only a small percentage of actual turnover (Steers & Mowday, 1981).
- Where the influence of organisational factors on employee turnover is implied, there are no proper hypotheses on how these organisational factors influence commitment (Peterson, 2004).

More longitudinal studies that explore the role of the organisation in employee turnover (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Shaw, Delery, Jenkins & Gupta, 1996) are required. Vogelzang (2008) indicated the need for including personality factors in turnover research as well as studying actual turnover, as turnover intentions alone do not necessarily mean that the person will leave.

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Discrepancies in results across different studies of turnover impact negatively on understanding the concept (Tett & Meyer, 1993). The fact that turnover can be studied from different angles does not make the task any easier. The request that more research be conducted on the topic (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000) confirms that other factors besides job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job embeddedness are important in understanding turnover (Maertz & Champion, 1998).

The lack of published research on employee turnover in SA is a cause for concern, because it either means that the topic is not adequately researched locally or the research is not published. One of the reasons could be related to challenges in accessing organisational data, especially for reseachers who are not employed by the organisation. The data for turnover research is usually found in organisations (public and private) that are not always willing to share their employee data with external researchers. This type of research is possible when conducted by people who work inside the organisations; however, they may not be interested in research.

In order to address some of the gaps already identified in employee turnover research (Peterson, 2004), this study investigated the role of both personality and organisational climate in employee turnover in the South African context. It addresses the need for South African research to expand the available knowledge on the subject and contributes to understanding moderating variables in the personality and employee turnover relationship (Zimmerman, 2008). At the same time, the role of organisational climate in employee turnover was investigated. This integrative approach resulted in the identification of specific personality factors and organisational climate dimensions that contribute to employee turnover. The information obtained in this way could guide HR professionals and leaders in organisations about what they would need to focus on so as to avoid employee turnover and retain their employees.

The research question was: What is the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover?

1.3   AIMS OF THE STUDY

The general aim of the study was to understand the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover by using a proposed model of employee turnover.

The study has theoretical and empirical aims, which are discussed in the next section.

1.3.1 Theoretical aims

The theoretical aims of this study were to:

- conceptualise personality, using the Five Factor Model as a conceptual framework to establish which of the five factors play a role in employee turnover;
- conceptualise organisational climate using a proposed model of organisational climate and establish which of the 12 dimensions of organisational climate play a role in employee turnover;
- establish if there is relationship (theoretically) between personality and organisational climate in predicting employee turnover;

The theoretical aims set the foundation for empirical aims, which are discussed below.

1.3.2 Empirical aims

These are aims linked to the empirical part of this study, where the following aspects will be investigated using the data gathered:

- the difference between leavers and stayers in the five broad personality factors;
- the difference between leavers and stayers in the 12 organisational climate dimensions;
- the difference between leavers and stayers in terms of demographic factors;
- the combination of personality factors and organisational dimensions in influencing whether a person stays or leaves the organisation;
- test the proposed model of organisational climate;
- test the proposed model of employee turnover;
- formulate recommendations for the organisation based on the integration of the literature review and research findings.

More specific hypotheses will be stated in Chapters 5.

1.4   THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

A paradigm is a lense through which the researcher 'sees' the topic (Trafford & Leshem, 2008, p. 84). This includes choosing conceptual frameworks that assist the researcher in framing and understanding the topic (Trafford & Leshem, 2008). Conceptual frameworks for this study are discussed in the section below.

The research topic falls within the field of industrial psychology and its fields of application are organisational psychology, personnel psychology and psychological measurement:
- Industrial Psychology involves the scientific study of human behaviour (Mc Combrink & Ilgen, 1989). Human behaviour is studied in different areas; hence the different fields of industrial psychology (Bergh & Theron, 1999).
- Organisational Psychology is about understanding the organisational context in which human behaviour takes place. This impacts on individual, group and interpersonal processes. The aim is to

understand the behaviour of people in organisations (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996) in order to improve different outcomes, i.e. satisfaction, productivity, etc.

- Personnel Psychology is about applying principles of psychology to people in the work environment in order to understand individual differences in behaviour and work performance (Cascio, 1987; Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1989).

- Psychological measurement is the process of assigning numbers according to rules, which indicates differences in the magnitude of the attribute being measured in people (Huysamen, 1983). Psychological tests, in particular personality tests, are used to compare applicants across various dimensions in order to determine the most suitable candidate for the position.

This research project was conducted from a humanistic psychology perspective. The basic assumptions of this perspective are that humans are not machines; they consciously engage with their environment, they strive for psychological growth and have free will (Bergh & Theron, 1999). As a result, the premise of this study was that people (stayers and leavers) are unique and that they exercise their free will in pursuit of better growth opportunities (Griggs, 2006).

Specific theories and models used in this thesis are described in the following section.

1.4.1   Behavioural models and theories

The behavioural models and theories used to conceptualise this study are outlined below.

- **Personality** is conceptualised using the **Five Factor Model (5FM)** (Cattell, 1956) that is based on **Dimensional Trait Theory** (Cattell, 1945; Guilford, 1936). The basic assumption of trait theory is that personality consists of characteristics or traits that people have in

varying degrees. These are stable over time (Nettle, 2007), as well as enduring and observable in behaviour (Berg & Theron, 1999). The Five Factor Model, which is one of the models under trait theory, groups personality into five dimensions, while other models differ in their groupings, i.e. three and sixteen (Bergh & Theron, 1999). The basic assumption of the model is that individuals have interconnected traits that form structures, which can be grouped into five personality dimensions (Paunonen & Jackson, 2000). The dimensions are extroversion, emotional stability or neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Gregory, 1996). The personality test used in this research – the Occupational Personality Profile (OPPro) – is based on the Five Factor Model.

- **Organisational climate –** An organisational climate model was designed and proposed by the author, who was influenced by the work of Thomas and Fredericks (1992). The latter focused on explaining how climates develop in organisations, using four perspectives (structuralist perspective, perceptual perspective, interactionist perspective and cultural perspective). The author proposed a fifth perspective, which is a combination of cultural and interactionist perspectives. The premise of this perspective is that culture in the organisation creates a context for a climate to develop (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). Although measurement of climate takes place at an individual level, it is a reflection of the interaction that people have with their work group. This plays an important role in norm formation (Ashforth, 1985) and serves to establish a referent group (Berg & Theron, 1999). Equity theory was used to explain how employees compare themselves to others in the work environment using different elements such as salary, benefits, conditions of service, etc. Equity is perceived to exist if the employee's inputs to outcomes is similar to that of other employees (the referent group) (Bergh & Theron, 1999). The two important factors at stake here are the referent group and the employee's perception of equity (Muchinsky, Kriek & Schreuder, 1998).

- **Employee turnover –** Various turnover theories have been developed over the decades. For instance, Mobley et al. (1979) developed an Expanded Model of Turnover. This is a revision of Mobley's (1977) Intermediate Linkage Model, which established a link between job satisfaction, intention to quit, job search and quitting. The theory is simple, yet profound (Peterson, 2004) and has attracted more empirical analysis than any other turnover model (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Lee, 1996). The turnover models reviewed had some relevance; however, not all their components were relevant for this study. In order to address this, the author proposed a turnover model that was influenced by the Expanded Model of Employee Turnover (Mobley et al., 1979), the Unfolding Model of Employee Turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) and the consideration of both functional and dysfunctional turnover (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984). Elements of these models were combined to design an employee turnover model that is current and relevant to the SA context, considering that most of these models were developed more than a decade ago (in some instances three decades ago). The proposed model of turnover was also developed to address what other researchers (Peterson, 2004; Zimmerman, 2008) found lacking in turnover research for organisations and researchers to have a good understanding of the concept.

  The model by Mobley et al. (1979) is deemed one of the most comprehensive models of employee turnover (Peterson, 2004), as it covers organisational factors, individual factors and labour market factors as antecedents of job satisfaction (Mobley et al., 1979). Organisational factors are highlighted as being equal conceptually to individual and labour market factors (Peterson, 2004). This is different from other models that tend to overemphasise individual factors (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Mobley, 1977; Tett & Meyer, 1993). The model includes impulsive quitting as well as alternative forms of withdrawal like absenteeism. There is a realisation that an employee's decision to quit does not always follow a lengthy process of evaluating alternatives, as some employees quit on impulse (Mobley et al., 1979). The broad

categorisation of individual, organisational and environmental factors was used in the proposed employee turnover model, while absenteeism was also included. However, some of the variables used under each of the broad categories vary from those used by Mobley et al. (1979). The concept of 'shock' that explains what triggers employees to leave (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) was included to ensure that there is a good understanding of why employees left and -– for those who are still with the organisation – what would make them leave.

Systems theory is an over-aching theory in this study, as the unit of analysis is the individual within an organisation. However, due to the nature of the study, there are many variables whose interaction were investigated. According to systems theory, organisations are made up of different interrelated and interconnected parts that use inputs in order to produce outputs (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996). This allows one to investigate phenomena at different levels, namely at the individual, team and organisational levels. A change in one component will have an impact on other parts of the system. The feedback loop is available to give information both on the use of inputs and the acceptability of outputs (Bergh & Theron, 1999).

1.4.2   Definition of concepts

Metatheoretical statements are presented in terms of the following variables in the study: personality, organisational climate and employee turnover.

Personality is described as consistent and enduring patterns of behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 1999). These are characteristics that are common to all people, consistent over time and situations. Some people have more or fewer of specific characteristics and these characteristics contribute to the uniqueness of human behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 1999; Gregory, 1996).

Organisational climate refers to relatively enduring characteristics of an organisation, including environmental and interpersonal factors (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). These characteristices distinguish it from other organisations,

as they include shared direct or indirect collective perceptions (Litwin & Stringer, 1968) of people in a workplace on various dimensions (leadership, trust, etc.). Such perceptions are the result of interaction among members, and they serve as the basis for interpreting situations and reflect norms, values and attitudes in the organisation that help shape behaviour (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

Litwin and Stringer's (1968) definition of climate was one of the early definitions, and variations of it have subsequently been used by most authors. The definition chosen in this research is one of these variations (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992) and it reflects the interaction between climate and culture. This definition also covers the concept of climate holistically, unlike some simpler definitions of climate that are too broad (like that of Kazama, Foster, Hebl, West & Dawson (2002) who defined climate as employees' shared perceptions about the environment in which they work). According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1974), the shared perceptions are created by the way the organisation deals with its employees. As indicated earlier, organisational climate can be represented at three levels, namely individual, group/team and organisational levels. All these climates are perceptions that individuals have about their environment (Joyce & Slocum, 1982). Hence, organisational climate is no longer an attribute that is only relevant to the organisation, but to specific sub systems (i.e. individuals and groups) (Klem & Schlechter, 2008). According to Likert (1967), there is consensus that organisational climate is a psychological, multidimensional and complex construct that has an impact on turnover and absenteeism.

Employee turnover refers to a situation when an employee is dissatisfied with his/her work and indicates that he/she is leaving the organisation (Rosser, 2004) or termination of an individual's employment with a given company (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

1.5   RESEARCH DESIGN

The current research design was based on three variables. The two independent variables are personality and organisational climate, while employee turnover is the dependent variable.

The following instruments were used in the study:
- Occupational Personality Profile (OPPro) – as a measure of personality
- Organisational Perception Survey (OPS) – as a measure of organisational climate
- Stay survey – as a measure of employees' intention to quit.
- Exit interview – as a measure of why people are leaving

The research study was conducted in two phases. The initial part of the study involved the literature review, where personality, organisational climate and employee turnover were conceptualised. These three variables were integrated and their relationship explored theoretically. Based on this conceptualisation, the empirical phase commenced. This phase focused on conducting empirical research, where the role played by personality and organisational climate in employee turnover was explored. The sample comes from a retail organisation in South Africa, which has operations in various Southern African countries. The sample size used in the study was 1 536, and it was divided into leavers (729) and stayers (807) in order to compare them in respect of the different variables. Data was collected over a two year period.

In addition to using descriptive statistics, the leavers and stayers were compared using dimensions personality and organisational climate. A number of hypotheses were tested in relation to the two samples. The ultimate outcome of the research was a structural equation model that shows differences between leavers and stayers on these variables. Findings and recommendations for the organisation were documented.

1.6 CHAPTER OUTLINE

The study has eight chapters, each chapter starts with a short introduction before a detailed discussion of relevant content. A chapter summary is found at the end of each chapter, with the aim of summarising key points made in that chapter. The chapter outline is as follows:

Chapter 1   Introduction

The research project is introduced in this chapter by providing a brief background of the topic and motivation for the research. The problem statement, aims of the study and the paradigm within which the study will be conducted are outlined.

Chapter 2   Personality

In this chapter personality is conceptualised, using the Five Factor Model. The history of personality testing is explored, including a discussion of different personality theories. A more detailed discussion on Trait theory with specific reference to the development of the Five Factor Model is included in the chapter. Challenges of the five factor model are discussed, as well as personality testing in South Africa and summary of personality research findings relevant to this study.

Chapter 3   Organisational climate

In this chapter organisational culture and climate are conceptualised, and a detailed account is given of similarities and differences between the two concepts. The rest of the chapter covers theories on how climates form, levels of measurement, climate dimensions, the value of studying organisational climate and relevant research linked to this study. The author proposes a model of conecptualising organisational climate.

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Chapter 4   Employee turnover and integration of variables

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section relates to employee turnover, which is conceptualised through reviewing key models of employee turnover and their shortcomings. Challenges associated with employee turnover research are also explored. The second section covers the theoretical integration of the three variables in this study, which are personality, organisational climate and employee turnover. This integration gives an overview of what research has been done in this field in respect of the three variables and highlights areas that still need to be researched. A model of employee turnover is proposed in this chapter.

Chapter 5   Research design and methodology

This chapter outlines the process followed in designing the empirical study and the methodology used. The population and sampling frame for selecting the sample are outlined, as well as the measuring instruments, data-gathering method and data-processing approach used.

Chapter 6   Results presentation

Results are reported using the following statistical methods: descriptive statistics, group comparisons, correlations, coefficient alpha, regression and structural equation modelling. Hypotheses were revisited at different points to indicate whether or not, they were supported by the results.

Chapter 7   Results discussion

In this chapter key findings are discussed in relation to the hypotheses that were tested. Meaning is made by linking these results to existing research in the field, both in SA and internationally. Hypotheses were also brought in to this section and linked to the final discussion of results.

Chapter 8   Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

Theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of the study are included. Recommendations for various stakeholders are made in line with practical, methodological and theoretical contributions. Limitations and suggestions for future research are provided in this chapter.

1.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the study by providing background and motivation for the research. The problem statement and aims of the research project were delineated in detail. The paradigm within which the research was conducted was outlined and adopted; the research design and methodology were discussed. Lastly an outline was given of chapters covering the balance of the project.

CHAPTER 2

PERSONALITY

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise personality, which is one of the independent variables in this study. This chapter includes a summary of personality theories and more specifically the Five Factor Model, which is a conceptual model that constitutes the basis of the personality test used in this research. The development of the model will be discussed as well as the exploration of its benefits and criticism. The chapter concludes with personality research in South Africa.

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The use of personality tests has increased substantially in the past two decades. Tett and Christiansen (2007) attribute this fact to the rise of the Five Factor Model that made it easy for test developers to manage this type of measurement, as well as the meta-analyses published between 1984 and 1992. These studies showed that personality test scores correlated with criteria like job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Personality has been found to be important in understanding a number of organisational outcomes (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). However, before a discussion of the Five Factor Model is presented, it is important to discuss the history of personality, its various approaches and how these are used to understand this construct.

2.2   PERSONALITY THEORIES

The field of personality psychology does not have a unifying paradigm and a comprehensive framework for understanding the whole person (McAdams & Pals, 2006), hence there is no consensus on the best way to conceptualise and measure personality. However, there is a trend indicating that personality theorists are very critical of one another. Rather than being critical, it could be useful to recognise both the merits of other approaches and the limitations of one's own approach, as these all contribute to our understanding of this complex and rich phenomenon (Shadel & Cervone, 1993).

Personality testing dates back to the late 1800s when Sir Francis Galton opened a psychometric laboratory in London in 1884 (Galton, 1884). His work demonstrated that individual differences exist and that they can be objectively measured. However, the main focus at this time was on measuring sensory, motor and mental processes. According to Goldberg (1993), Galton was one of the first scientists to use a dictionary as a way of estimating personality-descriptive terms in a lexicon and to appreciate how trait terms share aspects of their meaning.

There are four main approaches that will be outlined in understanding personality; these are psychoanalysis, humanism, behaviourism and trait theory. Each of the approaches has a view on the structure of personality, dynamics of behaviour and the development of personality (Nowakowska, 1973). Each approach has different tools linked to it as a way of measuring and understanding personality. A broad outline of all four approaches is provided below, followed by a more detailed analysis of the trait theory (being the theory that is used to conceptualise personality in this study). Original material written by the main theorists was consulted as well as more contemporary books and articles that include these theories. This was done to ensure that the history of these theorists, together with their theories, is captured accurately, as it puts the current research project into a better perspective (Dumont, 2010).

2.2.1 Psychoanalysis

Sigmund Freud is known for psychoanalysis, but little is written about the people who influenced his thinking and subsequent theory of psychoanalysis (Taylor, 2009). Freud started his career at Brŭcke's laboratory, where he spent six years being introduced to reductionist physiology while publishing a few neurological papers (Taylor, 2009). Although Freud's training was in natural sciences and focused on reductionism and empirical rigour, he soon lost interest in that and focused more on speculative and philosophical

approaches (Dumont, 2010) whose validity was sometimes difficult to establish.

It was during this time that he met Josef Breuer. According to Freud (1910), Breuer, who in 1880 had stumbled across the 'talking cure' when he was treating a 21-year-old girl who had hysteria under hypnosis, had a great influence in his thinking. Charcot also influenced Freud through his work of producing traumatic paralysis during hypnosis, but he was not interested in theory development (Taylor, 2009). Freud started applying Breuer's and Charcot's methods with great success, except he was not always successful with hypnotising all his patients and did not like the method. As a result he developed other methods of accessing his patient's trauma in their waking state, which he refered to as independent cathartic methods. Freud saw the unconscious as the foundation of psychological functioning, as it stores thoughts and wishes that may be viewed as unfavourable to the conscious mind (Freud, 1910). In 1909 he delivered five lectures at Clark University which were published in a journal a year later. In these lectures he acknowledged the people who influenced his thinking, sets out his theory and used cases to illustrate the application of his concepts (Freud, 1910).

The premise of his theory, which was influenced by what was happening in his practice, was that people have early childhood memories that determine the extent of trauma associated with future events (Freud, 1910). The mind has three levels of awareness, namely the conscious mind, preconscious mind and unconscious mind (Griggs, 2006). This structure is referred to as the iceberg model of the mind where the conscious mind, which is linked to the ego, is the tip of the iceberg. The preconscious mind (superego) is outside one's awareness but still accessible, as the next layer of the ice berg. The unconscious mind (id) is the bottom of the iceberg and not accessible (Griggs, 2006).

When a traumatic experience occurs, the conscious mind (ego) protects itself by repressing the trauma into the subconscious (id), which is not easily accessible. This is achieved through a censoring of emotions or responses as

being either appropriate or inappropriate (superego). The more traumatic the event and the more intense the emotions associated with it, the more repressed the event becomes (Freud, 1910; Taylor, 2009). Freud saw the id as the original personality that is present at birth and from which the ego and superego develop as a result of interacting with the world (Griggs, 2006).

According to Crowne (2007) and Griggs (2006), each of the personality structures that Freud conceptualised contains psychic energy with specific functions:

- **Pleasure principle (id)** – the focus is on immediate gratification, without being concerned about consequences. The id is focused on self-gratification and is completely self-centred, like when children are young.
- **Reality principle (ego)** – the ego develops from the id, as from the age of 1 year. The ego is there to protect the personality of the child, while making sure that the needs of the id are met. Hence the reality principle, which is about finding ways to gratify needs, within acceptable limits, which means there is a reality check before action is taken. At this level, consequences matter.
- **Morality principle (superego)** – the superego also develops from the id and this occurs during childhood. At this stage standards of acceptable behaviour are understood, based on one's culture. The superego is responsible for telling the ego what behaviour is acceptable.
- **Defence mechanisms –** invariably the demands of the id will be in conflict with what is allowed by the superego, and the ego is sometimes 'caught in the middle'. This can cause a lot of anxiety for a person, which is where defence mechanisms come in. Their job is to protect the ego by distorting reality and therefore reducing anxiety. The ego can use a number of defence mechanisms (e.g. projection) and these are functional up to a point. Psychopathology starts when we are overly dependent on defence mechanisms to a point where it is difficult to distinguish between reality and distortion.

Different techniques are used to access the subconscious in order for the patient to relieve the traumatic event, express the undesired emotion and feel relieved from it (Freud, 1910). In therapy, techniques like hypnosis and dream interpretation are generally used to achieve this. In personality testing, techniques like the Rorschach Inkblot are used, where candidates are encouraged to say what they see in the ambiguous material presented to them (Sarason & Sarason, 2005). The logic is that people talk about things that they know (conscious) and if the material is ambiguous they will talk about matters they know but are not aware of (unconscious). It is then the psychologist's role to interpret the information in a way that makes sense to the conscious mind (Freud, 1910; Taylor, 2009).

Psychoanalysis worked as a synthesis of most of the thinking that took place during the 19th century; however, its scholars were not able to use it as a launch pad based on which a cumulative discipline could be developed (Dumont, 2010).

The second theory for discussion is humanism.

2.2.2   Humanism

A humanistic approach to personality differs from psychoanalysis as it sees behaviour as being shaped by a person's immediate, subjective and personal experiences (Boere, 2006). Humanism emanated from existential philosophy in the 19th century (Dumont, 2010). The term humanism came about because its theorists advocated the rights of the individual and the principle of self-determination (Dumont; 2010). According to this theory, people are free to make choices, define themselves, develop their own lifestyle and actualise themselves (Dumont, 2010).

Phenomenology is also part of this approach, where the focus is on one's experience of the self and of the world in one's daily life (Boere, 2006). This approach is based on two main assumptions. The first is that everything one

sees and experiences is influenced by one's individual and cultural lenses (Dumont, 2010) and that people make sense of the world through their own experience (Crowne, 2007). The second assumption is that all people have potential for personal growth (Crowne, 2007) and will strive to better themselves. Hence constructs like human freedom, intuition, value construction, meaning making, social influence, personal growth and self-actualisation (Dumont, 2010) can be found in humanism.

The implication of this assumption is that a person's private world would have to be accessed in order to understand what is happening with him/her (Dumont, 2009). For this to work, techniques should be used that allow one to tune into the psyche of the person, where one can reflect on ideas and feelings in a non-threatening way (Dumont, 2009).

Carl Rogers is the most influential theorist in this perspective and he developed a technique that focuses on changes in one's concept, called the Q-Sort (Boere, 2006). Most of his work was influenced by his experiences as a therapist (Dumont, 2010). Although he had a clinical background, Rogers viewed people as good and healthy, focusing on their actualising tendency (Rogers, 1942; Rogers, 1947). Concepts like positive self-regard, real and ideal self fall within the spectrum of this theory (Boere, 2006). Instead of spending time in the laboratory developing his theory, Rogers' laboratory became the patient consultation sessions he facilitated (Taylor, 2009) and from where he obtained his information about personality. Hence his approach is called the person-centred theory (Crowne, 2007). In therapy, the therapist uses empathy, positive regard and genuineness to connect with the client, so that the latter can gain a better understanding of the situation (Griggs, 2006). This is done in an unimposing manner, with the therapist creating conditions that are conducive to positive change taking place without being directive (Feist, 1994; Griggs, 2006).

Abraham Maslow was another scholar who subscribed to humanism (Feist, 1994). He believed that all humans are born with a drive to become everything they are supposed to be, which he called self-actualisation (Dumont, 2010).

According to Maslow, researchers must study healthy and actualised people in order to develop a healthy theory of personality; when studies focus on troubled people it becomes difficult to have a wholesome theory (Dumont, 2010). Mental illness develops as a result of people being deprived of these essential needs as part of their development (Crowne, 2007).

Maslow's most famous work is the hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1970), which emphasises the importance of attending to needs at different levels for people to self-actualise (Feist, 1994). These include physiological needs (e.g. food and shelter) and psychological needs (love and acceptance). His theory is applied in therapy to assist clients to free themselves from being dependent on others in order for them to self-actualise (Feist, 1994). This is done in the context of a warm relationship established on the premise of mutual respect, which characterises a humanistic approach to therapy (Feist, 1994; Griggs, 2006). Maslow also introduced an important construct into psychology, called transcendence (Taylor, 2009). He defined it as a state that one is in if one goes beyond the rational realm into a more holistic, spiritual realm and consciousness (Taylor, 2009). An example of transcendence can be found in Frankl's work on people who were able to survive concentration camps through conditioning their mind to think beyond the current situation (Taylor, 2009).

Humanism made a significant contribution to psychology in the 21st century by focusing on the positive elements of human beings and not on failure. This gave rise to the birth of positive psychology (Crowne, 2007) and continues to be an area of great interest to researchers and scholars in general. When comparing theories to seasons, humanism can be seen as summer, whereas psychoanalysis could be compared to winter.

The third theory to be discussed is Behaviourism.

2.2.3   Behaviourism

According to behaviourists, people behave in a certain way because of their past history of conditioning (Griggs, 2006). This is because personality is made up of behaviours that can be learned. Because the environment is important in shaping one's behaviour, understanding one's learning history is important (Boere, 2006). According to this approach, psychologists should focus only on observed behaviour and they should not infer behaviour from other sources (Feist, 1994).

B.F. Skinner was one of the main contributors to this theory and the most celebrated psychologist since Freud (Boere, 2006). Skinner maintained that human behaviour is subject to laws of science and should be studied accordingly (Skinner, 1953); hence concepts like motivation do not belong within this realm (Feist, 1994). Behaviourism works with stimulus and response, which can be conditioned or unconditioned (Crowne, 2007; Dumont, 2010; Griggs, 2006). Skinner used operant conditioning to explain people's behaviour in relation to the environment and the stimuli they encounter (Skinner, 1953). According to this view, there is a stimulus that triggers behaviour, which results in consequences (either positive or negative). Behaviour modification is a technique used to modify negative behaviour to become positive behaviour (Boere, 2006).

Operant conditioning allows one to learn to associate behaviour with consequences (Feist, 1994), thus influencing whether one continues with the behaviour or not. This is based on the concept of reinforcement, which is the chance of a response being increased due to a reinforcer being present immediately after the behaviour (Crowne, 2007) (i.e. a child who is rewarded with a sweet for good manners). The opposite of a reinforcer is punishment, which decreases the probability of a response due to being punished immediately after the behaviour (Griggs, 2006). Both reinforcement and punishment can be either negative or positive (Griggs, 2006). This is how behaviour is learnt and generalised into different contexts by people. Insights

gained from this theory on how people learn have been applied for many decades in different contexts (Dumont, 2010).

The next approach is known as the trait theory of personality. It is discussed in more detail in the next section, as it is the approach used to conceptualise personality in this research study.

2.2.4 Trait Theory

The trait theory approach to personality testing is by far the most popular approach in understanding and measuring personality (Dumont, 2010). The focus is on understanding relatively enduring ways in which people differ (traits), which give people a unique position on a continuum (Guilford, 1936) based on general laws of behaviour (Cattell, 1945). Traits – by their nature – are not observable (Dumont, 2010) but are descriptors that help to make sense of human behaviour. These descriptors are defined as distinguishing characteristics. When traits are grouped they are referred to as factors that contain dimensions with a negative and a positive pole (Guilford, 1936). Guilford was one of the early scholars who identified personality factors using factor analysis. According to his theory, people have similar structures of personality and the same traits but at varying degrees (Guilford, 1936). At the same time Allport and Odbert (1936) worked on a project to create a comprehensive taxonomy of human traits, using 4 000 distinguishable psychological traits (Dumont, 2010).

This premise constituted the foundation for Cattell's work of studying how people describe others using everyday language and referring to what was consistent or different in the way they behave (Cattell, 1945). Although people can be similar, each person always has a uniqueness, meaning that even people with similar traits may behave differently as there are genetic and environmental influences at play (Cattell, 1945).

Although many researchers contributed to the development of the trait theory of personality, Cattell's contribution stands out by far as one that is thorough, intense and systematic (Dumont, 2010).

Trait theory of personality made a significant contribution to assessment methods in psychology, especially relating to the use of self-report questionnaires in personality testing. Most of these tests measure the frequency of a trait in order to predict its presence across different situations (Cattell, 1945). Hence personality testing forms a central part of selection, promotions and development in the workplace. Practically applied, the aim is to fit a person to the demands of the position and, compared to others, decide who would be the most suitable person in that role.

Despite the wide use of Trait theory in different organisational contexts, there is still no agreement on how many personality traits there are.

2.2.4.1   How many traits 3, 5, 12, 16 or 20?

Within trait theory, there are different views regarding the number of factors that make up personality. According to Guilford (1936) there is no correct number and the number of factors used is not important, as long as those factors contain fundamental variables that describe personality and behaviour. Thurstone came up with seven factors in the Thurstone Temperament Schedule (Thurstone, 1953) that was based on the work of Guilford. He used oblique rotation (Goldberg, 1993) which is a specific factor analysis technique where the researcher considers both the structure and pattern of the matrix (Garson, 2008). Cattell's model yielded five factors of personality which could be replicated (Cattell, 1945). These factors will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter. Peabody's (1984) analysis came up with three factors, namely evaluation, assertiveness and impulse control vs. expressiveness.

Goldberg (1993) found the three factor model logically more appealing. This was the start of Goldberg's promotion of Peabody's three factor model. In 1989, Peabody and Goldberg collaborated in and published research as a

way of trying to resolve whether there were three or five factors, as there was a growing body of evidence that there were five factors. In their study, Peabody and Goldberg (1989) agreed on a set of bipolar trait scales to be applied to internal and external data. This resulted in the identification of five external dimensions/factors that incorporated the three factors developed by Peabody.

Another researcher who proposed three factors was Hans Eysenck (1993), the factors being psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism (P-E-N). Eysenck represented psychoticism as a combination of primary factors II (agreeableness) and III (conscientiousness). He rejected the Five Factor Model as a valid model of personality because in his view it was not based on any valid theory of personality (Eysenck, 1993).

Although Costa and McCrae (1992) started off with three factors, namely neuroticism, extraversion and openness to experience, they ended up adding agreeableness and conscientiousness to their model to reconstitute a five factor model. This was after Goldberg presented the results of his study and they subsequently tested 40 of his factors in their longitudinal studies to confirm the new findings (Goldberg, 1993).

Despite the different views about the number of factors associated with personality, the research and meta-analyses that were conducted support the validity of five factors over and above the other number of factors proposed by the various researchers (Cattell, 1945; Eysenck, 1993; Goldberg, 1993; Peabody & Goldberg, 1989). The approach adopted in this research accepts the Five Factor Model as a valid and reliable model for measuring personality. A discussion about the development of the Five Factor Model is important at this stage.

2.3   DEVELOPMENT OF THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL

This model was developed by Thurstone in the 1930s (Thurstone, 1938). It is based on the trait theory of personality and is the most common personality model used across different countries. The model is regarded as a broad framework that organises diverse traits (Tett & Christiansen, 2007).

Raymond Cattell made a significant contribution to trait theory through his unique method of developing hypotheses to be tested and then following a process of reasoning from the specific to the general and vice versa (Cattell, 1945). What makes Cattell's contribution even more significant is how he combined his mathematical and clinical skills to understand personality, often conducting complex statistical calculations manually to test his hypotheses (Dumont, 2010). This empirical approach differs from most that start off by being speculative. Cattell defined and measured personality using traits, as well as a combination of clinical and mathematical procedures to define traits (Cattell, 1945; Cattell, 1956). In his research he identified common and unique traits that are influenced by heredity and environmental factors. Instead of looking at current research, he decided to use three approaches to develop his theory of personality and measurement tool (16 PF) (Cattell, 1956). He started off by identifying adjectives in the English dictionary that explained behaviour; next he developed behavioural ratings to measure the behaviour of people in his attempt to understand and describe personality (Goldberg, 1993).

Cattell's main objectives were to define personality in its broadest sense, identify traits that make up the construct (personality spheres), establish the number of traits that could be used to define personality in different contexts and establish a tool to measure these traits (Cattell, 1945). He started off with approximately 4 500 trait descriptions which he narrowed down to 171 personality variables (verbally defined traits). This resulted in 67 clusters that were further reduced to 35. Cattell decided to use Thurstone's multifactor system to analyse the data because of its flexibility (Cattell, 1945). The 35 clusters were analysed to arrive at manageable factors that combined primary

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and secondary factors and could be used to explain people's behaviour (Cattell, 1945; Cattell, 1956). He ended up identifying 16 primary personality factors and four secondary factors (Cattell, 1956). The four secondary factors are dynamic integration vs. anxiety, extraversion vs. introversion, cyclothyne vs. schizothyne and unbroken success vs. frustration (Cattell, 1956).

It is maybe for this reason that Goldberg viewed Cattell as the father of the Five Factor Model even though the latter was reluctant to acknowledge this and in his own view did not quite embrace the model (Goldberg, 1993). However, Cattell (1993) viewed this as a misconception as there are similarities between his own original work and that of the Five Factor Model. Cattell (1993) attributes the differences in models to the techniques used to rotate the factors; hence different researchers propose different numbers of factors.

Other researchers (Digman & Takemoto-Chok, 1981; Fiske, 1949; Tupes & Christel, 1961) replicated Cattell's work and came up with five global factors. These global factors cover the same domain covered by the Big Five Method. It was on this research that Cattell based his 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, 1993). The findings were ground breaking for the field of psychology in general and for personality research in particular. This work resulted in Cattell's two-tiered theory of personality (Cattell, 1993), which states that personality is made up of primary and secondary factors (Cattell, 1956).

Nowakowska (1973) criticised Cattell's approach on the following grounds:
- He rejected any prior hypotheses that existed about traits at the time.
- He treated factors as approximations of personality traits (by identifying only 16 factors)
- He partially failed in verifying the hypotheses that he developed as he was only able to come up with 12 common traits based on observed and self-observed data, yet found 16 traits when he did factor analysis.

The conclusion that Nowakowska draws from this is that although Cattell's findings were important and insightful, using factor analysis and Thurstone's multifactor method (which is explanatory in nature) was limiting. According to Nowakowska (1973) the findings could have been improved if Cattell had used a different approach, e.g. incorporate bivariate controlled experiments to determine functional variance between variables instead of the multivariate model he chose.

Fiske (1949) analysed Cattell's variables and came up with five factors that replicated Cattell's work based on self, peer and observer ratings. The names of the factors were different but he did not consider the difference in description as important. The factors he came up with are social adaptability, inquiry intellect, confident self-exploration, emotional control and conformity. Despite his discovery, Fiske unfortunately did not follow up on any of this work (Goldberg, 1993).

Tupes and Christal (1961) conducted studies based on the work of both Cattell and Fiske, using respondents from the airforce. They came up with five factors that were replicable. Other scientists expanded on this work by conducting their own studies and also found five factors that could be replicated. These factors were very similar, even though their labels differed slightly (Borgatta, 1964; Smith, 1969). Table 2.1 outlines the different factors that some of the personality researchers conceptualised and how these relate to the Five Factor Model.

Table 2.1: Personality factors from various researchers

Factors	Description	Fiske (1949)	Cattell (1956)	Tupes & Christal (1961)	Norman (1963)	McCrae & Costa (1999)	Digman (1990)
Extraver-sion (F I)	Talkativeness, assertiveness and activity levels vs. being reserved, passive and silent.	Social adaptability	Extraversion-Introversion	Surgency or extraversion	Surgency	Extraversion	Introversion-Extraversion
Agreeable-ness (F II)	Kindness, trust and warmth vs. selfishness, hostility and distrust.	Confident self-expression	Unbroken success vs. frustration	Agreeableness		Agreeable-ness	Agreeable-ness
Conscien-tiousness (F III)	Organised, thorough and reliable vs. careless, negligent and unreliable.	Conformity	Cyclothyne vs. schizothyne constitution			Conscien-tiousness	Will
Emotional stability (F IV)	Calm and of even temperament vs. nervous, moody and temperamental.	Emotional control	Dynamic integration vs. anxiety			Neuroticism	Anxiety
Openness to experience (F V)	Imagination, curiosity and creativity vs. shallowness and being imperceptive.	Inquiring intellect				Openness to experience	Inquiring Intellect

Source: Cattell, 1956; Digman, 1990; Fiske, 1949; Goldberg, 1993; McAdams & Pals, 2006; McCrae & Costa, 1999; Norman, 1963; Tupes & Christal, 1961

Even after all these years, despite a general acceptance of the Five Factor Model as a valid model of personality, criticism as well as support for the model has come from various spheres (Goldberg, 1993). The next section looks at all this in detail.

2.4   CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL

Despite its popularity and scientific support (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Morgeson, Campion & Dipboye, 2007), the Five Factor Model (FFM) had a lot of criticism levelled against it as a model for understanding personality. This resulted in volumes of research that either supported (Arthur et al., 2001; Goldberg; 1993; Shadel & Cervone, 1993; Tett & Christiansen, 2007) or

criticised the model (Morgeson et al., 2007). The purpose of this section is to capture the salient points from authors who are in support of and those who are against the FFM and then provide the view that will be adopted in this study.

2.4.1 Linear selection models

According to Arthur, Woehr and Graziano (2001) personnel selection is characterised by linear models, where personality traits (predictors) are correlated to a criterion (job performance). The basic assumption of these linear models is that higher scores of a predictor are usually desirable. This line of thinking is problematic as we know in personality that extreme scores do not necessarily reflect better performance. An example is someone who has an extreme score on conscientiousness, as there are roles for which this type of person would not be suitable, for example in public relations, as the person may have a need to systematically work through tasks with a strong preference for finishing off work. In a public relations role, tasks are generally fluid and one is expected to deal with crises as and when they arise, tending to jump from one situation to the next, sometimes without really completing everything in a systematic manner. The challenge is that very little research has explored this non-linear relationship between personality as a predictor of future performance (Arthur et al., 2001). Most of the research in this area explored a linear relationship between personality and some criterion, e.g. job performance. Even with a magnitude of these studies, the relationship between personality and performance is generally found to be weak with validities ranging from 0.09 to 0.13 (Morgeson et al., 2007).

2.4.2 Multidimensionality of personality

Personality is multidimensional and complex. Some of the research conducted in this area treats personality factors as separate and independent (Arthur et al., 2001). Although all five factors are important, it is even more important to understand the interrelatedness of these factors. Some researchers have called for the use of secondary factor loadings in understanding these

interactions (Goldberg, 1993). This is where the richness in information is derived, where one looks beyond one factor, e.g. extroversion, but considers how it interacts with the other factors. For example, you could have two extroverts, one could be high on agreeableness and the other one low on the same factor. This interaction will render important information about what each person's behaviour is likely to be, considering how all the factors interact (Arthur et al., 2001). Although some complex personality models are being developed, e.g. AB5C (Hofstee, de Raad & Goldberg, 1992), some of these models have more theoretical value than practical value, hence they are attractive to academics (Arthur et al., 2001). The AB5C model was developed with the aim of being a virtually exhaustive coverage of traits for both practical and theoretical usage (De Raad & Hendricks, 1997). Although this is seen as a simpler structure of personality, it has disadvantages in that its precision is low, which in turn affects its predictive power (Arthur et al., 2001).

There is also a need for personality researchers to work together in defining the finer details of personality, which includes understanding the primary source traits that may yield more powerful information than global measures of personality (Cattell, 1993). In a study conducted by Mershon and Gorsuch (1988), a 16-factor measure was compared to a 6-factor global measure of personality. The results showed that the 16-factor measure accounted for two times the variance when compared to the 6-factor global measure. The conclusion? The more factors there are in predicting personality, the more accurate the prediction is likely to be. In this case the 16-factor measure was a better predictor of behaviour than 6 global factors.

The statistical procedures conducted on the factors have an impact on the results obtained (Goldberg, 1993). Orthogonal rotation is generally the preferred method. However, the requirement that these factors are orthogonal (unrelated) could be contributing to the distortion in some results and the resulting lack of agreement in terms of the number of factors that make up personality (Cattell, 1993). The solution could lie in using oblique rotational methods (Cattell, 1993; Goldberg, 1993) that allow for interrelatedness between factors.

2.4.3 The Big five exclude context of behaviour

This criticism comes mainly from social cognitive theorists (Shadel & Cervone, 1993). Traits summarise general trends in behaviour and as a result may have underlying psychological units that create that behaviour. The problem comes when one's behaviour is described based on the trait that one shows, without taking into account the context in which the behaviour is taking place. The premise is that people use cognitive processes and structures to understand themselves and the world around them. On that basis they plan how to act, how to regulate their emotions and motivation, and how to behave towards others (Shadel & Cervone, 1993). It is believed that the dynamism and complexity of human behaviour is lost when the context is excluded, as would be the case with trait theories.

2.4.4 Personality tests and distortion

Distortion in self-report tests always presents a challenge, especially in personality testing (Morgeson et al., 2007). As a result, no discussion about personality testing is complete without a discussion on faking or social desirability. Although there are various types of distortion, like central tendency responses and acquiescence, the focus of this discussion will be on faking or social desirability as the most commonly found type of distortion. The terms social desirability and faking will be used interchangeably in this study.

2.4.4.1 Defining faking

Social desirability involves the extent to which one responds in a generally acceptable or desirable way to the questions posed in a self-report personality questionnaire (OPQ Technical Manual, 2006). According to Dipboye (in Morgeson et al., 2007), faking in personality testing is described as lying, except that there are three preconditions that need to be met: the person has enough self-insight to know how to describe him/herself on the item; the person understands the question being asked and interprets it correctly; and lastly, the person purposely gives an answer that is not truthful in order to

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create a desired impression. This is particularly a problem with normative questionnaires. Hence, most of these tests have a scale that measures social desirability and other forms of distortion.

2.4.4.2   The extent of the problem

Despite the numerous articles written on the subject, both locally and internationally, there is still no consensus on the impact that faking really has on the validity of personality measures (Morgeson et al., 2007), especially in a selection context (which is the area to which this discussion will be restricted). Morgeson et al. (2007) wrote an article based on a panel discussion that was held as part of the 2004 Conference of the Society for Industrial Psychology. The topic was 'Faking in personality testing'. What is more fascinating is how the panellists were selected and who eventually ended up on that panel.

As the aim of the panel discussion was to provide a balanced view on the subject of faking, the decision was to look at past editors of journals, specifically the Journal of Personnel Psychology and the Journal of Applied Psychology (Morgeson et al., 2007). The goal was to establish a view from people who had reviewed a number of articles in the field, and who therefore had a very broad understanding of what the research is about, both published and unpublished. The other benefit of using this panel was that although some of the editors had published articles using personality measures, none of them were considered supporters or critics of personality testing, which means that they could be expected to provide a balanced and objective view (Morgeson et al., 2007).

One would expect that with a high-powered team like that there would be areas of agreement as well as disagreement. Key findings identified by Morgeson et al. (2007) based on that discussion, as well as a response on this article, are summarised in the following paragraphs.

(a) Faking cannot be avoided

All panellists agreed that faking in personality testing can be expected; however, they disagreed on the extent to which this is a problem. Campion (in Morgeson et al., 2007) found that real participants do not fake as much as would be expected. He also found that the context for testing affected the extent to which people are likely to fake.

(b) Faking can have both a negative and positive meaning

Some panellists regarded faking in a positive light as it could be seen as adaptive behaviour (Morgeson et al., 2007) and may even be required in some roles. The example used here was of Disney employees who have to 'take up' a role every day at work in order to fit in with the culture and employer's expectations. Tett and Christiansen (2007) are opposed to this idea, especially in the absence of any empirical evidence supporting this statement.

(c) Impact of the low validity of personality tests

The low validity of personality tests is generally seen as a bigger problem than that of faking (Morgeson et al., 2007). According to the authors, the solution should focus on improving the validity of the tests used, instead of worrying about catching people who are faking. This is especially a problem when it comes to predicting job performance. A study conducted by Nzama, De Beer and Visser (2008) using the Big Five to correlate personality with work performance found no correlation between the two. This is contrary to other well-cited studies in the field (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Morgeson et al., 2007).

According to Morgeson et al. (2007), most personality tests should not be used in selection, due to their low validity. These validities are said to range between 0.09 and 0.13 (Barrick & Mount, 1991). This means that personality tests can predict up to 15% of behaviour, but what about the remaining 85%? Ideally, personality tests with higher validities should be combined with cognitive tests in order to better predict performance. As there is little overlap between personality and cognitive measures, when

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both are combined, personality could provide incremental validity over and above the approximately 0.20 to 0.25 validity provided by cognitive tests (Morgeson et al., 2007).

Ones et al. (2007) support the statement that personality tests provide incremental validity even when cognitive tests are in the mix. However, they disagree with the low validity of personality tests, as in their opinion personality tests have practical value. Tett and Christiansen (2007) also disagree with Morgeson et al. (2007). They looked at the same meta-analyses that Morgeson et al. (2007) reviewed and raised a critical point. When personality tests are used for selection, the guidelines are that a job analysis must be concluded, so that only the personality traits that are inherent to the job can be evaluated. This is in line with legislation in South Africa, which stipulates that only inherent requirements for the job should be used to determine the suitability of the person for the job (Employment Equity Act, 1998; Labour Relations Act, 1995). This implies that even though an applicant completes the whole test, not all its components are used in making the selection decision. Therefore, in this context, only the validity of the traits that form part of the decision must be considered.

To further make the point, the authors evaluated a validity study that was conducted by Christiansen, Goffin, Johnston and Rothstein (1994), where the 16PF was linked to performance in upper-level supervision. The traits relevant to this study (conscientiousness and emotional stability) and identified through job analysis were isolated and their uncorrected validity was 0.23, compared to that of the entire test at 0.07. Practically speaking, the appropriate validity to consider in this case is 0.23 as this reflects the summary of the traits that are linked with the prediction of performance. Ones et al. (2007) concur with this view and argue that out of the five factors, conscientiousness is the only predictor of overall performance. When considering specific roles, different combinations of traits would be required, based on what the role specifies.

This is different from cognitive theory and testing, as cognition is a predictor of performance across the board (Cortina, Goldstein, Payne, Davison & Gilliland, 2000). The problem with the criticism levelled by Morgeson et al. (2007) is that it is based on the validity of the entire test and not only of the traits relevant to making the decision, which in the example above are higher. Hence the value of confirmatory versus exploratory research. When personality-oriented job analysis is conducted, it increases the validity even more than would a general job analysis (Tett & Christiansen, 2007). Ones et al. (2007) also found conflicting results to those of Morgeson et al. (2007). In studying meta-analyses on the Big Five personality factors they found unit-weighted composite correlations (Rs) of between 0.11 and 0.49, indicating that this is a good predictor of performance and specific facets like leadership.

According to Ones et al. (2007), faking in personality tests does not appear to affect either the construct or criterion validity of the measure. The problem is that some conclusions about faking are made based on studies that involve non-applicants and are lab-based (Morgeson et al., 2007). This means that the people who are asked to complete personality tests are not real job applicants. The challenge with this 'lab approach' is that conclusions are drawn based on a sample that is not in the same situation as job applicants. In actual job applicant research, Marshall, De Fruyt, Rolland and Badgy (2005) found that faking did not impact on validity (construct and criterion).

Faking cannot be avoided on self-report personality tests. According to Lao (2001) people can and do fake on personality measures; however, the problem is the low validity that personality tests have in predicting job performance (Morgeson et al., 2007). Research on faking has yielded different results (Morgeson et al., 2007) with some researchers saying that faking does not affect the validity of tests (Hough, Eaton, Dunnette, Kamp & McCloy, 1990). Barrick and Mount (1996) arrived at the conclusion that faking does not affect the validity of tests through controlling for impression management, while other researchers

expressed concern that faking can significantly affect hiring decisions, as the rank order of the assessed candidates could be affected by this (Christiansen et al., 1994; Rosse, Stecher, Miller & Levin, 1998).

(d) Challenge of corrections done in meta-analyses

Another concern raised by Morgeson et al. (2007) involves the validities mentioned in meta-analytic studies, especially the hallmark study conducted by Barrick and Mount (1991). These studies conduct the following corrections on the data received: **restriction of range** (when the sample has homogenous subjects, this limits the range of scores (Gregory, 1996), e.g. using scores of successful job applicants instead of scores of both successful and unsuccessful applicants), **criterion unreliability** and **predictor unreliability**. Meta-analysis on cognitive measures only correct for range restriction and criterion unreliability (Zimmerman, 2008).

According to Morgeson et al. (2007) the result of this correction is that the operational validity of these tests is over-estimated. In the study by Mount, Barrick and Stewart (1998), the correction for restriction of range and criterion unreliability led to a validity of 0.23. When predictor unreliability was added, it increased the validity to 0.26. What compounds the problem is that not all meta-analyses report data on these corrections, so it makes it difficult to know by how much the validity on personality measures is overestimated. This view is not supported by some the authors (Ones et al., 2007; Tett & Christiansen, 2007).

2.4.4.3   The role of social desirability scales in detecting faking

Most personality measures have some sort of faking or social desirability scale, even if different tests may use different terminology. Tett and Christiansen (2007) provide three reasons why these scales cannot be relied on to detect faking:

1. Only 10% of the variance in social desirability can be attributed to faking.

2. Conclusions about faking are based on studies that use non-applicants in a setting that does not resemble a selection setting, so as to study people's propensity to fake their response. As the conditions for the two situations are not matched with the low need for faking on the part of non-applicants, it does not make sense that findings in these settings can be generalised to the selection setting.

3. Social desirability has been shown to correlate with other traits of the Big Five, such as emotional stability, conscientiousness and agreeableness (Morgeson et al., 2007; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996).

There is a view that these scales do not add value as they do not use the right items to measure social desirability. Ones and Viswesvaran (1996) found that these scales correlate with the other Big Five scales, namely Emotional Stability 0.37, Conscientiousness 0.20 and Agreeableness 0.14. This means that the social desirability scale could be picking up a legitimately high trait. This view is further expanded by Champion (in Morgeson et al., 2007), who argues that social desirability scales measure positive attributes, and that some of these responses could be seen as aspirational, rather than deceitful.

As a result, high social desirability cannot be used as a de-selector as various reasons could lead to it, i.e. faking good (intention to oversell oneself); need to please especially during a selection process; genuine high self-esteem; lack of self-awareness and conventionality (OPQ32 Technical manual, 2006), 2009). It is important to understand which of these factors are reasons for high social desirability, as this can impact on how the results of personality tests are interpreted.

Lao (2001) found that controlling for social desirability in personality testing increased the predictive validity of conscientiousness and job performance, suggesting that the social desirability scales do have value. She also found that there was a correlation between intelligence and ability to fake, which supports Dipboye's view (in Morgeson et al., 2007) about the conditions that need to be present for faking to take place. Subjects who scored higher on the

trait of self-deception were faster at making the judgement than those who scored lower (Holgraves, 2004).

2.4.4.4   Mitigating social desirability

According to the OPQ Technical Manual (2006), social desirability can be reduced through spending time when introducing the questionnaire and explaining how the results will be used, as well as encouraging test takers not to think too long about any of the questions but to provide the first response that comes to mind. Feedback on the results can serve as a valuable way of verifying the information provided, by probing relevant areas and asking for examples to substantiate the results. In some instances, ipsative versions of the same test are used where there is a possibility that test takers could respond to the normative version in a socially desirable way.

The decrease in faking and improved validity of personality tests when forced choice items (ipsative tests) are used is supported by various studies (Christiansen, Burns & Montgomery, 2005; Jackson, Wroblewski & Ashton, 2000). The advantage of ipsative tests is that the test takers are forced to choose one statement that is most like and one that is least like them (OPQ Technical Manual, 2006). Forced-choice personality tests and giving test takers a chance to elaborate on the items (via feedback) are seen as some of the effective ways of minimising faking (Morgeson et al., 2007).

For Ones et al. (2007), forced-choice personality tests are not a solution as they have their own psychometric problems such as reliability estimation; threat to construct validity; artificial multicollinearity; difficulty in comparing people normatively as they yield ipsative scores; and difficulty in factor analysis. According to these authors, forced-choice tests will not be the answer unless these problems are resolved. Bowen, Martin and Hunt (2002) researched faking by administering both normative and ipsative forms of a personality test and found that although the ipsative test was more effective in guarding against faking, it did not eliminate it.

Whatever the debate, it seems that for as long as we have self-report measures of personality, the debate on faking will continue. The study of social desirability is more complex than it seems (Kuncel & Tellegen, 2009), hence the debate has prevailed to date. According to Mueller-Hanson (2002), the conflicting findings are a result of limited agreement on how faking is defined. Paper-pencil tests use lie scales that may not measure faking adequately and the psychological process that underlies faking is not clear. It is an important debate to follow so as to ensure that users of tests know what the risks of using any of the personality tests would be and how best to mitigate these, based on the reason for testing. The faking debate is relevant in this thesis as the personality test used has a social desirability scale. Thus all the subjects' social desirability scores on this scale will be reported so as to test what impact their scores may or may not have on the validity of their personality tests.

2.4.4.5   *Other criticism*

Another general point of criticism against trait theory is that personality is created in the mind of the observer/researcher, making traits fictions or labels used to describe observed behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 1999). The trait theory is found not to explain some variance in human behaviour (Paunonen & Jackson, 2000). This theory has also been criticised for being influenced by culture (whether collectivistic or individualistic), having broad items/questions with no context, and leading to nomothetic rather than idiographic descriptions that bring about a loss of rich information (Church, 2001; Schmidt, Kihm & Robie, 2000).

2.5   PERSONALITY RESEARCH AND TESTING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Personality developments internationally have benefited the understanding and measurement of personality in South Africa (SA). SA's adoption of common tools used for selection is important because we live in a global village and organisations need to stay competitive (Bartman, 2004). However, as most of the instruments used are developed internationally, they present

specific challenges locally due to language and cultural differences (Bedell, Van Eeden & Van Staden, 2001; Prinsloo & Ebersöhn, 2002). Legislation in SA dictates how tests should be used in order to minimise discrimination. The Employment Equity Act (1998) states that only tests that are valid, reliable and fair may be used for assessment. This is in line with the ethical and professional requirements of the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) on the use of tests in the country. One of the roles of the HPCSA is to manage and regulate the use of psychological testing in SA (HPCSA, 2007).

Paterson and Uys (2005) investigated the extent and purpose of psychological usage in the context of the changing world of work in SA. They found that among the organisations included in the study (which spanned different sectors), there were many that used tests that were not registered with the HPCSA. Various reasons were advanced for this finding, including ease of accessibility; practitioner ignorance; cost saving (as these tests were usually administered by unqualified people); organisations not taking the time to find out whether the instruments are valid; and good marketing on the part of test developers. The latter talk about value added to business, which is what most organisations look for. It was also discovered that although there are many locally developed tests in SA, many organisations still use internationally developed tests. This is contrary to the findings of Van Der Merwe (2002), who sampled various organisations based in the Western Cape with the aim of establishing the practice of psychometric testing. In this study the author concluded that most of these organisations were using tests that are specific to and validated for South Africa, with well-trained test administrators who used registered tests.

Cultural implications are a very real challenge in SA due to language, race, gender, educational background and socio-economic differences (Bedell et al., 2001). Language is one of the important considerations and the most commonly cited hindrance to test administration (Paterson & Uys, 2005). The reason for this is that tests are generally developed in English, which has an impact on the items chosen and how well these are understood by the test

taker. This fact poses a challenge because the majority of the South African population does not have English as their first language. The poor education system does not currently address this challenge, as literacy and numeracy levels remain low. According to van de Vijver and Rothman (2004), personality testing requires a high proficiency in language. Hence it is important for test developers to ensure that the same construct is measured across different groups when using a different language (Paterson & Uys, 2005). Culture-specific norms can also be developed to eliminate discrimination (van de Vijver & Rothman, 2004). More research is required to address cross-cultural adaptability (Paterson & Uys, 2005).

There is no agreement among practitioners about whether existing tests should be adapted to take into account cultural considerations (Foxcroft, 1997; Shuttleworth-Jordan, 1996) or whether new tests should be developed based on the challenges facing SA (Paterson & Uys, 2005). Exciting developments are taking place locally regarding the development of new tests. A SAPI project was initiated to design an indigenous personality test for South Africa (Meiring, 2010). Preliminary findings indicate nine facets that make up personality in the SA context; this is four more factors than generally used in personality testing. However, only four of the Big Five have been found in this preliminary research. Agreeableness is the only Big Five factor that is not coming out strongly as a facet, but is seen as being incorporated into a broader feature called soft-heartedness (Meiring, 2010). It is early days but the work that has been done already looks promising and exciting for personality testing for SA.

The last part of this chapter with summarise key personality research that is relevant to the aims of this study.

2.6 RELEVANT PERSONALITY RESEARCH

A lot of research has been conducted on personality as one of the variables that influences a number of organisational outcomes, this section will focus on personality research that is linked to the aims of this study. There are three

meta analysis that have been conducted which researched the relationship between personality and turnover (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 2002; Zimmerman, 2010). In addition to these studies, there are a number of SA studies that have included dispositional factors in understanding turnover (Boschoff, van Wyk, Hoole, & Owen, 2002; Jacobs, 2005; Sempane, Riger & Roodt, 2002; Stanz & Greyling, 2010; Strydom & Roodt, 2006).

2.6.1 Personality and job satisfaction

Strydom and Roodt (2006) found that personality and not biographical variables are predictors of job satisfaction. In particular it was found that people who were high on extraversion and neuroticism were less likey to report being satified with their jobs. The link between neuroticism and job satisfaction supported findings by Rothman and Coetzer (2002), however these researchers also reported a positive relationship between extraversion, conscientiousenss and agreeableness with job statisfaction. This is contrary to prior research that found that extraversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability were not predictors of job satisfaction (Miller, Griffin, Hart & Hart; 1999).

2.6.2 Personality and turnover

The three meta analysis on personality and turnover yielded different results. Barrick and Mount (1991) found a weak relationship between personality and turnover. However, according to Zimmerman (2008), there were conceptualisation challenges in their approach as they used turnover and tenure in their meta analaysis and not only turnover, which could have affected the results. The second meta-analsyes was conducted by Salgado (2002), who found a stronger relationship between personality and turnover. In the third meta-analysis, personality traits were found to have an impact on both turnover intentions and behaviour (Zimmerman, 2008). In this study, emotional stability, was the best predictor (negative) of intention to quit; whilst agreeableness and conscientiousness predicted actual turnover decisions. These were direct effects of personality on turnover, with no mediating

variables. The author also found that low emotional stability may lead to unplanned quitting, even if this is not related to job satisfaction or performance. Unplanned quitting may also be done by people who are low on agreeableness or high on openness to experience. In a local study, biographical variables did not correlate with intention to quit (Boschoff et al., 2002).

2.6.3 Personality, job satisfaction and organisational climate

Strydom and Roodt (2006) conducted a study on nurses turnover in a hospital group. Their research used biographical factors as first level predictors; personality, sense of coherence and self-efficacy were postulated a mediators Significant predictors of climate were reported as extrinsic satisfaction, consientiousenss and self efficacy. They found that people who scored high on these dimensions were likely to have a positive perception of culture than those who scored low. These findings were not supported by Stanz and Greyling (2010), who also investigated the turnover of nurses in a hospital group. The research found that none of the personal or individual factors were determinants of turnover behaviour. The only variable that influenced turnover behaviour with this group was if the respondent was the "main wage earner" (Stanz & Greling, 2010 p36).

The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational culture was mediated by the type of hospital, qualifications and type of intensive care unit the nurses were based in. Job satisfaction and personality explained a significant amount of variance in the way organisational culture was perceived (Stanz & Greyling, 2010). Castro and Martins (2010) also reported a strong relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction ($r = 0.813$)

There were also other variables that were found to be important in understanding organisational climate, these are marital status, years service and occupational category (Sempane et al., 2002). Respondents who experienced culture more positively in this study were married, in

administartive roles (as opposed to care services and social work) and had long service .

2.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, personality was introduced as an independent variable used in this research. While some researchers believe that personality tests should not be used for personnel selection (Morgeson et al., 2007), others believe these tests still have value in the selection process (Tett & Christiansen, 2007). Ones et al. (2007) are some of those who are especially convinced of the incremental validity of such tests and therefore believe their use should continue. Research on personality and employee turnover is limited and even so has yielded conflicting results. Developments in SA pertaining to personality research are encouraging (SAPI project), depsite this still being early days.

CHAPTER 3
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise organisational climate, which is the second independent variable in this study. The discussion on organisational climate will focus on key issues in the field, including distinguishing organisational culture from climate, the way in which climate is constituted, the level of measurement used and the dimensions of organisational climate. An organisational climate model is proposed based on the integration of current research.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The interest in understanding organisational climate dates back to the 1930s when Lewin (1938) studied human behaviour and how it was impacted by general environmental factors. This was followed by an empirical study of climate, which he called 'atmosphere', where the authors investigated the behavioural effects of three different leader-induced atmospheres. The three leadership styles were authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire (Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1939). Although this work was of a ground-breaking nature at the time, leadership is only one component of variables that could be used to understand organisational climate. Lewin's concept of atmosphere contributed significantly to understanding the relationship between the person and the environment (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) came up with their 'role set theory', which saw organisations as being made up of overlapping and inter-locking roles. These role sets determine the behaviour of the individuals who occupy the roles and in turn influence the behaviour of other members of the organisation who interact with these roles. Although this theory provided an alternative to understanding organisational climate, it had various limitations. For instance, it did not recognise that organisations are not always rational and when it comes to climate a lot happens in the 'subconscious' of the organisation that cannot be verbalised, but it still influences people's

behaviour. This theory put forward by Khan et al. (1964) also sees role sets as reasonably stable over time, whereas climate has cyclical changes depending on what changes occur across the various dimensions (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Litwin and Stringer (1968) developed a model for understanding organisational climate. They applied a theory of motivation to behaviour in organisations. In doing so, they used climate as a bridge for understanding individual motivation as influenced by organisational factors. This was a significant contribution in the field of organisational theory, as up until that time organisational models did not use concepts of subjective environment or climate.

Despite the progress made in the field, Jones and James (1974) expressed concerns about how organisational climate was conceptualised and operationalised. According to them, there are three different ways of conceptualising organisational climate:

- Multiple measurement-organisational attribute approach
- Perceptual measurement-organisational attribute approach
- Perceptual measurement-individual attribute approach

Jones and James (1974) recommended that organisational climate is linked to the first approach, which is a multiple measure of organisational attributes. When the measurement focuses on perception, this should be called 'psychological climate' (Jones & James, 1974). The approach adopted in this research will be identified after the discussion on how climates form, as it will make better sense at that point.

The debate about the conceptualisation of organisational climate still persists (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992), with the main problems revolving around the following topics:

- Definition of climate and how it differs from culture (Ashforth, 1985; Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002; Thomas & Fredericks, 1992; Weeks, 2008), if at all.

- The level at which measurement should be taking place (is climate an individual or organisational variable?) (Drexler, 1977; Jones & James, 1974).

- How to link data based on individual perceptions to objective organisational attributes (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

- Understanding how climates form (Ashforth, 1985; Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

- Whether organisations have one homogenous climate or variable climates (Drexler, 1977; Joyce & Slocum, 1982; Joyce & Slocum, 1984).

These are some of the key issues that emerge in all organisational climate research, and they will be discussed in detail in this chapter.

3.2   DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CULTURE AND CLIMATE

Most organisations use organisational culture and climate interchangeably and unfortunately often confuse the terms (Weeks, 2008). Theoretically the terms have different meanings (Ashforth, 1985; Weeks, 2008) as they originate from two different disciplines. Culture originates from anthropology and climate from social psychology, which also explains why the unit of analysis is different (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). It is not difficult to understand why the terms are often confused, as they do indeed overlap. If you define culture as shared assumptions and climate as shared meaning (Ashforth, 1985), the overlap becomes obvious. Different authors have come up with different definitions of organisational culture (Ashforth, 1985; Martins, 1989) and climate (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Schneider, 1975; Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). According to Schneider (2000) the difference lies in the fact that organisational climate represents patterns of behaviour (based on events and experiences), whereas organisational culture is used to explain why

shared assumptions exist. It is important to clarify these definitions before exploring the differences and similarities of these concepts.

Although there are many definitions of culture and climate, there are no universally accepted definitions (Ashforth, 1985; Castro & Martins, 2010). In the current research organisational culture is defined as an integrated pattern of human behaviour that is unique to the organisation and created through the organisation's undergoing a survival process and integration with the environment (Martins, 1989). This leads to the creation of assumptions, symbols, language and behaviour that reflect the company's norms and values (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). Culture is learned, shared and transmitted (Ashforth, 1985). Simply put, culture could be defined as the way a group chooses to behave (Tosti, 2007). Organisational culture is said to be made up of shared assumptions (Ashforth, 1985) that guide people's behaviour.

In the present study, organisational climate is defined as relatively enduring characteristics of an organisation, including environmental and interpersonal factors (Litwin & Stringer, 1968) that distinguish it from other organisations. These include shared and collective perceptions, direct or indirect (Litwin & Stringer, 1968), on various dimensions (e.g. leadership, autonomy, trust) of people in a workplace. It is the result of interaction among members, which serves as the basis for interpreting situations and reflects prevalent norms, values and attitudes in the organisation that help to shape behaviour (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

Some researchers prefer to use the term psychological climate instead of organisational climate to refer to employees' perceptions of their experiences at work (English, Morrison & Chalon, 2010). James and Jones (1974) mentioned that the term psychological climate should be used when the measurement only focuses on individual perceptions and not on organisational attributes. In this case, the measurement will focus on organisational attributes as reflected by individual perceptions; hence the term organisational climate is used.

This definition of organisational climate was chosen over other definitions of climate because it is a more holistic definition of climate and captures the role that culture plays in shaping the climate in the organisation. Other definitions of climate tend to be narrower. This requires one to compile a definition taking the best descriptors of climate other researchers have used (as Thomas and Fredericks (1992) did), to provide a holistic view. With the definitions resolved, it is important to highlight the dimensions in respect of which the concepts of organisational culture and climate differ, as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Key differences between culture and climate

Culture	Climate
• Highly enduring characteristics of an organisation.	• Relatively enduring characteristics of an organisation.
• Evolves slowly and is deeply rooted.	• Evolves more rapidly and tends to be shallow.
• Operates at the level of attitudes, values and basic assumptions.	• Operates at the level of attitudes and values.
• Creates a context in which climate can be perceived.	• Incorporates behaviours that operate at the levels of values and the creation of culture.
• Culture is embedded in the organisation and not in individuals.	• Response by a group of employees, who operate within the same culture.
• Represents the employees' collective unconsciousness.	• Measured at an individual level based on the person's perceptions.
• More stable and does not necessarily respond to short-term inputs.	• Tends to be stable but is influenced by short-term fluctuations.
	• Seen as an element of culture existing at the interface between situational contingencies (organisational conditions, internal and external demands) and interacting members.

Source: Thomas & Fredericks (1992).

The figure below (Figure 3.1) depicts the relationship between organisational culture, climate and employee behaviour as conceptualised by the author. The interplay between the three levels is important to note and will be discussed in the next section. It is a reciprocal relationship, with measurement and behaviour taking place at individual level.

Figure 3.1. The relationship between culture, organisational climate and behaviour

Organisation

Culture
Values
Language
Symbols
History

* Understanding organisational variables

Climate
Shared & collective perceptions

Behaviour

* Measurement at Individual level

Relationship between culture and climate.

Figure 3.1: Interaction of culture and climate and how they influence behaviour.

Source: Adapted from "The cultural approach to the formation of organizational climate" by T.E. Thomas and V.J. Fredericks, 1992, *Human Relations,* 45(1), 19-47.

In this research, although the difference between organisational culture and climate is acknowledged, the premise is that organisational culture creates a context in which organisational climate develops. Hence, one cannot understand organisational climate in isolation from the culture of the organisation. The organisation's culture can have an impact on its climate, either positively or negatively (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992; Weeks, 2008). Especially when the culture is strong, the influence on climate tends to be

enhanced (Ashforth, 1985). The perceptions of employees could also affect how they behave in the organisation and contribute to interplay between these concepts.

3.3   HOW DO ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATES FORM?

Schneider and Reichers (1983) were instrumental in consolidating a view about the causes of climate formation in organisations. Authors like Ashforth (1985) and Thomas and Fredericks (1992) have built on this initial work. However, Thomas and Fredericks (1992) indicate that despite the initial work done by Schneider and Reichers (1983), there still lacks a comprehensive explanation on how these climates develop. Four perspectives are used to describe the etiology of organisational climates. Each of these perspectives will be discussed and the perspective that best suits the present research project will be identified and motivated.

3.3.1   Structuralist perspective

In this perspective, climate is viewed as an organisational attribute that is independent of the perception of individuals (Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). This view can be associated with the perceptual measurement-organisational attribute approach (Jones & James, 1974).

According to the structuralist perspective, the organisation's climate is formed based on how the organisation is structured, as this influences employees' responses to and perceptions of the organisation's structure. The extent to which the organisation is centralised vs. decentralised and formal vs. informal will determine how the employees respond to the organisation (Payne & Pugh, 1976). According to Robins (1990) and Bergh and Theron (1999), organisations consider various factors before they decide on the structure that will be best suited for them. These factors are: the degree of differentiation that exists in the organisation (complexity); the degree to which jobs are standardised in the organisation (formalisation); and the degree to which decision making is centralised into a single unit (centralisation). Any

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combination of these variables could lead to a certain type of climate. Organisations that are complex, formal and centralised tend to have a climate where employee's behaviour is regulated with little discretion and decision making is centralised to a unit, e.g. head office. This could be used to describe many large corporations, compared to an organisation that is less complex, informal and decentralised. In this type of organisation there is more room for innovation as behaviour is not always regulated and decisions can be taken by employees at different levels in the organisation. Each of these structures have its advantages and disadvantages (Robins, 1990).

Thomas and Fredericks (1992) identified several problems with this perspective. The two main problems are that if structure is the only determinant of climate, an organisation should have the same climate score across departments/divisions, seeing that the same structure generally permeates through the organisation. This wrongfully implies that there cannot be a variation of scores across departments and divisions, and contradicts research that identified different climates across departments in the same organisation (Drexler, 1977; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). The second problem is that the approach undermines the role that the individual and teams play in interacting with these structural variables and in influencing the perceptions formed (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

3.3.2   Perceptual perspective

This approach sees the development of climate as being located in the individual. Using James and Jones's (1974) classification, this will correspond to the perceptual measurement-individual approach. In this case, employees are seen as interpreting and responding to organisational attributes in a way that is psychologically meaningful to them (Ashforth, 1985; Moran & Vokwein, 1992). The perceptual perspective is further divided into two approaches that could be used to explain the development of climates, namely selection-attraction-attrition (SAA) and collective climates. Both approaches will be briefly described below.

3.3.2.1   Selection-attraction-attrition (SAA)

Organisations use their own specific selection models. According to the SAA approach, there is an interplay between the organisation and the candidate, which leads to attraction (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). At this point the candidate joins the organisation and becomes an employee. A process of socialisation takes place, where the employee is taught the organisation's attitudes, values, norms and expected behaviours that will make him/her a member of the organisation (Bergh & Theron, 1999). When the process is successful, the employee stays and continues to be part of the organisation. However, some employees leave the organisation for various reasons, such as a non-alignment of values, goals, behaviours, etc. The attrition of these employees ensures that the organisation is left with a homogenous group of employees (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

3.3.2.2   Collective climates

This perspective is based on work done by Joyce and Slocum (1984). They refer to it as the composition theory of collective climates. Their premise is that an organisation can have more than one climate, based on how the individuals agree on their perception of the climate. In their research they studied climates in one organisation that has three different operational plants. The climates across the plants were different, as could be expected. However, the climates within the plants were also different, with one of the plants having eight different collective climates. These findings were consistent with those reported by other researchers (Drexler, 1977; Jones & James, 1977; Schneider & Snyder, 1975). Litwin and Stringer (1968) also came across this concept in the various organisations they used in their research in this field. According to Joyce and Slocum (1984), such collective climates may form to allow for different organisational outcomes to be achieved.

The main problem with this approach is that the individual is regarded as the source of the climate and there is not sufficient focus on the interaction between employees and the influence that the organisation itself has on the perception (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

A third perspective – the interactionist perspective – is discussed in greater detail below, as it in some way incorporates the interaction of the individual and the organisation.

3.3.3 Interactionist perspective

Climate is the result of individual perceptions of the organisational characteristics, based on shared agreement (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). Jones and James (1974) would refer to this approach as the perceptual measurement organisational attribute approach. In fact, there are various players according to this perspective: the individual who perceives (interprets and creates meaning); colleagues who share the perception (extend meaning creation); and organisational conditions that are perceived. All these result in organisational climate. This is a dynamic process of meaning creation (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). There are two ways of explaining this perspective.

3.3.3.1 Symbolic interactionism

This is based on phenomenology and in particular the work of Edmund Husserl, who was a philosopher. The point of departure being intersubjectivity, which explains how individuals' perspectives, values and interpretations are linked to the organisation. An employee becomes aware of other people's values and beliefs; these are incorporated into those of the employee (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). This could also explain how collective climates develop.

3.3.3.2 Interactive approach

This model on the formation of climate in an organisation was proposed by Schneider and Reichers (1983), based on the work of philosopher George Herbert Mead. Mead's theory of social interaction (Ashforth, 1985; Ritzer, 1988; Schneider & Reichers, 1983) becomes relevant as it sees people as having the capacity to think. What is more important is the process of social interaction that takes place between people, which refines this thinking. In turn, one's thinking shapes the interaction, leading to a dynamic process (Ritzer, 1988). Mead's work was extended by Blumer who perceived meaning as being created from interacting with people (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). In this case, meaning does not reside with the organisation or the individual, but it resides in the interaction among employees.

Socialisation is considered one of the forms of this interaction (Ritzer, 1988) and it has relevance in the work place when new employees are socialised into the organisation. In this instance, meaning is not just *given* to new recruits but it *evolves* as a result of social interaction (Ritzer, 1988) with old and new employees interacting and collectively influencing the process of meaning creation. As new employees are unfamiliar with how the organisation operates and why (Ashfoth, 1985; Bergh & Theron, 1999), this type of interaction is important in clarifying such questions and helping them understand their new roles. This process of socialisation means that the newcomers also give input into the process of making sense of the situation. They influence the organisation at some level, although their level of influence is probably not high (Ashforth, 1985). This is not a one-way street where the new employee accepts the status quo without influencing it somehow.

The process of socialisation continues until the new employee has accepted the organisation and how it operates (Ashforth, 1985). This could lead to some alterations at individual, team and organisational level. It is however easier for people in leadership positions to alter aspects of the organisation's climate as they have a greater influence than those not in leadership. The higher up the level of leadership, the more possible it is to make these

changes, as they tend to influence the climate through the policies and conditions they set (Franklin, 1975). In this sense, climate belongs to both the individual employees in the organisation as well as to the organisation itself, based on the dynamic process described above (Ashforth, 1985).

Ashforth's (1985) expansion on Schneider and Reicher's (1983) original work is important for understanding climate in this research study. He identified five areas that he discussed in detail to expand the original model. The areas of expansion are the following:

- The role of the work group in providing information and creating a normative structure
- The role of affect in pointing out that newcomers may not have as big an impact on the organisation
- The role of culture and its influence on climate perceptions
- The role of symbolic management, suggesting that not all social interaction is spontaneous in organisations and that leaders could direct some of this to their benefit
- The role of physical settings in the organisation in contributing to the climate, based on the type of interaction that takes place

Although all these areas are relevant, the author will expand on the role of the work group. The influence of culture on climate has already been discussed, whereas symbolic management and the role of the physical setting are self-explanatory in this paragraph.

According to Ashforth (1985) the work group provides social influence to employees pertaining to information and norms. Employees have a need to know what role is fulfilled by these work groups. Once they have the knowledge they tend to evaluate their own abilities and beliefs against those of their peers who are similar to them. This is based on Festinger's social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). The process does not stop with the evaluation. In fact, using the equity theory (Bergh & Theron, 1999), employees will compare themselves with this referent group using different factors such

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as salary, benefits, conditions of service, flexibility, etc. Equity is perceived to exist if the employees' inputs towards outcomes are similar to those of the employees in the referent group. Individuals interact more with those in their work group not just because of proximity, but also because they act as a credible referent group, based on perceived similarities (Ashforth, 1985). This implies that climate perceptions are likely to be similar between these employees, especially if they are valued and accessible. Hence greater conformity can be expected in their perceptions. The same work groups that provide information to members and create a platform for social interaction validate the perceptions of its members. Eventually, norms and expectations evolve, which become resistant to change (Ashforth, 1985).

Schneider and Snyder (1975) found that although people can share a common perception of climate, their levels of satisfaction can differ. Their agreement on what they see is not always a true reflection of what they feel.

Despite the interactive model acknowledging the dynamism in the process of climate formation, it still does not explain the way in which culture shapes the interaction among employees. This leads us to the fourth perspective.

3.3.4 Cultural perspective

This perspective is linked to the interpretive paradigm (Lincohn & Guba, 1985). It takes a sociological instead of a psychological view by focusing on how groups develop common values, history and purpose, instead of looking at the individual. It focuses on patterns of creating meaning through the values and history that are shared by the group. It investigates how these groups interpret, construct and negotiate reality through the creation of an organisational culture (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

The cultural perspective is similar to the interactionist view; however it looks at interaction at group level instead of individual or team levels. Culture exists in the interaction of people in the workplace, as they collectively create meaning and express their shared values, history and acceptable ways of behaving. It

is in this social context (culture) that individuals interact and on the basis of this interaction that they form and share perceptions. The social context also takes into account leadership, technology and history, which all in turn influence the climate in the organisation and outcomes such as commitment (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

The above leads to organisational conditions such as context, structure, processes and environmental impact being presented to employees for them to share their perceptions on (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992). Four key factors will influence these perceptions: the employee's personality, his/her cognition, interaction with other employees and the organisation's culture. In this relationship, climate shapes interaction within the organisation, while the interaction has the potential of shaping both the climate and the culture in the organisation (Thomas & Fredericks, 1992).

3.3.5   Cultural-Interactionist perspective

The author is proposing an alternative perspective that is based on integrating the interactionist and cultural perspectives mentioned above. This perspective is proposed based on the following principles:

- It merges sociology (culture) and psychology (climate and individual behaviour).
- Culture in the organisation creates a context for the development of climate, based on individual perceptions. Culture is seen as the employees' expectations on the organisation and climate is the extent to which these expectations are met (Hutchenson, 1996).
- Perceptual measurement – multiple levels – organisational attribute, which is an expansion of the conceptual framework by James and Jones (1974).
- Measurement takes place at an individual level by capturing the perceptions of that individual, which could be equated to psychological climate (Verwey, 1990).

- These perceptions are a function of interaction with other individuals, teams and work groups.

- The work group plays an important role in norm formation (Ashforth, 1985) and also serves as a referent group (Bergh & Theron, 1999) to the individual.

- The level of analysis is not confined to one level, but reflects all levels of interaction, e.g. individual, team/work groups, leadership and group.

- Elements measured are still a reflection of organisational attributes, as the organisation creates a unique context for this shared meaning to develop.

- It is possible to find different 'collective climates' (Joyce & Slocum 1984), as these are influenced by the interaction of the different variables within a business unit or organisation.

- Figure 3.2 depicts the proposed approach towards the development of organisational climates. Interaction between culture and climate results in different departments having different climates in the same organisation. An important role is played by the work group and results in a difference in how climate is experienced at an individual level.

Figure 3.2. Perceptual measurement-multiple levels- organisational attribute

Organisation

Culture
Values
Language
Symbols
History

* **Understanding organisational variables**

Climate

Shared & collective perceptions

Level of analysis

Departments

Organisation

Team/work group

Individual

Collective climates

* **Influenced by work group shared perceptions**

* **Measurement at Individual level**
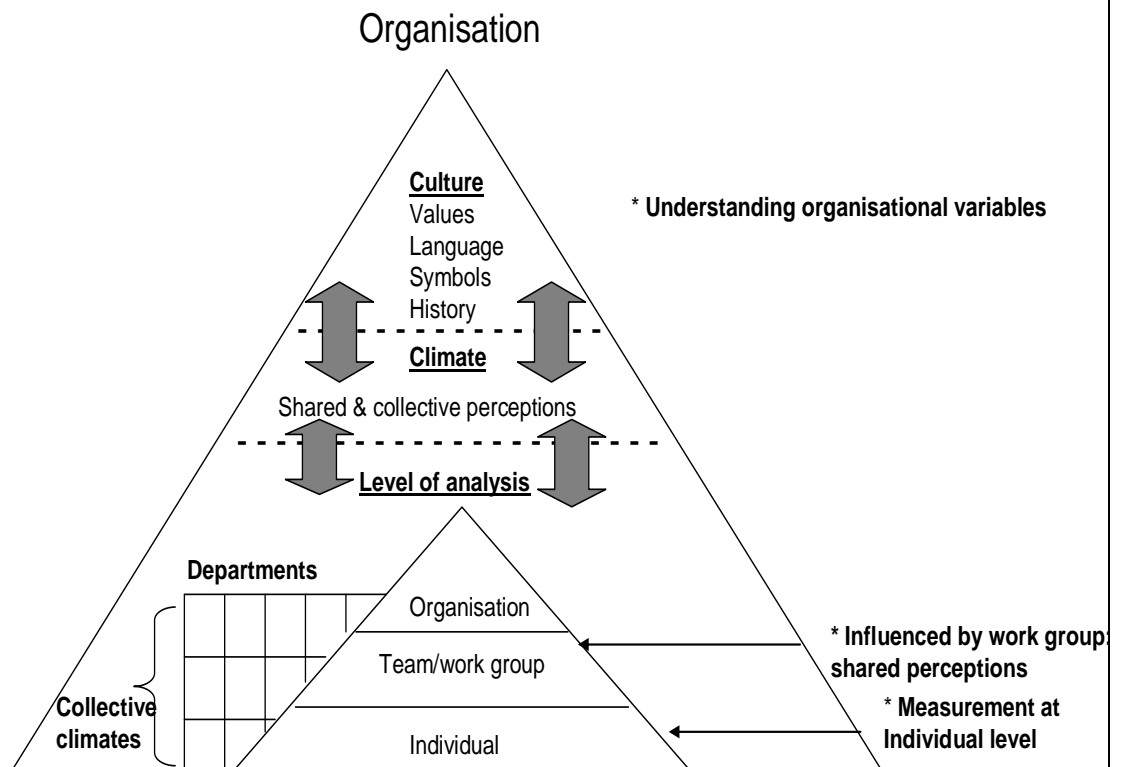
Figure 3.2. Proposed organisational climate model. Adapted from "The cultural approach to the formation of organizational climate" by T.E. Thomas and V.J. fredericks. 1992**.** *Human Relations,* 45 (1). 19-47; "Collective climate: agreement as a basis for defining aggregate climates in organizations" by W. F. Joyce and J. Slochum. 1984. *Academy Management Journal,* 27 (4), 721-742.

The perspectives above have served to clarify how organisational climates are formed. A fifth perspective involving a conceptual framework was subsequently proposed by the author. This conceptual framework depicts the relationship between culture and climate, whilst indicating how individual perceptions are influenced by what happens in the work group and organisation. This leads to the development of collective climates in departments, which form the basis of the culture of the organisation. Hence it is a dynamic process that is non-linear.

3.4 LEVEL OF MEASUREMENT

There are three levels to consider when measuring organisational climate, namely the individual, interpersonal and organisational levels (Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002; English et al., 2010). People's frame of reference will influence their perceptions of the climate (Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002). Both the organisational and interpersonal levels have specific attributes that they are linked to and therefore they measure different aspects of the organisation's climate.

Various authors have commented on the appropriate levels of measurement when it comes to organisational climate (Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002; Drexler, 1977; English et al., 2010). This links to the debate on whether climate is an organisational variable (Drexler, 1977), a team variable or an individual variable (Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002; English et al., 2010). Drexler (1977), in a multi-organisation study of climate, found that although the questions are responded to by individuals, the majority of the variance (42.2%) in climate was accounted for by organisations. He also found that there were differences in climate within organisations, across different departments. The variance in this instance ranged between 7.8% and 13.7%, leading to the conclusion that climate's largest variance is attributable to the organisation. Moreover, although there may be different climates within the same organisation across different departments (Joyce & Slocum, 1982), this accounts for lower variance. Where different climates exist within an organisation, this could be the result of management in those units and how they manage these climates (Drexler, 1977).

Although organisational climate is an organisational variable (Drexler, 1977), it is measured at an individual level, whilst acknowledging that climate perceptions are influenced by interaction with other employees. Over and above this, once a climate survey is conducted, the resulting climate reports are usually aggregated at different levels (Schneider, 1975) – i.e. teams, leadership, departments, functional area and the organisation as a whole. The level of detail at which the results are aggregated will be determined by

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whether there are questions in the survey relating specifically to that area. An important concept in organisations at the moment is employee engagement (Rothmann & Rothmann, 2010). If the organisation's climate survey included questions that measure employee engagement, the organisation can get a score that indicates how engaged its employees are. This analysis can be made at organisational level, or even broken down to the departmental level, as these scores could yield different results.

With the question of level of measurement clarified, the next section will focus on dimensions that are generally measured in most organisational climate surveys.

3.5   ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE DIMENSIONS

There are various approaches to measuring organisational climate, with each approach having its own set of dimensions to be measured (Campbell & Pritchard, 1969; Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Thomas & Fredericks, 1992; Prakasam, 1986). Hence, the actual attributes measured sometimes differ from organisation to organisation (Ashforth, 1985; Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002; English et al., 2010). Although there are common themes, there are no universally accepted dimensions in terms of climate (Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999).

As early as 1968, Litwin and Stringer proposed nine dimensions based on research literature that can be used to understand organisational climate. The word 'dimension' is used in this context as a way of conceptualising something that represents that entire aspect. The nine dimensions and their brief descriptions are as follows:

1. **Structure** – the feeling workers have about the constraints in the group: the number of rules, regulations and procedures in the workplace; an emphasis on 'red tape' and prescribed channels of communication vs. a loose and informal atmosphere.

2. **Responsibility** – the feeling of being your own boss, not having to double check all your decisions; when you have a job to do, knowing that it is your job.

3. **Risk** – the sense of riskiness and challenge in the job and in the organisation: is there an emphasis on taking calculated risks, or is playing it safe the best way to operate?

4. **Warmth** – the feeling of general good fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; an emphasis on being well-liked; the prevalence of friendly and informal social groups.

5. **Support** – the perceived helpfulness of the managers and other employees in the group; emphasis on mutual support from above and below.

6. **Reward** – the feeling of being rewarded for a job well done; emphasising positive rewards rather than punishment; the perceived fairness of the remuneration and promotion policies.

7. **Standards –** the perceived importance of implicit and explicit goals and performance standards; an emphasis on doing a good job; the challenge represented in personal and group goals.

8. **Conflict –** the feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; an emphasis on getting problems out in the open, rather than smoothing them over or ignoring them.

9. **Identity –** the feeling that you belong to a Company and you are a valuable member of a working team; the importance attached to this kind of spirit.

In 1979 Jones and James identified six broad dimensions that could be used to measure climate: leadership facilitation and support; workgroup cooperation, friendliness and warmth; conflict and ambiguity; professional and organisational esprit; job challenge, importance and variety; mutual trust.

The two examples of dimensions above (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Jones & James, 1979) illustrate the point that, although there are differences in the way different authors compile these dimensions, there are some areas that overlap, like warmth, conflict and trust.

The dimensions identified by Litwin and Stringer (1968) played an important role in shaping developments in this area. The nine dimensions have been used as a basis for understanding organisational climate in various studies (Day, 1991; Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002). Although Litwin and Stringer (1968) emphasised the important role that leadership plays in influencing the climate in an organisation (a whole chapter in their book looks at leadership style and climate), they do not have a specific dimension for measuring leadership. Out of 48 questions in Form B of their Climate questionnaire, 10 deal with management. The questions are written in a way that could be interpreted as referring to either one's immediate manager or broader management in the organisation. It is a known fact that there are differences in the influence of one's direct line manager compared to management in the organisation.

Developments in the field of organisational psychology over the past decades should influence the way organisational climate is measured. The past decades have seen an increase in focus on employee development, with organisations focusing on managing employee performance so as to remain competitive in the face of challenging trading conditions (Boninelli, 2004). The changes that have taken place in organisations also require that organisations manage the process of change effectively so that it does not have a negative impact on employees. All these factors are either not sufficiently catered for in Litwin and Stringer (1968), or they do not feature at all.

It is for the above reasons that the approach to be used in this research study is the one adopted by English et al. (2010). These authors identified 12 dimensions that were developed by using critical incident techniques to identify psychological climate variables salient to employees. Data was coded using 32 climate variables identified from a literature review. This yielded inter-rater reliability of 80%. The original climate variables are grouped according to three categories: immediate supervisor, work unit and organisation. Climate dimensions are reflected in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Climate dimensions with descriptors

Focus	Psychological climate variables	Description
Immediate supervisor	Supervisor involvement	Negotiates clear objectives, encourages teamwork, provides information. Provides feedback, improves and rewards performance. Plans around individual needs, supports opportunities for professional growth.
	Performance management	Provides feedback, improves and rewards performance.
	Professional development	Plans around individual needs, supports opportunities for professional growth.
	Inter-professional relations	Shows respect for professional autonomy, collaborative work practices.
Work unit	Group processes	Encourages coordinated team work, information sharing and clear roles.
	Faith in peers	Fosters confidence and trust among work unit colleagues.
	Peer cohesion	Encourages friendly, sociable and supportive work relationships.
Organisation	Personnel practices	Focuses on fair promotions, concern for staff welfare and flexible work practices.
	Change management	Stimulates confidence in change management, cooperation between management and staff.
	Transformational leadership	Promotes a clear future vision, challenging work environment and staff empowerment.
	Organisational image/prestige	Promotes community, respect, organisational status and valued careers.
	Organisational image/ integrity	Establishes a trusted organisation and dedicated staff.

Source*: Adapted from "Moderator effects of organizational tenure on the relationship between psychological climate and affective commitment," by English et al., 2010, *Journal of Management Development,* 29 (4).*

In their research, English et al. (2010) encountered challenges regarding some of the climate variables, due to measurement issues. Supervisor support and performance management were merged as there was overlapping (r =0.94), with some items chosen from both scales. This scale was subsequently renamed supervisor involvement. Inter-professional

relations and group processes also had high covariance ($r =0.83$) and analysis to establish commonality did not yield positive results either. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the following scales was not satisfactory; hence they were not used in subsequent analyses: professional development, faith in peers, peer cohesion, personnel practices and change management. Despite these measurement challenges, the dimensions are relevant and require that further analysis be conducted using a broader construct domain. Some of the variables that were discarded had 3 or 4 questions measuring the dimension; this could also lead to the measurement problems experienced in this instrument.

The reason these dimensions were still chosen for this research is that out of all the dimensions that have been reviewed in various climate questionnaires, they are the ones that come closest to those covered in the organisational climate tool used in this study. Part of the current research included validating a climate survey tool (Organisational Perception Survey (OPS) that was used to gather data for the project. This validation process could enhance some of the shortcomings of the tool that English et al. (2010) designed and even contribute towards establishing a tool that is relevant to the current employee and business realities in organisations.

3.6   THE VALUE OF STUDYING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Various studies conducted over the years have confirmed the importance of studying and understanding organisational climate. According to Watkins and Hubbard (2003), organisational climate can account for up to 30% of the variance in business related performance measures. This suggests that understanding and management of climate is not just a topic of interest for psychologists, but has direct business benefits. Findings in this area have been linked to job satisfaction (Strydom & Roodt, 2006), work performance (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Scioggins, 2008), organisational effectiveness, retention (Mohlala, Goldman & Goosen, 2012) employee engagement (Rothmann & Rothmann, 2010), employee turnover (Jacobs, 2005; Stanz & Greyling, 2010) and other criteria. Organisational climate is also studied for

leaders to understand how they impact their teams and their performance (Watkin & Hubbard, 2003). A brief synopsis of the value of studying organisational climate is given below.

3.6.1. Organisational climate and job satisfaction

Joyce and Slocum (1982) conducted a study on the discrepancy between individual and aggregate climate on work performance and job satisfaction. They found that job satisfaction correlated with climate discrepancy, while performance correlated with congruence between individual and organisational climate. They further established that it is possible for one organisation to have a number of collective climates, as these climates are there to facilitate the achievement of various goals in the organisation (Joyce & Slocum, 1984). The findings about collective climates support earlier research by Drexler (1977). Castro and Martins (2010) found a strong positive relationship between climate and job satisfaction ($r = 0.813$).

In studying the effects of organisational tenure on the relationship between climate and affective commitment, English et al. (2010) found that affective commitment was stronger for employees who had longer tenure, even though their perceptions of climate seemed less positive for them. Employees with one to nine years' service considered supervisor involvement more important for affective commitment than was the organisation's climate. They also found that the relationship between organisational climate and tenure, where employees with nine years and more of service had a stronger affective commitment than those with less than one year of service. This suggests that affective commitment increases with the years one spends in the organisation. The organisation's prestige was found to be more important for employees with less than one year of service, while supervisor involvement was important for employees who were at middle stages of their tenure in the organisation. It was also found that as time goes by, employees' affective commitment is determined by different aspects of the psychological climate; hence tenure is an important variable to investigate when looking at employees' perceptions of organisational climate.

In the Sanders, Dorenbosch and de Reuver (2008) study, higher climate strength was linked to affective commitment. Employees who had positive perceptions of their work climate and had higher levels of affective commitment tended to rate their performance higher than those with negative perceptions of their climate and low affective commitment (Suliman, 2002). Employees who were happy at work, were found to be more productive than those who were unhappy with their climate (Mahal, 2009).

In a study of climate and engagement Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) reported that relations that employees have with their supervisors and co-workers as well as co-worker norms are important and are positively linked to employee engagement. Out of these three dimensions, only the relationship with the supervisor and co-worker norms were statistically significant in explaining employee engagement.

3.6.2 Organisational climate and salutogenic functioning

Cilliers and Kossuth (2002) researched the relationship between organisational climate and salutogenic functioning. Climate correlated significantly with employees' sense of coherence, locus of control and their self-efficacy. This means that when employees work in a positive climate and have supervisor support that helps them to see the bigger picture, they are able to cope with the situation as well as have emotional commitment to their work. This influence is of a reciprocal nature – on the one hand, climate has an impact on the employees' level of salutogenic functioning, while on the other hand employees who have high levels of salutogenic functioning are likely to perceive the climate in a more positive and realistic manner than those who are low on salutogenic functioning.

3.6.3. Organisational climate and turnover

Organisational climate studies are not limited to understanding their link with individual variables. Some research also focuses on how climate impacts on

the organisation's resilience and its ability to deal with external/market uncertainties (Weeks, 2008). This is important research especially during this period of a global economic meltdown where executives and researchers are searching for answers from all angles.

Kukla-Acevedo (2009) found that organisational conditions were linked to the decision to leave in two of three workplaces studies, especially relating to first-year teachers. Negative organisational culture and the tendency not to share knowledge among colleagues have been shown to be good predictors of employees' intention to leave (Jacobs & Roodt, 2007).

Stanz and Greyling (2010) only found organisational factors as being significant in influencing nurse's intentions to leave. The specific factors that were significant are work environment (broad dimensions that includes communication, autonomy, supervisor relationship, job content, perceived status, quality of work life and routine); physical-emotional costs to the employee; opportunities available for resignation; job characteristics; being well informed and participation in decision making. The number one reason being unhappiness with their salary. In a study in the banking sector, IT turnover intentions were found to be influenced by situational and IT specific issues (Mohlala et al., 2012), these were:-

- **Situational factors**: no retention strategy, not honouring promises, inappropriate management style, senior management not empowered to handle salary issues, ability to attract but not retain technical skills and continous rectructuring.
- **IT people specific challenge**: not interested in a job for life, old technology with no appeal to youngsters, unattrcative salary and rewards.

In a study involving senior African managers in SA they cited that their turnover intentions would be influenced by career, discrimination, management/leadership and pay (Nzukuma & Bussin, 2011).

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Although these studies were conducted in different industries in SA, there are common themes relating to the importance of climate in determining turnover intentions. The issue of rewards (inclusive of salary) was also reported as the third most significant factor that determined whether manager-level employees would consider leaving their current employer (Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011). The first two factors are career paths and management/leadership style. A study that contradicted a number of climate and turnover studies was conducted by Boschoff et al. (2002). In this study, climate variables did not play a role in influencing intention to quit. The reason advanced by the authors was that the climate survey tool used (Koys & DeCotiis, 1991) may not have been the right tool to use in that context, hence a negative impact on the results.

The above summary of studies that have been conducted on organisational climate (linking it to individual, team, leadership, organisational and external factors) indicates why it is important to conduct organisational climate surveys. In addition, conducting climate surveys ensures that the organisation obtains early information on possible problems at any of these levels so as to allow for timely interventions. Such climate surveys can be considered an early warning system (Watkin & Hubbard, 1983).

3.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, organisational climate was introduced as the second independent variable used in this research. Climates are not static; they change over time, depending on the people working in those organisations, how they interact with one another, and their group membership (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). A detailed account was given of how climates form and some of the perspectives used to understand organisational climate were discussed. In addition, the author proposed a model used to conceptualise organisational climate.

It is to every organisation's benefit to conduct regular climate surveys in order to understand what is working or not working for their employees.

Transparency in sharing the results and commitment to putting together action plans to correct what is not working are important factors that contribute to a positive climate in any organisation.

CHAPTER 4
EMPLOYEE TURNOVER AND INTEGRATION

Employee turnover is introduced as a dependent variable in the study. The history of employee turnover, models and key issues related to the concept are covered in this chapter. The model used to conceptualise employee turnover and the way in which this model integrates personality and organisational climate variables conclude the chapter.

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Employee turnover has been a concern for psychologists and managers alike for many decades (Woodruffe, 1999). As a result, it is an organisational variable that has attracted extensive interest in research studies (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Steers & Mowday, 1981). According to Carsten (2006), employee attrition (which is another phrase used to refer to employee turnover), is both a straightforward and complex issue. Understanding factors that result in attrition is one thing, but getting managers to effectively deal with these in order to reduce turnover presents a challenge for most organisations (Carsten, 2006).

There are conflicting views about the continued importance of this subject. Shahnawaz and Jafri (2009) maintain that due to the global economic crisis, employee turnover is no longer a big problem like it was in the past. This crisis saw a massive loss of jobs in different countries and the authors believe that the grave economic situation provided some relief to organisations because employees are holding on to their jobs due to scarce alternatives.

It is important to state that although the crisis may have caused turnover to be less of an issue for organisations than it was previously, it is still important to understand why people leave organisations and to determine which people leave. If the employees who leave the organisation despite these hard time

are the ones that organisations regard as their talent and the employees who are likely to be more marketable, turnover becomes truly problematic.

The view that people hold on to their jobs during a recession and that turnover consequently decreases, was tested in this research. The fieldwork for the study was conducted during a period of global economic recession. In order to accurately test the above assumption, turnover data collected in this period was compared to turnover figures before the economic crisis hit. The author proposes that the study of employee turnover will never become irrelevant for as long as we have organisations that depend on employees for productivity and profits. Hence it will always be important to understand which people leave organisations and why they leave. Further to this, there are other professions like nursing (Jacobs, 2005; Mc Carthy, Tyrrell & Cronin, 2002 Stanz & Greyling, 2010) and IT (Mohlala et al., 2012) which are classified as scarce skills globally, which means that turnover research will always be relevant to them regardless of what is happening in the economy.

The section below clarifies the definition of employee turnover and issues of categorisation.

4.2   DEFINITION OF EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

There are various definitions of employee turnover and most have evolved from when the concept was first studied in the 1950s. Mobley (1977) defined turnover as a process by which an employee decides to leave or quit the organisation. This definition is supported by other researchers in this field (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Turnover can also be defined as a 'permanent movement of an employee outside the organisation' (Macy & Mirvis, 1983). Although both definitions cover the same concept, the latter will be used in this research. The objective of the current study is to understand the factors that contribute to people deciding to leave, rather than to study the process in which people engage before leaving the organisation (Mobley, 1977).

4.2.1 Expanded taxonomy of employee turnover

Defining turnover is not enough; a further distinction between voluntary and involuntary turnover is important. Abelson (1987) makes this distinction using a taxonomy of employee and employer control. Employee control covers whether the turnover is voluntary or involuntary, while employer control refers to whether the turnover is avoidable or not.

4.2.1.1   Voluntary vs. involuntary turnover

Voluntary turnover occurs when the employee chooses to leave the organisation and this decision is seen as being within the control of the employee (Abelson, 1987). Lambert (2001) defines voluntary turnover as a consequence of an employee terminating the employer-employee relationship. Both definitions indicate that the decision and control reside with the employee. Udechukwu and Mujtaba (2007) extended this definition to include external (social) affiliates like friends and family, and they view voluntary turnover as a multidimensional and interdisciplinary concept. Involuntary turnover is usually based on reasons beyond the employee's control, e.g. retrenchment, dismissal, retirement, ill health and death (Abelson, 1987; McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). It is not always easy to make this distinction as some employees could end up resigning due to subtle pressure from their bosses (constructive dismissal), thus making it difficult to know whether to classify this turnover as voluntary or involuntary.

4.2.1.2   Avoidable vs. unavoidable turnover

According to Abelson (1987), knowing whether turnover is avoidable or unavoidable could be useful in further understanding the concept of employee turnover. This involves looking at turnover from an employer's perspective. When people leave organisations because of more money, better working conditions or due to a problem with management, this can be classified as avoidable turnover (Abelson, 1987). It is defined like this because there is something that the organisation could have done to stop the employee from

leaving, e.g. increased salary, improved working conditions or assistance in resolving problems with management.

Turnover is said to be unavoidable if the employer could not have done anything to stop the employee from leaving, e.g. resigning to stay at home, raising kids or going back to university (Abelson, 1987). These decisions are made by the employee based on unique circumstances that do not have anything to do with the employer.

It is important to understand whether stayers are different from unavoidable leavers in any way, as grouping them together could lead to a loss of important information. Abelson (1987) found that stayers and unavoidable leavers were different from avoidable leavers in respect of levels of satisfaction, organisational commitment, job tension, thinking of quitting, intent to search for another job and intent to leave.

4.2.1.3   Optimal vs. dysfunctional turnover

Not all turnover is negative for organisations (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984). Functional turnover is one that benefits the organisation, for instance when poor performers quit, whereas dysfunctional turnover is the quitting of people the organisation would have liked to keep (Dalton et al., 1981).

Dysfunctional turnover is also when the organisation loses employees it would like to retain (Dalton et al., 1982) on a cost-adjusted basis, as this loss impacts on the organisation's effectiveness (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984). This definition suggests that there is always a cost/benefit debate that takes place where turnover is concerned. Organisations do not have unlimited resources to retain people, hence it is important for each organisation to understand what its optimal turnover is, and to take into account organisation-specific variables and circumstances (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984). The terms 'optimal' and 'functional' turnover are used interchangeably in this research.

Abelson and Baysinger (1984) proposed that optimal turnover is achieved when there is a balance between retention and turnover costs. Organisations know which people they would like to retain and the available budget for that retention. Abelson and Baysinger (1984) proposed that retention in this instance should be allowed up to a point. When the available retention budget has run out, even those people that the organisation wants to retain should be allowed to leave. The organisation will suffer in the short term, but maintain its expenses regarding retention. It could well benefit in the long term by bringing in new people with new ideas who could add better value. Ideally, organisations should look at encouraging turnover from poor performers. This would qualify as optimal turnover, as it creates an opportunity for competent people to be appointed in these roles, something that will benefit the organisation in the long run (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984).

According to Abelson (1987) and Dalton et al. (1981), employee turnover can be categorised as follows:

- Voluntary or involuntary, e.g. death, illness, retirement, dismissal
- Voluntary turnover can further be subdivided into
    - avoidable or unavoidable
    - functional or dysfunctional

The present research will focus on voluntary turnover (turnover that is within the employee's control) and from an employer's perspective it will focus on both avoidable and unavoidable turnover. Involuntary turnover (Abelson, 1987) will be excluded, e.g. turnover due to death, retirement, retrenchment, ill health and dismissal, as this is not within the control of employees (Dalton, Todor & Krackhardt, 1982; McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). Such an approach is in line with the recommendation made by Abelson and Baysinger (1984) on the value of excluding involuntary turnover from turnover research. Studying employee turnover by using the expanded taxonomy yields more information and provides different levels of analysis (Abelson, 1987; Abelson & Baysinger, 1984), which renders better results than a one-dimensional view.

4.2.2 Employee turnover and withdrawal

Most of the literature on employee turnover refers to turnover as withdrawal behaviour, coupled with absenteeism (Mobley et al., 1979). However, Price (1977) maintained that if researchers refer to turnover and absenteeism as withdrawal behaviour, they must at least define withdrawal and demonstrate the interrelationships they are implying. Referring to turnover as pure withdrawal is limiting, as people do not resign only because they are unhappy or 'running away'. In some instances it is because they are presented with external opportunities that far outweigh what they have in their current organisation (Mobley, 1982). In this study, absenteeism data for all the respondents was analysed to determine whether there were any significant correlations between absenteeism and turnover.

4.3   EMPLOYEE TURNOVER MODELS

The aim of this section is to provide a brief overview of the key models of employee turnover, while focusing on models that inspired the development of the model used in this research. An in-depth analysis of models of employee turnover lies beyond the scope of this research study.

4.3.1   Overview of key models of employee turnover

This section reviews models of employee turnover that are influential in turnover research and that are linked to the turnover model that will be used for testing in this research project. The key assumptions of these models will be summarised, as well as their unique contribution. Peterson (2004) grouped employee turnover models according to three broad categories:

- Process models
- Socialisation models
- Comprehensive models

This categorisation will be used to highlight and discuss these models.

4.3.1.1   Process models

A number of process models were developed over the years to describe the process of employee turnover. This section will summarise key contributions of three of these models. The choice of models is also influenced by their relevance to this research project. The models selected for this purpose are the intermediate linkages model (Mobley, 1977); the unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) and model of turnover that investigates the impact of HR practices on turnover (Rhoades et al., 2001).

Mobley's intermediate linkages model was developed in 1977 and its key assumptions are detailed here. The model identifies a series of conditions that need to be in place before turnover occurs. The process starts with a negative evaluation of the present job, which leads to job dissatisfaction. Thoughts of quitting arise, leading one to compare the benefits of job seeking the costs of quitting. This evaluation leads to intentions to seek alternatives, which are followed by an actual search for and evaluation of these alternatives. The alternatives are compared to the current job, and the results of this comparison could lead to quit intentions and actual quitting. Employees are likely to engage in other withdrawal behaviour if they are dissatisfied but not able to find other alternatives, e.g. absenteeism. Mobley (1977) also acknowledged that not everyone leaves because they are dissatisfied; sometimes people leave because the new organisation provides better opportunities.

This model is simple and is seen as the most influential of the traditional models (Lee, 1996). It sets the foundation for other process models that were subsequently developed (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mobley et al., 1978). The intermediate linkages model is the most researched model in the employee turnover domain and is still regarded as important in explaining the process in which people engage before they quit (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Lee & Mowday, 1987).

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The second model associated with the process of employee turnover is the unfolding model of voluntary turnover designed by Lee and Mitchell (1994), which is seen as an alternative, contemporary process model (Peterson, 2004). Most research in employee turnover still focuses on the original models (March & Simon, 1958; Mobley 1977), rather than investigating more contemporary models (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) that can offer a new understanding of the concept of turnover (Joseph, Ng, Koh & Ang, 2007). In developing this model, Lee and Mitchell (1994) felt that a new approach to turnover research was required; one that used a different research design that differs from the mostly predictive studies. The aim of their model is to understand the reasons for and process of leaving in which employees engage. The model was informed by informal interviews held with people who left organisations, trying to understand how and why they left. It was further tested and expanded (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel & Hill, 1999) to address concepts that may not have been clear initially.

The element of 'shock' as a trigger to employee turnover is introduced in this model. This shock can be positive (unsolicited job offer), negative (performance problems) or neutral. It can also be expected or unexpected, and internal or external to the person. As different people react to shock differently, various paths are possible (see labelled paths 1 to 4b in Figure 4.1). Key determinants in these paths (or steps that one follows cognitively) are engaged scripts, image volition, satisfaction, searching for or evaluating alternatives and whether there is a likely offer or not (Lee et al., 1999). The model does not measure job satisfaction, but measures employee turnover in its broadest sense, where employees follow a path of making decisions about whether to leave or stay, depending on their context (Peterson, 2004).

Morrell, Loan-Clarke, Arnold and Wilkinson (2007) criticised the model on the grounds that it uses dichotomous measures to test turnover, which limits the information provided. In some cases the model uses one item to tap into more than one construct. They also found that the model failed to classify some of the leavers in their study. Despite criticism levelled agaist this model, significant contributions have been made to the study of employee turnover by

identifying different paths people are likely to take when deciding to quit, depending on their context.

Figure 4.1 next illustrates the unfolding model of turnover, starting with shock or no shock. The final outcome is one of the five paths outlined from 1 to 4b.

Figure 4.1. The unfolding model of employee turnover

| SHOCK | ENGAGED SCRIPT | IMAGE VIOLATION | SATISFACTION | SEARCH FOR EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVES | LIKELY OFFER | PATH |

Yes*
No → 1
Yes* → No
Yes
Yes*
No → 2
Yes → Low → Yes → No*
No
No* → Yes*
Irrelevant → Yes*
No → No → 3

No → Yes
Yes* → Yes → 4b
Yes → No → No*
No → Yes
No → Yes*
No → No → 4a

Figure 4.1: The unfolding model of employee turnover

Source: Adapted from "The unfolding model of employee turnover: A replication and extension" by Lee et al., 1999, *Academy of Management , 42 (2),* p. 451.

The third process model that will be discussed investigates the effect of various organisational climate variables on organisational commitment, namely organisational rewards (e.g. recognition and advancement opportunity), procedural justice (e.g. communication and decision making), and supervisor support (e.g. concern for the employees' well-being) (Rhoades et al., 2001). The contribution of this model is important as it provides insight into the role that these organisational variables play in respect of organisational commitment. However, commitment – and not actual turnover –

was measured by the model, which is considered a shortcoming (Peterson, 2004). This was extended by Allen, Shore and Griffeth (2003) who found that employees' perception of supportive practices (e.g. fairness in rewards, participation in decision making and growth opportunities) influenced perceived organisational support. This affected their job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which in turn influenced turnover intentions and actual turnover.

The aim of this study was not to understand the process of employee turnover, but to understand the factors that lead to employee turnover at an individual and organisational level. However, process models of turnover are important as the following elements of these models were investigated in the current research:

- Mobley's intermediate linkages model (1977) was revised and forms the basis of a broader model discussed under comprehensive models.
- In line with the recommendation by Morrell et al. (2007), the role of shock in turnover should be explored in future research, as it is not as straightforward a concept as depicted in the unfolding model of turnover (Lee et al., 1999). It is important to understand the shock that acts as a trigger for turnover intentions and actual turnover.
- The focus should be on organisational variables (e.g. leadership, fairness of pay) and the extent to which they impact on turnover intentions and actual turnover.

4.3.1.2   Socialisation models

Various socialising models (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein & Gardner, 1994) associate individual characteristics with organisational processes of socialisation (Peterson, 2004). The models will not be discussed individually, but the section focuses on the basic premise of these models in order to highlight their relevance to the research. Allen and Meyer (1990)

found that the socialisation of new employees impacts on their job commitment.

Socialisation models are important in this research because they give insight into the process individuals go through when they start a new job. This includes how the person learns the requirements of a new job and how (s)he adjusts to the culture of a new organisation so as to function optimally (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This adjustment is then linked to concepts such as job satisfaction and commitment that have proved to influence turnover (Peterson, 2004). The socialisation that employees went through when they joined the company is one of the elements that was tested in the model proposed in this research.

Socialisation does not stop with new recruits. Whenever the organisation experiences major changes, there may be a need to re-socialise current employees (Chao et al., 1994). A process of withdrawal could be triggered by a discrepancy between the employee's goals and values, compared to those of the organisation (Sheridan, 1992).

4.3.1.3   *Comprehensive models of turnover*

A number of comprehensive models of employee turnover (Mobley et al., 1979; Porter, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981) have been examined. Despite the existence of these comprehensive models, the subject of employee turnover is still a difficult one to understand as many variables need to be considered. Three models will be discussed in this section: the expanded model of turnover (Mobley et al., 1979); a model of turnover (Steers & Mowday, 1981) and model of turnover determinants (McCarthy et al., 2002).

The expanded model of turnover (Mobley et al., 1979) results from the revision of the intermediate linkages model (Mobley, 1977) that was discussed under process models. Although it is classified as a process model, the expanded model is classified as a comprehensive model because of its multidimensional nature (Peterson, 2004). (See Figure 4.2.)

The expanded model measures turnover on three levels, namely the organisational, individual and labour market levels. There are mediating variables like job satisafction, expected utility of the present job and of alternatives. These, together with factors in the organisation and labour market factors, influence the employee's search and quit intentions.

Figure 4.2. Expanded Model of Employee Turnover

Figure 4.2: Comprehensive model of employee turnover.
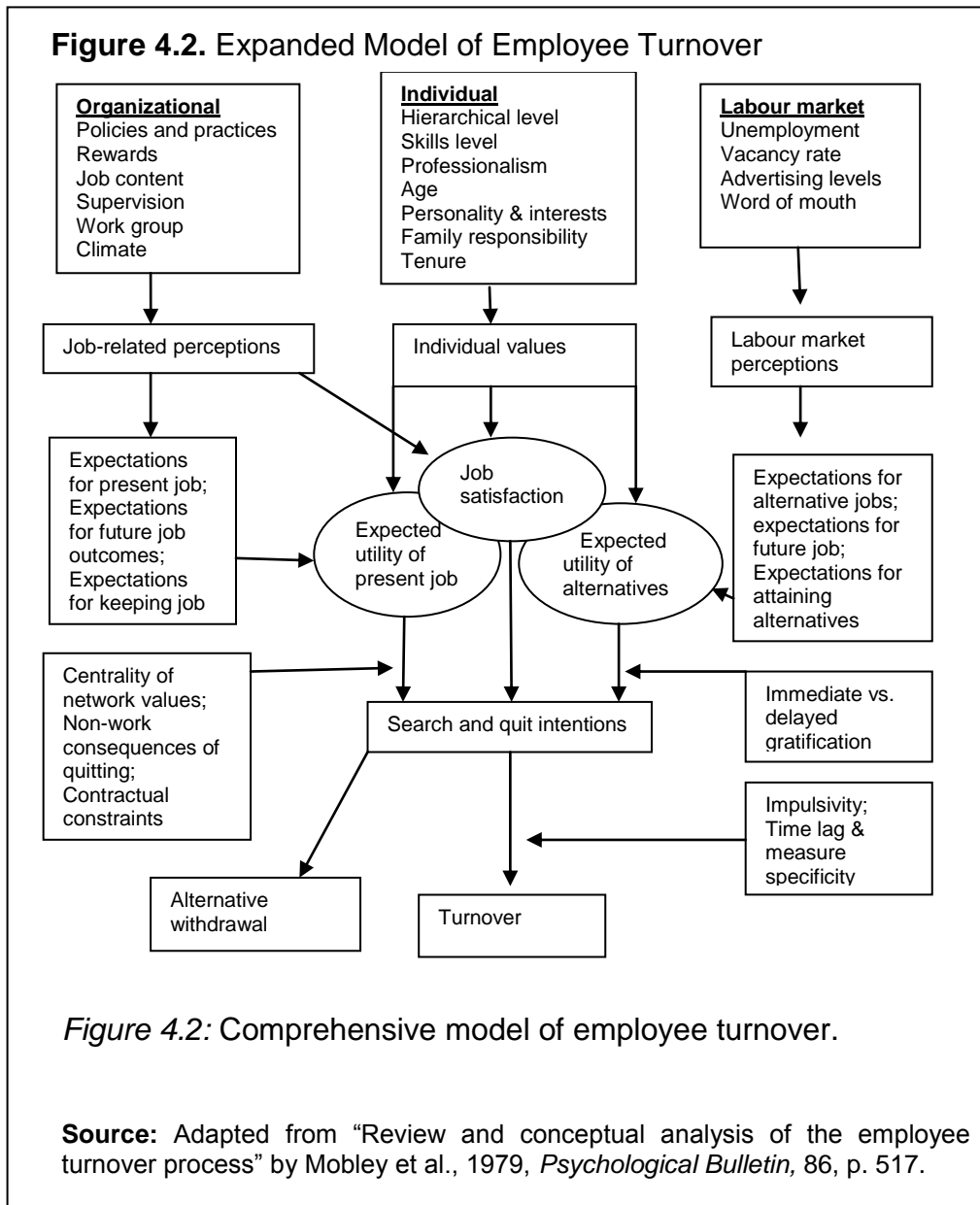
The Expanded Model of Employee Turnover was developed on the basis of a comprehensive analysis. According to Mobley et al. (1979), some of the characteristics of the model are as follows:

- Turnover is measured at an individual level, recognising that people's perceptions, values and expectations differ.
- The model emphasises the way in which alternative jobs are perceived and evaluated.
- The model recognises that job satisfaction is not the only element that contributes to turnover and that job attraction as well as the attraction of available alternatives also contribute.
- Intention to quit is a good way of predicting actual quitting.
- The model is best explained starting with turnover behaviour and working backwards.

Precursors and antecedents of employee turnover are identified in the model. The precursors are listed as expected utility of present job, expected utility of alternatives, and job satisfaction. The antecedents are individual, organisational and environmental factors (Mobley et al., 1979). This model is used as a base for developing the integrated model used in this study. It provides a framework in terms of individual, organisational and environmental factors. However, the difference is that precursors and other elements of the model will not be included in this research.

The second model that will be referred to was developed by Steers and Mowday (1981). It is not depicted in detail here because only one variable from this model (i.e. performance) will be used in this study. However, a summary of the theory around the model is still important, so as to provide a contrast with the model developed by Mobley et al. (1979).

The Steers and Mowday (1981) model has three components, namely job expectations and attitudes; job attitudes and intent to leave; intent to leave, available alternatives and turnover. The authors theorise that a person's job expectations will influence how he/she feels about the job (affective response), which will in turn impact on his/her intention to quit. This may eventually lead to actual turnover (Peterson, 2004; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

This process is not sequential (Steers & Mowday, 1981). Job expectations, values, organisational characteristics, experiences and performance are seen as having a direct impact on one's affective responses (Steers & Mowday, 1981). The model is useful for understanding the importance of organisational variables (Peterson, 2004) and in terms of this research, performance is one of the variables included under independent variables.

After an attempt to conduct a comprehensive study of the Steers and Mowday (1981) model, Lee and Mowday (1987) found that their results could explain only five per cent of the variance of employees who were leaving. This can well bring to question the value of such comprehensive models if they still do not yield any better understanding of the study of employee turnover.

Lee and Mowday (1987) were quick to defend the utility of the models despite their low prediction success. They found that comprehensive models add value in three areas. Firstly, the models generally include variables that have been found to explain employee turnover, so they should at minimum assist us in understanding the causes of turnover. Lee and Mowday cautioned that researchers should not automatically deselect variables with low prediction value if they add to our knowledge and understanding of turnover. Secondly, the comprehensive models add value by providing direction for future research, without which our knowledge would not be improved. Lastly, they assist managers in gaining a holistic understanding of employee turnover and its possible causes by providing a number of possible reasons why people leave, which would otherwise not be top of mind to managers (Lee & Mowday, 1987).

The third turnover model was developed by Mc Carthy et al. (2002), including both individual and organisational factors in determining turnover intentions and behaviour. The model is summarised below:-

- **Individual factors**: age, gender, education, marital status, family responsibility, tenure and job commitment.

- **Organisational factors**: position in the organisation and fiels of practice, quality of work, work environment, perceived status within organisation, distributive justice and economic reward, job insecurity and communication and participation.

These factors, together with job satisfaction, are said to influence people's intention to stay and actual turnover behaviour. Its important for turnover reseachers to carefully analyse which dimensions are measured under the broad titles of individual and organisational factors. To illustrate the point, consider Mobely et al's. (1979) model that has individual, organisational and labour market factor as determinants of turnover behaviour and actual turnover. The dimensions measured by Mobley et al. (1979) under individual and organisational factors are different from those measured by Mc Carthy et al. (2002).

An integrated model of employee turnover is proposed and will be tested using data from this research study. This model is discussed under the integration section in this chapter.

4.4 COSTS OF EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Most turnover literature focuses on understanding the problem of turnover, instead of establishing whether it is low or high (Baysinger & Mobley, 1983) in the organisation and what the organisational costs of such turnover are (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984).

In the current economic climate, where organisations are not achieving set financial targets, the cost of employee turnover is an important consideration. There are various myths associated with human resources (HR), one of which is that it is not possible to measure the cost of behaviour (Cascio, 1982). Financial measurement in HR is a fairly new and challenging phenomenon (Becker, Huselid & Ulrich, 2001), but it is possible. When it comes to turnover, the total cost of turnover needs to be accounted for, as this is the sum total of separation costs, total replacement costs and total training costs (Cascio, 1982). When holistic costs are taken into account, it is easy to understand

why turnover is still a topic of debate and why various initiatives are taken in organisations to reduce it. However, there is a realisation that turnover can be positive for an organisation (Abelson, & Baysinger, 1984; Dalton et al., 1981), especially if the people leaving are poor performers and the new people coming in bring innovation and changes that current people are not able to facilitate (Mobley, 1982). Nevertheless, the consequences of dysfunctional turnover can be detrimental for organisations as they can affect the organisation's ability to achieve its objectives, seeing that it results in loss of skills, knowledge and organisational memory (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000). The costs of employee turnover will not be included in this research, but a brief discussion was necessary in order to highlight why continuous research in this area is necessary.

4.5   CAUSES OF EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

A number of factors lead to turnover in organisations. Although there are no textbook answers to reducing turnover, the starting point for managing it lies in understanding what causes it (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000).

4.5.1 Human Resources Practices

One of the most important tasks of organisations is to recruit, train and retain the right people. It is important to make sure that prospective employees satisfy both the person-job fit and the person-organisation fit. Hence management, together with HR, can play an important role in selecting the right people for the job and the organisation to reduce problems related to fit, and consequently, increased turnover (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000).

Organisations have various HR practices that support the business, e.g. recruitment, development and talent management practices. There was a significantly negative correlation between perceived organisational support (POS) and intentions to leave and between POS and actual turnover in one study (Allen et al., 2003). POS could be valuable in explaining the relationship between supportive HR processes and turnover; employees who feel

supported are less likely to withdraw from organisations. Organisations that do not deliver on what they promise employees (e.g. salary adjustment, career development) are likely to experience high levels of turnover as these employees become disillusioned and look for better career opportunities (Mohlala et al., 2012). Although HR practices may not directly influence turnover, they can be used as an indication of the extent to which the organisation really cares about its employees (Allen et al., 2003).

4.5.2 Socialisation of new recruits

Socialisation is a process that organisations use to help newcomers to adapt to the organisation while getting to understand both role and organisational expectations (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This process is designed to decrease the anxiety associated with joining a new organisation and to assist newcomers to acquire the necessary skills required for successful performance of the roles (Bauer, Morrison & Callister, 1998). The process is important because all newcomers experience shock when they join a new organisation. Socialisation helps them to make sense of the new environment (Allen, 2006).

It is important to understand new recruit turnover, as this type of turnover is usually highest among employees (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Allen (2006) found that employees who are allocated to experienced mentors in the organisation (serial tactics) and those who are provided with positive social support from experienced members (investiture tactics) are less likely to leave than those who are not. Employees who are embedded in their roles (i.e. those who have connections at work, have a better fit with the organisation and value the benefits of being part of the organisation (Mitchell, 2001)) are less likely to leave than those who do not (Mitchell, 2009). In this instance, job embeddedness (specifically using serial and investiture tactics) helps to mediate between socialisation and turnover (Allen, 2006).

4.5.3 Leadership

Although HR plays an important role in attracting employees into organisations, once employees join the organisation they work for line managers. Through their ability to contribute to their employee's job satisfaction, line managers are known to play a significant role in determining whether employees leave or stay (Ladebo, 2009). Managers are usually trained in a specific technical area, for instance finance, marketing, sales (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000). Thus most of them are generally competent in their technical field of choice. However, this does not mean that they are good people managers, which is what is required in leadership roles. In some organisations, people are promoted to management roles based on their technical competence, without sufficient focus on developing their leadership competencies. This could be detrimental for employees who report to these managers and they could end up considering to leave the organisation.

Leaders can create a positive environment in which their subordinates can flourish. However, not all leaders know how to do this and some leaders are not interested in creating favourable conditions as they are more focused on maintaining the status quo (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000) – hence the common saying that people join organisations and leave their managers. This view is supported by the social exchange theory, which maintains that the leader and subordinate are in a relationship where resources are exchanged between the two parties (Blau, 1964). The leader establishes important relationships with individuals in the team and is supposed to motivate them to achieve organisational goals (Ladebo, 2009).

According to the social exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960), employees are likely to reciprocate this behaviour. If the leader is fair and treats the employee well, the employee is likely to reward that behaviour. Employees prefer to work for leaders who are fair and supportive (Kreitner, Kinicki & Buelens, 2002). Leaders who respect their subordinates show concern for their well-being and personal feelings, and development is likely to increase the job satisfaction of these subordinates (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2005).

However, if the leader is unfair, unsupportive and is guilty of unequal treatment of individuals in the team, this is likely to affect the employee negatively, resulting in him/her not displaying positive organisational citizenship behaviour (Zellars, Tepper & Duffy, 2002). Ladebo (2009) found that perceived supervisory support is related to job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Inappropriate management style was found to be one of the reasons why IT people would leave their employer (Mohlala et al., 2012)

In a recent study on leadership, diversity and turnover Nisshii and Mayer (2009) found that leaders who had high leader-member exchange with their teams could help reduce turnover. However, where the leader-member exchange takes place selectively with certain racial groups over others, this could lead to increased turnover among the group that is 'sidelined'. Negative leader behaviour is likely to affect the employees' ability to freely express themselves, especially if they perceive the leader-member relationship as abusive (Burris, Detert & Chiaburu, 2008). Such behaviour can only have negative implications for the organisation. The relationship between the employee and line manager was found to be the most common reason why employees leave organisations (Blake, 2006). African senior managers also cited management as one of the reasons they left their previous employer (Nzukuma & Bussin, 2011).

The leadership challenge is ever increasing because leaders are operating in an unpredictable period. They are expected to achieve business results through individuals while keeping their teams focused and motivated (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000), hence the importance of ensuring that leaders are appropriately equipped for this challenging and important role.

4.5.4 Toxic work environment

Working conditions are usually important determinants of whether employees are likely to leave or stay in the organisation (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000). The call centre industry has taken the world by storm over the past decades. This

growth comes with its challenges, though. The call centre environment is structured in such a way that employees do not have much social interaction as each one focuses on the calls (s(he is expected to make. Some environments are so sophisticated that the system automatically dials the next customer as soon as the consultant is done with the first client. South African research by Milner, Russel and Siemer (2010) found that call centres are socially isolating work environments. This isolation is attributed to the job design, technology and management practices in this type of environment. Visser and Rothman (2008) also studied call centres in South Africa and found that the work load and lack of career prospects lead to burnout and turnover intentions.

Work environments are becoming important in determining whether people will stay in organisations or leave. Employees are likely to stay if they feel a sense of belonging and security (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000). A positive work environment is likely to increase employee motivation, which impacts positively on business results (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000). Employees are not likely to stay in an organisation that expects them to choose between work and family, or where employees are seen as a cost and treated badly (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000).

A review of key research that has been conducted on the subject will be discussed below, including an explanation of how this research has shaped and guided the current project.

4.6   IMPACT OF META-ANALYSIS ON EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Hundreds of studies on employee turnover have been published since the 1900s (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). This section focuses on the most recent meta-analytic studies conducted in this field and illustrates key findings in turnover research. Meta-analysis is a study that consolidates and statistically summarises information gathered in literature reviews on a specific topic, using a variety of methods (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). The advantage of a meta-analysis is that is greatly facilitates the summarising of large amounts of

research. When evaluating the different studies, one can also identify moderating effects and watch how they play out in the various studies (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986).

Due to the large number of studies on this topic in which different variables are investigated, it is best to use meta-analysis to highlight salient points in employee turnover research. This approach assists in identifying key findings across different studies and thus makes the information manageable (Drew, 2003).

A recent and comprehensive meta-analysis of turnover was conducted by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000). Their study provided an update of the meta-analysis conducted by Hom and Griffeth (1995) and was an extension of Cotton and Tuttle's (1986) first large-scale meta-analysis of turnover. Griffeth et al. (2000) included only studies that met the following criteria: they measured actual turnover instead of turnover intentions; they used a predictive design where predictor measures were collected before turnover occurred; and they studied measuring turnover as an individual level of analysis.

Effect size was used to indicate the strength of the relationship between measures, which assists in measuring whether the difference was real or not (Garson, 2011). The study confirmed results of previous meta-analyses as well as new results (Griffeth et al., 2000). Proximal precursors of withdrawal were still found to be the best predictors of turnover. These precursors, with effect sizes reported in brackets,   included job satisfaction (p = -0.19); organisational commitment (p = 0-.23); job search (ranging from (p = 0.28) for job search behaviours to (p = 0.47) for job search methods comparison of alternatives; withdrawal cognitions (p = 0.32) and quit intentions (p = 0.38). Distal precursors of withdrawal showed small to moderate effect sizes. These are characteristics of the work environment and include satisfaction with job content (p = -0.16); stress (ranging from p = 0.10 for role overload to p = -0.21 for role clarity); work group cohesion (p = -0.11); leadership (p = -0.23 for leader member exchange and p = -0.10 for supervisory satisfaction); and

promotional opportunities (p = -0.12). Only company tenure (p = -0.20) and number of children (p= -0.14) predicted turnover in terms of demographics.

4.7 RELEVANT TURNOVER RESEARCH

In addition to the meta-analysis, key areas in turnover research that are important for this research study are discussed below and compared with results from different studies. Not all the variables linked with employee turnover are discussed, as this would go beyond the scope of this project. Only those variables that are relevant to this study will be attended to.

4.7.1 Race, gender and turnover

Turnover research has yielded conflicting results when it comes to turnover and gender. Griffeth et al. (2000) found that there was no difference between men and women with regard to turnover. This finding suggests that women do not display higher turnover behaviour than men, as is sometimes believed. In fact, older women in the study were found to display lower turnover than their male counterparts. This could be explained by fewer family responsibilities as children grow older and become more independent, allowing the women to be more stable in their roles in organisations. This finding is contrary to that of Cotton and Tuttle (1986), where gender was a better predictor of turnover for more professional jobs and proved to be less reliable among blue collar workers and non-managerial staff. However, a recent study reported that women had higher turnover than men (Hom, Roberson & Ellis, 2008).

Minorities in some studies were reported to have higher turnover rates than white employees (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hom et al., 2008). This finding obviously needs to be treated with caution as race issues, minority definitions and behaviour differ from continent to continent and from country to country. Minorities were found to be more likely to quit when they were under-represented in work groups (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). In a South African study (Jacobs, 2005), African professional nurses were more likely to quit than Coloured, Indian and White professional nurses. Similar results were found

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where Black managers were compared to other managers (Vallabh & Donald, 2001). In another South African study of turnover intentions at an institution of higher education, Martin and Roodt (2008) found both Black females and White males having high intentions to quit, but for different reasons. The reasons put forward by Black females related to the increased opportunities available for qualified Black females, while White males were no longer the predominant force in the workplace and this situation increased their intention to quit. When combining race and gender, women from minority groups in America have a higher turnover than White males and females (Hom et al., 2008).

4.7.2   Turnover and tenure

Most turnover research includes tenure as a variable. Various relationships have been established between turnover and tenure. A negative relationship was reported previously (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000), suggesting that employees with a longer term of service are likely to have lower turnover rates. However, a curvilinear relationship between turnover and tenure (Hom et al., 2008) was reported by other researchers. In their study, turnover peaked during the first year (8.92%) and thereafter declined steadily. At five years; tenure, turnover was 5.%, at 10 years it was 2.96% and at 15+ years it was 1.23%.

4.7.3   The Big Five personality factors and turnover

Research in understanding the relationship between personality and turnover dates back to as early as the 1930s. A number of studies linking personality traits to turnover were conducted, but they showed conflicting results (Pettman, 1973). Some of these initial studies found no relationship between personality and turnover (Hedberg & Baxter, 1957; MacKinney & Wolins, 1960; Vincent & Dugan, 1962), while others found some relationship between the variables (Cleland & Peck, 1959; Hanna, 1935). To date, research on personality and turnover has received relatively little attention (Zimmerman,

2008). The section below covers more current personality-turnover research findings.

Conscientiousness is the best predictor of employee turnover amongst the big five personality factors (Barrick & Mount, 1991). In this meta-analysis it was reported that conscientious employees were less likely to change jobs than employees who were less conscientious. These findings were supported by Salgado (2002). A relationship between impulsiveness (a component of conscientiousness) and turnover was established, where more conscientious employees were less likely to be impulsive than the less conscientious ones (Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984). Orvis, Dudley and Cortina (2008) investigated the relationship between conscientiousness, breach of psychological contract and turnover. A breach in the psychological contract by the employer decreases job satisfaction and psychological loyalty in employees with a low level of conscientiousness. This in turn increases the employees' intention to leave the organisation, especially for less conscientious employees. The findings are similar to those of Guzzo, Noonam and Elron (1994), where employees whose psychological contract had been broken tended to have higher turnover intentions and actual turnover.

The above findings can be linked to the research done by Hom et al. (1984), where employees with low conscientiousness tended to have low impulse control and were therefore more likely to leave the organisation than those with high conscientiousness. In the Orvis et al. (2008) study, breach of the psychological contract led to lower research task performance for highly conscientious employees than for the low conscientious group. Although surprising, these findings seem to confirm previous research indicating that conscientiousness does not necessarily lead to high performance (Martocchio & Judge, 1997; Witt, 2001). This deviates from long-standing research on conscientiousness, which according to Barrick and Mount (1991) is the single best predictor of performance amongst the big five. Orvis et al. (2008) assert that conscientious employees who generally set high task standards and strive to achieve them (Costa & McCrae, 1992) may recalibrate their performance following a breach of contract by the employer.

Meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) excluded studies that measured the impact of the big five personality factors on turnover. They calculated uncorrected correlations between conscientiousness, emotional stability and turnover (r -0.20). This implies that personality traits can be used to measure potential turnover and organisations can know this risk before employing people. Cotton and Tuttle (1986) also conducted a meta-analysis on turnover, using previous studies that covered external correlates such as unemployment rate, work-related correlates (e.g. satisfaction with supervisor) and personal correlates (e.g. biographical information). None of the studies included in this meta-analysis researched personality as a variable. This further strengthens the point that more studies in the area of personality and other correlates are needed in order to better understand turnover (Zimmerman, 2008).

In a meta-analysis of personality traits and their impact on individuals' turnover decisions, Zimmerman (2008) found that personality traits have a direct impact on individual's turnover decisions, not mediated by job satisfaction or job performance. People with low emotional stability were found to be more likely to intend to quit for reasons that were not related to job satisfaction or performance. The other finding was that people with low agreeableness or high openness to experience were found to be more likely to engage in unplanned quitting. These are important findings in turnover research that were tested in this research project.

4.7.4   Cognition and turnover

Most turnover research includes individual variables like gender and length of service, but do not include cognition and its relationship with turnover (Maltarich, Nyberg & Reilly, 2010). Yet these constructs are linked through performance, as organisations try to retain their good performers (Schwab, 1991). In a meta-analysis conducted by Griffeth et al. (2000), only seven samples used cognition as a predictor of turnover. Maltarich et al. (2010) found that the job satisfaction/turnover relationship was not the same across

all levels in the organisation; they found that job satisfaction was strongly related to turnover when the demands of the jobs were higher. This suggests that managers should pay more attention to the job satisfaction of their most valued employees.

The study also found that employees with lower cognitive ability were more likely to leave than those with higher cognitive abilities – even if the latter were in roles that demanded less from them cognitively. However, there are still conflicting findings in the area of cognition as evidenced by Hom and Griffeth (1995), where intelligent employees were less likely to quit (p = -0.09) while Griffeth et al. (2000) found that there was effectively no relationship between cognition and turnover (p = 0.01). These results are different from the ones reported by Cotton and Tuttle (1986), where no significant relationship between intelligence and turnover was found.

Dickter, Roznowski and Harrison (1996) hypothesised that employees with high cognitive ability would be more likely to leave organisations than those with low cognitive ability, due to the demand in the marketplace for the former group. In contrast, their research revealed that employees with high cognition were more likely to stay as they were likely to gain proficiency more quickly and decide to stay. Cognition is not one of the variables in this study but the debate continues.

4.7.5 Performance, pay and turnover

Only five meta-analyses have been conducted in the study of the relationship between performance and turnover (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2007). Performance was found to have a negative relationship with turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 2004). Some findings were further refined and high performers were found to be less likely to quit than low performers (p = -0.19) (Hom & Griffeth, 1995) and (p = -0.14) (Griffeth et al., 2000). However, when high performers were not sufficiently rewarded, they tended to leave (p = 0.07), compared to when they were sufficiently

rewarded (p = -0.20). Greater job opportunities deterred even poor performers from quitting (Hom et al., 2004).

Zimmerman and Darnold (2007) found a positive relationship between performance and intention to quit, when job satisfaction was included. The results suggest that even good performers were likely to plan to leave, but that they were less likely to actually take the step. One of the reasons advanced is that although good performers know that they are marketable, they may stay out of loyalty to the organisation, despite the opportunities that exist. Individual differences could well explain this, as well as the fact that most organisations are more likely to respond to the needs of good performers with regard to pay increases and bonuses than they would to the needs of poor performers (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2007).

Poor performers (as rated by supervisors) are more likely to intend to quit, without prior planning to do so (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2007). The reasons provided for this impulsive quitting is that poor performers could be sensitive to feedback given about their unsatisfactory performance, which creates a so-called shock (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). This shock results in their leaving, even though they may not have planned this beforehand. The second reason could be that supervisors may 'encourage' poor performers to leave and that they end up 'resigning' at the suggestion of the manager (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2007). Although the latter reason is likely to be coded as voluntary turnover, it is actually not voluntary, as the employee is encouraged by the organisation to leave, which equates to constructive dismissal. Turnover studies that do not disregard this type of turnover could end up with error variance, as this is not pure voluntary turnover – it should therefore be excluded from such study (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2007). The challenge is that the real reason for the person leaving is not always recorded under these circumstances.

In a recent study of the relationship between turnover and performance conducted in an overseas retail company, Siebert and Zubanov (2009) found two regression results. The retail sector generally has a large group of flexible, non-permanent workers, in addition to permanent employees. The regression

for full timers was negative, while that for flexible workers was an inverted U shape. This means that the turnover of flexible workers initially increased productivity because it provided the organisation with flexibility, before it started showing negative effects. The same cannot be said for full-time employees.

Cotton and Tuttle (1986) found a negative relationship between pay and turnover in 29 out of 32 studies, which means that the higher the pay, the lower was the turnover. Only one study found a positive relationship between pay and turnover (Krau, 1981). Pay seems to be linked to turnover for professional and managerial staff, though not for blue collar workers (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986).

4.7.6   Absenteeism and turnover

Absenteeism costs organisations millions of rands annually. In most of the literature reviewed, absenteeism is described as a process of withdrawal from the organisation linked to turnover (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982). Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson and Brown (1982) defined absenteeism as non-attendance of employees for scheduled work. The definition is viewed as being too broad and hence more clarity is required. It is for this reason that the author provides a practical definition of absenteeism, namely a period when an employee is temporarily not at work and without prior permission. This definition excludes approved periods of being absent like annual leave and maternity leave. Sick leave is a challenge when it comes to absenteeism, as it is a commonly cited reason for being absent. However, since not all instances of sick leave are genuine, sick leave will be included in this definition of absenteeism. The challenge is that even a meta-analysis conducted on the relationship between absenteeism and turnover (Mitra et al., 1992) does not define absenteeism or clarify what is included and excluded from the definition. As a result, studies with different measures of absenteeism (frequency, days lost, patterns, time lost, paid, unpaid, etc.) are reported on, which poses measurement challenges and creates confusion.

The impact of absenteeism is not just financial, but includes reduced productivity (Ho, 1997) and replacing absent employees with less experienced people, which affects staff morale (Rickert, Duncan & Ginter, 1995). There is no agreement on whether absenteeism and turnover are related (Mitra, Jenkins Jnr & Gupta, 1992). According to these authors, there are two schools of thought when it comes to this topic – one that views absenteeism and turnover as forming part of withdrawal behaviours and being related (Mitra et al., 1992), and another that sees these variables as unrelated and therefore to be studied separately (Mobley, 1977; Price 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981). In order to try and resolve this debate, Mitra et al. (1992) conducted a meta-analysis on absenteeism and turnover. The study yielded a positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover, correlations ranging between 0.29 and 0.36. This relationship between the two variables suggests that absenteeism can be used as an indicator of turnover. Organisations can focus on employees who have a tendency to be absent and they can implement proactive initiatives to stop this absenteeism progressing to turnover (Mitra et al., 1992).

Griffeth et al. (2000) regarded absenteeism as a moderate form of withdrawal ($p = 0.20$). This dropped from ($p = 0.33$) in their previous meta-analysis (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Cohen and Golan (2007) viewed absenteeism and turnover as behaviours demonstrated by employees who want to withdraw from their work environment. Their study on the absenteeism of nurses and their intention to quit found that absenteeism was used as the nurses' initial withdrawal from the system. Absenteeism was also found to be a stable behaviour pattern among those employees who tended to be absent, irrespective of the period under review. Absenteeism was found to be a reliable early indication of intention to quit.

The relationship between absenteeism and turnover is likely to be stronger when the period of the study is shorter, i.e. less than 12 months, than when it is longer (Mitra et al., 1992). The length of the study (short-term or long-term) is affected by market conditions in understanding the relationship between absenteeism and turnover (Mitra et al., 1992).

To summarise, the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism was found to be low to moderate (Vogelzang, 2008).

4.7.7 Unemployment rates and turnover

Unemployment rates have been cited as an important determinant of turnover (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980). People are less likely to leave their jobs, even if they are not satisfied, when the economy is in recession (Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009). This is due to fewer opportunities being presented as a result of fewer job opportunities being available. Based on a meta-analysis by Carsten and Spector (1987), it was found that the job satisfaction/turnover relationship became weaker when employment levels decreased. This finding is contrary to the one by Shikiar and Freudenberg (1982) who found a moderate, positive relationship between job satisfaction and turnover index on the one hand and unemployment rates on the other. They explained their results by saying that the employees who resigned during high unemployment periods were the ones who were really dissatisfied. Their findings were questioned by Carsten and Spector (1987) on methodological grounds. Job satisfaction is not the only reason why people leave, and in times of high unemployment people could well consider factors like salary level, job security and future prospects. During periods of economic boom, where there are more job alternatives, job satisfaction could be one of the reasons why people quit. At this time, it will be easier for dissatisfied people to leave, as there are more opportunities and alternatives available to them than the job they currently hold (Carsten & Spector, 1987).

The current research includes national unemployment figures from 1999 to 2010 (see Figure 4.3). This is interesting as this study commenced at the peak of the world economic crisis in 2009, which impacted negatively on job creation and consequently on employment levels.

FIGURE 4.3. Unemployment rate in South Africa
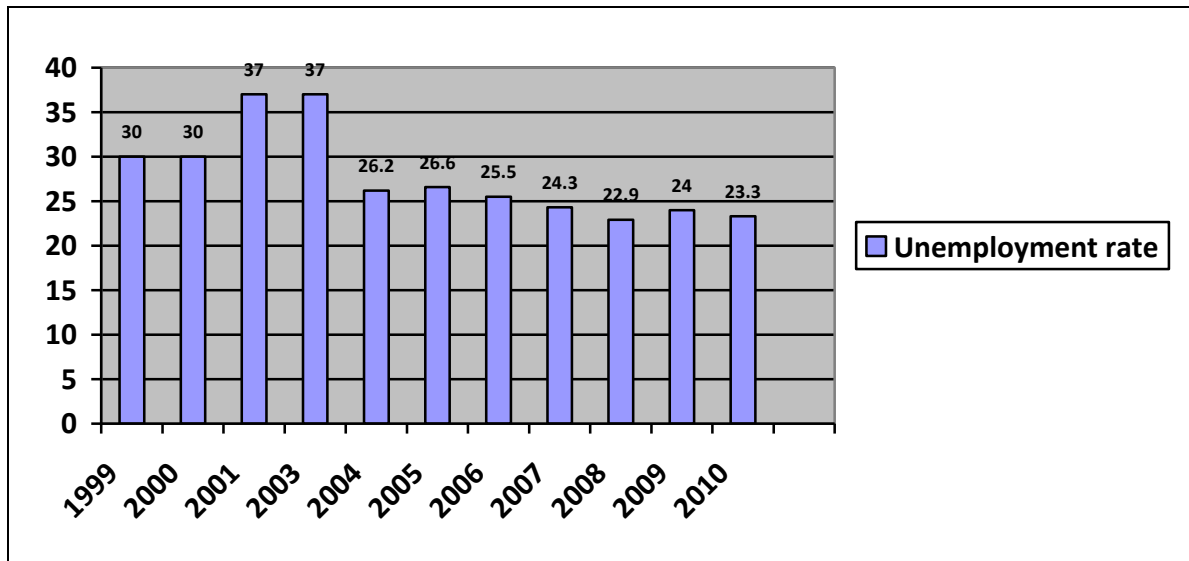
Unemployment in South Africa is reported at being around the 25% mark; however, economists believe that the number is understated (Statistics SA, 2012). The official definition of unemployment only covers people who do not have jobs, but excludes all those who have jobs that do not pay them enough money to live on, which is termed as under-employment. Workers who typically fall in this category are farm workers, casual labourers and in some instances domestic workers. People who have not been actively seeking employment in the last 4-6 weeks are also excluded from these figures, this includes despondent job seekers who may have given up hope of finding employement for various reasons. Youth unemployment (ages 18–25) is even higher at around 50% (Stats SA, 2012). Labour turnover information of the company used in the study is shown in Figure 4.4.

FIGURE 4.4 Turnover statistics in company x
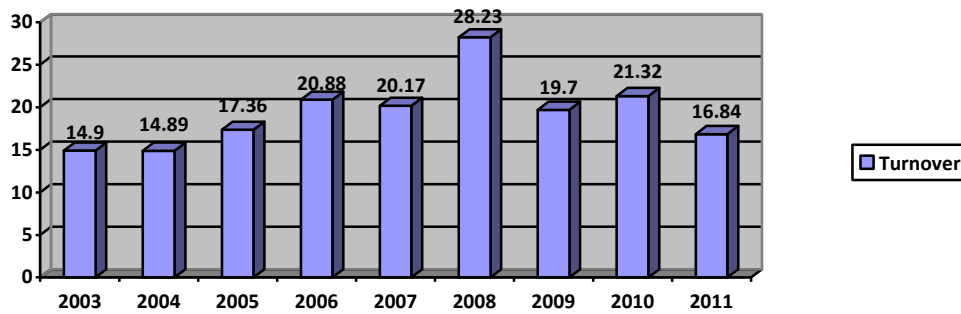
Source: Company X

The statistics in Figure 4.4 show that turnover peaked at 28% in 2008, which was the time when the worldwide economic meltdown commenced. There was a significant drop in turnover in the following year, which could be an indication of people preferring to stay in the organisation until the economy stabilises. However, the percentage turnover in 2009 is slightly lower than turnover in 2007 at the start of the recesssion. Viewing employee turnover over a long period of time (as it is done in this study) indicates that employee turnover in company x peaked at the height of the recession in 2008, before it normalised. This is contrary to research indicating that employees turnover intentions and behaviour are influenced by external market forces (Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009).

Since it is important for turnover research to be understood in context, the section that follows explores challenges in turnover research.

4.8   CHALLENGES WITH EMPLOYEE TURNOVER RESEARCH

Although turnover research has been around for more than 50 years, there are still more questions than answers on this subject. This section outlines some of the challenges facing research in this area.

4.8.1 Research explains a small amount of variance

According to Abelson (1987), traditional approaches to understanding turnover (where individual characteristics and attitudinal variables are used to explain turnover) are limited as these studies can only explain up to 20% of the variance in turnover. Part of the reason for this is the methodology used in studying turnover, where all voluntary leavers are treated as similar (Abelson, 1987). This finding supports that of McEvoy and Cascio (1985), who expressed concern about the fact that only a small part of the turnover can be explained by attitudinal variables that have been studied so far.

4.8.2. One-size-fits-all approach

One of the shortcomings of turnover research, according to Lee and Mowday (1987), is that researchers attempt to make predictions on all individuals, across all situations, in all organisations. This is not possible, as people are different, they leave for different reasons, some are viewed as effective versus ineffective leavers (Porter & Steers, 1973), and organisations could have different variables that drive turnover (Drew, 2003). This is not a matter of 'one size fits all', hence organisation- specific research is necessary (Drew, 2003). Based on this observation, it is important for organisations, industries and countries to conduct their own studies of employee turnover so that organisations can benefit from studies that are relevant to their context (Drew, 2003).

4.8.3 Inaccurate exit interview data

Details about leaving contained in employees' personal files do not always reflect the real reasons why they left. Discrepancies were found in follow-up interviews with ex-employees six months after they left (Lefkowitz & Katz, 1969). The present research will use the reasons for leaving that appear in employees' files; however, this will be compared to the reason for leaving that employees cited in the exit interview. It is important to confirm the reasons for leaving with the employer so that the underlying reasons for their quitting can

be established (Morrell et al., 2007) and the correct categorisation of turnover can be made (voluntary or involuntary). The problem of not validating reasons for leaving is that one could end up overstating turnover (Maltarich et al., 2010). What would have been ideal in this situation is to contact leavers three months after their exit to confirm their reason for leaving. In some instances leavers are not always in a position to be honest about their reason for leaving. However, having been out of the organisation for a few months may enable them to have a more honest conversation.

4.8.4 Data collection and time lag

There is no ideal time lag in conducting turnover research. In a recent meta-analysis, Griffeth et al. (2000) made interesting observations from the data. Usually turnover researchers wait for a period of 12 months or longer to collect data so as to ensure improved turnover rates in the sample. Griffeth et al. (2000) suggest that this time lag between collecting predictor and turnover assessments could be counterproductive, as the turnover rate did not influence the predictor-turnover relationship in their meta-analysis. There was more predictive power in studies where the time lag between collecting predictor and turnover data was less than 12 months (p = -0.47), compared to a time lag of 12 months or longer (p = 0.34). This suggests that turnover data needs to be collected as soon as possible after predictor information is obtained – i.e. while the information is still relevant. What is gained by increasing the time lag in terms of higher turnover rates seems to be lost in predictive power when the time lag is longer (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Griffeth et al., 2000). This is an important finding in turnover research, as it has the potential to direct future studies to yield more significant results simply by reducing the time lag.

As there is no base percentage that is specified for acceptable turnover rates, it could be 10% or 15%, according to Griffeth et al. (2000). Turnover researchers tend to be concerned about ensuring that their studies include at least good baseline turnover rates. In this research, that concern is equally relevant; hence the researcher adopted the approach of having a 24-month

time lag during which predictor information as well as turnover data was collected as the turnover occurred. Carsten and Spector (1987) recommended that where the time lag is long, data may be collected more than once in order to mitigate the negative impact that the time lag is likely to have on the relationships being studied, which was done in this study.

4.9   WHAT IS LACKING IN EMPLOYEE TURNOVER RESEARCH?

A number of recommendations are made in this section regarding further research on employee turnover.

1. It is not enough to study variables that predict turnover. Research should focus on how variables are causally linked to turnover and how these are moderated (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). It is important to understand moderator effects when it comes to turnover, as these vary across populations and situations (Griffeth et al., 2000). The meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) addressed this recommendation. Gender composition ($r = 0.70$) and proportion of executives ($r = 0.64$) moderated the age-turnover correlations. Men who were at executive level tended to show higher turnover. A possible explanation is that they have greater financial freedom and therefore can afford to retire early. The age ($r = 0.49$) of employees was found to be a moderator of the tenure-turnover correlation. Older employees tended to have greater tenure and reduced turnover. Performance contingent rewards ($r = 0.75$) moderated the performance-quit relationship. Reward contingencies moderated the performance-turnover relationship. This correlation is negative ($r = -0.20$) when reward contingencies exist and positive ($r = 0.07$) when reward contingencies do not exist, implying that high performers are likely to leave if they are not sufficiently rewarded. The last significant moderator that was found involved sample size ($r = -0.39$) and time lag ($r = -0.41$), moderating the commitment-turnover relationship. The correlation between commitment and turnover decreased with larger samples and longer time lags in collecting turnover data. Determining moderating variables will also be the focus of the current research, in addition to

identifying underresearched variables to link to turnover, such as personality and organisational climate. Jacobs (2005) recommends that turnover models should include various predictors due to the complex nature of the process. This recommendation is supported by Stanz and Greyling (2010).

2. Different models of turnover need to be tested to get some consensus on the process of turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). The present study is guided by research findings in this field in developing a turnover model that can be tested. This satisfies the recommendation that different models must be tested; however the focus of the study is not on understanding the turnover process but on identifying variables that are responsible for employee turnover in this context.

3. Turnover is influenced by nationality, employee population and industry; hence turnover studies should report on this information (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). The present study will report on all the elements that have been listed above. It is important to include individual, organisational and environmental attributes in studying optimal turnover and to ensure at the same time that these are understood from the perspective of the organisation in question as these variables are organisation-specific. This view was confirmed by Drew (2003), namely that turnover research is organisation-specific and research should take this into account. It is not a matter of one size fits all.

4. Although much research has been conducted in this area, there are still no firm conclusions on the process of turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Understanding the process of turnover does not lie within the scope of the present research; however, any information that comes up in the study that could contribute to this understanding will be reported.

5. Future research should focus on the support provided by the organisation during the socialisation of newcomers (Allen, 2006). The role of experienced mentors being assigned to newcomers is important. The

socialisation of newcomers will be explored as part of this research in order to establish the extent to which it may or may not have contributed to turnover.

6. Porter and Steers (1973) suggested that leavers and stayers should be compared on similar variables in order to avoid methodological problems in turnover research. This matching provides a context for interpreting the leavers' data in a meaningful way. In this research project, leavers and stayers will be matched on various variables as far as possible to meet this recommendation.

7. It is important to study employees who are differentially valued by the organisation to check if there are any differences among these employees (Porter & Steers, 1973). Although this concern was raised in 1973, little research has since been done to explore this area meaningfully. The concern arose because little was known about employees' potential and performance as related to turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973). Although there is ample research that includes employee performance in understanding turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Dreher, 1982; Griffeth et al., 2000; Keller, 1984), very little research includes employee potential in understanding turnover. It is important for turnover research not to assume that all employees are valued equally and therefore turnover studies should include individual variables that will allow for employees to be categorised based on their value to the organisation (Parsa, Tesone & Templeton, 2009).

This situation is understandable, as the combination of employee performance and potential to determine the employee's talent rating (Sutherland, 2004) is a fairly new development in the HR field – known as Talent Management. Talent Management was first introduced in HR in early 2000; however, it is in the past three years that organisations have focused on using this information to understand and therefore classify their employees. Although talent ratings were planned to be included in

this study, the researcher eventually decided to exclude them due to only a few people in the sample having talent ratings.

8. Porter and Steers (1973) recommended studying both turnover and absenteeism in the same sample, as this would help in understanding the interactive effects within the sample. However, Mobley (1982) cautions against grouping these two variables, as he believes that turnover is not always directly linked to absenteeism. The recommendation of studying turnover and absenteeism will be met in the current research as absenteeism data on all the subjects will be included to test for interactive effects. Mobley's caution will also be investigated in this study.

9. Mobley (1982) recommended that multiple surveys and measures are required to understand factors that influence a person to leave. These measures will yield more information than single administration measures. This study is designed to capture multiple measures at different times, for both samples.

10. Not all turnover is negative, as previously mentioned. Understanding the consequences of turnover (whether positive or negative) is important (Mobley, 1982) and can help initiatives to focus on minimising negative turnover, while the organisation benefits from the positive effects of turnover. Such categorisation will be used in the study to reflect whether turnover is functional (positive) or dysfunctional (negative) (Dalton et al., 1982).

11. Research should be extended beyond turnover intentions and study samples of people who have left the organisation (Stanz & Greyling, 2010). This study investigates actual tunover as well as turnover intentions.

12. The use of structural equation modelling in future studies to investigate the casuality amongst the different variables (Boschoff et al., 2002). Contributing effects of biographical and demographic variable must be

tested, as there is very little literature that covers the interaction of these variables in predicting turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). This recommendation will be addressed in the study.

13. Lastly, although turnover is one of the most studied variables in management research, little guidance is provided by the studies on how to reduce turnover (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). This means that most of the research does not contribute to organisations benefiting from it, unless the organisations themselves are given research-based directions that will help to reduce turnover. A meta-analysis conducted by McEvoy and Cascio (1985) found that not enough studies were conducted in the area to be able to yield significant results. Recent studies that investigated realistic job preview (RJP) and job enrichment as ways of reducing turnover were too few to come up with significant results. One of the outputs of the current research is to recommend strategies to reduce turnover in the organisation based on the results of the study.

These limitations will be addressed by studying causal relationship as well as moderating effects of variables in the study, testing the proposed model of employee turnover, exploring employee socialisation and its relationship with turnover, using leavers and stayers samples that are closely matched on demographic variables, including absenteeism in the study, using multiple surveys (exit and stay interviews; organisational climate survey) with information collected at different time intervals and categorising turnover in terms of its impact on the organisation (functional or dysfunctional).

4.10   INTEGRATION

This section integrates most of the work covered in chapters 2 and 3 and proposes a turnover model that will be tested in this study. The proposed model of employee turnover, Figure 4.5, is not based on a single model, but incorporates elements from different models that were previously tested. Hence it is important to describe the different elements contained in the model.

Figure 4.5 Proposed model of employee turnover
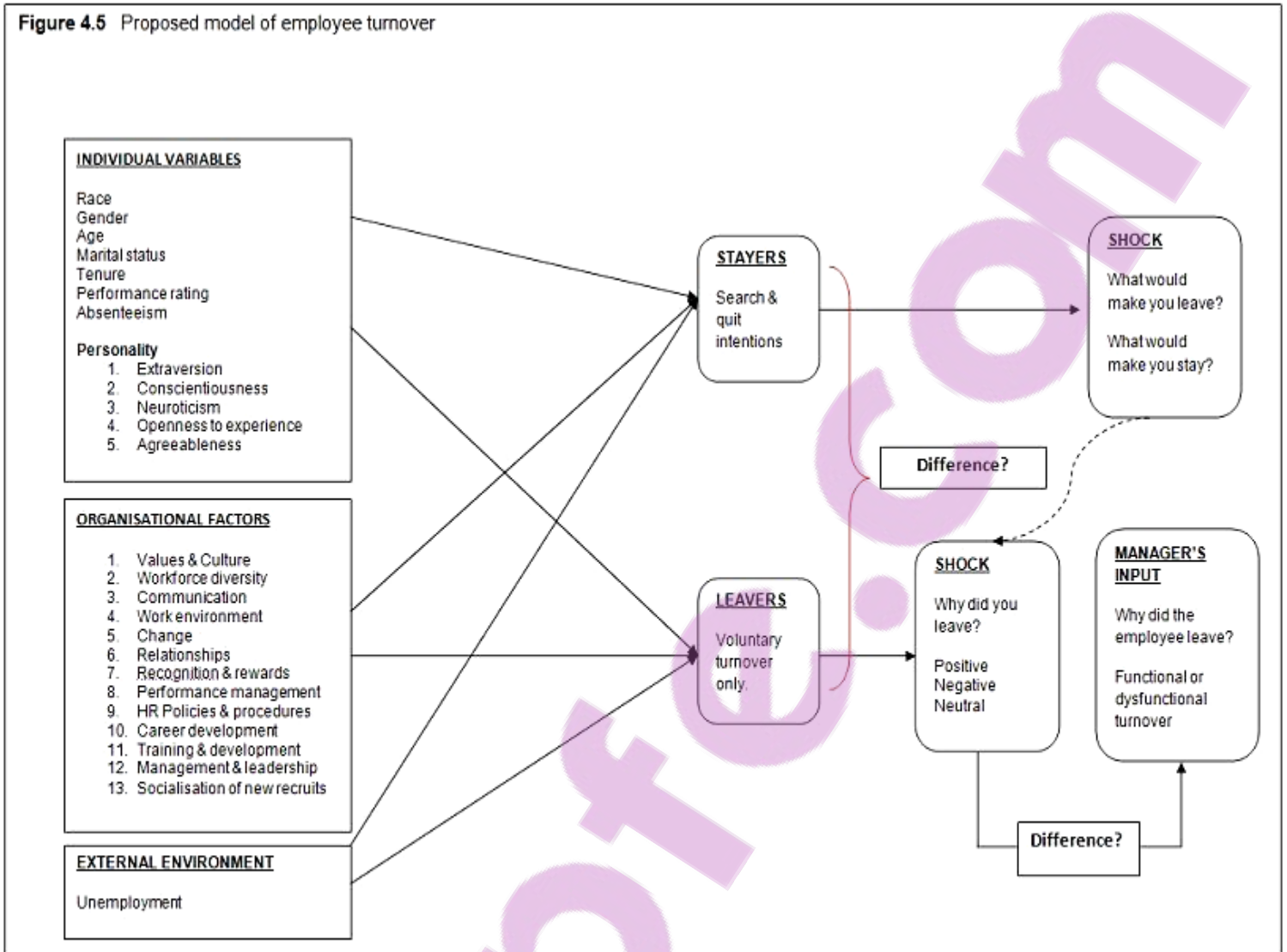
Figure 4.5. Proposed turnover model influenced by two turnover models. Adapted from "Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process" by W.H. Mobley, R.W. Griffeth, H.H. Hand, and B.M. Meglino. 1979. *Psychological Bulletin,* 86, p 517; "The unfolding model of employee turnover: a replication and extension" by T. W. Lee, T.R. Mitchell, B.C. Holtom, L. Mc Daniel and J.W. Hill. 1999. *Academy of Management Review,* p 451.

According to Campion (1991) turnover can be understood by researching individual and organisational factors. This is a view that was supported by Mc Carthy et al. (2002). These are factors that are included in this study to understand turnover. When reviewing turnover research, its important to take this a step further and understand which individual and organisational factors are included in the study, as these tend to differ from study to study (Jacobs, 2005; Mc Carthy et al., 2002; Mobley et al., 1979; Stanz & Greyling, 2010).

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4.10.1 Individual factors

Biographical information of the sample is important in any study, as it is this information that allows comparison among different groups. In this model the following variables are included: race, age, gender, marital status, hierarchical level and tenure. These variables have been included in various studies of employee turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000). Results pertaining to the effect of race and gender on turnover are conflicting, with some studies indicating there is no relationship between the variables (Griffeth et al., 2000), while others attest to a relationship between the variables (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hom et al., 2008; Jacobs, 2005; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Vallabh & Donald, 2001). More consistent findings have been reported between turnover and tenure (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 2008). Age, hierarchical level and tenure are included in the Mobley et al. (1979) expanded model of employee turnover. Steers and Mowday (1981) include individual attributes in their model but do not explain what these attributes are, unlike Mobley et al. (1979), who listed six descriptors of these attributes.

The next set of individual factors is performance and absenteeism. Not all studies on employee turnover include performance as a variable (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2007), but the model proposed by Steers and Mowday (1981) does contain job performance. Generally, performance is found to correlate negatively with turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000). Absenteeism is one of the variables that has been widely researched and linked to turnover (Cohen & Golan, 2007; Griffeth et al., 2000; Mitra et al., 1992), even though some researchers believe the concepts are not related (Mobley, 1977; Price, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

The last of the individual factors is personality. Out of all the elements included under individual factors, this is the least studied area in relation to employee turnover (Zimmerman, 2008). Despite personality characteristics playing an increasingly more important role in understanding and predicting work behaviour (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). Previous research in the area

identified a relationship between turnover and conscientiousness (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hom et al., 1984; Salgado, 2000), emotional stability (Griffeth et al., 2000; Zimmerman, 2008), agreeableness and openness to experience (Zimmerman, 2008). The expanded model of turnover (Mobley et al., 1979) identifies personality as one of the variables but does not provide any details in line with the big five personality dimensions and refers to this variable as 'personality and other interests'. Although personality is included in that model, its impact is lost among all the other variables that are measured.

4.10.2 Organisational factors

This terminology was taken from Mobley et al. (1979), who identified six organisational factors in their model. The current model proposes 12 organisational factors that contribute to the shaping of the organisation's culture (Thomas & Frederick, 1992). This culture is measured as organisational climate at an individual level (English et al., 2010). The 12 elements cover more than what the model of Mobley et al. (1979) incorporated. Steers and Mowday (1981) also include organisational characteristics and experiences in their model, but they do not explain exactly what these are.

4.10.3 Environmental factors

Both Mobley et al. (1979) and Steers and Mowday (1981) refered to the external environment, even though they measure different elements. The only external environment variable that will be measured in this study is the unemployment rate. This rate is important in determining turnover (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980), because it determines whether there are alternative job opportunities for people to consider or not (Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009; Wheeler, Gallagher, Bouer & Sablynski, 2007).

4.10.4 Other factors in the model

This research will review data of both leavers and stayers in the sample. In terms of leavers, only employees who have left voluntarily (Abelson, 1987; Lambert, 2001) will be included in the study. This is to ensure that turnover is not overstated (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985) and resources are not wasted on turnover that is beyond the employee's control. Stayers will be matched with the leavers biographically as far as possible so as to understand the differences between these two groups and to avoid methodological problems (Porter & Steers, 1973). Although turnover intentions can be used as proxy for actual turnover (Muliawan, Green & Robb, 2009), this research tests both turnover intentions and actual turnover.

The concept of shock (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) will be tested with both groups (leavers and stayers). For leavers, the aim to is to understand what the shock or trigger was that resulted in their leaving, whereas for the stayers it will be to establish what would make them leave and stay. The last part of the model will compare the reasons for leaving provided by leavers and recorded in employee files with those provided by line managers. This will be done to establish the extent to which there are discrepancies between these three sets of reasons, and what the implications for the organisation are (Morrell et al., 2007).

Finally, recommendations on how to reduce employee turnover will be made once the model has been tested (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985), so that the research may have practical value for the organisation and industry where it is applicable.

This approach was taken to ensure that organisation-, industry- and country-specific issues are taken into account when studying employee turnover (Drew, 2003), instead of applying turnover models developed in different contexts that may be neither very useful nor relevant (Drew, 2003; Lee & Mowday, 1987). Although a similar study exists in SA, where both individual and organisational factors are used to understand employee turnover of

nurses (Stanz & Greyling, 2010), the turnover model used in this study was proposed by Mc Carthy et al. (2002), which is not comprehensive. The author's individual factors exclude absenteeism, performance and personality. The model has eight broad organisational factors, which could be equated to organisational climate elements, but excludes environmental factors like unemployment.

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Employee turnover was defined, using the expanded taxonomy (Abelson, 1987). Various turnover models relevant to the study were discussed. The costs and causes of turnover were explained before an analysis was made of current turnover research and what is lacking in turnover research. A description of the proposed model of employee turnover that will be tested in this research study concludes the chapter.

CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces and explains the research design and methodology used in this research project. The research approach, sampling frame as well as all the instruments used in the empirical part of the research project will be discussed in this chapter. Validity and reliability information will be provided, as well as an overall justification of the inclusion of all instruments used in this research.

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study was to understand the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover. In addition to the theoretical discussion provided in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, an empirical study was designed. This chapter focuses on how the research was planned empirically. The study was conducted in a local retail organisation that employs over 20 000 permanent employees in more than 1 200 retail stores across Southern Africa. The organisation involved is the largest retail organisation in Southern Africa.

5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

The research approach chosen in the study as well as its limitations are discussed in this section.   The study is empirical and includes primary analysis of data collected by the researcher.   A cross sectional suvery design was adopted, a full description of this method is included in the next section.

5.2.1 Cross sectional research design

In order to address the research aims, the most appropriate research approach was a cross sectional design, due to the fact that turnover happens at a point in time.   According to Cherry (2013), a cross sectional design is a descriptive method where sample data is collected at a point in time. This is different from a longitudinal study, where data is collected at different points in

time. Although data was collected over a 20 month period, this does not qualify as a longitudinal study as there were no repeat measures collected from the same source. The period was more linked to having a big enough sample size of people who left the organisation, as turnover is unpredictable.

A cross sectional method is effective when one has a sample that shares common traits, whilst they differ on the variable under study (Cherry, 2013). In this study the leavers and stayers samples were carefully selected based on how closely they were on specific demographic variables, but differed when it came to the variables under study i.e. personality, organisational climate and turnover. The advantage of this approach is that one can investigate a number of vairables at once, the model of turnover proposed in this study has 26 variables that are grouped under individual and organisational factors. The other advantage of a cross sectional design is that it is a simpler design than a longitudinal study (Cherry, 2013). As with any method, this reasecrh design method has its limitations which are discussed in the next section.

5.2.1.1 Limitations of cross-functional design method

Despite the advantages of this type of design it has its challenges. The first challenge is that its not easy to find a sample that shares common characteristics but differs on the observed characteristics. This was mitigated by extending the data gathering period to almost two years, in order to ensure that the two samples were matched as closely as possible, as well as ensuring that the sample size is big enough for meaningful analysis to be conducted.

The second challenge is that data is collected at a point in time and therefore is static (Nasif, Al-Daeaj, Ebrahim & Thibodeaux, 1991) and may be influenced by events that preceded the data collection phase, which could lead to incorrect inferences (Bowen & Wiersema, 1999; Rumelt, 1991). In this case, data was collected at the height of a world economic crisis, which may have influenced turnover patterns. However, multiple sources of data were

gathered to mitigate this. In the leavers sample, in addition to their OPS and exit interview data, their HR Managers were asked to give input on whether the organisation would have liked to retain them or not. In the stayers sample, a stay questionnaire was emailed to all the stayers to understand why they were staying and what would make them leave the organisation, this information was referenced back to their OPS resposes of the previous 12 to 18 months. Overall, each subject in the sample had biographical data, personality scores, OPS scores, stay or exit data and turnover classification data by HR for leavers only. A final check was conducted in January 2013, to establish the percentage of people who were orinignally in the stayers sample who had resigned between 2010 and 2013, the period after the initial data was collected. All this data was collected at different intervals over the 20 month period of data collection. Using multiple measures leads to a better understanding of the turnover (Mobley, 1982).

Determining a causal relationship using this research design is a third challenge, which makes it difficult to generalise the results (Berg & Holbein, 1997). One of the aims of the study was to test a predictive model of turnover, proposed by the researcher. In turnover research in particular, it is important to understand drivers of turnover at organisation and even country level (Drew, 2003), as these could differ from one organisation or country to another.

According to Bowen and Wiersema (1999), cross sectional methods are better used when studying variables that do not change over time, as variation could fail to yield statistically valid inferences due to parameter instability. In this instance, the main variables studied i.e. personality and organisational climate are relatively stable and develop over a period of time. However, turnover is a lot more variable than these two variables.

5.3 RESEARCH METHOD

The organisation used in this study employs a large number of people and it is the largest retailer in Southern Africa. In this case, the population for this study would be all permanent employees who work in departments that had turnover of 15% or higher in the 2008 financial year. As it is not feasible to obtain data on large populations, samples are generally used in research (Babbie, 1986). A sample is a subset of the population that meets the criteria of the study (Good & Hardin, 2003). Both the stayers and leavers samples were selected from this population. A sampling frame is useful in specifying criteria that will be used to select people from the population for the sample (Caldwell, 2007). In this study, a sampling frame was developed to capture decisions made about the qualifying criteria for both samples (Babbie, 1986). Details of the sampling frame are included in the section below.

5.3.1 Sampling frame

In order to create a sampling frame, an initial analysis was conducted with the aim of understanding which departments in the organisation had a problem with employee turnover. The organisation produces monthly HR metrics that include labour turnover statistics by department, in addition to other key metrices, such as number of appointments and promotions. The May 2009 HR metrics report was consulted for this purpose. This report included the previous year's annual turnover figures. For purposes of clarity, the organisation was divided into four functional areas: 1) Retail Operations – stores; 2) Merchandise, Marketing, Sourcing, Cellular and Planning; 3) Corporate Services, and 4) Financial Services. Each of the functional areas was further divided into departments. Only departments with labour turnover of 15% and higher in the 2008 financial year were included in the study. This cut-off point was influenced by the fact that the group regarded labour turnover below 15% as acceptable. When reviewing the data, other departments were identified whose overall labour turnover was below 15%; however, certain job levels within these departments had labour turnover that

exceeded 15%. These departments were also included in the study on the basis of high turnover within certain job levels. The first inclusion criterion was therefore based on the department's overall annual turnover or the turnover of a specific job level being 15% or higher.

The functional area that was purposefully excluded from the study was Financial Services. At the time, they had the highest labour turnover at 25%. This was the result of the majority of positions in that functional area being those of call centre agents. In this instance, their responsibility was to call customers who are behind with their store card payments and arrange suitable payment terms. Their other function was to tele-market various products and services sold by the company, e.g. insurance. Previous research in the Financial Services sector indicated that labour turnover is generally higher in this sector than in other sectors, due to the socially isolating work environment (Milner et al., 2010). Other reasons for the high turnover were workload, lack of career prospects and burnout due to stressful working conditions (Visser & Rothman, 2008). On this basis, this area was excluded so that it would not skew the results of the study.

In total, nine departments from three functional areas complied with the first inclusion criterion. In terms of job level (bands), it was decided that the research would cover bands B to F. These bands are based on the Hay job grading system that Company X uses and each band reflects a specific level in the organisation:

- Band B: supervisory role
- Band C: specialist/ junior management role
- Band D : middle management role
- Band E : senior management role
- Band F : executive management

There were exclusions in this instance and these were band A, which is for operational roles (e.g. sales associates), and band M, which is for permanent

part timers. These bands were excluded because they are entry level roles in the organisation. As a result there is much movement at this level, as people settle into a career in retail. The inclusion of these entry level roles could have skewed the results of the study. In order to obtain a balanced view, both leavers and stayers in these areas were included in the study so that an understanding of how they differ could be gleaned as part of the model testing.

The inclusion of employees in this sample depended on the availability of the following information:

- Personality information as measured by the Occupational Personality Profile (OPPro)
- Organisational climate scores as measured by the Organisational Perception Survey (OPS)
- Leaver information as measured by an exit interview
- Stayer information as measured by a stay interview
- Biographical information, e.g. race, gender, performance ratings, etc.

The retail organisation concerned introduced psychological testing in January 2002 (Nzama, 2005). This meant that all job applicants had to be psychologically assessed before being appointed to positions in the organisation. Psychological assessment was conducted for all levels in the organisation. However, assessment tools were changed in June 2009, resulting in personality being measured in terms of the OPQ 32 hence onwards. The previous personality test used was the OPPro. As the research would use data of employees in the organisation in 2009, it was decided that the OPPro would be the tool used in the current research project. These instruments are both personality tests based on trait theory; however, the OPQ 32 is based on 32 competencies, while the OPPro is based on the Five Factor Model, which is the conceptual model used in this study.

5.3.2 Sampling method

With the sampling frame used as a guide, the researcher collated information of all leavers and stayers who met the criteria mentioned above. Purposive sampling (Bailey, 1987) was used for selecting the group of leavers and stayers in the study. Terminations in the departments included in the study were monitored monthly from May 2009 to April 2011. Each of the people terminating their services were included in the study, provided they were employed on job levels B to F and was classified as a voluntary leaver. Once this data was collected, two samples were identified, one for leavers and the other one for stayers. The sample of stayers was selected from the same departments as where the leavers came from. The departments were categorised by job level, so that a sample of stayers could match that of leavers in the department in respect of various factors (job level, tenure, etc.). The value of studying matched samples is that they provide valuable information on what factors really differentiate them and thus allow the meaningful interpretation of leavers' data (Porter & Steers, 1973). Only respondents for whom information was not readily available were excluded in the study. The result was a leavers sample of 729 and stayers sample of 807 people, the total number for the study being 1536. In the end there were more stayers than leavers because some departments were found to have more than one person who matched the leaver in that area. Where that was the case, all these people were included in the stayers sample.

The sampling method used (purposive sampling) falls within non-probability sampling, which means that the probability of the person being included in the study is unknown because the researcher uses her judgement in including people who meet the objectives of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This method is not complicated and it is inexpensive, as it uses respondents whose data is available at the time (Bailey, 1987). The disadvantage of the method is that the sample may not be fully representative, which would affect the generalisability of results (Babbie, 1986).

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5.3.3 Ethical considerations

Ethics are very important when research is conducted and a number of ethical considerations and challenges characterised this study. The author requested permission from the HR Director before the research project commenced, indicating why the research was important and how it could potentially benefit the organisation. This permission was granted. In addition, a number of ethical issues were considered for each piece of information required in the research. The organisational consent allowed the researcher access to the organisation's HR system so as to establish which people should be included in the two samples (leavers and stayers), based on the sampling frame discussed above.

Psychological assessments and the OPS completed by individual employees raised a possible ethical challenge, as all the people who were in the leavers sample were no longer employed by the organisation. Each of these surveys contain statements that refer to anonimity, confidentiality, aggregated scores, etc., as is indicated below:

- **Assessment consent form** – explains what the assessment is about, confidentiality and how the information will be used, including for research purposes. Assessment practitioners read out the contents of the consent form and explain where necessary. Only people who signed the consent forms were assessed.
- **OPS** – includes a confidentiality statement to the effect that responses will be treated as private and confidential. The biographical section includes the following introduction: "This information will be used to analyse various groups within the organisation in order to understand their perceptions. Individual information is anonymous, and there is no way that your line manager can trace your responses back to you." The usual practice in the organisation is that information is analysed and presented back to the different departments and functional areas in order for action plans to be compiled.

- **Exit interview questionnaire**– confidentiality is guaranteed and when appropriate, information in aggregate form only may be shared. The data obtained by means of this form would be used to enhance the company's recruitment and retention efforts.

- **Stay interview questionnaire** – permission was sought for this information to be used in the research project, explaining what the research topic was and how the data would be used. Only information from people who responded to the questionnaire was used in the research.

In addition to the specifics above, the researcher had to ensure that only appropriately qualified people could assist with the data gathering. For example, a psychologist was responsible for sourcing OPPro reports and these were stored in a secure area. More details on ethical considerations are provided under the heading of data gathering.

5.3.4 Measuring instruments

A number of measuring instruments were used in this research, namely the OPPro, the OPS, exit interviews and stay interviews. The next section will discuss each measuring instrument, its development, aim, scales, administration, interpretation, reliability, validity and motivation for its inclusion in the study.

5.3.4.1 *Occupational Personality Profile (OPPro)*

The OPPro is a personality questionnaire designed for occupational use. It gives a personality overview of someone who is well functioning, hence it was not intended to be used to diagnose psychiatric disturbances (La Grange, 2003).

a.   Rationale, aim and development of the OPPro

The OPPro measures the big five personality traits (La Grange, 2003). The 16PF (a clinical test) was previously used in occupational testing prior to the development of the 15 FQ Plus and the OPPro. The problem with using a clinical test in organisations is that the test is designed to detect pathology, which is not the aim of personality testing in an occupational setting. The 16PF also yielded different results for different race groups, and blacks were found to interpret the items differently from other race groups (Abrahams & Mauer, 1999). Prinsloo and Ebersöhn (2002) viewed these differences in mean scores as possibly indicating a true difference between the race groups and not necessarily as an indication of bias in the test. This is a point that Abrahams (2002) disagreed with, indicating that the 16PF has not been shown to be appropriate for the SA context, hence differences in mean scores cannot be assumed to be reflecting real differences. The OPPro was developed in the UK using large samples and it measures nine personality dimensions on a bipolar scale (low and high scores) (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991).

The aim of the OPPro is to measure personality traits, using either a paper-and-pencil or the computerised version. Based on how one responds to the questions, one's preferences are elicited as they relate to personality in the work environment. This test is based on trait theory of personality and measures the big five personality traits that are represented in the Five Factor Model of personality (La Grange, 2003).

b.   Description of the OPPro

The OPPro is a personality test with 98 items that measure different areas of one's personality in the work environment. It is in a self-report format that can be completed either electronically or through paper-and-pencil administration. The respondent is asked to answer questions based on how closely they describe him/her or his/her behaviour by using one of five alternative

responses; 1= 'strongly agree'; 2 = 'agree'; 3 = 'in between'; 4 = 'disagree' and 5 = 'strongly disagree' (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991).

c.   Scales and administration of the OPPro

The OPPro measures five global factors, which are underpinned by nine bipolar scales and two control scales (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991). The global factors measured by the OPPro are indicated below, with the corresponding big five terminology used to describe the scales reflected in brackets:

- Neuroticism [Neuroticism]
- Extraversion [Extraversion]
- Openness to ideas [Openness to Experience]
- Agreeableness [Agreeableness]
- Conformity [Conscientiousness]

It is evident that the big five terminology differs only slightly from that of the OPPro; however this is linked to personality researchers not always agreeing on which terms to use for the big five (Goldberg, 1993; McAdams & Pals, 2006). Despite the disagreement, the constructs measured are the same, even if they are referred to by slightly different names. The big five personality traits in the OPPro is measured by nine bipolar scales that are measured using 98 questions. Scales and their detailed descriptions are provided in Table 5.1. It must be noted that these descriptions relate to the opposite ends of the scales and they describe personality traits associated with extremes of these scales (low and high).

Table 5.1: OPPro Bipolar Scales and Reliabity

Scales	Low score description	High score description	Alpha
1	**Accommodating:** empathetic, people-orientated, accepting, sensitive to people's feelings and avoids confrontation.	**Assertive:** dominant, task-orientated, challenging, unconcerned about other's feelings and confrontative.	0.71
2	**Detail conscious:** deliberating, controlled, rigid, enjoys attending to detail and conscientious.	**Flexible:** spontaneous, lacks self-discipline and self-control, flexible, dislikes attending to detail, disregards rules and obligations.	0.77
3	**Cynical:** suspicious, cynical, inclined to question other's motives, sceptical and may distrust other people.	**Trusting:** trusting, philanthropic, takes people at face value, has faith in other's honesty and sometimes a little credulous.	0.83
4	**Emotional:** prone to worry, moody, inclined to be anxious in social settings, troubled by feelings of anxiety and self-doubt and easily takes offence.	**Phlegmatic:** self-assured, emotionally stable, socially confident, secure and resilient.	0.75
5	**Reserved:** reserved, cool and introspective, prefers to work alone, enjoys own company, aloof and detached.	**Gregarious:** outgoing, sociable, lively, talkative, enjoys working with others, high need for affiliation, warm and participating.	0.67
6	**Genuine:** bases behaviour on own feelings and attitudes, forthright, honest and open, genuine and sincere, may lack tact and diplomacy.	**Persuasive:** behaviour is determined by the demands of the situation, diplomatic, manipulative, expedient, shrewd, calculating and sensitive to 'political' issues.	0.75
7	**Composed:** calm and composed, able to delegate, keeps work separate from home life, able to unwind and relax, tolerant, able to distance themselves from work pressures.	**Contesting:** ambitious and competitive, may take on too much, works long hours, has difficulty relaxing, impatient and may be prone to stress-related illnesses.	0.75
8	**Optimistic:** achieving, believe their own actions determine outcomes, positive approach to setbacks, optimistic and believe they are in control of their destiny.	**Pessimistic:** resigned, prone to feelings of helplessness, inclined to pessimism and have little faith in their ability to determine events.	0.71
9	**Abstract:** imaginative, aesthetically sensitive, creative, artistic, intellectual and has a theoretical orientation.	**Pragmatic:** down to earth, concrete, not interested in artistic matters, practical, realistic and more concerned with 'how' than 'why'.	0.70
Social conformity			0.66
Mean alpha			0.73

Source: OPPro Technical Manual (1991)

One could ask – why not 15 factors? The personality characteristics measured by the OPPro have been selected based on their relevance to personnel assessment and selection decisions, as well as on the basis of

extensive research demonstrating their validity (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991). Scales were designed to be short, though still having high levels of reliability and construct validity.

The administration of the OPPro can take place electronically or via paper-and-pencil. In both instances, the administrator is present to provide instructions to the test taker. The electronic version of the OPPro must be completed under supervision (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991), unlike the OPQ 32, which can be completed unsupervised. The test administrator provides a brief overview of the test, what it measures and how long it will approximately take to complete it. A consent form is given to the test taker, clearly stating what the results of the test are to be used for and who they can be shared with, in the case of third party testing.

An answer sheet and a booklet are given to the test taker in the case of a paper-and-pencil administration, or the test is set up on the computer in the case of online testing. In both instances the test taker provides biographical information (name, surname, age, race, position applied for, qualifications and date of testing) before proceeding with the test itself. In terms of the actual test, the test taker is encouraged to think not too long and hard about responses to questions, but rather to provide the first response that comes to mind. In the case of paper-and-pencil administration, once the test taker has completed the assessment, the administrator must capture all responses on the computer (all scoring is done online using the GeneSys online system). This process takes time and could result in capturing errors. The online testing option on the other hand is quick, as test takers enter their responses directly into the system, thus eliminating any errors. However, candidates who are not computer literate could be intimidated by the use of a computer.

The company where the research was conducted started off with paper-and-pencil assessments but changed to online assessments in order to improve efficiency in the testing process. This also made it easy for computerised reports to be generated, which were then interpreted based on the purpose of the assessment (selection, development) to provide feedback.

d.   *Interpretation of the OPPro*

It is important for the assessor to understand why the testing was done, as this will determine whether the whole report (development assessment) or only sections that are linked to specific competencies (selection) need to be interpreted. Interpretation of the OPPro may only be done by psychologists and psychometrists who have been trained in the use of the instrument. The starting point is the computer-generated report that is the result of the test taker responding to the test questions. This report has a profile chart that summarises the person's scores across all the scales outlined in Table 5.1. A sample report is included in Appendix A.

The scores are reported in stanines, which are normalised standard scores with nine intervals (Huysamen, 1983). In addition, there are derived scores for leadership style, team role, subordinate and selling styles. The training covers administration, scoring and interpretation guidelines. These include procedures for the interpretation of low and high scores, as well as social desirability. The computer-generated report also provides validity scales, which give an indication of the extent to which the respondents could have faked (good or bad) their responses. The validity scales measure the level of distortion (low or high) and extreme responses vs. central tendency. The scales need to be taken into account when results are interpreted, as they give an indication of how valid the results are likely to be (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991).

In this research, the OPPro was included for research purposes, so scores on all nine bipolar scales and two validity scales were individually captured, as well as scores for the five global factors. This allowed the researcher to test both the scales and global factors in relation to employee turnover, while understanding the impact of validity scales.

e.   *Reliability and validity of the OPPro*

The coefficient alpha calculated for the OPPro ranges between 0,67 and 0,83, the average being 0,73 (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991). This is an internal consistency measure of the OPPro and reflects the degree to which possible splits of the test measure the same thing (Huysamen, 1983). Table 5.1 provided details of coefficient alpha for the OPPro. These reliabilities on average met the 0,70 and above cut-off point that is widely accepted in social sciences (Garson, 2008). In South Africa a reliability coefficient of 0,6 is considered acceptable for personality tests, due to a diversity of languages in the country (La Grange, 2003). In most instances, the language used in tests is English, which is a second or third language for the majority of South Africans. In this case, the OPPro meets and in some instances exceeds the cut-off point for social sciences reliability.

Construct validity of the OPPro was established through validation studies where the test was compared to other personality tests like the 16PF, 15 FQ Plus, OPQ 32 and the Jung type indicator, to name a few. Validity results are reported in Table 5.2. The results indicate moderate to high levels of validity, indicating that all these personality measures are valid. Multiple correlations between the OPPro and 15 FQ Plus range from 0.49 to 0.82, while for the OPQ 32 they range between 0.43 and 0.66. The multiple correlations between the OPPro and the OPQ 32 indicate that all dimensions measured by the OPQ 32 are well predicted by the OPPro, with the exception of Contesting ($r = 0,44$) and Pessimistic ($r = 0,43$).

Table 5.2: OPPro Multiple Correlations

OPPro scale	15 FQ dimensions	*R*	OPQ 32 dimensions	*R*
Assertive	Dominant .65, Direct .45	*R* =.73	Empathy, Influence, Contesting & Gregarious	*R* =.65
Flexible	Expedient .52, Direct .37, Radical .45, Informal .57	*R* =.72	Detail conscious, Planful, Conservative	*R* =.58
Trusting	Trusting .68, Informal .32	*R* =.75	Empathy, Contesting,	*R* =.64
Phlegmatic	Stability .44, Dominance .33, Direct .32, Confident .48, Relaxed .34	*R* =.77	Phlegmatic, Relaxed, Optimistic, Social confidence Gregarious, Social confidence	*R* =.61
Gregarious	Outgoing .59, Enthusiastic .37, Socially Bold .40, Group-orientated .56	*R* =.82	Influence, Gregarious	*R*= .58
Persuasive	Enthusiastic .45, Socially Bold .56	*R* =.69	Relaxed, Contesting, Active, Phlegmatic	*R* =.66
Contesting	Self-doubting .33, Suspicious .28, Tense .44	*R* =.49	Optimistic, Planful, Contesting	*R* =.44
Pessimistic	Temperamental .31, Restrained .36, Self-doubting .29, Retiring .25	*R* =.57	Imaginative, Planful, Detail conscious, Empathy Social desirability	*R* =.43
Pragmatic	Retiring .31, Reserved .31, Factual .63, Practical .64, Conventional .31 Suspicious	*R* =.77		*R* =.53
Distortion	.32, Distortion .50	*R* =.71		*R* =.53

Source: OPPro Technical Manual (1991)

f.   Motivation for including the OPPro in the study

The OPPro was included in this study because it is a valid and reliable measure of personality in the work context. The test measures the big five personality traits and is linked to the trait theory used in this research to conceptualise personality. As the purpose of using this test is research, only the following sections of the OPPro were used in this study:

- **Global factors (5)** – stanines captured on a scale of one to nine for information on each of big five dimension.

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- **Bipolar scales (9)** – stanines captured for each of the nine scales. These provide a detailed, individual measure of the scales.
- **Validity scales** – distortion and response indicator scales are recorded on a scale of one to nine, indicating the extent to which the respondent was honest in responding to the questions. The influence of social desirability on the validity of the test will be ascertained.

5.3.4.2 Organisational Perception Survey (OPS)

The OPS is a survey designed to measure various dimensions of organisational climate.

a.   Rationale, aim and development of the OPS

Since 2000, the organisation involved in the current study embarked on a campaign to become an employer of choice. The campaign was initiated by the company's Executive Management and involved specific initiatives that were implemented over a number of years. The aim was to identify aspects on which the organisation needed to focus in order for it to be seen and experienced as an employer of choice in SA. The eight areas that were identified as focus areas for the campaign are leadership, culture, company reputation, work environment, learning, compensation, BBBEE and employee care. This programme was introduced at a time when employee turnover was 29% and return on equity was 5.4%. Each of the eight pillars mentioned above had specific programmes that were designed and implemented to achieve the objectives in that pillar. The OPS was developed in-house as one of the measurements used to determine the extent to which employees were satisfied with the work done across the pillars and whether the organisation was being experienced as a good employer.

The measuring instrument (OPS) was developed by a team in the Organisational Development department led by an industrial psychologist. It was based on best practice research on organisational climate tools at the

time of development. The OPS was used every year as the employees' feedback to their leaders and the organisation about the climate in the organisation. Before each administration, the dimensions and questions would be reviewed to ensure that they remained relevant. This process led to the enhancement of the questionnaire, although in some instances it resulted in some categories being introduced that had not been there previously, e.g. workforce diversity.

b.   Description of the OPS

The OPS comprises 116 questions that measure 12 dimensions of organisational climate. It is in a self-report format, where employees respond to questions based on their level of agreement with the questions. It uses a 4-point rating scale ranging from 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'agree', to 'strongly agree'. Previous versions of the OPS had a 5-point scale, with 'unsure' as option 3. However, it was found that this did not force employees to have an opinion, especially when answering sensitive questions. As a result, the 5-point rating scale was reduced to 4 points. This had some impact when year-on-year results were compared, especially when new questions or dimensions were added to the questionnaire. The absence of 'unsure' as a category also meant that employees were forced to choose, which could have inflated the results for the 'disagree' and 'agree' categories.

c.   Scales and administration of the OPS

The OPS measures the following dimensions:
- Values and culture
- Workforce diversity
- Communication
- Work environment
- Change
- Relationships
- Recognition and rewards

- Performance management

- HR policies and procedures

- Career development

- Training and development

- Management and leadership

The OPS is administered annually in February/March. The timing coincides with the end of the organisation's financial year (end March) so that OPS results may be used in year-end performance reviews that take place in April and May every year. The 2009 results that are used in this study are the first OPS results not to be included in performance agreements and reviews, as sufficient progress had been made to improve the climate in the organisation. The OPS is administered either via paper-and-pencil for employees who do not have access to computers (i.e. in the distribution centres) or electronically. Previously, store employees also completed the paper-and-pencil version; however, kiosks were intalled in stores which were used by employees to apply for leave as well as complete the OPS. This migration to an electronic version in stores has assisted in reducing the workload and error associated with capturing the paper-and-pencil version. With both versions, there is a cover letter from the head of HR that explains what the survey is measuring and that encourages employees to be honest in their responses. Issues of confidentiality are also addressed, so that employees are well informed about how their responses are going to be used. (See Appendix B for the OPS and its questions.) The paper and pencil version of the OPS is comparable to the online version.   All instructions and questions are the same, the only difference is mode of administration. The questionnaire takes approximately 45 minutes to complete. Employees rate the questions using a 4-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree.

In the distribution centres, the relevant line manager had a training session with staff, where (s)he read out the instructions and explained where necessary. This is because employees were at different levels of literacy and the organisation wanted to ensure that employees understood what they were

responding to. As the majority of employees had access to computers or kiosks (stores), most of the OPS was administered online.

Once the paper-and-pencil version was completed, it was given to the HR Manager or Line Manager in a sealed envelope for it to be sent to head office for capturing and processing. In the paper-and-pencil version, employees were requested to indicate only their cost centre. Their names and surnames were not required for confidentiality reasons. This meant that none of the employees from this area could be used in the current research, as it was not possible to identify them. However, this was not a concern because the distribution centre was one of the areas with the lowest turnover rate (below 10%). The electronic version differed slightly because employees were required to log onto the OPS link that was emailed to them using their employee number. This was to ensure that employees complete the OPS only once and that only active employees were eligible for completing the survey. Once the questionnaire was completed and saved, the program linked the employee to the relevant department for report generation.

In this research, only employees who completed the OPS electronically were included, as they could be identified by their employee number. None of the other employees were identifiable once they submitted the paper-and-pencil version. The confidentiality of employees in this study was still maintained because the only identifier used by the researcher to collect all relevant information was the employee number. Once all data had been collected, the employee number field was deleted to ensure that employees could not be linked to their responses. Reporting of information was not at individual level either, which was another way of protecting the employee's confidentiality.

d.   Interpretation of the OPS

A group report was generated by the Organisational Effectiveness (OE) department and presented to the Executives in the company for comment and discussion. This report was interpreted against the overall OPS target set by

the group, which was 66%. This target also applied to individual dimensions. The report included the following:

- Methodology used
- Response rate – overall and by business unit, current and previous year comparison by business unit
- Satisfaction rate – overall year-on-year comparison, since inception
- Satisfaction rate by business unit, compared to group average and target; current and previous year comparisons by business unit
- Demographic analysis by race, age, gender, occupational level, tenure
- Dimension analysis and comparison, current vs. previous year
- Top 5 statements
- Bottom 5 statements

The same reporting format for the group was used when departmental reports were produced by the OE department. These reports were presented to the department manager, whose responsibility it was to workshop the results with the team that responded. Some workshops were facilitated by HR, depending on the feedback received and the line manager's receptiveness to feedback. Action plans were then developed by all present at the workshop, indicating clear actions, measurements, responsibilities and timeframes. Feedback intervals were also agreed to in this session. In the past, the overall score that the line manager received for climate would make up a percentage of the line manager's performance rating, ranging from 5 to 10%. However, this practice was stopped in 2008, due to significant improvements in the organisational climate. When the first OPS was administered in 2000, the overall satisfaction rate was 59%; it peaked at 81% in 2006 and in 2010 it was 77%.

e.   *Reliability and validity of the OPS*

Despite the climate survey tool being used for the past 10 years, no scientific validity or reliability studies had been conducted. Part of the aim of this study

was to validate the OPS. The process followed in establishing the validity and reliability of the OPS is outlined below.

A group of employees was assembled for them to assess the face validity of the instrument. This was done through a session facilitated by the researcher, where 10 employees from different departments and job levels were invited to the session. The researcher explained that the purpose of the session was to establish from the users whether the OPS appeared to be measuring organisational climate. This is generally the first type of validity that is established by determining the opinion of users (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Organisational climate was defined and described to the group, so that everyone had the same idea of what the concept meant. The workshop proceeded to test whether each of the 12 dimensions in the OPS could be regarded as elements of organisational climate. Once this was completed, each dimension was reviewed in relation to the questions that were supposed to measure the specific dimension. The aim of this exercise was for the users to indicate whether at face value, based on their understanding of organisational climate, the dimensions and the questions measure organisational climate. The workshop was concluded by summarising the comments and findings of the panel of users, to ensure that inputs were properly captured.

Feedback from panel members was positive, in that the dimensions and questions contained in the 2009 OPS survey were found to be a measure of organisational climate. The tool was viewed as being comprehensive and really dealing with matters that are important to employee satisfaction. The only point that was raised pertained to a need for further clarity, especially relating to how certain questions could be interpreted. This relates to questions that require one to rate his/her line manager and some that require the rating of management. For example: "Senior management at Company X is approachable". This question relates to management in a broader sense and differs from the following question: "My line manager embraces the organisation's values, thus providing a good example for employees to follow".

It was pointed out that this clarification was already provided in the questionnaire as a footnote in appropriate sections; however, the fact that the concern was raised could mean that a different strategy for clarifying this was required. The person responsible for surveys was in the panel meeting and made a note of the feedback for further resolution.

A similar process was followed to establish content validity; however, in this instance a panel of experts was invited to a separate workshop to assist. It is difficult to establish content validity with people who do not understand the full domain of the construct that is discussed (Gaur & Gaur, 2009), hence the need for a panel of experts who were all psychologists. The researcher facilitated this session, where organisational climate was defined. The domain of organisational climate was identified and presented to the panel using current research in organisational climate. Once the domain was defined, the panel was given the OPS questionnaires and asked to review the extent to which the dimensions measured climate and whether the questions were regarded as measuring the dimensions. The panel of experts was made up of internal and external psychologists. The panel concurred that the OPS was a valid measure of organisational climate and included all dimensions that would be regarded as important by employees.

The positive feedback from both panels was encouraging. However, as this is a scientific study more quantitative analysis was required. In this case, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted – an approach designed to uncover the underlying structure of the questions in the OPS (Garson, 2011). As the OPS had not been validated before, the researcher decided to use the entire organisation's 2009 OPS responses from 13 522 respondents (116 questions) to test whether the dimensions that the organisation had conceptualised were the correct ones. The other test was to find out which items loaded on which factors (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) and whether there were any redundant items in the survey.

EFA was chosen as an approach because it does not require any prior theory to be used; it indicates the best loading of the questions to a particular factor

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(Garson, 2011). EFA is a data reduction method, hence principal axis factoring (PAF) was used as a method of extracting underlying factors from the data. PAF is the most common extraction technique used in factor analysis (Garson, 2008) and sometimes it is confused with FA itself (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). This method identifies the least number of factors that account for covariance shared by a set of variables (Garson, 2011). The correlation matrix is therefore important for this analysis to take place. No specific number of factors was captured in the system as the researcher did not want to restrict the analysis. Varimax was used as a method of rotation as it produces orthogonal factors (factors not correlated to each other), which assists in identifying new variables (Garson, 2011). Factor loadings were sorted by size from the highest to the lowest eigenvalues and only loadings that have a value above 0.40 were included (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Eigenvalues measure the amount of variance in relation to total variance (Garson, 2011). This cut-off point is an acceptable one for identifying important factor loadings (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Eigenvalues of below 0.40 indicate low factor loadings, which means that the item contributes little to the explanation of variance and is generally not included (Garson, 2011).

The outcome was that 13 factors were extracted from the data. These 13 factors explained 58% of the variance, based on their extracted sum of squares loadings. On closer analysis, only 8 of the 13 factors appeared to be significant, based on the questions that loaded on them. A number of questions loaded on the 8 factors, whereas only a few questions loaded on factors 9 to 13. These eight factors accounted for 54% of the variance. Based on the EFA results, the factors were renamed as follows:

- **Factor 1: Leadership and management**. This is the strongest factor and it explains 39% of the variance. It is one of the dimensions in the 2009 OPS, however, it is appearing stronger here because in addition to its original items, all other questions in the survey that measure leadership loaded on this factor.
- **Factor 2: Relationship with co workers.** This factor accounts for 6% of the variance after rotation. It combines items from the OPS 2009

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survey that were originally under the dimensions 'values and culture' and 'relationships', except for ones that measured the line manager. The common thread in these items is that they refer to people's relationships with their co workers.

- **Factor 3: Workforce diversity**. This factor also accounts for 3% variance and replicates the workforce diversity dimension found in the 2009 OPS survey. All the original items load on this dimension except for one.

- **Factor 4: Career development.** This factor accounts for 2% variance and combines all items from the original OPS 2009 dimension, except for one. It also includes one item that was previously under change management.

- **Factor 5: Performance management.** This factor accounts for 1.6% of the variance. Only five of the original 14 statements load on this factor, the other six statements load ontor management and leadership, whilst three statements are redundant.

- **Factor 6: HR policies & procedures.** This factor accounts for 1.3% of the variance and also replicates the dimension found in the 2009 OPS survey, except for two questions that deal with communication.

- **Factor 7: Recongition & rewards.** This factor accounts for 1.1% of the variance. Only three of the five original statements load on this factor, the other two are redundant.

- **Factor 8**: **Learning & development**. This factor accounts for 0.95% of the variance and replicates the 'learning and development' dimension from the OPS 2009.

The other five factors (to make up 13) have a variance contribution of less than 1,3% each and a cumulative variance of 4%. However, the items that loaded on these factors were too mixed and varied to come up as distinguishable factors. This EFA exercise assisted in confirming factors for the OPS, while identifying factors and items that were redundant. The table below represents Cronbach for the original OPS and the validated OPS.

Table 5.3: OPS Cronbach's alpha

OPS dimension	Cronbach Alpha values for the original questionnaire dimensions	Cronbach Alpha values for dimensions based on factor analysis data of the current sample
Values & culture	.900	-
Workforce diversity	.925	.980
Communication	.876	-
Work environment	.833	-
Change	.901	-
Relationships (with co-wokers)	.898	.984
Recognition & rewards	.814	.987
Performance management	.913	.953
HR policies & procedures	.877	.949
Career development	.889	.966
Training & development	.898	.983
Management & leadership	.975	.996
Overall	.986	.975

Cronbach's alpha was calculated as a measure of internal reliability of a set of questions and scales (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Cronbach's alpha for the original OPS is 0.986 and 0.975 for the validated OPS based on eight dimensions. 97 of the original questions were retained and the rest of the questions were redundant. The cut-off point for alpha is 0.80 for the measure to be accepted as reliable and this measure reflects the internal consistency of the test (Garson, 2008). Both OPS questionaires are reliable as their overall Cronbach alpha's are well above the 0.80 cut-off. Only eight of the original 12 dimensions were significant in the validated OPS, see Appendix C for questions that load on the eight dimensions . Seven of the eight dimensions retained their names as the items related directly to how the dimensions had

been named. The only dimension that would have to be adjusted is relationships, which previously covered relationship with both co-workers and line managers. This dimension was re-named relationships with co-workers as all the items that loaded on it were specifically related to co-workers. The line manager items loaded on the management and leadership dimension. A total of 97 of the original 116 items were retained in the factor analysis. Appendix D lists OPS items that were not retained. Guttman's split half coefficient for the OPS is 0.940 and Spearman's equal length coefficient is 0.943. The cut-off for split half reliabilities is between 0.80 for adequate reliability and 0.90 for good reliability (Garson, 2008). In this case, all reliability indicators of the OPS exceeded the cut-off points used in social science, which indicates that the OPS is a reliable instrument.

The high Cronbach alpha values found for the original questionnaire and the fact that the aim of the study was to use an already existing standardised questionnaire (provided it was reliable and valid) informed the decision to continue to use the original OPS questionnaire for the remainder of the analysis of results.

f.   Motivation for including the OPS in the study

The OPS was included in this study as it was the most comprehensive measure of organisational climate used by the group. Based on the 12 dimensions that it measures, it was evident that all elements that contributed to the climate in the organisation were covered. This enabled the researcher to test the impact of all the different climate dimensions on employee turnover. The OPS as conceptualised in this study is broader than other climate measures that are included in other turnover studies. Mobley et al. (1979) used six dimensions, while Steers and Mowday (1981) referred to organisational characteristics and experience without defining what these would be.

In this regard, the full OPS was used in the study as it is a valid and reliable tool to measure organisational climate, for the current sample group (Table 5.3).

5.3.4.3 Exit and stay interviews

These interviews are discussed together because exit interviews are applicable to the leavers in the sample, while stay interviews are applicable to the stayers in the sample.

Exit interviews have been used in the organisation for more than 10 years. However, when this research was conducted and data was collected, it was found that not all employees who resigned actually completed an exit interview. Stay interviews on the other hand are a new concept in the organisation; therefore the researcher designed a stay interview format for the purpose of this research. The rationale, aim, development, description and interpretation of exit and interviews are contained in the next section.

a. Rationale, aim and development of exit and stay interviews

Exit interviews are conducted when an employee resigns so as to establish why the employee is leaving and what could have been done to prevent his/her departure. These interviews are conducted only with employees who voluntarily resign, as opposed to employees who leave the organisation involuntarily, e.g. through dismissal, retirement and retrenchment. At the time the exit interview is conducted, it is usually too late to try and resolve the issue (also referred to as shock) that led to the employee resigning (Lee & Mitchell, 1999). This sometimes contributes to employees not being willing to take part in an exit interview or only providing limited information as there is nothing in it for them. For this purpose, it is important that the interviewer is someone who is skilled and able to show that even if the employee does not benefit, other colleagues may benefit if problems are raised and the company addresses them.

Stay interviews are used with current employees, for the organisation to understand what the employees are satisfied or dissatisfied with. This is seen as a proactive way of managing employees, as the organisation will know about an employee's concerns long before the employee decides to leave. If the organisation rectifies problem areas, it is more likely to retain key talent than if these interviews are conducted and no visible action occurs afterwards.

The exit interview form used by the organisation was developed in-house. These forms differ from company to company and are based on the purpose for which the information gained from exit interviews is used. Although the organisation involved in the study has a stay interview form, the researcher decided to select only those sections that linked directly to the study.

b.   Description of exit and stay interviews

Exit interviews contain information that will be common across most organisations, such as the employee's name, surname, department, line manager, tenure, reason for leaving, where the employee is going to, and what could have been done to retain the employee. This is usually the essence of exit interviews.

This organisation's exit interview form is more detailed than this. Aspects that are tested in the exit interview are onboarding, how the employee perceives the people, leadership, rewards and work environment in the organisation (see Appendix E). Some of the questions are linked to OPS dimensions, e.g. leadership, rewards and work environment. These areas are rated on a 5-point scale (80 = not meeting expectations, 90 = sometimes meeting expectations, 100 = consistently meeting expectations, 110 = sometimes exceeding expectations, and 120 = consistently exceeding expectations). The organisation uses the same rating scale for all people-related initiatives. This rating scale originated from the performance rating scale, where an employee's performance is expected to be at 100 at a minimum. Any rating that is below 100 is unacceptable, whereas a rating above 100 indicates superior performance. Although the actual numbers of this rating scale differ

from those of other organisations, it is still a five-point scale which is comparable to other similar scales, e.g. 1 to 5. There is a section for additional comments at the end. Employees can also indicate what could have been done to make them stay and whether they would consider re-joining the group at a later time. The researcher decided to use the scale used by the organisation in order to keep all data standard and easy to use.

Some of the questions contained in the stay interview constitute part of the study (see below). Responses to these questions were captured, coded and analysed. (The full list of questions is in Appendix F.)

- Does the job match the expectations you had before you started?
- Were you assigned a mentor or a coach to assist with your transition into your new role or the organisation?
- Are you planning to search for a new job in the next 12 months?
- If you had your way, would you be working for the organisation a year from now?

c.   Scales and administration of exit and stay interviews

The exit interview was conducted by the HR representative of the company. The level of the HR person who conducts exit interviews is determined by the level of the employee who is resigning. For instance, if an executive resigns, the head of HR will conduct the exit interview. This matching process was implemented so that the employee who is leaving can be interviewed by an appropriately senior person, which is likely to lead to a more fruitful discussion that could benefit the organisation. Junior HR employees could be intimidated by senior employees who are resigning and therefore may not probe or challenge them as and when required.

In this research, the stay interviews were completed online.

d.   Interpretation of exit and stay interviews

Once exit interviews are conducted, they are consolidated on a monthly and quarterly basis for trends to be identified. In areas where specific feedback was provided about a line manager, this feedback is given to the line manager as part of his/her development. However, in instances where line managers are resistant to the feedback and are defensive, this feedback is also given to the line manager's boss, so that (s)he can help the line manager to adapt his/her behaviour or style, depending on what the problem is. Usually where there are leadership problems, the exit interview will confirm what HR is already aware of, as this is likely to affect more people than only the person who is leaving. The aim with these trend reports is to report at department, functional area and group level what the trends are and what action plans are in place to reduce this turnover.

Answers to stay interviews were interpreted by the researcher.

e.   Reliability and validity of exit and stay interviews

The reliability of exit and stay interviews has not been established scientifically. This is a difficult exercise to conduct, as different organisations use different formats of exit and stay interviews. In this case, the line manager/HR manager of the leaver has been contacted to verify the reason why the employee left. This was one way of ensuring that accurate information is used in the research.

Face validity of both exit and stay interviews was confirmed by the panel of users that was convened to address the validity issues of the OPS. In terms of exit interviews, only the questions used in this research project were presented to the panel, together with the eight questions developed to measure stayers. The face validity of both these instruments was confirmed.

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f.   Motivation for including exit and stay interviews

Exit interviews were included because they provide a broader picture of why employees are leaving the organisation, compared to using termination reasons captured on the system. Through these interviews one can see what exactly the employee was satisfied and dissatisfied with, and what resulted in this turnover. In instances where exit interviews were not available for a voluntary leaver, termination reasons from the system were used.

Stay interviews were included so that the researcher could test current employees' job search and quit intentions. According to research these are a good indicator of employee turnover (Mobley et al., 1979). The interviews were also conducted to ascertain what would make employees leave and stay, so that employee turnover research could enhance the organisation's knowledge of these factors so as to be proactively managed.

5.3.5   Research procedure

This section details the process used to gather data for this study. The sampling frame was used to identify the specific data required for the study, namely biographical data, personality assessment data, organisational perception data, exit interview data and stay interview data.

The starting point was to identify people who resigned, based on the monthly tracker that qualified to be in the study (voluntary resignation only). Once these voluntary leavers were identified, their biographical data, personality assessment and organisational perception survey data were obtained. The second step was finding current employees in the relevant departments who were a closely resembled leavers in those departments to be included in the study. The same data was obtained on the current employees, except that exit interviews were replaced by stay interviews for the stayers sample.

Gathering the data was a challenge because all this information is housed in different systems in the organisation. The system used to identify leavers and

their biographical data is HR Focus. This is the main system that contains all employee data. Written permission was granted by the Organisational Effectiveness (OE) Executive and the Group General Manager for personality assessment and organisational perception survey data to be accessed. Due to the sensitive and confidential nature of personality assessment data, the researcher provided a list of leavers and employees who were in the sample to the Group Assessment Manager. The manager identified a resource in the team that would access the assessment data base, search for these assessments and save them in a secure drive that could be accessed only by the researcher. These assessments were accessed by the researcher and the following information was captured for all the people in the sample: stanines for nine bipolar scales, stanines for five global factors and validity data relating to social desirability. This information was captured in an Excel format that already had the employees' names and employee numbers. Once the assessment data was captured, the assessment department deleted all the assessment files that were saved in that secure drive.

Organisational perception survey scores (electronic version) are stored centrally in a tool called Survey Tool. OPS scores for the 2009 OPS were copied by the person responsible for surveys and saved in a secure drive. The information was in Excel, however, on review of the data it was not captured in a SPSS compatible manner. The HR Information Manager was requested to assist in converting the data into a format that was compatible with SPSS (where a respondent's information will appear in a row instead of a column). This meant giving the HR Information Manager access to this secure site, and once the formatting was complete, the access was revoked. The OPS database did not have employee numbers in the Excel file, which made searching very difficult. IT was therefore asked to add employee numbers, which are a unique identifier. The employee numbers were deleted after all the data was captured, so as to protect employees' confidentiality.

Exit and stay interviews were the most challenging of all the data that was collected. These interviews are currently conducted manually by HR representatives. The problem is that not all interview sheets are sent to HR

Shared Services for filing in employee files. The collecting started with the researcher's assistant looking through all leavers' files to check which interviews were filed. These were captured in the master Excel spreadsheet against the appropriate employee's name. Relevant HR representatives were contacted via email and telephonically to establish which exit interviews they had conducted but not submitted for central filing. These were subsequently also captured. After this process was completed, there were still a number of leavers who did not have exit interviews, either because these were never conducted by HR, the forms were misplaced, or HR people who conducted these interviews were no longer with the company and therefore the information could not be traced. It was decided that leavers who did not have exit interviews would still be included in the study, as long as they had provided termination reasons. The responses had been captured on the master data sheet.

The researcher also conducted stay interviews with the matched sample of stayers. (The stay interview questionnaire is in Appendix F.) The stay interview questionnaire was emailed to people in the stayer sample, with a request for them to complete and return the questionnaire to the researcher. Responses to these interviews were also captured in the master data sheet. After all data collection was done, employee numbers and employee names and surnames were deleted so that individual employees were no longer identifiable in this research.

The last set of interviews was conducted with HR managers of employees who had resigned. Two questions were asked: Why did the employee leave? and: Was this functional or dysfunctional turnover? Their responses were recorded on the master data collection sheet.

The end result of this process was that two samples were configured. Each contained the following information: race, gender, age, marital status, job level, tenure, performance rating, talent rating, absenteeism, personality data, organisational perception data, exit or stay interview data, reason for leaving,

functional or dysfunctional turnover. These are all the variables that were contained in the proposed model of turnover.

5.3.6 Statistical analysis

The final set of data was captured on an Excel spreadsheet. The total number of employees included in the sample was 1 536, made up of 729 leavers and 807 stayers. This data was analysed by a statistician with a set of hypotheses to be tested. All the analyses were done on SPSS (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). The section below describes the different statistical techniques applied in this study.

Descriptive statistics are numerical and graphical ways of summarising data and presenting the underlying information (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). In this research, means, range, variance, frequencies and bar graphs were used to describe each of the samples. As the data in this study was not normally distributed, non-parametric tests were conducted. The Mann-Whitney test was used when more than two independent samples were compared, whereas the Kruskal-Wallis test was used when the comparison was limited to two independent samples (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). The tests above compare the means of the leavers and stayers by using various variables to establish differences. Chi-square was used to compare samples on variables like tenure and age. Intercorrelations were established and reported, where different variables are correlated with one another to establish the direction and magnitude of the relationship (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). The relationship tested in this study was the one between personality, organisational climate and employee turnover. The null hypothesis (H_o) would be rejected if the relationship between personality, organisational climate and employee turnover was found to be positive and statistically significant.

Initially, a simple regression analysis was conducted to establish how the independent variables predict the dependent variable. However, as the model had multiple variables, there was a need to conduct structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the correlation matrix, using latent variables that use

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multiple observed indictors (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). A goodness-of-fit statistic was established. The SEM indicated the direction of the relationship across all the variables as well as the strength of this for each combination.

All hypotheses are grouped and discussed in the next section in order to create an integrated and clear view of what was tested in the study, as opposed to including them in three chapters of the literature review.

5.4 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

This section covers hypotheses that were tested using the data gathered for this research project. Due to the multiple variables included in the proposed model of employee turnover, the hypotheses were categorised in the following manner for ease of reference:

- The main grouping was based on the statistical analysis that would be conducted regarding differences between groups, relationship between variables and prediction of category membership.
- Within each broad category, sub hypotheses were grouped using the main variables in the study – personality and organisational climate – as well as demographic variables.

HA: HYPOTHESES RELATING TO DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS

H_o: There is no difference between stayers and leavers with regard to personality, organisational climate and demographic variables.

H_1: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to mean scores on personality, organisational climate and demographic variables.

SUB-HYPOTHESES – PERSONALITY

HA_1: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on conscientiousness.

HA$_2$:   There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on emotional stability (neuroticism).

HA$_3$:   There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to mean scores on the nine bipolar scales of the OPPro.

HA$_4$: There is a difference (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on conscientiousness.

HA$_5$: There is a difference (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on openness to experience.

HA$_6$: There is a difference (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on agreeableness.

HA$_7$: There is a difference (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on emotional stability.

SUB-HYPOTHESES – ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

HA$_8$:   There is a difference in the mean organisational climate scores of the different functional areas.

HA$_9$:   There is a difference in the leavers sample between subgroups based on functional and dysfunctional turnover, with regard to their mean scores on organisational climate.

HA$_{10}$: There is a difference in mean scores in the stayers sample between those who were and those who were not allocated mentors/coaches, with regard to their mean organisational climate scores.

HA$_{11}$: There is a difference in the stayers sample between those who intend to quit and those who do not intend to quit, with regard to their mean scores on organisational climate.

HA$_{12}$: There is a difference in the leavers sample between those with functional and dysfunctional turnover, with regard to their mean scores on the management/leadership dimension.

SUB-HYPOTHESES – DEMOGRAPHICS

HA_{13}: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on performance.

HA_{14}: There is a difference in the stayers sample between planned and unplanned quitters regard to mean scores on performance.

HA_{15}: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to the gender composition of the group.

HA_{16}: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to the racial composition of the group.

HA_{17}: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to tenure.

HA_{18}: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to age.

HA_{19}: There is a difference between stayers and leavers with regard to absenteeism.

HB: HYPOTHESES RELATING TO RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES

HYPOTHESES – ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

HB_1: There is a positive relationship between performance, perception of recognition and rewards, and intention to stay.

HB_2: There is a positive relationship between organisational climate perceptions and performance.

HC: HYPOTHESES RELATING TO THE PREDICTION OF CATEGORY MEMBERSHIP (leavers and stayers)

HC_1: There are differences in the mean scores of stayers and leavers on personality dimensions.

HC_2: There are differences in mean scores of stayers and leavers on organisational climate dimensions.

HC_3: A combination of personality and organisational climate dimensions can predict whether individuals stay or leave.

HC$_4$: There are differences in the mean scores of stayers and leavers on absenteeism.

HC$_5$: A combination of personality, organisational climate and absenteeism can predict turnover.

ADDITIONAL HYPOTHESES

1. Conscientiousness

1a. There is a negative relationship between conscientiousness and intention to quit.

1b. Conscientiousness can predict whether individuals quit or not.

2. Extraversion

2a. There is a negative relationship between extraversion and intention to quit.

2b. Extraversion can predict whether individuals quit or not.

3. Emotional stability

3a. There is a negative relationship between emotional stability and intention to quit.

3b. Emotional stability can predict whether individuals quit or not.

4. Agreeableness

4a. There is a negative relationship between agreeableness and intention to quit.

4b. Agreeableness can predict whether individuals quit or not.

5. Openness to experience

5a. There is a positive relationship between openness to experience and intention to quit.

5b. Openness to experience can predict whether individuals quit or not.

6. Management/leadership

6a. Management/leadership perception can predict intention to quit.

6b. Management/leadership perception is the strongest predictor of turnover.

5.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 5 introduced the sampling frame and the sampling techniques used in this research. The rational and technical aspects of the following instruments were discussed in detail: personality assessment, OPS, exit and stay interviews. The data-gathering process was outlined in detail, with challenges in the process noted. A summary was provided of the analysis that had been conducted in the research and the chapter concluded by stating the different hypotheses that are tested in this study.

CHAPTER 6
RESULTS PRESENTATION

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The results of the study are reported in this chapter under the following headings: descriptive statistics, frequencies, structural equal modelling (SEM), group comparisons, correlations and regression analysis. A summary concludes the chapter.

Descriptive and inferential statistics on a sample of 1 536 (729 leavers and 807 stayers) will be discussed in the next section.

6.2   SAMPLE

The study had two independent samples. The first sample was made up of employees who were in the organisation, referred to as the stayers sample with 807 stayers. The second sample included people who had resigned from the organisation, referred to as the leavers sample, with 729 leavers. The leavers sample was the first one to be drawn, and subsequently a process took place of choosing stayers in the organisation that closely resembled leavers on biographical characteristics but differed regarding the variables in this study, that is personality and organisational climate. The criteria for choosing stayers for inclusion in the study was, among others, department, job grade, race and gender (where applicable).

6.3   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are reported on numeric data that was included in the study. Each of the variables is represented in terms of minimum and maximum values, mean, standard deviation and frequencies, where applicable. Descriptive statistics are valuable in that they numerically and graphically represent data in a way that displays underlying information about

the sample (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). These will be reported and discussed separately for stayers and leavers.

Before presenting the results of the study, it is important to re-visit the broad empirical aims of this study, which will guide the presentation of results. The empirical aims of the study were to establish:-

- the difference between leavers and stayers in terms of demographic factors, presented in the descriptive statistics section;
- the difference between leavers and stayers in the five broad personality factors, presented in the personality section.
- the difference between leavers and stayers in the 12 organisational climate dimensions, presented in the organisational climate section;
- the combination of personality factors and organisational dimensions in influencing whether a person stays or leaves the organisation;
- test the proposed model of organisational climate;
- test the proposed model of employee turnover;
- formulate recommendations for the organisation based on the integration of the literature review and research findings.

6.3.1   Descriptive statistics stayers sample

Descriptive statistics for the stayers sample are reported in Tables 6.1and 6.2 below.

Table 6.1. Descriptive statistics: Stayers sample

Biographical data

Age	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Valid	807	23	61	35.76	7.659
Missing	0				

Table 6.1. Descriptive statistics: Stayers sample (continued)

		Frequency	Valid %
Gender			
Valid	Female	513	63.6
	Male	294	36.4
	Total	807	100.0

Race		Frequency	Valid %
Valid	African	414	51.3
	Coloured	168	20.8
	Chinese	1	0.1
	Indian	115	14.3
	White	109	13.5
	Total	807	100.0

Marital Status		Frequency	Valid %
Valid	Not stated	13	1.6
	Common Law	2	0.2
	Divorced	29	3.6
	Married	299	37.1
	Separated	6	0.7
	Single	452	56.0
	Tribal Law	1	0.1
	Widowed	5	0.6
	Total	807	100.0

Functional area		Frequency	Valid %
Valid	Corporate Services	10	1.2
	Human Resources	193	23.9
	Merchandise	187	23.2
	Retail Operations	417	51.7
	Total	807	100.0

Table 6.2. Independent variables: Stayers sample

Personality	N		Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing				
Neuroticism	745	62	4.80	2.090	1	9
Extraversion	745	62	5.47	1.776	1	9
Openness to ideas	745	62	3.74	1.543	1	8
Agreeableness	745	62	3.45	1.815	1	9
Conformity	746	61	7.60	1.466	2	9
High distortion	805	2	5.58	1.957	1	9

Organisational Climate	N		Mean	SD	Min	Max
	Valid	Missing				
Career Development	722	85	23.6537	3.06142	8.00	32.00
Change	722	85	20.1759	2.42406	7.00	28.00
Communications	722	85	25.8809	3.06828	8.00	32.00
HR Policies & Procedure	722	85	27.9709	2.71544	13.00	36.00
Training & Development	722	85	21.4515	2.60289	7.00	28.00
Management & Leadership	722	85	56.3075	6.40732	18.00	72.00
Performance Management	722	85	43.9224	4.07211	14.00	56.00
Relationships	722	85	33.3961	3.52024	11.00	44.00
Recognition & Rewards	723	84	13.7870	1.86942	4.00	20.00
Values & Culture	723	84	30.2614	2.91372	10.00	40.00
Work Environment	723	84	26.3956	2.45933	8.00	32.00
Workforce Diversity	723	84	30.1992	3.04339	10.00	40.00

The stayers sample comprised 807 people, the majority of whom were female (63,6%). Africans accounted for 51,3% of the sample, followed by coloureds at 20,8%. The majority of people in the stayers sample were either single (56%) or married (37,1%), with the other marital categories accounting for small percentages. The people in this sample mainly worked in the Retail Operations area (51,7%) followed by Human Resources and Merchandise.

The study was conducted between 2009 and 2012. The OPPro reports used to capture information on the sample had changed prior to the data being collected. The initial OPPro report included only the nine bipolar scales and social desirability measures. The newer version of the report included this information as well as linked the nine bipolar scales to each of the big five personality factors. This difference in reporting accounted for the missing values under personality in both the stayers and leavers samples. Organisational climate also had missing values. However, the decision to include people who did not have organisational climate scores was based on the fact that the OPS (organisational climate measure used in this study) was a voluntary questionnaire, which some people chose not to complete for various reasons. Even non-completion of the questionnaire could be an indication of one's dissatisfaction with the organisation.

In the present study, people who completed the OPS were compared to those who did not complete it on nine bipolar personality scales in order to establish if there were any differences. The findings were interesting (see Appendix G). Only two of the nine bipolar scales showed significant differences between these groups, namely the detail conscious-flexible dimension (Z = -.2.746; p = 0.006) and optimistic-pessimistic dimension (Z = -.2.293; p = 0.022). These results indicated that people who had not completed the OPS were likely to lack self-discipline, dislike attending to details, disregard rules and obligations, be prone to feelings of pessimism, where they felt helpless and believed that events were beyond their control. This probably explained why they had decided not to complete the OPS, even though it was an organisation-wide survey.

6.3.2 Descriptive statistics leavers sample

Tables 6.3 and 6.4 describe characteristics of the leavers sample.

Table 6.3. Descriptive statistics: Leavers sample

Biographical data

Age	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Valid	728	22	55	34.28	6.585
Missing	1				

Gender		Frequency			Valid %
	Female	417			57.2
Valid	Male	312			42.8
	Total	729			100.0

Race		Frequency			Valid %
	African	389			53.4
	Coloured	154			21.1
	Chinese	3			0.4
Valid	Indian	110			15.1
	White	73			10.0
	Total	729			100.0

Marital Status		Frequency			Valid %
		12			1.6
	Not stated	1			0.1
	Divorced	26			3.6
	Married	232			31.8
Valid	Separated	2			0.3
	Single	452			62.0
	Tribal Law	2			0.3
	Widowed	2			0.3
	Total	729			100.0

Functional area		Frequency			Valid %
	Corporate Services	13			1.8
	Human Resources	109			15.0
Valid	Marketing	2			0.3
	Merchandise	154			21.1
	Retail Operations	451			61.9
	Total	729			100.0

Table 6.4. Independent variables: Leavers sample

Personality	N		Mean	SD	Min	Max
	Valid	Missing				
Neuroticism	690	39	4.61	2.128	1	9
Extraversion	690	39	5.63	1.722	1	9
Openness to ideas	690	39	3.80	1.542	1	8
Agreeableness	690	39	3.44	1.814	1	9
Conformity	690	39	7.60	1.360	2	9
High distortion	729	0	5.60	1.893	1	9

Organisational Climate	N		Mean	SD	Min	Max
	Valid	Missing				
Career development	495	234	22.5434	5.30732	8.00	32.00
Change	495	234	20.4485	4.12321	8.00	28.00
Communications	495	234	24.0848	4.49346	9.00	32.00
HR policies & procedure	495	234	27.9253	4.32398	14.00	36.00
Training & pevelopment	495	234	20.1354	4.32859	7.00	28.00
Management & leadership	495	234	53.9697	11.31483	18.00	72.00
Performance management	495	234	43.2263	6.98794	18.00	56.00
Relationships	495	234	33.8586	5.80941	14.00	44.00
Recognition & rewards	495	234	13.3859	3.17356	5.00	20.00
Values & culture	495	234	30.7556	5.19721	10.00	40.00
Work environment	495	234	25.6485	3.67033	11.00	32.00
Workforce diversity	495	234	30.9677	5.36737	10.00	40.00

The leavers sample was similar to that of stayers as the samples were matched as closely as possible as part of the design of the study. Females accounted for 57%, while Africans (53.4%) and coloureds (21.2%) together constituted a majority in the sample. The majority of the leavers were single (62%), whereas 31.8% were married. Retail Operations had 61.9% leavers, followed by Merchandise (21%) and Human Resources (15%). The same

comments made in the stayers sample about missing information for personality and organisational climate apply to the leavers sample.

6.3.3   Biographical variables

Detailed analysis of these biographical variables will take place in this section, starting with an overall summary in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5. Frequencies and biographical data

Status			Functional area	Tenure	Age	Marital status	Gender	Race
Stayers	N	Valid	807	807	807	807	807	807
		Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Leavers	N	Valid	729	729	728	729	729	729
		Missing	0	0	1	0	0	0

Table 6.5 reports on the biographical variables of all the people in both samples, these variables are tenure, age, gender, race, marital status and functional area. All variables are valid except for one person in the leavers sample, whose age could not be obtained.

The section below covers a more detailed representation of each of the biographical variables.

6.3.3.1   Functional area

Figure 6.1 displays the functional area distribution of both samples.

Figure 6.1. Functional area distribution
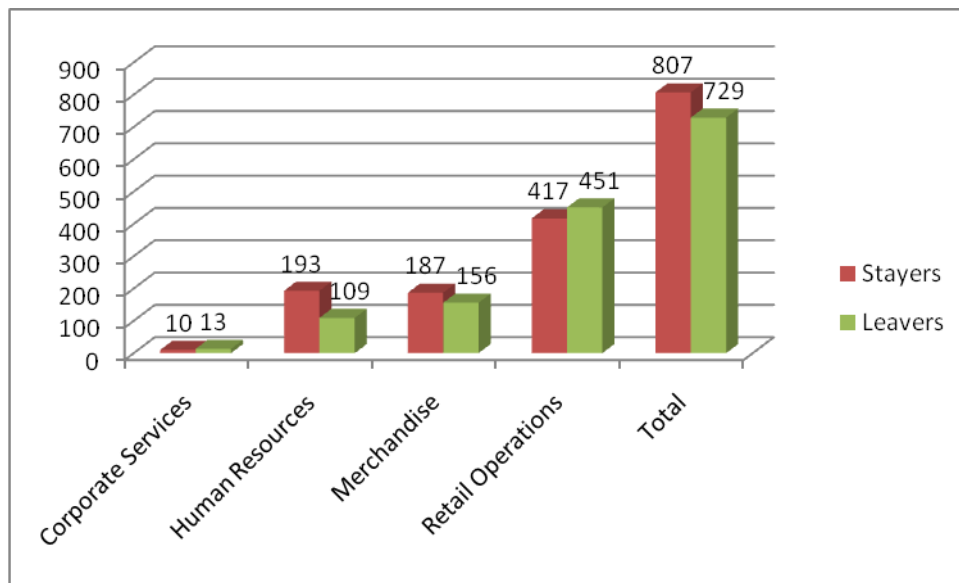
A closer look at the data shows that the functional area distribution of people in the two samples was similar. This is because the stayers sample was matched to the leavers sample based on a number of variables including department, job grade, race and gender (where possible). The outcome was that in some instances there were more stayers that matched the leavers on the selected variables.

The majority of employees were from retail operations; this is because it is the largest functional area in the organisation with employees in over 1 200 stores. Human Resources and Merchandise are head office based functions that traditionally have high turnover. This is due to HR people from the organisation being highly sought after by other organisations due to the fact that it pursues best practices, which are attractive to other organisations. People in the merchandise departments generally leave because of work demands and pressure that come with their roles. The second biographical variable for discussion is tenure.

6.3.3.2   Tenure

Tenure of the two samples in the study is reported in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2. Tenure of stayers and leavers (%)
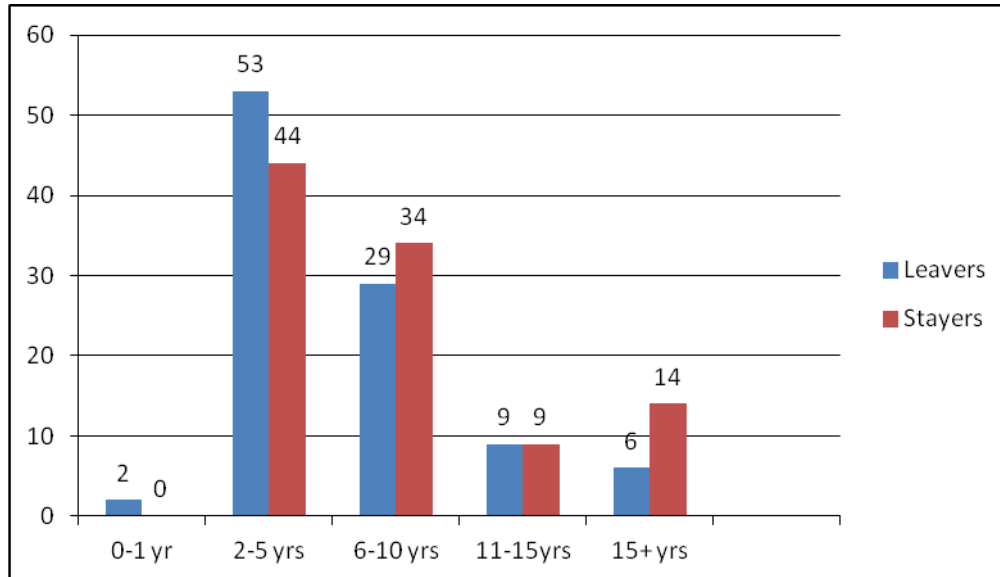
The majority of stayers had a 2-5 years' tenure (44%) with the organisation, followed by the 6-10 year tenure group (34%). This indicates that the organisation tended to have 'newer' people as it replaced experienced leavers with external recruits. Such turnover had advantages and disadvantages: the advantage of employing externally was getting people with new ideas who could bring innovation to the organisation. One of the disadvantages, though, could be lack of continuity and reduced productivity as new people joined the organisation. New recruits usually required time to acclimatise to how things were done, which meant that they would not be productive immediately.

The leavers sample with regard to tenure looked quite different from the stayers group. In this study, the majority of people who resigned from the organisation were in the 2-5 year tenure category (53%), followed by people who were in the 6-10 year category (29%). The leavers in this study were generally people who had been with the organisation for a long period of time; hence socialisation into the organisation could not be cited as one of the

reasons they left. This point was revisited once reasons for leaving were understood.

6.3.3.3   Age

Age is one of the demographic variables included in the study, the distribution of which is reflected in Figure 6.3 below.

Figure 6.3: Age of stayers and leavers
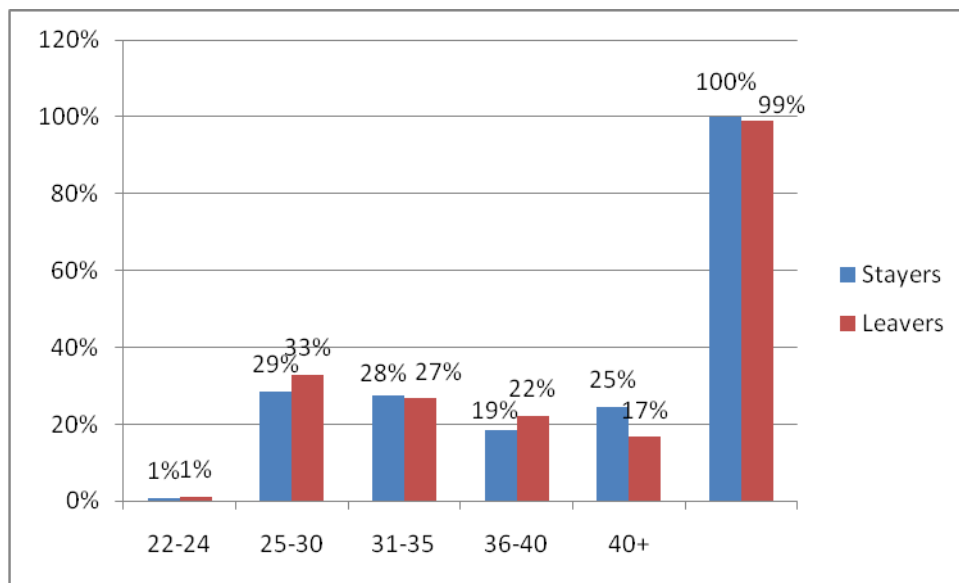
The age of the people in both the stayers and leavers samples did not show significant differences, as illustrated in Figure 6.3. This could be due to the close matching that took place when selecting the stayers' sample. The total for leavers is 99% due to the one person whose age could not be obtained.

6.3.3.4   Gender and race

The race and gender breakdown of both samples is included in table 6.6 below.

Table 6.6. Gender and race of stayers and leavers

	Stayers		Leavers	
Gender	Male	36,4%	Male	42,8%
	Female	63,6%	Female	57,2%
Race	African	51,3%	African	53,4%
	Coloured	20,8%	Coloured	21,1%
	Chinese	0,1%	Chinese	0,4%
	Indian	14,3%	Indian	15,1%
	White	13,5%	White	10,0%

In terms of gender, the majority of the employees in both samples were female. This was because, on average, the organisation employed 65% females; thus a large representation of females could be expected in these samples. This point also applied to race.

Due to employment equity requirements and organisation's focus on employing previously disadvantaged people (Employment Equity Act, 1998), this organisation had policies in place that supported the placement of black candidates (i.e. Africans, Indians and coloureds). It also explained why the majority of people in both samples were African.

6.3.3.5 *Marital status*

Marital status is another demographic variable that was used to compare the samples, which is illustrated in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4. Marital status of stayers and leavers
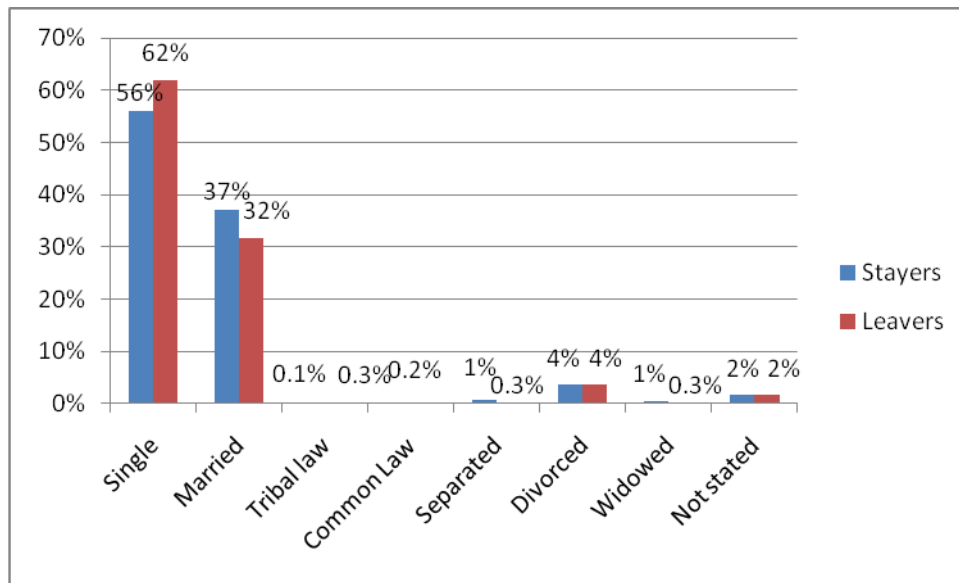
In this study, both stayers and leavers were closely matched in terms of their marital status. The majority of the people in both samples were single (56% for stayers and 62% for leavers). Approximately a third of the respondents in both samples were married (37% for stayers and 32% for leavers). Only 4% of people in both samples were divorcees.

6.3.3.6   Functional and dysfunctional turnover

Two other variables were included in the leavers' sample, namely functional and dysfunctional turnover, and reason for leaving. These variables were included in order to better understand the respondents in the leavers sample and they are illustrated in Table 6.7 below.

Table 6.7. Functional and dysfunctional turnover

Valid		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
	Dysfunctional	465	63.8	63.8	63.9
	Functional	213	29.2	29.2	93.1
	Not indicated	50	6.9	6.9	100.0
	Total	729	100.0	100.0	

When people leave this organisation, line managers and HR are required to allocate a re-employment code. This code is used to classify whether the person was one that the organisation wanted to retain and therefore would re-hire, or not. This information was then used to classify whether turnover had been functional or dysfunctional. The turnover data in Table 6.7 indicates that 63,8% of the turnover in this study was dysfunctional, in other words it did not benefit the organisation, as the people who left were those that the organisation would have liked to retain (Dalton et al., 1981). This is a concern as such turnover usually affects the productivity of the organisation, as there are fewer competent people to carry out various tasks. This in turn impacts on the organisation's effectiveness (Abelson & Baysinger; 1984).

6.3.3.7   Reasons for leaving

Figure 6.5 analyses the reasons why people left, as indicated by the departing employees.

Figure 6.5. Reasons for leaving
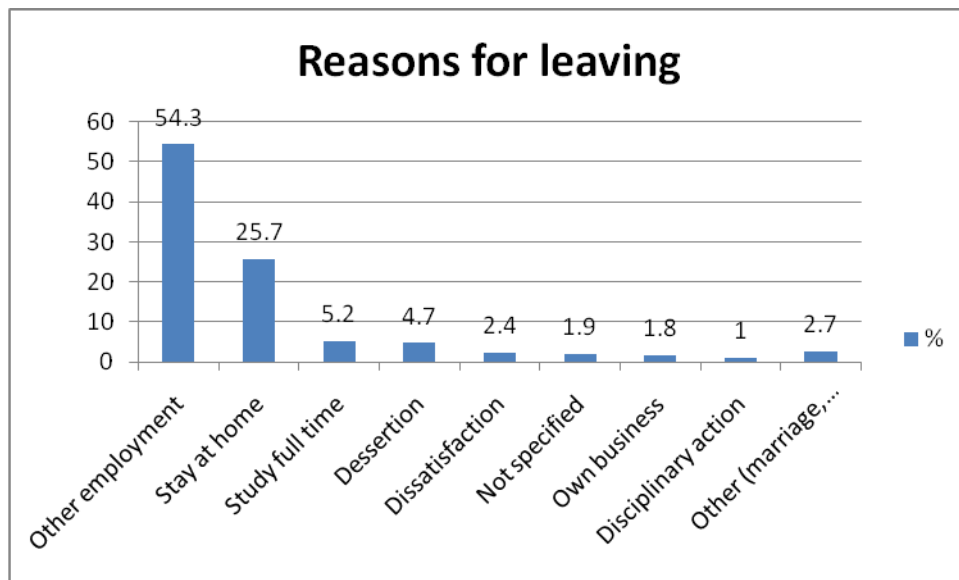
More than half (54.3%) the people who left the organisation in this study left to join another organisation. In an environment where people were looking for better career prospects and organisations struggled to attract and retain good talent, this percentage was justified. However, the fact that a quarter (25.7%)

of the people in this sample resigned to stay at home seemed questionable, even though 57.2% of the respondents were females. After all, the study was conducted at the height of the world economic crisis, where organisations were shedding jobs and employees were holding onto whatever jobs they had.

With a detailed analysis of biographical variables complete, the next section details results of the confirmatory factor analysis conducted on the proposed model of employee turnover to establish the suitability of the model prior to testing specific hypotheses.

6.4   STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted as a way of testing the model of employee turnover that was proposed in Chapter 4. CFA is a structural equation modelling (SEM) technique that enables one to test the hypothesis that there is a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs by using a number of tests to determine whether the model is adequate or not (Garson, 2011). These statistics are also referred to as goodness-of-fit tests and enable one to test a model using several statistics, as opposed to one measure (Suhr, 2006). According to Suhr (2006) SEM works well when the following conditions are met:

- A model is specified upfront
- A number of factors have to be analysed
- Investigate which items load on each other
- A model is supported by theory or previous research

As there were two samples in the study, the SEM results for each of the samples are reported separately. The following statistics were discussed in each of the models: Chi-square (CMIN), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The chi-square is the most commonly used fit measure, however, it can result in type two error, where a

model that should be accepted is rejected (Garson, 2011), hence it is important to report on other fit measures.

6.4.1   SEM for stayers sample

SEM results for the stayers sample are reported in Appendix H. Critical ratios (C.R) for all the variables (organisational climate and personality) in this model were greater than 1.96, which means that these paths were significant at 0.05 level. However, the following statistics indicate that the model did not make the goodness-of-fit grade:

- CMIN (1355.498; *p*= .000)
  The chi-square value should be close to zero with a probability level of 0.05 or greater for fit to be established (Suhr, 2006).
- CFI for default model (0.840)
  This is lower than the acceptance model fit, which should be 0.90 or greater (Hu & Bentler, 1999).
- RMSEA for default model (0.114)
  This refers to the residual in the model, which should range between 0 and 1(Suhr, 2006). For good fit of the model, RMSEA had to be 0.60 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In this case RMSEA is significant.

These results indicate that the proposed model (using personality and organisational climate) in the stayers sample was not accepted, only RMSEA was acceptable. The model was consequently rejected.

6.4.2   SEM for leavers sample

SEM results for the leavers sample are presented in Figure 6.6 followed by a discussion, using the same statistics as in the previous section. As there is much detail, it is important for the results to focus on important goodness-of-fit statistics that give direction in terms of whether the model can be accepted or not.

Figure 6.6. SEM results for leavers
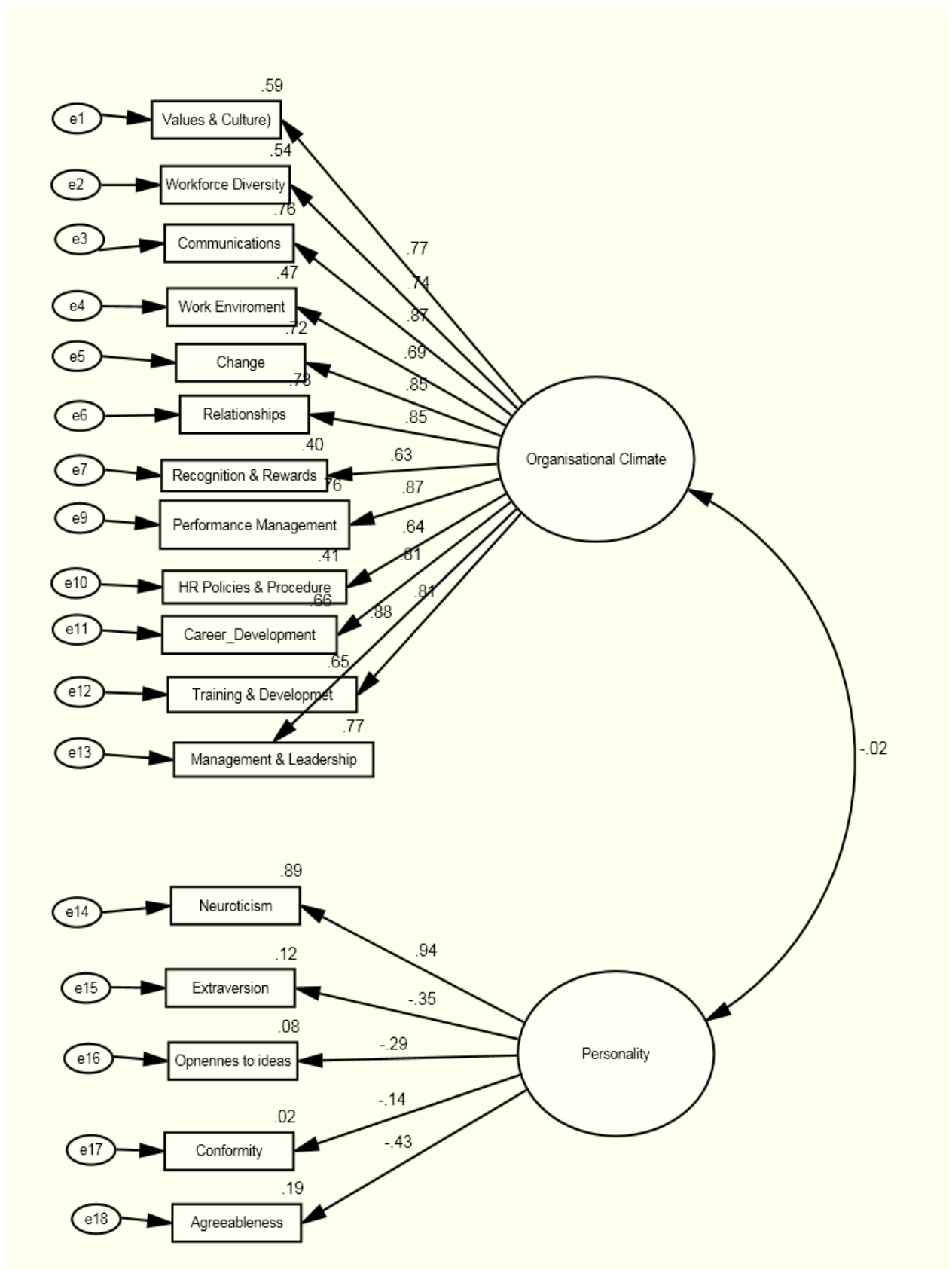
Table 6.8. SEM results for leavers

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Values & Culture	<---	Organisational Climate	1.000			
Workforce Diversity	<---	Organisational Climate	.995	.057	17.467	***
Communications	<---	Organisational Climate	.985	.046	21.436	***
Work Environment	<---	Organisational Climate	.636	.039	16.135	***
Change	<---	Organisational Climate	.882	.042	20.790	***
Relationships	<---	Organisational Climate	1.249	.060	20.918	***
Recognition & rewards	<---	Organisational Climate	.504	.034	14.626	***
Performance Management	<---	Organisational Climate	1.528	.071	21.378	***
HR Policies	<---	Organisational Climate	.695	.047	14.805	***
Career Development	<---	Organisational Climate	1.087	.055	19.700	***
Training & Development	<---	Organisational Climate	.877	.045	19.438	***
Neuroticism	<---	Personality	1.000			
Extraversion	<---	Personality	-.301	.053	-5.686	***
Openness to ideas	<---	Personality	-.221	.043	-5.182	***
Conformity	<---	Personality	-.097	.030	-3.215	.001
Management & Leadership	<---	Organisational Climate	2.492	.116	21.570	***
Agreeableness	<---	Personality	-.392	.064	-6.111	***

			Estimate
Values & Culture	<---	Organisational Climate	.765
Workforce Diversity	<---	Organisational Climate	.737
Communications	<---	Organisational Climate	.872
Work Environment	<---	Organisational Climate	.689
Change	<---	Organisational Climate	.851
Relationships	<---	Organisational Climate	.855
Recognition & rewards	<---	Organisational Climate	.632
Performance Management	<---	Organisational Climate	.870
HR Policies	<---	Organisational Climate	.639
Career Development	<---	Organisational Climate	.815
Training & Development	<---	Organisational Climate	.806
Neuroticism	<---	Personality	.942
Extraversion	<---	Personality	-.351
Openness to ideas	<---	Personality	-.287
Conformity	<---	Personality	-.143
Management & Leadership	<---	Organisational Climate	.876
Agreeableness	<---	Personality	-.434

Table 6.8. SEM results for leavers (continued)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Values & Culture	30.756	.234	131.711	***	
Workforce Diversity	30.968	.241	128.415	***	
Communications	24.085	.202	119.300	***	
Work Environment	25.649	.165	155.532	***	
Change	20.449	.185	110.383	***	
Relationships	33.859	.261	129.721	***	
Recognition & rewards	13.386	.143	93.878	***	
Performance Management	43.227	.314	137.681	***	
HR Policies	27.926	.194	143.739	***	
Career Development	22.544	.238	94.541	***	
Training & Development	20.136	.194	103.535	***	
Management & Leadership	53.971	.508	106.164	***	
Neuroticism	4.614	.081	56.948	***	
Extraversion	5.632	.066	85.927	***	
Openness to ideas	3.804	.059	64.804	***	
Conformity	7.599	.052	146.802	***	
Agreeableness	3.442	.069	49.858	***	

	Estimate
Agreeableness	.188
Management & Leadership	.767
Conformity	.020
Openness to ideas	.082
Extraversion	.123
Neuroticism	.887
Training & Development	.649
Career Development	.664
HR Policies	.408
Performance Management	.757
Recognition & Rewards	.400
Relationships	.731
Change	.724
Work Environment	.475
Communications	.760
Workforce Diversity	.544
Values & Culture	.586

All critical ratios (C.R.) were above 1.96 and thus significant. This means that all the paths were significant. With the C.R. being significant, one can look at the rest of the goodness-of-fit measures to establish whether the model can be accepted or rejected. The results are presented in Table 6.9 below.

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Table 6.9. Goodness-of-fit measures – leavers sample

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	52	**646.099**	**118**	**0.000**	5.475
Saturated model	170	0.000	0		
Independence model	17	5453.102	153	0.000	35.641

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	**0.882**	0.846	0.901	0.871	**0.900**
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	**0.078**	0.073	0.084	0.000
Independence model	0.218	0.213	0.223	0.000

Hoelter

Model	HOELTER 0.05	HOELTER 0.01
Default model	163	**177**
Independence model	25	27

Results for the leavers sample were somewhat encouraging, even though they were mixed. The chi-square had a probability level of zero (p = 0.0), which did not meet the fit requirement of chi-square being equal to or greater than 0.05. This result could mean the following:-

- model does not fit and should be rejected.
- problem with the sample size, the larger the sample size (n= 200 and more), the greater the chance that the chi-square would not indicate fit, as even the smallest changes in the model could be significant.
- Models that are complex are likely not to have a chi-square that is lower than the cut off.

It is for these reasons that a chi-square that does not indicate fit can be ignored, provided the other measures indicate fit (Garson, 2011).

All the baseline comparison fit statistics in the leavers' sample either met the cut-off point (.90) to accept the model or were close to the cut-off point: NFI (.882), IFI (.901) and CFI (.90). RMSEA (.078) also met the cut off of 0.60 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999), even though some researchers use 0.80 as a cut-off point. Hoelter's critical N was 177 and ideally should be 200 or higher. This is still higher than Hoelter statistic for the stayers sample which was as low as 94. One of the reasons why not all the statistics were significant could be that the sample size may have not been adequate for the number of variables analysed. Based on these results, the leavers sample had a better fit than the stayers sample, which means that the default model could be accepted. The complete fit statistics for the leavers sample are reported in Appendix I. The leavers sample SEM results indicate some support for the model.

6.5   COEFFICIENT ALPHA

Coefficient alpha was calculated for the organisational climate measure in order to ascertain the internal consistency (Garson, 2011) of the tests and questionnaires used in the study. Coefficient alpha for the organisational climate questionnaire ranged from 0.918 to 0.997 when each of the 12 dimensions of this variable were measured independently (Appendices J & K). This means that the organisational climate measure used was reliable, as in social science a coefficient alpha of 0.80 and higher is considered a good measure (Garson, 2011).

The OPPro, which measures personality, is a well-researched and well-used measure. Its coefficient alpha is reported as ranging between 0.67 and 0.83, the average being 0.73 (OPPro Technical Manual, 1991). Although this test's reliability coefficient seems to be average, personality testing in South Africa is considered good if its reliability is above 0.60 (La Grange, 2003). This is due to the diversity of the people in the country.

6.6 DISTORTION IN BOTH SAMPLES

Its important to report on the distortion on personality scores as this could impact the reliability of the personality measure. Distortion for the leavers and stayers samples are reported in Figures 6. 7 and 6.8 respectively.

Figure 6.7. High distortion: Leavers sample
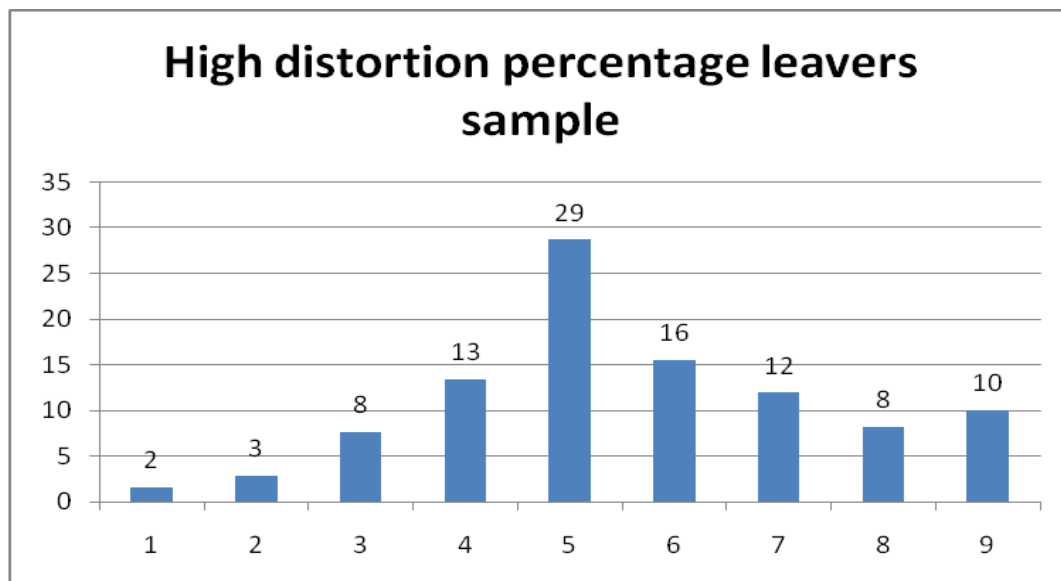
Figure 6.7 indicates that there was high distortion in the leavers sample when it came to personality as measured by the OPPro. The overall percentage of people with a distortion of 5 and higher in this sample was 74.3%.

Figure 6.8. High distortion: Stayers sample
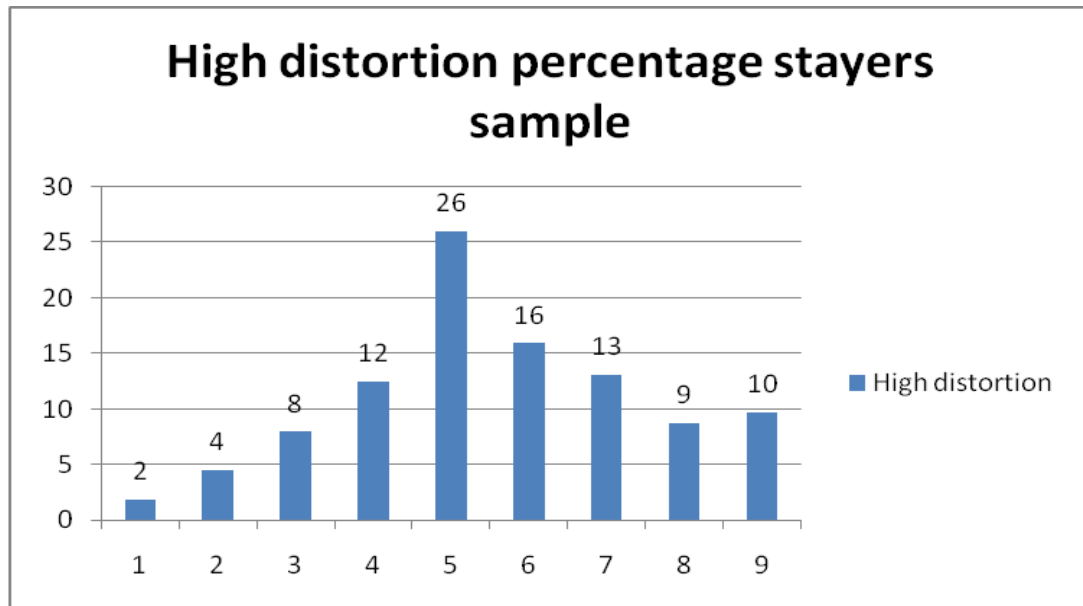
The same was true for the distortion figures in the stayers sample, where the total percentage of people with a distortion of 5 and higher was 73%, as indicated in Figure 6.8 above.

In the next section, the results of the study are presented under the following headings: group comparisons, correlations, regression, and other analyses, for each of the variables tested. The findings of the study will be guided by its empirical aims, with the intepretation and discussion reserved for chapter 7. As the study tests a number of hypotheses, the results presentation will include the hypotheses tested after each set of results. This is to ensure that results are understood in context and that any potential confusion is minimised.

6.7   GROUP COMPARISONS

This section reports on the differences between groups across different variables. The analysis will be grouped according to the main variables personality, organisational climate and demographic variables for ease of reference. As personality an organisational climate have different dimensions a Hotelling T² was conducted.   This is a multivariate test that indicates

whether or not there are differences between these groups or the results obtained capitalise on chance factors. The results of this test are reported under each appopriate heading.

One of the aims of the study was to establish if there were differences between the stayers and leavers samples on the five broad dimensions and nine bipolar scales. The results are presented in the section below.

6.7.1   Personality

The stayers and leavers samples are compared on five broad personality dimensions as well as the nine bipolar scales to ascertain whether or not there are significant differences between the two samples. Hotelling T² for personality was not significant (F = 1.556, p = 0.123), meaning that there were no differences between stayers and leavers when it comes to personality. Full results are available in appendix L. It was for this reason that bivariate analysis were conducted as a second step. Due to the research data in this study not being normally distributed, non-parametric tests were used (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The Mann-Whitney test was administered to test for significance in two independent samples (Garson, 2011), using a number of personality variables. Results are reported in Tables 6.10 and Table 6.11.

Table 6.10. Mann-Whitney test on conformity

			Ranks	
	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Conformity	Stayers	746	724.38	540387.00
	Leavers	690	712.14	491379.00
	Total	1436		

Test Statistics[a]	
	Conformity
Mann-Whitney U	252984.000
Wilcoxon W	491379.000
Z	-0.579
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.563

Table 6.11. Mann-Whitney test on neuroticism

	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
		Ranks		
Neuroticism	Stayers	745	734.46	547169.50
	Leavers	690	700.23	483160.50
	Total	1435		

Test Statistics[a]	
	Neuroticism
Mann-Whitney U	244765.500
Wilcoxon W	483160.500
Z	-1.578
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.115

a. Grouping Variable: Status

Tables 6.10 and 6.11 indicate that there is no statistical difference between the stayers and leavers samples with regard to their mean scores on both conformity or conscientiousness (Z = -0.579, p = 0.56) and emotional stability or neuroticism (Z = -1.578, p = 0.115). In order for there to be a statistically significant difference between the means scores, the z scores should be higher than 1,96. Any score that is lower than 1.96 means that the two samples come from the same underlying distribution (Garson, 2011), which means they are not different.

These following hypotheses are not supported by the results of the current study:

HA_1: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on conscientiousness.

HA_2: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on emotional stability or neuroticism.

However, a different picture emerges when the nine bipolar personality scales are analysed for mean score differences, as depicted in table 6.12 below.

Table 6.12. Mann-Whitney test on nine bipolar scales

	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Ranks				
Assertive	Stayers	805	746.60	601009.50
	Leavers	729	790.58	576335.50
	Total	1534		
Flexible	Stayers	805	759.95	611761.00
	Leavers	729	775.84	565584.00
	Total	1534		
Trusting	Stayers	805	767.54	617872.50
	Leavers	729	767.45	559472.50
	Total	1534		
Phlegmatic	Stayers	804	759.35	610517.50
	Leavers	729	775.44	565293.50
	Total	1533		
Gregarious	Stayers	805	767.22	617612.00
	Leavers	729	767.81	559733.00
	Total	1534		
Persuasive	Stayers	805	734.77	591493.50
	Leavers	729	803.64	585851.50
	Total	1534		
Contesting	Stayers	805	762.54	613843.00
	Leavers	729	772.98	563502.00
	Total	1534		
Pessimistic	Stayers	805	785.94	632683.50
	Leavers	729	747.14	544661.50
	Total	1534		
Pragmatic	Stayers	805	777.32	625746.50
	Leavers	729	756.65	551598.50
	Total	1534		

Test Statistics[a]

Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
276594.500	**601009.500**	**-1.967**	**.049**
287346.000	611761.000	-.714	.475
293387.500	559472.500	-.004	.997
286907.500	610517.500	-.720	.472
293197.000	617612.000	-.026	.979
267078.500	**591493.500**	**-3.079**	**.002**
289428.000	613843.000	-.465	.642
278576.500	**544661.500**	**-1.730**	**.084**
285513.500	551598.500	-.927	.354

Table 6.12 shows that out of the nine bipolar scales, three scales showed statistically significant mean score differences between the stayers and leavers sample. These are assertive (Z = -1.967, p = .049), persuasive (Z = -3.079, p = .002) and pessimistic (Z = -1.730, p = .084). When comparing the two samples, it is clear that leavers in this study were more assertive, persuasive and optimistic than the stayers. In the OPPro technical manual (1991) these scales are described as follows:

Assertive – dominant, task-orientated, challenging, unconcerned about others' feelings and confrontative.

Persuasive – Behaviour is determined by the demands of the situation, diplomatic, shrewd and calculating, manipulative and expedient, sensitive to 'political issues'.

Optimistic – achieving and striving, believe their own actions determine outcomes, positive approach to setbacks, optimistic and have control over their destiny.

The rest of the mean score comparisons yielded a negative outcome. These findings partly support the following hypothesis:

HA$_3$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to mean scores on the nine bipolar scales of the OPPro.

The next analysis focuses specifically on the stayers sample and aims to establish whether the people who reported planned and unplanned quitting differed as far as personality was concerned. The results are reported in Table 6.13.

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Table 6.13. Mann-Whitney test on planned and unplanned quitting

Ranks

	Intention to quit	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	Planned quitting	57	60.29	3436.50
Neuroticism	Unplanned quitting	58	55.75	3233.50
	Total	115		
	Planned quitting	57	60.88	3470.00
Openness to ideas	Unplanned quitting	58	55.17	3200.00
	Total	115		
	Planned quitting	57	55.26	3150.00
Agreeableness	Unplanned quitting	58	60.69	3520.00
	Total	115		
	Planned quitting	57	57.46	3275.50
Conformity	Unplanned quitting	58	58.53	3394.50
	Total	115		

Test Statistics[a]

	Neuroticism	Openness to ideas	Agreeableness	Conformity
Mann-Whitney U	1522.500	1489.000	1497.000	1622.500
Wilcoxon W	3233.500	3200.000	3150.000	3275.500
Z	-0.740	-0.933	-0.885	-0.176
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.459	0.351	0.376	0.860

Results in Table 6.13 indicate that, in respect of four of the five global personality factors – openness to experience, agreeableness, neuroticism (emotional stability) and conformity (conscientiousness) – there was no difference between the people who were classified as planned quitters and those classified as unplanned quitters. These results do not support the following hypotheses:

HA$_4$: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on conscientiousness or conformity.

HA$_5$: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on openness to experience.

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HA₆: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on agreeableness.

HA₇: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on emotional stability.

Overall, results on personality were quite disappointing (Appendix M), and significant differences between the two samples were evident only on the nine bipolar scales and not on the big five dimensions of personality as initially hypothesised. Thus not supporting the following hypothesis:

HC₁: There are statistically significant differences in the mean scores of stayers and leavers on personality dimensions.

In the next section, the focus will be on group comparisons using organisational climate as the main variable.

6.7.2   Organisational climate

In this section, organisational climate as measured by the OPS is used to compare the stayers and leavers samples. As done with personality, a Hotelling T² was conducted for organisational climate to ascertain whether there was a real difference between the samples. The sample sizes are smaller than the original ones as only people who completed the OPS were included in this analysis.   As previously mentioned, completing the organisational climate questionnaire is voluntary hence not all people included in this study would have completed it. The results are in table 6.14 below.

Table 6.14 Hotelling T² : Organisational climate

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Status	1	Stayers	722
	2	Leavers	495

Table 6.14 Hotelling T² : Organisational climate (continued)

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.990	10101.031[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.010	10101.031[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	100.675	10101.031[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	100.675	10101.031[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000
Status1	Pillai's Trace	.196	24.468[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.804	24.468[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	**.244**	**24.468[b]**	**12.000**	**1204.000**	**.000**
	Roy's Largest Root	.244	24.468[b]	12.000	1204.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept + Status1

b. Exact statistic

The total numbers in both the stayers and leaver's samples have reduced because not everyone in these samples had organisational climate data, as they did not all complete the OPS. The Hotelling T² results are significant, indicating that there are real differences between the stayers and leavers samples in terms of organisational climate, the results were not obtained by chance.

In addition to this, bivariate analysis was conducted using two types of meausres, namely Kruskal-Wallis test and the Mann-Whitney U test. The latter test was used in instances where more than two independent samples had to be analysed, whereas the former was used to analyse two independent samples (Garson, 2011).

6.7.2.1   Climate scores for stayers and leavers

The first analysis focuses on establishing whether or not there were differences in the mean climate scores of stayers and leavers. The results appear in Table 6.15 below.

Table 6.15. Climate scores for stayers and leavers

	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Career Development	Stayers	722	639.44	461677.50
	Leavers	495	564.60	279475.50
	Total	1217		
Change	Stayers	722	576.34	416119.50
	Leavers	495	656.63	325033.50
	Total	1217		
Communications	Stayers	722	684.63	494306.00
	Leavers	495	498.68	246847.00
	Total	1217		
HR Policies & Procedure	Stayers	722	638.58	461053.00
	Leavers	495	565.86	280100.00
	Total	1217		
Training & Development	Stayers	722	683.77	493685.00
	Leavers	495	499.94	247468.00
	Total	1217		
Management & Leadership	Stayers	722	669.77	483576.50
	Leavers	495	520.36	257576.50
	Total	1217		
Performance Management	Stayers	722	646.34	466655.50
	Leavers	495	554.54	274497.50
	Total	1217		
Relationships	Stayers	722	593.72	428664.50
	Leavers	495	631.29	312488.50
	Total	1217		
Recognition & Rewards	Stayers	723	620.25	448438.50
	Leavers	495	593.80	293932.50
	Total	1218		
Values & Culture	Stayers	723	594.35	429715.50
	Leavers	495	631.63	312655.50
	Total	1218		
Work Environment	Stayers	723	659.17	476576.50
	Leavers	495	536.96	265794.50
	Total	1218		
Workforce Diversity	Stayers	723	585.86	423577.00
	Leavers	495	644.03	318794.00
	Total	1218		

Table 6.15. Climate scores for stayers and leavers (continued)

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Test Statistics[a]				
Career Development	**156715.500**	**279475.500**	**-3.858**	**0.000**
Change	**155116.500**	**416119.500**	**-4.131**	**0.000**
Communications	**124087.000**	**246847.000**	**-9.508**	**0.000**
HR Policies & Procedure	**157340.000**	**280100.000**	**-3.719**	**0.000**
Training & Development	**124708.000**	**247468.000**	**-9.382**	**0.000**
Management & Leadership	**134816.500**	**257576.500**	**-7.590**	**0.000**
Performance Management	**151737.500**	**274497.500**	**-4.679**	**0.000**
Relationships	**167661.500**	**428664.500**	**-1.966**	**0.049**
Recognition & Rewards	171172.500	293932.500	-1.369	0.171
Values & Culture	**167989.500**	**429715.500**	**-1.981**	**0.048**
Work Environment	**143034.500**	**265794.500**	**-6.246**	**0.000**
Workforce Diversity	**161851.000**	**423577.000**	**-3.127**	**0.002**

a. Grouping Variable: Status

The results indicate that all organisational climate dimensions (with the exception of recognition and rewards) in the stayers sample differed significantly when compared to the leavers sample. Stayers rated the following dimensions of organisational climate more positively than leavers: career development, communication, HR policies & procedures, training & development, management & leadership, performance management and work environment. The leavers sample had higher mean rank scores for change, relationships, values & culture and workforce diversity. This means that these dimensions in the organisation were influential in determining whether a person would leave or stay.

The following hypothesis is supported by these findings:

HC$_2$: There are statistically significant differences in mean scores of stayers and leavers on organisational climate dimensions.

6.7.2.2   Functional area climate scores

The next analysis seeks to establish whether different departments had significantly different organisational climate scores. As four functional areas/departments were involved in the study, the Kruskal-Wallis (Garson, 2011) test was used to establish if there was a significant statistical difference in the mean organisational climate scores of different departments, as shown in table 6.16.

Table 6.16. Departmental organisational climate scores

Ranks			
	N Functional area	N	Mean Rank
Organisational Climate	Corporate Services	15	467.57
	Human Resources	260	572.90
	Merchandise	231	589.99
	Retail Operations	710	630.53
	Total	1216	

Test Statistics[a,b]	
Organisational Climate	
Chi-Square	9.178
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	**0.027**

a. Kruskal-Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: NFunctionalarea

The results in Table 6.16 indicate that the mean climate scores in the different departments were statistically and significantly different. There was a 2.7% probability of obtaining a chi-square equal to or greater than 9.178 by chance. This means that the results obtained in this analysis could not be attributed to chance and the probability of obtaining these figures by chance was extremely low.

These findings support the following hypothesis:

HA$_8$: There are statistically significant differences in the mean organisational climate scores of the different functional areas.

6.7.2.3   Other climate score results

The rest of the group comparisons under organisational climate did not yield statistically significant results. These results can be found in the appendices section in the following order:

- Appendix N - functional and dysfunctional turnover and organisational climate scores
- Appendix O- mentors/coaches and organisational climate scores
- Appendix P - intention to quit and organisational climate scores
- Appendix Q – functional and dysfunctional turnover and management style

The following hypotheses are not supported by the results of the current study:

HA$_9$: There are statistically significant differences in the leavers sample between subgroups based on functional and dysfunctional turnover, with regard to their mean scores on organisational climate.

HA$_{10}$: There are statistically significant differences in mean scores in the stayers sample between those who were and those who were not allocated mentors/coaches, with regard to their mean organisational climate scores.

HA$_{11}$: There are statistically significant differences in the stayers sample between those who intend to quit and those who do not intend to quit, with regard to their mean scores on organisational climate.

HA$_{12}$: There are statistically significant differences in the leavers sample between those with functional and dysfunctional turnover with regard to their mean scores on the management/leadership dimension.

The section below explores mean differences associated with demographics of the two samples used in this study, i.e. leavers and stayers.

6.7.3 Demographic variables

A number of demographic variables were included in this study. This section presents results relating to group differences on the following demographic variables: performance, gender, race, tenure and age.

6.7.3.1 Performance scores

An analysis of the difference in performance between stayers and leavers is in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17. Differences in performance between stayers and leavers

Ranks				
	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	Stayers	807	844.31	681360.00
Performance rating	Leavers	728	683.41	497520.00
	Total	1535		

Test Statistics[a]	
	Performance rating
Mann-Whitney U	232164.000
Wilcoxon W	497520.000
Z	-7.103
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Results in Table 6.17 indicate that there were significant differences in the mean scores of those in the leavers and stayers samples when it came to performance (Z = -7.103, p = .000). The performance scores of stayers were

significantly higher than those of leavers. The results support the following hypothesis:

HA$_{13}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on performance.

An illustration of whether or not there is a difference in mean scores between people who had planned or unplanned quitting, within the stayers sample, is in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18. Planned and unplanned quitting mean comparisons on performance

Ranks				
	Intention to quit	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	Planned quitting	60	66.15	3969.00
Performance rating	Unplanned quitting	66	61.09	4032.00
	Total	126		

Test Statistics[a]	
	Performance rating
Mann-Whitney U	1821.000
Wilcoxon W	4032.000
Z	-0.778
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.437

The results indicate that there was no difference in mean scores for performance in the stayers sample between those who intended to quit and those who did not intend to quit ($Z = -.778$, $p = .437$).

The following hypothesis is not supported by the above results:

HA$_{14}$:There are statistically significant differences in the stayers sample between planned and unplanned quitters regard to mean scores on performance.

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6.7.3.2   Gender group comparisons

The next demographic variable to be analysed was gender. Results are
displayed in table 6.19.

Table 6.19. Gender crosstabulation and chi-square

Status * NGender Cross-tabulation

			N Gender		
			Male	Female	Total
Status	Stayers	Count	294	513	807
		% within Status	36.4%	63.6%	100.0%
		% within NGender	48.5%	55.2%	52.5%
	Leavers	Count	312	417	729
		% within Status	42.8%	57.2%	100.0%
		% within NGender	51.5%	44.8%	47.5%
Total		Count	606	930	1536
		% within Status	39.5%	60.5%	100.0%
		% within NGender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	**6.500[a]**	**1**	**0.011**		
Continuity Correction[b]	6.236	1	0.013		
Likelihood Ratio	6.499	1	0.011		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.012	0.006
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.496	1	0.011		
N of Valid Cases	1536				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have an expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 287.61.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

In this research, it was found that there were statistically significant
differences in the stayers and leavers samples with regard to the gender
composition of the groups.

A number of statistics were yielded in this analysis, all of which showed
significance. For the purpose of this research, the focus was on the Pearson
chi-square, which is the most common type of significance testing (Garson,

2011). The results of the Pearson chi-square indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the stayers and leavers samples when it came to gender ($p =.011$). These findings confirm the following hypothesis:

HA_{15}: *There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to the gender composition of the group.*

The leavers sample was isolated to check if the current study would support the finding by Griffeth et al. (2000), namely that older women tended to display lower levels of turnover due to reduced family responsibility. Figure 6.8 depicts the results.

Figure 6.8. Age of females in the leavers sample
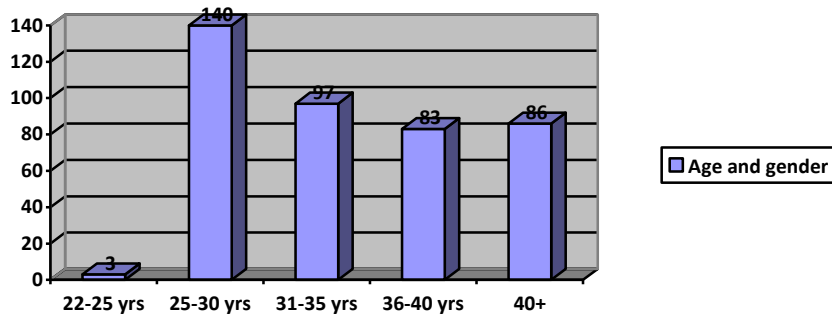
The leavers' data indicates that females between the ages of 25 and 30 accounted for the highest percentage of female leavers (19%) in this group. Within this age group, 35% of the females cited staying at home or studying full time as a reason for why they left the organisation. The majority left to join other organisations based on increased remuneration packages, better career prospects and a 5-day work week (instead of working over weekends, as often happens in the retail sector).

6.7.3.3   Race group comparisons

No statistical difference was found between the stayers and leavers samples when it came to racial composition (Chi-square 4.454; $p = .216$), results in Appendix R. These results do not support the following hypothesis:

HA$_{16}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to the racial composition of the group.

6.7.3.4   Tenure group comparisons

Tenure and age were the other demographic variables that were investigated for differences between the stayers and leavers samples. Table 6.20 investigates tenure and age in both leavers and stayers samples.

Table 6.20. Tenure and age crosstabulation and chi-square

					Tenure			
			0-1	**2-5**	**6-10**	**11-15**	**15+**	**Total**
Status	Stayers	Count	0	354	273	71	109	807
		% within Status	0.0%	43.9%	33.8%	8.8%	13.5%	100.0%
		% within Tenure	0.0%	47.6%	56.2%	53.0%	69.9%	52.5%
	Leavers	Count	16	390	213	63	47	729
		% within Status	2.2%	53.5%	29.2%	8.6%	6.4%	100.0%
		% within Tenure	100.0%	52.4%	43.8%	47.0%	30.1%	47.5%
Total		Count	16	744	486	134	156	1536
		% within Status	1.0%	48.4%	31.6%	8.7%	10.2%	100.0%
		% within Tenure	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Status * Tenure Crosstabulation

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	**46.427[a]**	**4**	**0.000**
Likelihood Ratio	53.199	4	0.000
N of Valid Cases	1536		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have an expected count less than 5. The minimum

expected count is 7.59.

The results indicate a curvilinear relationship between between tenure and turnover, with tenure peaking at 2-6 years and then declining steadily until it

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reaches 6.4% in the 15+ years category. These findings support the following hypothesis:

HA$_{17}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to tenure.

6.7.3.5   Age group comparisons

Significant differences were found in terms of age in the two samples as presented in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21. Age crosstabulation and chi-square

Status * Age Crosstabulation

			Age					
			22-24	25-30	31-35	36-40	40+	Total
Status	Stayers	Count	0	7	231	222	149	198	807
		% within Status	.0%	.9%	28.6%	27.5%	18.5%	24.5%	100.0%
		% within Age	.0%	43.8%	49.0%	53.2%	47.9%	61.9%	52.5%
	Leavers	Count	1	9	240	195	162	122	729
		% within Status	.1%	1.2%	32.9%	26.7%	22.2%	16.7%	100.0%
		% within Age	100.0%	56.3%	51.0%	46.8%	52.1%	38.1%	47.5%
Total		Count	1	16	471	417	311	320	1536
		% within Status	0.1%	1.0%	30.7%	27.1%	20.2%	20.8%	100.0%
		% within Age	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	**17.849[a]**	**5**	**0.003**
Likelihood Ratio	18.363	5	0.003
N of Valid Cases	1536		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have an expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .47.

The majority of the leavers sample is between the ages of 25 and 30; whereas there is a more even distribution in the stayers sample. This finding supports the following hypothesis:

HA$_{18}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to age.

6.7.3.6   Absenteeism, planned and unplanned quitting

The last demographic variables reported on in this section are absenteeism, as well as planned and unplanned quitting, in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22. Absenteeism for stayers and leavers

	Ranks			
	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Absenteeism	Stayers	806	926.00	746354.50
	Leavers	728	592.02	430990.50
	Total	1534		

Test Statistics^a	
	Absenteeism
Mann-Whitney U	165634.500
Wilcoxon W	430990.500
Z	**-15.030**
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

The results in Table 6.21 indicate that there were significant differences between people in the stayers and leavers samples in respect of absenteeism (*Z* = -15.030; *p* = .000). However, in this instance stayers showed significantly higher absenteeism compared to leavers. These results support the following hypothesis:

HA$_{19}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to absenteeism.

6.8   CORRELATIONS

Correlations are computed to indicate the relationship between variables (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). The results are expressed by *r,* also referred to as the

correlation coefficient. Correlations range from -1.00 to +1.00, indicating the strength of the relationship between variables (Garson, 2011). None of the correlations between performance, perceptions and cognition were significant, results are reported in appendix S; the same results were found when correlating organisational climate and performance, in appendix T.

6.8.1　Organisational climate

Two hypotheses were tested in this section:

HB_1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between performance, perception of recognition and rewards, and intention to stay.

HB_2: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational climate perceptions and performance.

Correlation results did not support these hypotheses, as the correlations were not significant. Detailed correlations are shown in Appendices P and Q.

6.9　REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A catergory regression analysis was conducted, due to the independent variable (turnover) being a categorical variable. In this analysis both independent variables and absenteeism were included as predictors of turnover, as previous research had shown a link between absenteeism and turnover (Mitra et al., 1992). Results of the regression analysis are displayed in Tables 6.23 and 6.24.

Table 6.23. Regression analysis of personality, organisational climate dimensions and absenteeism on turnover

<table>
<tr><td colspan="5" align="center">**Model Summary**</td></tr>
<tr><td>Model</td><td>R</td><td>R Square</td><td>Adjusted R Square</td><td>Apparent Prediction Error</td></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>.545</td><td>.297</td><td>.286</td><td>.703</td></tr>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Status

Predictors: Workforce Diversity Absenteeism   Neuroticism Extraversion Opennessnes to ideas Agreeableness Change Communications HR Policies & Procedure Training & Developmet Management & Leadership Performance Management Relationships Recognition & Rewards Values & Culture) Work Enviroment

The regression analysis indicates that personality, organisational climate dimensions and absenteeism accounted for 29% of ($R^2 = 0.297$) of whether people stayed or left the organisation. Although there were only three independent variables, they had a number of dimensions linked to them, with the exception of absenteeism. Five dimensions of personality and 12 dimensions of organisational climate were included in the regression model. This high number of dimensions could lead to an inflated multiple correlation (R^2), hence both the multiple correlation and the adjusted R^2 were used in the current study (Garson, 2011). In terms of the adjusted R^2 (.286), 28% of the decision to stay or leave could be explained by personality, organisational climate dimensions and absenteeism. ANOVA results are reported in Table 6.24 below.

Table 6.24. ANOVA results

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7" align="center">**ANOVA**[b]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Model</td><td>Sum of Squares</td><td>df</td><td>Mean Square</td><td>F</td><td>Sig.</td></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>Regression</td><td>334.821</td><td>16</td><td>20.926</td><td>29.301</td><td>0.000</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Residual</td><td>794.179</td><td>1112</td><td>.714</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Total</td><td>1129.000</td><td>1128</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table>

*p<.05   **p<.01

Dependent Variable: Status

Predictors: Workforce Diversity Absenteeism   Neuroticism Extraversion Opennessnes to ideas Agreeableness Change Communications HR Policies & Procedure Training & Developmet Management & Leadership Performance Management Relationships Recognition & Rewards Values & Culture) Work Enviroment

ANOVA results is table 6.24 indicate that there is a difference between people in the stayers and leavers samples when it comes to personality, organisational climate and absenteeism ($F = 22.743$, $p = .000$).

Once the overall regression results were obtained, it was important to analyse the individual contribution of each of the dimensions relating to the independent variables that were included in the model. This analysis appears in Table 6.25.

Table 6.25. Coefficients

	Standardized Coefficients		df	F	Sig.
	Beta	Bootstrap (1000) Estimate of Std. Error			
Workforce Diversity	**.124**	**.047**	**1**	**6.918**	**.009**
Absenteeism	**-.311**	**.023**	**1**	**175.864**	**.000**
Neuroticism	-.035	.028	1	1.506	.220
Extraversion	.008	.028	1	.089	.765
Opennessnes to ideas	-.023	.026	1	.779	.378
Agreeableness	-.020	.029	1	.469	.494
Change	**.266**	**.052**	**1**	**25.658**	**.000**
Communications	**-.326**	**.053**	**1**	**37.607**	**.000**
HR Policies & Procedure	.031	.043	1	.526	.469
Training & Development	**-.125**	**.049**	**1**	**6.547**	**.011**
Management & Leadership	**-.214**	**.062**	**1**	**11.965**	**.001**
Performance Management	.078	.058	1	1.811	.179
Relationships	**.180**	**.059**	**1**	**9.236**	**.002**
Recognition & Rewards	-.037	.037	1	1.007	.316
Values & Culture)	.059	.050	1	1.405	.236
Work Enviroment	**-.144**	**.042**	**1**	**11.740**	**.001**

None of the personality dimensions could be used to significantly predict if employees would leave or stay, as none of them had significant beta values. The latter are used to indicate which dimensions would be good predictors of the dependent variable (Garson, 2011) – in this case staying or leaving.

- Absenteeism was found to be a strong predictor of whether people stayed or left (ß = - 0.311; $p = .000$).

- Seven of the 12 organisational climate dimensions were significant predictors of whether a person would stay or leave. These were Change (ß = 0.266; *p* = .000); Communication (ß = -.326; *p* = .000); Training & Development (ß = -.125; *p* = .011); Management & Leadership (ß = -.214; *p* = .001); Relationships (ß = 0.180; *p* = .002); Work environment (ß -.144; *p.* = 001), and Workforce diversity (ß = 0.124; *p*= .009).

These findings partially supported the following hypothesis:

HC₄: A combination of personality, organisational climate and absenteeism can significantly predict turnover.

6.9.1   Moderated regression

A further regression analyis was conducted to understand the moderating effects that personality factors may have on organisational climate. Not all the results were significant, hence table 6.26 below indicates only the significant moderating effects.

6.26 Moderating effects

Personality	Climate dimension	R^2	F	Sig.
Agreeableness	HR policies & procedures	.427	17.203	.000
Conformity	* HR policies & procedures	.409	23.027	.000
Neuroticism	* HR policies & procedures	.449	24.226	.000
Openness to ideas	* HR policies & procedures	.427	18.577	.000
Extraversion	* HR policies & procedures	.434	22.088	.000

The results above indicate that all five personality dimensions moderate between HR policies & procedures and turnover. In this instance, although personality did not come out as a strong predictor of employee turnover, all personality dimensions strengthened the relationship between HR policies & procedures (one of the organisational climate dimensions) and turnover.

6.10   ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS

A few more hypotheses were tested, specifically in relation to each of the five personality dimensions and their relationship with and ability to predict intention to quit. The results (Appendix U) indicate that none of the personality dimensions had a statistically significant relationship with intention to quit, therefore none of the other hypotheses below were supported by the data:

1. Conscientiousness

1a. There is a statistically significant negative relationship between conscientiousness and intention to quit.

1b. Conscientiousness can statistically significantly predict whether individuals quit or not.

2. Extraversion

2a. There is a statistically significant negative relationship between extraversion and intention to quit.

2b. Extraversion can statistically significantly predict whether individuals quit or not.

3. Emotional stability

3a. There is a statistically significant negative relationship between emotional stability and intention to quit.

3b. Emotional stability can statistically significantly predict whether individuals quit or not.

4. Agreeableness

4a. There is a statistically significant negative relationship between agreeableness and intention to quit.

4b. Agreeableness can statistically significantly predict whether individuals quit or not.

5. Openness to experience

5a. There is a statistically significant positive relationship between openness to experience and intention to quit.

5b. Openness to experience can statistically significantly predict whether individuals quit or not.

6. Management/Leadership

6a. Management/leadership perception can statistically significantly predict intention to quit.

6b. Management/leadership perception is the strongest predictor of turnover.

The concept of shock was first researched by Lee and Mitchell (1994). One of the areas explored in the current research was understanding the trigger or shock that would make stayers consider leaving. The focus was on understanding what the shock was likely to be, whereas Lee and Mitchell (1994) researched the process that occurred after the shock until the person decided whether to leave or not (Lee et al., 1999). This process lies outside the scope of this research.

Stayers in the current sample were asked a specific question about what would make them leave the organisation, with eight options to choose from. Results of their responses are displayed in Figure 6.9.

Figure 6.9. Stayers' reasons for leaving (%)
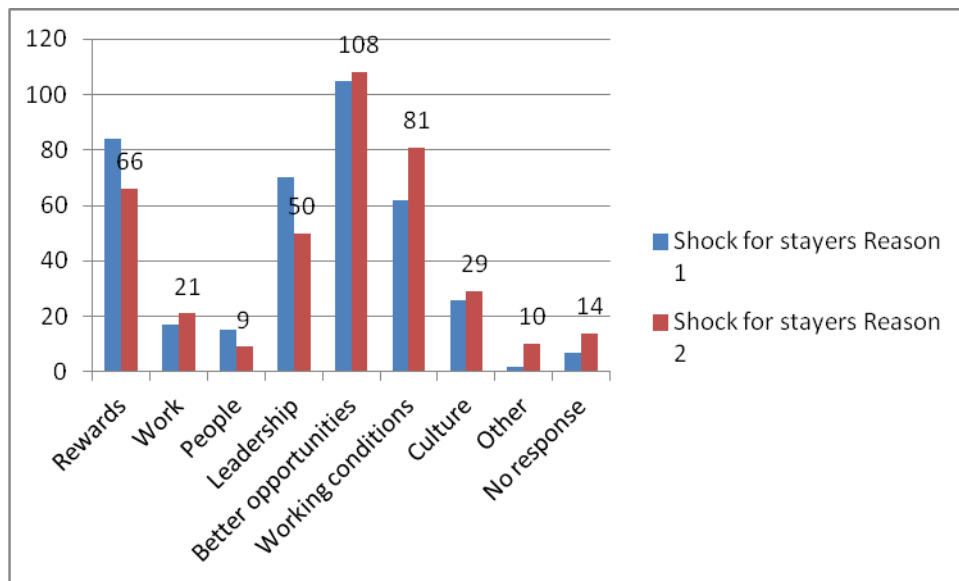
The results clearly indicate that four of the top reasons that would make stayers consider leaving were (in order of prominence) better opportunities, rewards, working conditions and leadership. In describing the concept of shock in their model, Lee and Mitchell (1994) see it as something that could either be internal or external to the person. Altogether 54,3% of leavers had left to join other organisations for the sake of better opportunities.

6.11   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 6 presented the results of this study. Characteristics of both the stayers and leavers samples were reported using descriptive statistics. SEM results were presented as a test of the proposed model of employee turnover. Coefficient alpha analysis of both personality and organisational climate dimensions were also discussed. Differences between the stayers and leavers groups were highlighted using the following non-parametric tests; the Mann-Whitney test for two groups and the Kruskal-Wallis test for more than two groups. Correlations between the dependent and independent variables were also discussed. Regression analysis results were presented, indicating how the independent variable regressed into the dependent variables. The chapter concluded with testing additional hypotheses.

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CHAPTER 7
RESULTS DISCUSSION

In this chapter, results presented in Chapter 6 are discussed, linking findings to existing literature. The discussion includes the proposed turnover model that was tested in this study. The chapter concludes with a summary.

7.1   INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to understand the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover. This was done by investigating which personality and organisational factors impact turnover, as well as understanding the role of biographical variables. A number of hypotheses were formulated at the start of the study, guided by current research in the field as well as future research recommendations made by other researchers. The hypotheses link to broader empirical aims of the study, which are highlighted in the next section.

7.1.2 Empirical aims of the study

The study was designed to understand:-

- the difference between leavers and stayers in the five broad personality factors;
- the difference between leavers and stayers in the 12 organisational climate dimensions;
- the difference between leavers and stayers in terms of demographic factors;
- the combination of personality factors and organisational dimensions in influencing whether a person stays or leaves the organisation;
- test the proposed model of organisational climate;
- test the proposed model of employee turnover;

The discussion will be presented under the following headings, in line with the empirical aims of the study; personality, organisational climate, demographic factors and turnover model testing. These results will be explained and linked to other relevant research findings in the field.

7.2 THE ROLE OF PERSONALITY IN TURNOVER

Overall, personality results were quite disappointing. In this study, none of the five broad personality dimensions were found to play a role in employee turnover as hypothesised. When the two samples' means were compared on five dimensions their z scores did not indicate a difference in these means. Both bivariate (Mann-Whitney) and multivariate (Hotelling T²) analyses indicated that there were no differences between the stayers and leavers samples in relation to personality.

The present results are different from those found in previous studies, where a relationship was reported between turnover and conscientiousness (Hom et al., 1984; Salgado, 2008). Griffeth et al. (2000), reported correlations ($r = -.20$, $p = .05$) between turnover, conscientiousness and emotional stability. In a more recent study, Zimmerman (2008) found that conscientiousness and agreeableness were the best predictors of actual turnover, while emotional stability was a good predictor of intention to quit. However, the results of this study do not support any of these findings hence the following hypotheses relating to personality were rejected:-

HA_1: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on conscientiousness.

HA_2: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on emotional stability or neuroticism.

HC_1: There are statistically significant differences in the mean scores of stayers and leavers on personality dimensions.

However, when comparing the two samples on the nine bipolar scales, leavers were found to be more assertive, persuasive and optimistic than stayers, partially supporting the hypothesis below.

HA₃: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to mean scores on the nine bipolar scales of the OPPro.

A further analysis in the stayers sample was conducted to understand whether there were personality differences in those stayers who indicated planned and unplanned quitting. The results found no difference between these two sub-groups in the stayers' sample. These findings are contrary to research conducted by Zimmerman (2008) who found that people with low agreeableness and high openness to experience were likely to engage in unplanned quitting. As a result, the following hypotheses were rejected:-

HA₄: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on conscientiousness or conformity.

HA₅: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on openness to experience.

HA₆: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on agreeableness.

HA₇: There are statistically significant differences (in the stayers sample) between planned and unplanned quitters with regard to their mean scores on emotional stability.

All five personality factors came out as moderating variables between HR policies & procedures and turnover. A possible contributing factor to these disappointing personality results could be the high distortion that was found in

both samples. 74.3% of the leavers sample had a distortion sten of five or higher, and the figure was 73% for the stayers sample. Distortion affects the reliability of the measure, in this case the OPPro questionnaire because the person answers questions in a socially desirable manner, not necessarily in line with their real preferences.

Although the distortion figures are concerning, they need to be understood in context. The majority of the people in this study would have completed their personality assessments for selection purposes, whether they were applying for a position to join the organisation or for a promotion (if already employed). Social desirability was covered in detail in Chapter 2 under personality. The point the researcher would like to make is that due to the reason for the assessment – which for most of the people in the study was selection – high social desirability could be expected. People were looking for positions and as result would want to put their best foot forward, even if this meant exaggerating some elements of their personality (Morgeson et al., 2007).

The problem with this is that the high social desirability in both samples (as reflected above) could be impacting negatively on the reliability of the personality measure overall as used in this study. It must also be mentioned that in a selection context only elements of personality that are directly linked to the position one is applying for will be considered (Tett & Christiansen, 2007) – and not the entire spectrum of personality as was the case in this study. Although the reliability of the personality measure was probably compromised in this study, only specific aspects of one's personality are looked at when one is applying for a position – thus the reliability of the personality measure is still likely to be good for selection (Ones et al., 2007).

The same situation arose in a study by Nzama et al. (2008), where high social desirability in the sample negatively impacted on the results of the study

The next discussion is on organisational climate.

7.3 THE ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE IN TURNOVER

Organisational climate results were more encouarging. Stayers and leavers differed significantly in the way they perceived the organisation's climate, hence supporting the following hypothesis:-

HC_2: *There are statistically significant differences in mean scores of stayers and leavers on organisational climate dimensions.*

Stayers in the sample were more positive about career development, communication, HR policies & procedures, training & development, management & leadership, performance management and work environment. Whilst leavers scored higher on change, relationships, values & culture and workforce diversity. In total, stayers were positive about seven of the twelve organisational climate dimensions, whilst leavers were positive about four dimensions.

Findings in organisational climate support a number of studies in this field. Allen et al. (2003) found HR practices to have a negative relationship with turnover, whilst findings on leadership support the study conducted by Nisshii and Mayer (2009), indicating that leaders who had a high leader-member exchange with their teams were likely to have lower turnover. The finding that work environment was an important determinant of whether employees leave or stay (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000; Milner et al., 2010) is also supported in this study.

Stanz and Greyling (2010) studied the influence of organisational factors on turnover in high and low risk groups. These groups differed significantly in terms of how they felt about their work environment, with the high risk group being more negative towards their work environment and their jobs. They saw promotional opportunities as limited. In the study, intention to leave was determined by the following organisational factors; work environment, physical and emotional cost, opportunities available at resignation, quality of work and well informed decision making.

The next section covers reasons related to organisational climate that influence whether people stay or leave.

7.3.1 Why people leave

Organisational climate results in this study were further supported by reasons provided by stayers on what would make them leave the organisation "shock". The results clearly indicate that the top four reasons that would make stayers consider leaving were (in order of priority) better opportunities, rewards, working conditions and leadership. In describing the concept of shock in their model, Lee and Mitchell (1994) see it as something that could either be internal or external to the person. In the stayers group, people who cited better opportunities would most likely consider leaving if they were contacted by an organisation that was seen to provide these opportunities. The probability would be even higher if the opportunity came with higher rewards and improved working conditions. The risk that the organisation faced in terms of the stayers sample comes more from external sources (an offer from another organisation), because of what employees cited as being important to them. Altogether 54,3% of leavers had left to join other organisations for the sake of better opportunities. These dimensions were also measured in the climate survey and, if responses were analysed and actioned, could prevent stayers from also leaving.

In their research, Stanz and Greyling (2010) found that 42.8% people leave due to poor pay and 8.2% leave due to quality of management. The findings about rewards being an important consideration supports the work of these authors, where unhappiness with salary was cited by 23.8% of the respondents in their study. Other reasons cited were retirement and working abroad. In another study, Black senior managers left their employers due to career progression, discrimination, management, pay and work; with career progression and work being the top two reasons for leaving (Nzukuma & Bussin, 2011). Muteswa & Ortlepp (2011) found that the three most cited reasons for leaving in SA managerial employees were career paths,

management style (which would be linked to leadership) and rewards. The findings in this study, support most current research on why people leave, as indicated above. All these reasons for leaving that are cited make up dimensions of organisational climate, as measured by the OPS in this study.

Although from previous research it seems like studies that have included organisational climate, as a variable in explaining turnover, have yielded positive results, not all studies have had this success. An example is a study by Boschoff, van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002) who found that organisational climate variables did not play a role in people's intention to quit, which is contrary to other findings (Nisshii & Mayer, 2009; Stanz & Greyling, 2010). The authors attribute this finding to the possible non-portability of the organisational climate scale they used. This highlights the importance of using reliable and valid measures in any research.

7.3.2 Collective climates

One of the aims of the study was to establish whether an organisation has one climate or many, dependinng on what is happening in its various departments. Findings of different functional areas having significantly different organisational climate score were consistent with research conducted by Joyce and Slocum (1984). These researchers found that it is possible for departments in the same organisation to have different climates, as climate perceptions are influenced by variables that may differ from department to department. They termed this 'collective climates' (Joyce & Slocum, 1984). Their findings confirm the proposed model of organisational climate that was discussed in Chapter 4, namely the perceptual measurement multiple levels organisational attribute model. In this model, organisational climate is measured at individual level, but one's responses are influenced by what is happening both in the workgroup and in the organisation. As a result, different climates may be created in the organisation because although there are shared values and norms at organisational level, what happens in one's own department influences how you experience the organisation.

The following hypothesis is supported by these findings:

HA8: There are statistically significant differences in the mean organisational climate scores of the different functional areas.

7.3.3 Other organisational climate results

A number of other hypotheses were tested relating to organisational climate, these results are discussed in this section.

In previous sections it was mentioned that not all turnover is dysfunctional, some turnover may be positive for the organisation provided that the organisation is not loosing people it should be retaining. In order to investigate this, all leavers were categorised by HR as either dysfunctional (bad turnover) of functional (good turnover). Mean scores of these two categories were compared to check if they differed significantly in the way these two groups perceived organisational climate. The results were negative, hence the following hypothesis was not supported by the results:

HA9: There are statistically significant differences in the leavers sample between subgroups based on functional and dysfunctional turnover, with regard to their mean scores on organisational climate.

We already know that there are differences between stayers and leavers in the way they perceive the organisation's climate. These results suggest that all the leavers (irrespective of how the organisation classified them using dysfunctional and functional turnover categories), perceived the organisation's climate in a similar manner, hence no differences were found in their mean scores. This indicates that although organisations may value employees differently, especially leavers, there are no significant differences in the way that leavers value the organisation.

When the leavers' results were further analysed to check if there was a difference in mean scores on management and leadership between leavers

who were categorised as functional vs. dysfunctional, the analysis yielded negative results. This means that their perception   of management and leadership in the organisation was not worse than that of all the leavers, who already had a negative perception of management compared to stayers. Hence the following hypothesis was rejected:

HA$_{12}$: There are statistically significant differences in the leavers sample between those with functional and dysfunctional turnover with regard to their mean scores on the management/leadership dimension.

The other area of investigation was to check if mentors/coaches would influence the stayers' perception of the organisation's climate. The study found no differences, based on whether the stayers had coaches or mentors, thus rejecting the following hypothesis:-

HA$_{10}$: There are statistically significant differences in mean scores in the stayers sample between those who were and those who were not allocated mentors/coaches, with regard to their mean organisational climate scores.

Mentors and coaches usually assist people in navigating the organisation and in most instances they help employees to be effective in their roles, by providing input in how new employees can handle people and work related challenges they encounter. This could be seen as additional support that the organisation is providing for one to be successful, however, it does not seem to have an impact on how favourable the stayers with coaches and mentors perceive the organisation. Stayers in this study already have a positive perception of the following organisation's dimensions; career development, HR policies and procedures, training and development, management and leadership, performance management and work environment. This means that stayers in this study already perceive the culture in the organistion to be supportive, from fair HR policies and procedures, to opportunities for growth and supportive leadership. This could possibly explain why there were no further differences found within the stayers sample.

Still on the stayers sample, it was hypothesised that there would be a difference in the way those who intend to quit perceive the organisation's climate, versus those who intend to stay. If employees intend to quit, it stands to reason that there are elements in the organisation they are unhappy with, hence they would consider quitting. This stayers sample already cited the four top reasons why they would consider leaving, which are better opportunities, rewards, working conditions and leadership. All these reasons could be matched to the following OPS dimensions:-

- Better opportunities – career development
- Rewards – recognition & rewards
- Working conditions – work environment
- Leadership – management & leadership

A possible explanation for these results is that these are dimensions about the organisation's climate that stayers are already rating positively (with the exception of rewards), hence there are no differences in climate scores between those who intend to quit or stay. Rewards & recognition is the only organisational climate variable where there were no differences between the stayers and leavers sample. This suggests that this is the only organisational climate variable that is common across both samples. Considering that 54% of the leavers left to join other organistaions (a move that is generally associated with better rewards and recognition), one would assume that rewards and recognition could be a point of differenciation. Another possible explanation for these results could be a small sample size, although the total stayers sample had 807 people, only 105 people responded to the additional questionnaire that measured planned (51 respondents) and unplanned quitting (54 respondents). Hence the following hypothesis was rejected:

HA$_{11}$: There are statistically significant differences in the stayers sample between those who intend to quit and those who do not intend to quit, with regard to their mean scores on organisational climate.

The next section includes a detailed discussion of demographic variable results.

7.4   DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Demographic variables were included to enable the intepretation of results. Results for the following demographic variables will be discussed: perfomance scores, gender, race, tenure, age and absenteeism.

7.4.1 Performance

A comparison of the two samples on performance scores yielded significant differences in mean scores. Stayers were found to have higher performance scores on average than leavers, indicating a negative relationship between performance and turnover. These results support findings by Cotton and Tuttle (1986); Griffeth et al. (2000) and Hom et al. (2004), where performance and turnover were found to have a negative relationship, leading to the acceptance of the following hypothesis:

A_{13}: *There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to their mean scores on performance.*

In this organisation, performance scores are used to determine annual increases as well as bonuses. Performance contracts are usually based on measurable criteria and the system is well established as it has been used for more than 15 years. More than half of the people from both samples come from Retail Operations, 51.6% in stayers sample and 61.2% in leavers sample), which is where the retail stores of the organisation can be found.   All performance measures in this area are linked to how the store has performed, using actual data which cannot be manipulated. Elements that are measured are sales, profit, cost of selling and customer service. This leaves little room for any subjectivity to creep in, even the customer service goal has a numeric measure based on certain criteria. Getting back to the results, stayers in this sample were found to have higher performance scores than leavers, which

means that they would qualify for above average annual increases and bonuses, which could explain why they were still with the organisation. Whereas, the lower performance scores for leavers mean that the opposite is true for leavers, hence its easier for them to leave, as rewards is one of the top four reasons why the people in this sample have indicated they would leave the organisation. This is further supported by the fact that 54% of leavers went to other organisations, which would mean better rewards.

The classification of intention to quit, in the stayers sample, was used to check if there were significant differences within this sample. The results were negative, hence the following hypothesis was rejected:

HA$_{14}$: There are statistically significant differences in the stayers sample between planned and unplanned quitters regard to mean scores on performance.

It has already been mentioned that the low response rate (13%) of people in this sample who indicated their intention to quit or stay could have a negative impact on the results.

7.4.2 Gender

Gender was the next variable to be tested. The results indicated a significant difference between stayers and leavers in relation to gender . Although the majority of people in the entire study were female (60.5%), there were significantly more males than females who were reported to have left the organisation. These findings support the following hypothesis:

HA$_{15}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to the gender composition of the group.

A closer look at the leavers data revealed that 63% of the males were African, 19% Coloured, 10.8% Indian and 6% White. 55% of African males resigned for better career prospects in other organisations, followed by 20% of

these males resigning to stay at home. These results indicate that there is a high demand for skilled Africans, especially as most organisations are conscious about meeting their EE targets. The data regarding a relatively high percentage of African males resigning to stay at home was initially puzzling. However, looking into the age of this gorup one can see that they are younger and in age groups where they are either starting a family or have young children they may be raising. As the world of work continues to change and more females become career orientated, this finding could suggest an element of role reversal, where more males are taking responsibility for staying at home and raising children, especially when the partner earns a higher salary.

Older females in this study tended to show lower turnover levels than younger females. These results were found to support the findings by Griffeths et al. (2000). One of the reasons could be reduced family responsibilites and in SA there are better career prospects in organisations for females in line with Employment Equity regulations. In a climate where organisations are competing for limited talent, most organisations have programs in place to fast track the development of specific groups, including women. This organisation in particular has focused on the development and promotion of women for a number of years, opening up career opportunities that would otherwise mainly be available to men.

The findings on gender were contrary to those of Griffeth et al. (2000) whose study found that there was no difference between men and women when it came to turnover.

7.4.3 Race

Despite the results on gender being significant, the same could not be found when racial differences were analysed (Chi-square 4.454; $p = 0.216$). Hence the following hypothesis was not supported:-

HA$_{16}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to the racial composition of the group.

The finding on race does not support findings by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) or Hom et al. (2008) that minorities in America in some studies reported higher turnover rates than whites. South African studies also found that African professional nurses were more likely to leave than nurses from the other race groups (Jacobs, 2005). Vallabh and Donald (2001) found similar results with black managers when compared to other race groups, while Martin and Roodt (2008) found that turnover intentions were higher with both black males and females, due to increased opportunities.

7.4.4 Tenure

Findings on tenure were similar to those by Hom et al. (2008), where a curvilinear relationship was found between tenure and turnover. The main difference between these studies is that, in this study, tenure peaked at 2-5 years and then declined steadily until it reached 6% in the 15+ years category. In the Hom et al. (2008) study, however, tenure peaked during the first year, after which it declined steadily until it reached 1.23% in the 15+ years category.

The low tenure in the 1st two years (2.2%) could be attributed to the organisation's strong on-boarding programme and discipline in implementing this. New employees are generally orientated well into the organisation, especially because most of the roles a very clearly defined with clear accountabilities. This is the case regardless of where the person is based. This is supported by pairing a new recruit with a buddy, who is responsible for ensuring that the new recruit's integration into to organisation is smooth.

After this period, turnover rockets to 53.5% which is alarming. A number of reasons are advanced to explain this finding. Due to the organisation being performance driven and measuring the majority of outputs, it seems that some people could be leaving due to not coping with the demands of the role.

When performance scores of leavers were compared to those of stayers, they were found to be lower, which could be further supporting evidence. The organisation has also focused on managing poor performers, which includes either rehabilitating them or taking them into a disciplinary enquiry. Most poor performers do not get to this stage, as they generally start looking for other options as soon as their manager indicates unhappiness with their performance, especially if they think they will not be able to improve their performance.

The other reason could be that people are leaving to join organisations that do not require one to work on weekends and even shifts, depending on where one is placed. In a retail organisation, the working hours are generally longer and this makes it difficult for people to have a good work-life balance. Despite this, one also finds people who love the excitement and pace of working in retail and once they acclimatise to the working conditions, are content to stay. This seems to be happening around the 6 to 10 year mark and gets better after 10 years. The focus on career development and promoting employees could also mean that once employees have proved themselves (the period varies depending on the role one is in), they are afforded opportunities to progress within the organisation and even work in roles that do not require them to work store hours or shifts.

The higher than usual turnover percentages, compared to those in Hom et al. (2008) may be attributed to the design of the study where, due to the size of the organisation, only departments with turnover higher than 15% over a 12-month period were included. Findings on tenure support the following hypothesis:

HA_{17}: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to tenure.

7.4.5 Age

Significant differences were found between age and turnover. Age distribution was more even in the stayers sample. While, the majority of the leavers were between the ages of 25 and 30 (32.9%), followed by the 31-35 category (26.7%). The turnover in these age groups was mainly as a result of better career opportunities with other organisations (59%) and staying at home (22%). Resigning to join another organisation implies that one will have a higher salary and benefits. This move is generally associated with a promotion or a role with increased responsibilities. The results could be attributed to 'pull' market forces, where there are more opportunities which the younger and more skilled employees may be ceasing. Generational research also indicates that the younger generation is not as loyal as the older generation. This translates in theyounger generation being more able to take risks and seeking challenges, which means that they are unlikely to stay with an organisation for extended periods of time. The data in this study also indicates that turnover decreases with age.This finding supports the following hypothesis:

HA_{18}: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to age.

There is a strong relationship between age, gender and turnover in these results. These results support those of Griffeth et al. (2000) who found that older women tended to have lower turnover intentions than younger women and males, due to reduced family responsibility. Older women in the leavers group represent only 11% of the people who left during this period.

7.4.6 Absenteeism

The results on absenteeism show that the stayers sample has significantly higher absenteeism than the leavers sample. A previous meta analysis on the relationship between absenteeism and turnover (Mitra et al., 1992) indicated a positive relationship between the two variables. Absenteeism results in this

study were unexpected, as people in the leavers sample were expected to have higher absenteeism that stayers, as absenteeism is an indicator of turnover and forms part of withdrawal behavior (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mitra et al., 1992). If absenteesism is part of withdrawal behaviour it means that there are a number of people in the leavers sample who are showing signs of withdrawing and its just a matter of time before they resign. According to Cohen and Golan (2007), absenteeism is a reliable early indication of intention to quit. Based on these findings, an update on whether people in the stayers sample were still employed in January 2013 showe that 30% of people in the stayer's sample left the organisation between January 2011(after initial data was collected) to January 2013. 60% of these new leavers cited better career opportunities as their main reason for leaving, whilst those who stayed at home made up 12% of the group. 14.6% of the people who left were either dismissed or they resigned prior to a disciplinary hearing. These stayers results indicate that even though people stayed with the company, they had the intention to leave. Hence the high percentage of absenteeism as part of their withdrawal.

The results support the following hypothesis:

HA$_{19}$: There are statistically significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to absenteeism.

Other hypotheses were tested that investigated the combined effect of a number of variables, the discussion takes place in the next section.

7.4.7 Combined effect

None of the correlations conducted yielded positive results, therefore not supporting the following hypotheses:

HB$_1$: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between performance, perception of recognition and rewards, and intention to stay.

HB$_2$: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational climate perceptions and performance.

Stayers in this study did not see the link between their performance and rewards, hence this does not seem to influence their intention to stay. Although stayers had a more positive view of the organisational climate than leavers, on most of the dimensions, both groups did not differ in perception when it comes to rewards and recognition. The challenge of only having 13% response rate on the measure of intention to stay/leave has already been discussed. This could be the reason that these results were not significant when intention to stay was measured.

7.5   GENERAL DISCUSSION

The main aim of the study is supported by results which show that a combination of personality, organisational climate and absenteeism can significantly predict turnover. A total of 29% variance in turnover is explained by these combined variables.

The above findings partly supported the following hypothesis:

HC$_4$: A combination of personality, organisational climate and absenteeism can significantly predict turnover.

None of the personality dimensions could be used to significantly predict if employees would leave or stay, as none of them had significant beta values. The latter are used to indicate which dimensions would be good predictors of the dependent variable (Garson, 2011), in this case staying or leaving.

- **Absenteeism** was found to be a strong predictor of turnove (ß = - 0.311; *p* = .000). Research in this area indicates absenteeism as one of the measures that could be used to predict turnover (Griffeth et al. 2000; Mitra et al., 1992). However, this study indicates a negative relationship between absenteeism and turnover. Stayers had higher absenteeism than leavers and it turned out that 30% of people in the

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stayers sample left the organisation between January 2011 and January 2013. Indicating that some of the stayers may have been intending to quit anyway.

- Seven of the 12 organisational climate dimensions were significant predictors of whether a person would stay or leave. These were Change (ß= 0.266; *p* = .000); Communication (ß = -.328; *p* = .000); Training & Development (ß = - 0.125; *p* = .011); Management & Leadership (ß = -0.214; *p*.001); Relationships (ß = 0.180; *p* =. 002); Work environment (ß -0.144; *p* = .001), and Workforce diversity (ß = 0.124; *p* = .009).

There is partial support for the proposed model of employee turnover, which has individual and organisational factors as predictors of employee turnover. The following variables predicted turnover in this model:-

- **Biographical variables** – gender (males), age (25-30 years), tenure (2-5 years) and absenteeism (higher in stayers than in leavers).
- **Personality** – none of the big five dimensions were significant in predicting turnover. Using the nine bipolar scale in the OPP, leavers were found to be more assertive, persuasive and optimistic than stayers. However, all five personality factors mediated HR policies & procedures in predicting employee turnover.
- **Organisational climate** – the following organisational climate scores were negatively correlated with employee turnover; career developement, communication, HR policies & procedures, training & development, management & leadership, performance management and work environment. The only dimensions leavers rated higher than stayers were change, relationships, values & culture and workforce diversity. The proposed organisational climate model was also supported by findings that although climate is measured at an individual level, it is influenced by what happens with co-workers, department and the organisation. Closely linking climate to culture.

The concept of collective climates (Joyce & Slochum, 1982) was also supported by the results.

- **External factors** – the econocmic crisis and unemployment did not have a negative effect on turnover, as indicated by the nine year turnover trend analysis of the organisation.

- **Shock** – better opportunities , which are linked with rewards and better working conditions are the three top reasons why stayers would consider leaving. Whereas, the majority of leavers (54.3%), joined other organisations. One can summise that leaving for other employment could mean a better job, rewards and working conditions. In this case, there does not seem to be a difference in "shock" for leavers and stayers. The difference comes where some leavers (25.7%) resigned to stay at home. Which was not indicated by any of the stayers as a possible reason for leaving.

7.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, results presented in chapter 6 were interpreted and discussed. Linking these to hypotheses that were already formulated. Each variable in the proposed model of employee turnover was discussed and its relevance in the model explained, supported by research findings.

CHAPTER 8
CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the key findings of the study are summarised in line with the research questions, highlighting the contribution made to the field of industrial psychology. Recommendations for the organisation, as well as the limitations of the study are discussed. Lastly, recommendations are made for further research.

8.1   INTRODUCTION

Employee turnover continues to be a topic of interest to researchers (Zimmerman, 2008) and organisations due to its multi-dimensional nature and potentially negative impact on organisations (Woodruffe, 1999). This study was conducted due to the gaps identified in current international employee turnover research (Allen, 2006; Zimmerman, 2008; English et al., 2010); the limitations in current employee turnover models and a need to develop and test other turnover models (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; McEvoy & Cascio, 1985; Vogelzang, 2008); and the lack of local research in understanding employee turnover, seeing that turnover is influenced by nationality, employee population and industry (Drew, 2003; Lee & Mowday, 1987).

8.1.1   Contextualising the conclusion

The overall perspective from which the study was conducted is Humanism, where people are regarded as seeking meaning, having free will and being on a journey towards realising their potential (Crowne, 2007; Dumont, 2010). In addition, each of the variables was anchored in a theoretical foundation; for example, personality is conceptualised using the 5-factor model. Two models conceptualised by the researcher were tested during this project, namely the model for organisational climate (perceptual measurement-multiple levels organisational attribute model) and a model of employee turnover. The empirical design had two independent variables, namely personality and organisational climate, with the dependent variable being employee turnover.

Two independent samples were used (Porter & Steers, 1973). The first sample comprised leavers (729) and the second one comprised stayers (807) who closely resembled leavers on a number of characteristics. This design was chosen so that both samples could be compared on a number of variables to establish if there were significant differences between them. The approach enabled a more meaningful interpretation of the leavers data than if there was no comparison.

The study was designed to answer the following research question:

- What is the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover?

Stemming from this broad question, a number of hypotheses were developed to test all the variables included in the study. The next section summarises answers to this question.

8.2   CONCLUSION

As demonstrated in this study, numerous variables can be used to understand employee turnover, which makes the subject quite complex. The divergent results coming from different studies are an indication of the fact that organisations should not simply rely on the research done by others on the topic, but conduct their own research. This will assist them to understand variables that are important in their particular context (Drew, 2003).

The results of this study fully support some of the findings obtained in respect of employee turnover and some only partially. Key findings of the study are summarised below:

- Personality dimensions (the so-called Big Five) did not explain differences between stayers and leavers, except when the nine bipolar scales were used. In the latter case, statistically significant differences

were found between the stayers and leavers in terms of assertiveness, persuasiveness and optimism. All five personality factors moderated the organisation climate dimension of HR policies and procedures in determining turnover. The negative impact of high social desirability on personality scores was also discussed as a challenge.

- Organisational climate came out as a key differentiator between the stayers and leavers, both in mean scores and in terms of the relationship with turnover. Specific dimensions where statistically significant differences were found between stayers and leavers are: change, communication, management and leadership, work environment, and workforce diversity. This is an important finding supporting a number of studies on the importance of organisational climate in employee turnover (Abbassi & Hollman, 2000; Drew, 2003; Griffeth et al., 2000). The finding on different climates existing within the same organisation supports the collective climates concept put forward by Joyce and Slocum (1984). The proposed model for conceptualising organisational climate (perceptual measurement-multiple levels organisational attribute model) was also supported.

- A number of biographical variables yielded mixed results. The most significant variables that could be used to explain employee turnover were absenteeism, age, tenure and gender. These results supported previous research linking absenteeism to turnover (Cohen & Golan, 2007; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mitra et al., 1992) and gender (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hom et al., 2008) in some cases.

- The regression analysis indicated that a combination of personality, organisational climate and absenteeism accounted for 29% of turnover. Although this finding was significant, it was still low because it meant that 71% of turnover was explained by factors besides these variables. However, it was still a better prediction of employee turnover compared

to predictions by other comprehensive models, which explained only 5% of the variance of employees turnover (Lee & Mowday, 1987).

- The proposed model of employee turnover was tested and the results were promising. The SEM results for the stayers sample were not positive, although critical ratios in this sample were significant. Since the model did not meet the criteria for all fit statistics, it had to be rejected. However, the leavers sample had promising results in that its critical ratios were significant. Overall, the model met most but not all of the fit criteria, hence it was accepted as a model that can be used to predict employee turnover..

What can be concluded from these results is that personality and organisational climate definitely play a role in employee turnover. However, care must be taken to ensure that the social desirability of the sample is not too high and, rather than just focusing on the five factors of personality, the differences in specific dimensions should be analysed.

8.2.1   Contribution to the field

This project contributes to knowlege in the field by confirming some existing studies, addressing areas identified by previous authors as the focus for future research, as well as proposing and testing new models for understanding organisational climate and employee turnover.

Theoretical, methodological and practical contributions made by this study to the field of Industrial and organisational psychology will be discussed in the next section.

8.2.1.1 Theoretical contribution

Despite the results being mixed, this study makes an important contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of industrial psychology for the following reasons:

- This is the first study conducted in South Africa that includes personality, organisational factors and other demographic variables in understanding employee turnover. Such an approach is both broad and comprehensive. This study has shown that even internationally, turnover studies tend to focus on a few variables only and they are not comprehensive (Vogelzang, 2008; Zimmerman, 2008).

- This is the first local study that proposes and tests a comprehensive model of employee turnover, instead of just trying to understand employee turnover in a narrow context.

- The model of employee turnover proposed in the current study addresses a number recommendations for future research that have emanated from international and local studies.

- The inclusion of personality in turnover studies instead of just focusing on commonly researched variables such as job satisfaction (Zimmerman, 2008). Although overall personality findings were not significant, key differences were found between the two samples when the nine bipolar personality scales were analysed.

- Developed a model that conceptualises organisational climate, which incorporated culture and climate. Parts of the model were tested and supported by results.

- The model includes two of the five antecendents that are neglected by turnover models, these are personality and organisational culture (Maertz, 2004)

Overall findings of this study will contribute to theory building in the area of employee turnover, leading to a better understanding on the construct.

8.2.1.2   Methodological contribution

There are a number of methodological contributions made by this study, these are:-

- Using matched samples to study turnover. This need was expressed by Porter & Steers (1973), despite this recommendation more than

four decades ago, not many studies have complied with this request. The current study is the first SA study that used two independent samples (stayers and leavers) to understand the dynamics of personality and organisational climate in respect of turnover.

- A cross-sectional design method was used in this study. Although common, this design has its limitations. Using multiple measures for both samples mitigated some of the disadvantages of this type of design. Revisiting the stayers group three years after the data was collected to assess whether they remained with the organisation or not also provided rich insights. A combination of bivariate and multivariate analyses were used to enhance the quality of these findings.

- The value of studying actual turnover rather than turnover intentions, which may or may not lead to turnover (Vogelzang, 2008). This ensures that conclusions reached are not speculative but based on behaviour that has actually occured.

- The importance of studying turnover and absenteeism together (Porter & Steers, 1973). Previously there was no consensus on whether a direct link exists between these variables (Mobley, 1982), but the current study clearly confirms such a link.

8.2.1.3 Practical contribution

Research loses its value if it does not yield information that can be applied, enabling professionals to benefit from these studies. This study has yielded results that have practical value for organisations that are serious about effectively managing employee turnover. The following contribution has been made in this regard:-

- Turnover research is specific to organisations and countries. Although people can learn from other studies, it is important for organisations to conduct their own turnover research to understand what specific variables drive turnover in their context (Drew, 2003).

- The importance of understanding a relationship with turnover and identifying variables that have a moderating effect (Cotton & Tuttle,

1986; Griffeth et al., 2000). Although personality was not a strong predictor of turnover, it moderated between HR policies & procedures and turnover. In the current study older women had lower turnover levels than younger women, which corroborates findings from other research (Griffeth et al., 2000). Tenure was found to have a curvilinear relationship with turnover, with tenure peaking at 2 to 6 years. This finding supports findings by Hom et al. (2008). Although both samples had more females than males, more males left the organisation than females. This data assists in identifying which variables are important to consider, based on them being best predictors of turnover. This is practical information that practitioners can regularly monitor in their organisations to reduce turnover.

- The need to explore the support that organisations provide to newcomers (Allen, 2006). This was included in the study, although no significant contribution was found. The results indicate that turnover is at its lowest in the 1st 2 years, thereafter other elements come into the picture that increase turnover. This could be attributed to the on-boarding that is provided to newcomers, which is an important insight to practitioners and line managers.

- The need to classify turnover as functional or dysfunctional (Dalton, 1982). In the current study, turnover was categorised on the basis of whether it was functional or dysfunctional for the organisation, instead of just looking at turnover broadly. This assists organistions to focus their efforts on people that matter and for them to realise that not all turnover is bad.

- The importance of applying research findings so as to provide guidance to managers. Turnover research has so far tended to provide very limited guidance to managers on how to reduce employee turnover (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985), which means that the research loses its practical value. The current study provides concrete examples of what can be done to reduce turnover in organisations, based on findings.

The target population who may benefit from these recommendations are HR business partners, resourcing practitioners, talent managers and general people managers in organisations.

8.3   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the general and specific aims of the study were met, some limitations are discussed in this section.

Observed personality scores were used and operational validity was not calculated, which could have impacted negatively on the results (Zimmerman, 2008). Questions on socialisation were included only in the stay survey, which was completed by a small number (13%) of people who were still with the organisation. This means that an opportunity was lost in respect of the people who left, which makes it difficult to reach any conclusions about the probable impact of socialisation on their decision to leave. Even though the majority (33%) of the leavers were in the 2-5 year tenure category.

Missing or incomplete personality and organisational climate data might have had a negative impact on the results. High social desirability scores could also have had a negative impact on personality as a variable in this research.

The cross-sectional design method has its limitations as data is collected at a point in time, although multiple measures were used, it is still not a longitudinal design.

8.4   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

It is recommended that future research be conducted to explore the role of personality in employee turnover. However, care should be taken to ensure that social desirability is not so high that it renders it impossible to test whether the big five personality dimensions have a significant role to play in employee turnover. This is the second study conducted by the researcher, where social desirability has had a negative impact on personality as a

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predictor of a dependent variable. The first study investigated the relationship between personality and work performance (Nzama et al., 2008).

The use of a bigger sample size for both stayers and leavers is recommended in order to effectively measure all variables in the model.

It would be important to understand whether employees who are differently valued by the organisation are likely to leave. Organisations focus increasingly on classifying employee talent in order to manage workers differently. The aim of a differentiated employee value proposition is to reduce turnover by proactively managing employees who are valued by the organisation.

Termination reasons were obtained in the leavers sample to understand why certain employees were leaving. Although these reasons helped the employer to understand turnover, they were not sufficient in understanding what precipitated the decision to leave. Future research should focus on understanding what makes people decide to resign and stay at home or to join a competitor. Results obtained in this study point to elements of the culture in the organisation that could have contributed to the decision to leave; however, this would need to be verified with the leavers.

The author proposed a model of understanding organisational climate that intersects culture and climate, namely the perceptual measurement-multiple levels organisational attribute model. The organisational climate results are encouraging and seem to support this model of understanding organisational climate. However, a detailed exploration of all the elements of the model is necessary.

8.5   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

Altogether 63.8% of the employee turnover in this study was classified as dysfunctional for the organisation. This means that two thirds of the persons who resigned were employees that the organisation would have liked to retain, as they were adding value. Thus the organisation is encouraged to

continue conducting climate surveys and to use such information as an early warning system to be alerted to potential problems that could lead to employees leaving. It is important to understand key findings and for action plans to be put in place (where applicable) so that improvements to the climate can be made. When this process is visible to employees, it could display the company's commitment to addressing problems and retaining their key employees.

When working on improving the organisation's climate, it is important to not just focus on initiatives at organisation level. The current study has shown that one organisation could have many climates that are unique to specific departments. In this instance, organisation-wide initiatives may not sufficiently address issues at departmental level. The recommendation is that initiatives should focus at both levels. At an organisation level, these initiatives should deal with common challenges that cut across the organisation, e.g. improving the incentive scheme. In addition, department-specific plans must be compiled to address specific issues in the department.

The results show that rewards and recognition are not key drivers for why people leave, as there were no significant differences between the samples on this dimension. It is the other dimensions that are key differentiators, such as change, communication, management and leadership, work environment, and workforce diversity. Understanding this level of detail will help organisations compile plans that are likely to have an impact on turnover.

Turnover peaks during the 2-5 year tenure period. The organisation has a strong onboarding programme for new starters, which proves effective for the first few months. This data suggests that something happens after 2 years that increases turnover, which should be investigated. Focusing on new employees at the expense of those who have been with the organisation for longer than 2 years seems problematic. There may be a need for a follow up conversion with employees who have completed 2 years with the company to ensure that managers understand what is working for them or not. This would

be more important if these employees were in the 25-30 and 31-35 age groups, as these are the ones who tend to be at risk of leaving.

Absenteeism has come out as a strong predictor of employee turnover. In addition to absenteeism being costly for organisations (in terms of replacement costs and lost productivity), this research shows that it could lead to actual turnover. In this study, stayers had higher absenteeism than leavers, indicating that some of these stayers were already engaging in withdrawal behaviour.   This led to 30% of the people in the stayers sample leaving the organisation within two years after the initial data gathering phase was concluded. Absenteeism data must be monitored on a regular basis for trends to be identified. This will ensure that those employees who have high absenteeism rates are called in for exploratory discussions, which may lead to the line manager understanding what drives their absenteeism and rectifying the problem at its source. Although this approach will probably not eradicate absenteeism completely, it is a proactive way of managing employees.

Once an employee has resigned, it is usually too late to try and retain him/her, especially if this was a high performer. This is because by the time the employee communicates the resignation, psychologically that resignation has taken place and the employee is prepared to make the next move. Even with employees who end up accepting a counter offer, things are never the same again. Hence, it is the organisation's responsibility to use all the information and tools at its disposal to manage employees proactively.

In the event that an employee still decides to leave, it is important for exit interviews to be conducted by an independent person or organisation. This may encourage employees who are leaving to be truthful about the real reasons for their departure. In this study 25% of the leavers cited staying at home as a reason. In the current economic climate and looking at the demographics of the people who provided this reason, it is difficult to believe that this reason was entirely true for all of them. The effect of incorrect exit data could negatively affect studies that deal with understanding actual turnover and its drivers.

In this organisation specifically, there is a trend in some departments for people to resign, only to rejoin the organisation later. How an employee's resignation is handled could determine whether he/she would consider rejoining, should the new organisation not fulfil all expextations (as sometimes happens). This is an important element to add to the process, especially as the majority of people who leave are those that the organisation would have liked to keep. It is easier for people to consider going back to the organisation if they feel that their resignation was handled professionally and that their value to the organisation was communicated, even during the resignation period. In this instance, line managers should keep in touch with such talent as a way of ensuring that they can have them back should they decide to leave their new employer or return to work.

8.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, the findings of the research in hand indicate that the climate in the organisation is the biggest determiner of whether people stay or leave. Those who leave are more assertive, persuasive and optimistic. They know what they want and are not afraid to take a leap of faith if they experience the climate as not favourable for them in the current organisation. When personality, organisational climate and absenteeism are combined, they account for 29% of the variance in turnover. Studying actual turnover yields far more meaningful information than focusing only on the intention to leave, as there are a number of variables that could determine whether the person will actually leave or not. Organisations are encouraged to learn from previous turnover studies, but to also understand the specific turnover drivers in their own environment.

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APPENDIX A: OPPro SAMPLE REPORT
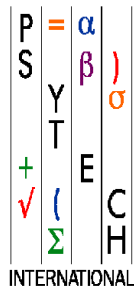
OCCUPATIONAL PERSONALITY PROFILE (OPP)

A Computer-aided assessment profile

A SAMPLE
22/03/2007

Prepared for

This questionnaire has been specifically compiled to evaluate a wide range of personal traits and attributes. The report is presented in the following format:

- **An Assessment of the Respondent's Interpersonal Style**
- **An Assessment of his Thinking Style**
- **An Assessment of his Coping Style**
- **An Assessment of Team Role Orientation**
- **An Assessment of Management Style**
- **An Assessment of Subordinate Style**
- **An Assessment of Selling Style**
- **Additional Comments to Explore at Interview**
- **Technical Appendix**

N.B. This is a CONFIDENTIAL report, containing personal information to be shown only to decision makers on a 'NEED-TO-KNOW' basis with the understanding of A SAMPLE REPORT. If you are unauthorised to read this report, please return it immediately to a qualified test user.

PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

The OPP is a general personality profile designed to assess a broad range of personality traits. These traits assess the candidate's characteristic ways of behaving across a wide range of situations. When interpreting this profile due weight should be given to other relevant factors such as: attitudes, previous experience, personal circumstances, education and training etc.

VALIDITY SCALES

The questionnaire contains a measure of the extent to which the respondent is attempting to present himself in a socially desirable or favourable way. A SAMPLE REPORT appears to have answered the questions in a socially desirable manner. He has attempted to present himself extremely positively and consequently his profile should be viewed with a degree of caution. He may have presented himself as somewhat more phlegmatic, pragmatic and assertive, than he really is.

INTERPERSONAL STYLE

A SAMPLE REPORT is a relatively genuine person who is as persuasive and influential as most people. He can be a fairly effective speaker if he is talking about a subject he is familiar with although he may need to be personally convinced of something before he can persuade others of a particular point of view. A SAMPLE REPORT is inclined to achieve a balance between basing his decisions upon his own views and upon the demands of the situation. He is no more or less open and sincere than most people and, depending on the situation, may be capable of a degree of tact and calculated diplomacy.

Fairly cool and reserved, A SAMPLE REPORT is likely to take time in establishing new relationships. He will prefer working on his own, thinking through problems away from the distraction of others people. Having a fairly low need for affiliation, he will not usually go out of his way to seek company. Enjoying his own company, he feels little need to be the centre of attention, often preferring to listen and let others do the talking. A SAMPLE REPORT does not usually make the first move when getting to know someone new, and is disinclined to make conversation with people he does not know. Although it may take him time to warm to people, he will be quite friendly once he knows them well.

Somewhat more assertive than most, A SAMPLE REPORT should be capable of being dominant, and taking the lead if the need arises. While he will try to achieve a balance between being sensitive to others' needs, yet being task-oriented, there will be times when he will consider it necessary to be somewhat forceful and brash. Not too concerned about upsetting others, he will not hold back from criticising other people's work when appropriate. On the whole, A SAMPLE REPORT's management style will focus more upon the demands of the task at hand, than attending to the needs of colleagues.

THINKING STYLE

At heart A SAMPLE REPORT is a very conservative person who has great respect for authority. He is extremely concerned about following set procedures. Planful, and very rarely acting on impulse, A SAMPLE REPORT will usually consider all the implications of a course of action before making a decision. Extremely persevering and conscientious, he is dominated by a strong sense of duty. Highly systematic and methodical in his work he will pay great attention to detail. Thoroughly dependable and a good finisher, some may think of him as somewhat obsessive and rigid.

Having a fairly trusting nature A SAMPLE REPORT will tend to take people at face value. Not particularly inclined to question others' motives, he will generally see little reason to hide his true feelings from close friends and colleagues. Not prone to be cynical or sceptical he will generally believe what others say without being unduly credulous.

A SAMPLE REPORT is slightly more abstract in his approach to problems than most people and will be inclined to think in theoretical as opposed to concrete terms. To some extent interested in academic debate he may on occasion become involved in theoretical aspects of a problem to the exclusion of practical realities. He has an above average level of aesthetic sensitivity and is inclined to be interested in creative, artistic activities. In general, he will prefer to be involved in developing new approaches to problems, rather than attending to the practical issues surrounding their implementation.

COPING STYLE

A SAMPLE REPORT is a relaxed, composed person with a fairly uncontesting nature. He dislikes being put under great pressure, and will want to organise his work to avoid this happening. Lacking a tense competitive nature, he will be relatively patient even with slow or indecisive colleagues. Even though he may seem calm and collected when working under pressure, he does not respond well to such situations and will tend to do his best work when there are no immediate deadlines to meet. He has little difficulty relaxing, and will want to keep his work separate from his social life. A relaxed, fairly composed person, A SAMPLE REPORT is moderately satisfied with his life and his achievements.

Not in the least prone to depression or pessimism he will approach life in a very positive and optimistic way, having learnt from experience that he can usually realise his plans. He is likely to persevere in the face of failure, believing that he will be able to eventually sort out the problems he is confronting. Having an extremely high expectation of success in everything he does, other people are likely to view him as a very positive, optimistic person.

Emotionally, A SAMPLE REPORT is marginally more stable than most people. Not a particularly touchy person he is not unduly prone to emotional outbursts or mood swings. He has quite a stable, realistic approach to life and is not inclined to worry excessively about the future. He faces day-to-day

demands in a realistic and mature way. Not unduly prone to suffer from feelings of anxiety or apprehension he will take most things in his stride.

TEAM ROLES

The Team Roles describe how A SAMPLE REPORT is likely to interact with his colleagues in a team situation. The specific ways in which he will express his preferred team style may however vary according to the situation. In addition, this behavioural style takes no account of his intellectual approach to problems and the quality of his decisions. The scores below indicate A SAMPLE REPORT's general propensity for a particular team role orientation. It must be noted that different styles may be adopted according to the demands of the situation and consequently a description of A SAMPLE REPORT's predominant and secondary team styles is provided.

Score	Team Roles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.2	Co-Ordinator							●			
4.6	Shaper-Driver				●						
5.4	Evaluator-Critic					●					
7.2	Implementer							●			
5.4	Team Builder					●					
4.4	Resource Investigator				●						
7.2	Inspector-Completer							●			
5.7	Innovator					●					
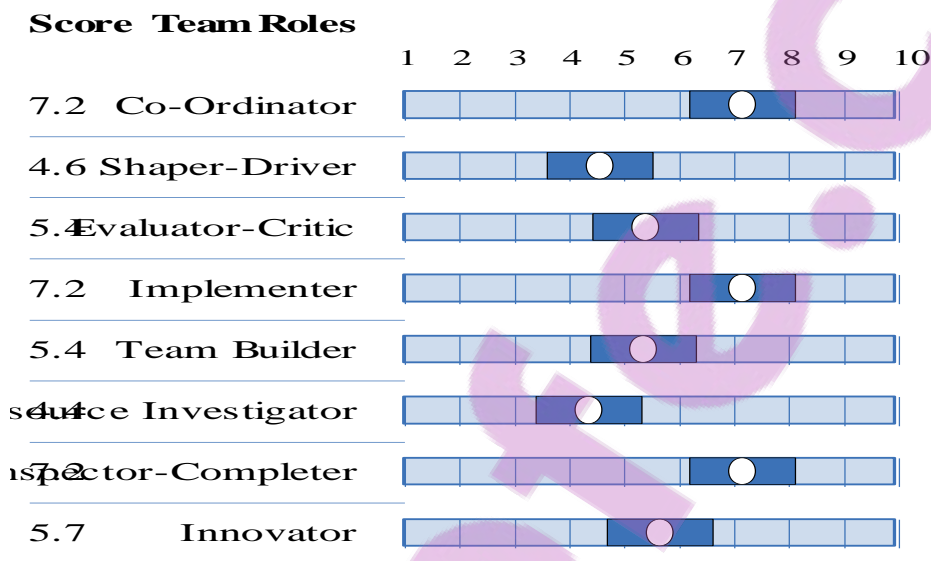
TEAM ROLE COMBINATION - IMPLEMENTER \ CO-ORDINATOR

A SAMPLE REPORT should be particularly adept at co-ordinating a team to achieve a practical result. He will establish well-defined areas of responsibility in a group, supervise regularly, and set an example of conscientious determination and hard work. He can clarify objectives and devise practical systems to turn proposals into results. Naturally calm and trusting, he can motivate maximum effort from staff, but is also able to be hard-headed about objectives and make unpopular decisions when necessary. A tendency may be that he depends too much on established systems and hierarchical lines of authority in an organisation. Hence he could neglect promising new ideas and adapt slowly to changing circumstances. His effectiveness as a team member could be improved, firstly, by recognising the need to motivate staff to perform or adopt a course of action rather than expecting them to act out of a sense of duty and, secondly, by allowing others the scope to bring in fresh ideas and provide enthusiasm. His best role in an organisation is to be given the chance to weld the talent around him into a team focused on results.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Based on the work of the American Organisational Psychologist Bass, the Leadership Styles describe which of a range of styles A SAMPLE REPORT is most likely to adopt. This may be of interest in a variety of situations where there is a requirement to manage others. As with most personality characteristics, the profile only describes A SAMPLE REPORT's most likely styles and not performance. Effective performance will depend on many factors including the organisational culture in which the individual is operating.

eStdipe Styles

	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
e9t0ve Leader	
ga1Bve Leader	
pa1t5ve Leader	
lt5a10ve Leader	
ti4a13ve Leader	
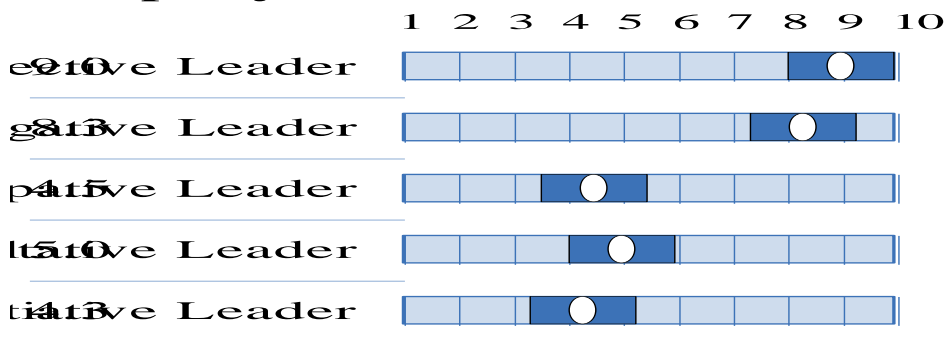
PRIMARY LEADERSHIP STYLE: DIRECTIVE LEADER

Directive Leaders are characterised by having firm views about how and when things should be done. As such they will leave little leeway for subordinates to display independence believing that they should adhere to the methods and schedules as originally laid down. Having a high goal-orientation and being particularly concerned with results the Directive Leaders will have a tendency to closely monitor the behaviour and performance of others. This may lead them to be perceived as a rather cool and detached individuals. Such an impression may be reinforced by the fact that they will be lead by their own opinions rather than inviting others to contribute their ideas. Being a particularly self-directed leader may lead to the ideas of others to be excluded from consideration at the expense of their own. However, this will only prove to be problematic should their own judgement and abilities be called into question.

SECONDARY LEADERSHIP STYLE: DELEGATIVE LEADER

As the name suggests, the style of Delegative Leaders is characterised by delegating work to subordinates. As they are not greatly democratic in their approach the process of delegation will involve little consultation and subordinates will generally be assigned work rather than have any active input into how projects should be conducted. Once the work has been assigned only little direction will be provided and subordinates will largely be expected to work with the minimum of supervision. Although such a leadership style may not be everybody's preference those who are naturally independent may enjoy the freedom allowed by such managers.

SUBORDINATE STYLES

Based on the work of the American Organisational Psychologist Bass, the Subordinate Styles describe which of a range of styles A SAMPLE REPORT is most likely to adopt. This may be of interest in a variety of situations where a particular management style is in place. As with most personality characteristics, the profile only describes the style of management to which A SAMPLE REPORT is most likely to respond and not its effectiveness. Effective performance will depend on many factors including the organisational culture in which the individual is operating.

Subordinate Styles

	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Receptive Sub.	
Self-Reliant Sub.	
Cooperative Sub.	
Informative Sub.	
Reciprocating Sub.	
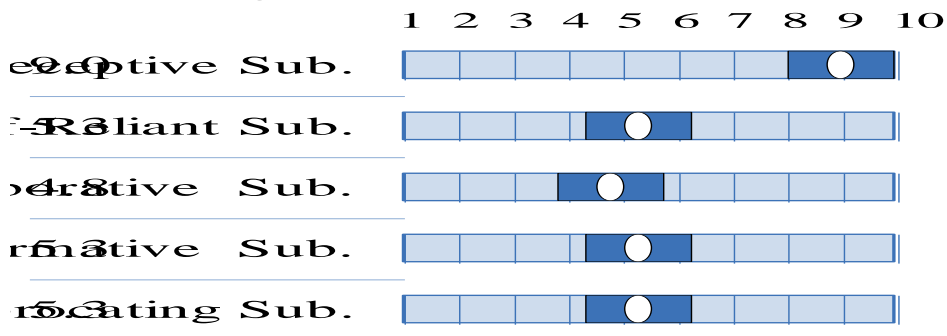
PRIMARY SUBORDINATE STYLE: RECEPTIVE SUBORDINATE

Receptive Subordinates are typically very accommodating individuals who are eager to complete the work that is assigned to them in accordance to pre-specified procedures. Being traditional and lacking some independence will mean they will rarely produce innovative ideas of their own and would rather work under the direction of others. They will rarely criticise or question the nature of their work believing that their own role is to execute the ideas of others to the best of their ability.

SELLING STYLES

The Selling Styles describe which of a range of styles A SAMPLE REPORT is most likely to adopt. This may be of interest in a variety of situations where there is a requirement to influence others or sell a product or idea. In a sales context, where there may be a need to match individuals to particular client or product areas, the selling profile may provide a useful indicator in conjunction with other relevant information. As with most personality characteristics, the profile only describes A SAMPLE REPORT's most likely styles and not performance. Effective performance will depend on many factors including the type of product, the customer, the selling situation and the organisational culture in which the individual is operating. Equally different styles may be adopted according to the demands of the situation and consequently a description of A SAMPLE REPORT's predominant and secondary selling style is provided.

Score	Selling Styles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6.3	Con. Communicator						●			
6.5	Rapport Creator						●			
5.5	Culture Fitter					●				
5.8	Culture Breaker					●				
2.5	Enthusiast		●							
6.5	Perseverer						●			
5.3	Business Winner					●				
5.5	Technician					●				
9.0	Admin Support									●
4.5	Team manager				●					
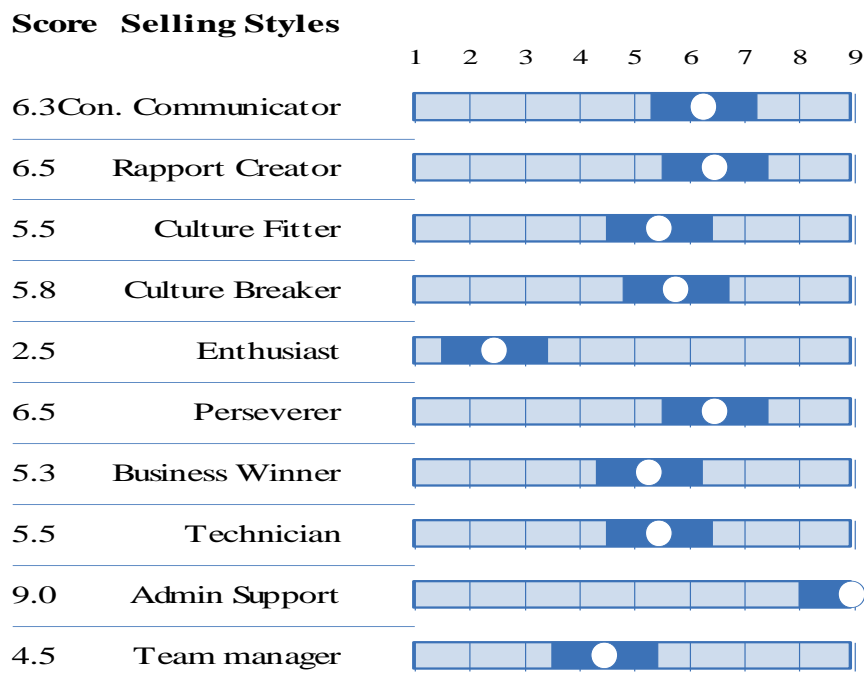
PRIMARY STYLE: ADMIN SUPPORTER

Preferring to work behind the scenes the Admin Supporter provides a valuable service to the rest of the sales team by co-ordinating client visits and ensuring promotional materials etc. are kept up to date and sent out promptly. Consequently the Admin Supporter will typically have good organisational skills and will not mind 'doing all of the work yet taking little of the credit'. Occasionally the Admin Supporter may assume a more direct sales role, especially with the more pedantic clients for whom detail and precision is important.

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

The following section lists a number of points which can be inferred from A SAMPLE's assessment report. The interviewer may wish to use these as the basis for further probing during the interview or counselling discussions.

- May tend to be inflexible and resistant to change
- May be too trusting and take others at face value
- May feel uncomfortable in situations in which he has to constantly meet new people.
- May prefer not to work under pressure
- May be unrealistic in his expectations of success, persevering against all odds

OPP PROFILE CHART

Raw	Low Score	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	High Score	%ile
35	Accomodating		Assertive	73
12	Detail-Conscious		Flexible	2
38	Cynical		Trusting	78
44	Emotional		Phlegmatic	76
27	Reserved		Gregarious	13
25	Genuine		Persuasive	43
23	Composed		Contesting	17
9	Optimistic		Pessimistic	3
25	Abstract		Pragmatic	31
31	Low Distortion		High Distortion	96
69	Extreme Responses		Central Tendency	22
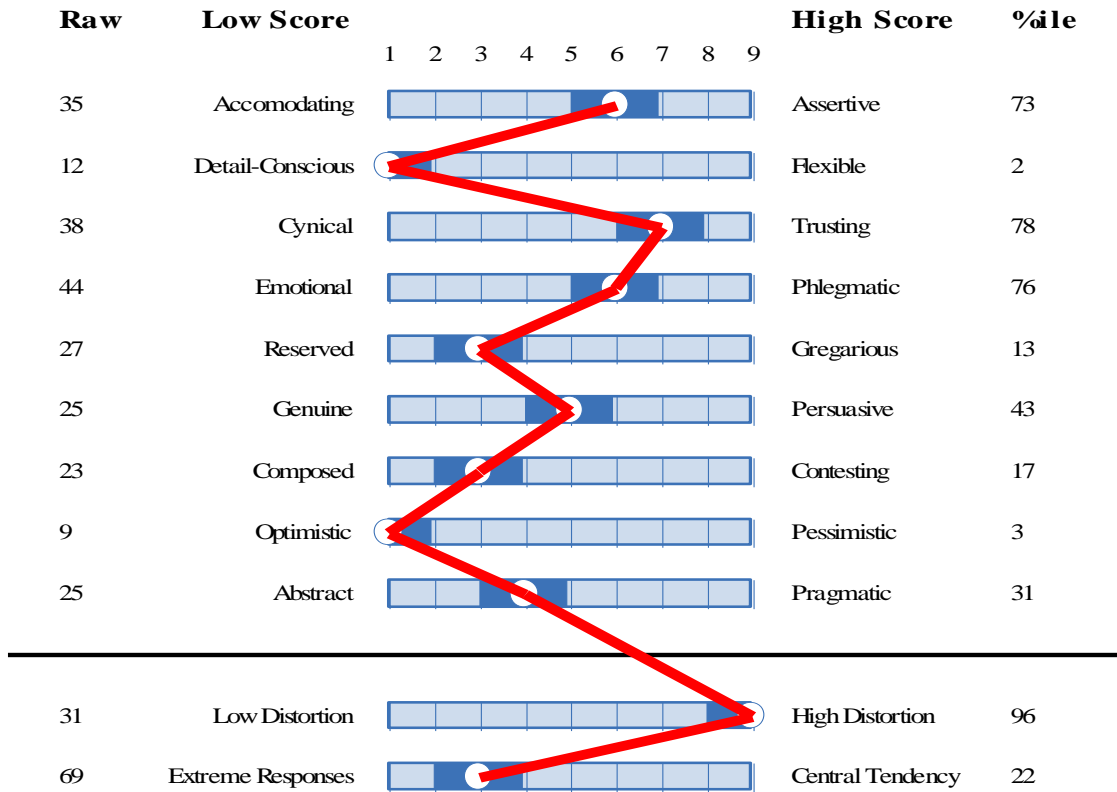
Norms based on a sample of 852 SA General Population

Stanine	Test	Low Medium High 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	%ile
2	Neuroticism		6
3	Extraversion		19
3	Openness to Ideas		15
4	Agreeableness		40
9	Conformity		99

270
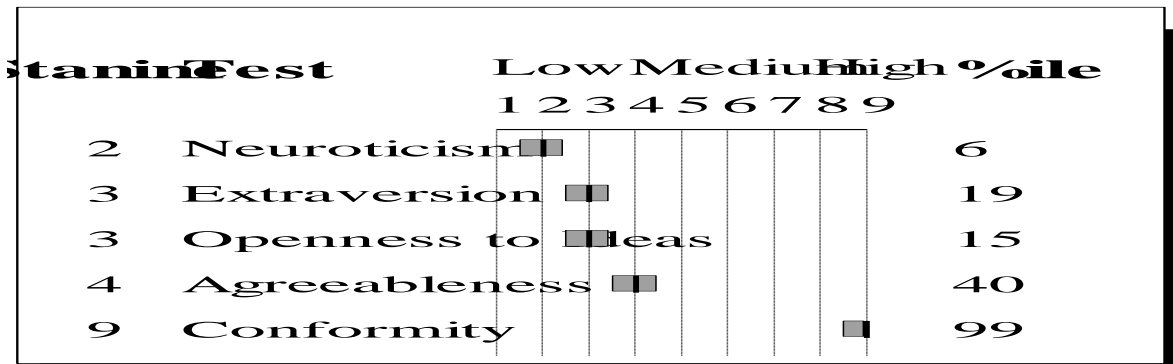
APPENDIX B: ORGANISATIONAL PERCEPTION SURVEY (OPS)

Dear Participant

Introduction and purpose:
As part of becoming an Employer of Choice, the Company X is committed to evaluating employee perceptions in order to get a better understanding of their views about the organisation and Company X's leaders. As such, we need your assistance in completing this perception survey.

Confidentiality:
Because you do not put your name on the survey, you cannot be traced to the booklet that you completed. You will also receive a "CONFIDENTIAL" sticker to seal the envelope that you place your survey into. Therefore you can be as honest and open as you like. The booklets are treated as private and confidential when they are returned.

The survey is divided into 2 sections:

Section 1: Questionnaire (measuring the following 12 dimensions):
   A. Values and Culture
   B. Workforce Diversity
   C. Communication
   D. Work Environment
   E. Change
   F. Relationships
   G. Recognition and Reward
   H. Performance Management
   I. HR Policies and Procedures
   J. Career Development
   K. Training and Development
   L. Management and Leadership Style

Section 2: Biographical (personal) information, which is intended for research purposes only.

Frequently asked questions:

"Why do I need to complete this questionnaire?"
Your input is very important to obtain a view of the perceptions of all employees. Please take this time to give your views in order to assist us in becoming an Employer of Choice, for the benefit of all employees.

"How long will it take to complete the questionnaire?"
 It will take only ±45 minutes to complete.

"Will I get feedback?"
Feedback of the results will be given to you by your HR practitioner, Company X magazine and your Line Manager.

Your participation is appreciated.

Regards

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	HR DIRECTOR				

GUIDELINES

Thank you for your willingness to complete the questionnaire.

To ensure confidentiality, you have been given a white envelope to place your completed survey into, and a "CONFIDENTIAL" sticker to seal the envelope. Please hand this to your line manager or HR practitioner.

The questionnaire has 116 statements. Please answer all.

Please read each question and show your level of agreement or disagreement by answering with a cross (**X**) in the relevant block next to each question, as per the example below. Please ensure that you respond only once to every question and that your response remains inside the block.

EXAMPLE:

QUESTION 1: My manager is always friendly.
If you **strongly agree** with this statement, place a cross over the circle below 'Strongly agree.'

TIPS

-	Remember that you are rating your line manager when completing the Perception Survey. This is why his/her name is on the label on the front of the booklet. Remember to answer the questions in relation to your experiences within your current job.
-	Please answer ALL the questions and choose only one answer per question.
-	Please be as honest as you can in answering these questions.
-	Read the glossary at the bottom of each section if you do not understand a word or sentence.

	SECTION 1 : QUESTIONNAIRE				
A	**VALUES AND CULTURE**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	In the area I work*, the working relationships are open, honest and sincere.				
2	In the area I work, people are supported and respected. (E)				
3	In the area I work, I work employees always behave in an ethical* manner.				
4	In the area I work, employees 'live by' the organisation's values. (E)				
5	In the area I work, it is important to give good service to our customers.				
6	In the area I work, employees are encouraged to become involved in community upliftment.				
7	In the area I work, our team is committed to creating a winning culture.				
8	In the area I work, employees take accountability for their actions.				
9	In the area I work, I feel free to talk about new ideas and suggestions.				
10	In the area I work, I feel that my values are supported by the Company X values. (E)				

	"in the area I work" : refers to the team, department, cost centre or store that you work in. **"ethical"** : refers to acceptable standards of behaviour.				

B	**WORKFORCE DIVERSITY**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
11	In the area I work, the principles of Employment Equity are actively supported and implemented.				
12	In the area I work, people are treated fairly / equitably* regardless of their race.				
13	In the area I work, people are treated fairly / equitably regardless of their gender.				
14	In the area I work, people are treated fairly / equitably regardless of their disability status.				
15	In the area I work, diversity is valued and employees are encouraged to understand and appreciate diversity.				
16	In the area I work, my line manager is skilled in managing diversity.				
17	In the area I work, the Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment strategy has been clearly communicated to all staff.				
18	In the area I work, racism is discouraged.				
19	In the area I work, favouritism is discouraged.				
20	In the area I work, our fears and expectations with regard to Employment Equity are addressed.				
	"equitably" : refers to an equal manner				

C	**COMMUNICATION**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
21	My line manager shares information about Company X's goals and performance with us.				
22	My line manager clearly communicates the Company X policies and procedures.				
23	My line manager communicates openly and honestly with us.				
24	I receive enough communication from my line manager to do my work well.				
25	Senior management communicates openly and honestly with all employees.				
26	In Company X, communication messages that are conveyed are effective and understood by all employees.				
27	In Company X, the internal communication systems* are effective.				
28	In Company X, communication flows freely between departments.				
	"internal communication systems" : refers to the current methods used to communicate information, i.e. intranet, bulletin boards, etc.				

D	**WORK ENVIRONMENT**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
29	My work is interesting and challenging. (E)				
30	I feel proud to be a part of Company X. (E)				
31	In our team, we are not victimised when we raise complaints.				
32	My work area is kept clean and neat.				
33	In the area I work, there is a rest area where I have access to refreshments such as tea, coffee and water.				
34	In the area I work, the toilet facility is always clean.				
35	I work in a safe and secure environment.				
36	My work environment is comfortable and allows me to be effective. (R)				

E	**CHANGE**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
37	In the area I work, change has been managed well over the past 12 months.				
38	My line manager encourages me to become involved and committed to change. (E)				
39	In the area I work, we are consistently changing for the better. (R)				
40	My line manager shows understanding of the effects of change on me. (E)				
41	In Company X, management recognises and effectively manages the impact of change on employees.				
42	My line manager creates the understanding why the organisation needs to change in order to achieve its goals.				
43	My line manager supports the changes within the organisation.				

F	**RELATIONSHIPS**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
44	I trust and respect my line manager.(E)				
45	My line manager trusts and respects me. (E)				
46	My line manager cares about me as a person. (E)				
47	The people I work with are committed to working as a disciplined team*. (E)				
48	I trust and respect my team members. (E)				
49	In the area I work, we motivate and support each other. (E)				
50	There is good co-operation between people in my department and the people in other departments.				
51	My line manager is accessible to all his/her employees.				
52	There is trust and respect between senior management and employees. (E)				
53	My line manager actively seeks to manage conflict within the team.				
54	Senior management* at Company X is approachable.				
	"senior management" : refers to your line manager's line manager and his/her manager. "**disciplined team**" : refers to a well organised and efficient team of colleagues who work in cooperation with each other.				

G	RECOGNITION AND REWARD	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
55	In the area I work, excellent performance is recognized.(R)				
56	In the area I work, excellent performance is rewarded.(R)				
57	From what I know, my salary and benefits are market related*. (R)				
58	The benefits I receive (provident fund; medical aid; funeral plan and other) suit my needs. (R)				
59	From what I know, the salary & benefits I am paid is fair compared to similar jobs at Company X.				
	"market related" : refers to similar to the salary and benefits that other organisations would pay for a job like yours.				

H	PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
60	I understand the goals and objectives of our department.				
61	I clearly understand the goals and objectives of my job.				
62	I know what I must do to do my job well. (R)				
63	I receive enough feedback regarding my work performance.				
64	My performance agreement outputs match what I am expected to do.				
65	I understand how the performance management process works.				
66	My line manager is a good coach, helping me to improve my performance. (R)				
67	In the area I work, realistic and challenging goals are clearly set and measured.				
68	Poor performers are effectively managed.				
69	I believe that my work is important and I need to do my best at all times. (E)				
70	In the area I work, I am motivated and willing to go the extra mile when needed.				
71	I have enough resources* to carry out my work.				
72	My line manager helps me to understand the link between our business unit's goals and Company X's goals.				
73	My line manager matches individual skills to specific work requirements.				
	"resources" : refers to the tools that you use to perform your work such as a computer, printer, fax machine or stationery.				

I	HR POLICIES AND PROCEDURES	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
74	I understand how the grievance procedure works.				
75	I understand the disciplinary procedures.				
76	I have access to the Employee Rights Handbook and know what my rights are.				
77	In the area I work, we are aware of what is seen as acceptable and unacceptable behaviour by my line				

	manager.				
78	In the area I work, grievance procedures are fairly applied to all.				
79	In the area I work, the disciplinary procedures are fairly applied to all.				
80	The performance management process is applied fairly to all.				
81	The application of recruitment and selection procedures, are in accordance with the organisation's business strategy.				
82	There is a clear policy that demonstrates a commitment towards dealing with HIV / AIDS in the workplace.				
J	**CAREER DEVELOPMENT**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
83	I have been spoken to about my career at Company X in the last six months.				
84	I have a career path that helps me see where I am going in this organisation. (R)				
85	My line manager assists me to develop to my full potential. (R)				
86	In the area I work, excellence results in career growth.				
87	In the area I work, employees are encouraged and empowered to show initiative in terms of their own development.				
88	My line manager creates an environment for employees to take on extra responsibility to learn and develop.				
89	The best way for me to advance in my career is to stay with Company X. (R)				
90	I enjoy working for Company X and feel positive about my future. (E)				
K	**LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
91	I have received the training and skills I need to do my job well. (R)				
92	I have the opportunity to apply what I have learnt from training programmes.				
93	I know what training is available to me.				
94	In the area I work, employees' jobs give them the opportunity to do what they are best at.				
95	My line manager gives staff encouragement, training or resources for their personal development.				
96	My line manager assists me in addressing my training needs. (R)				
97	In Company X, training programmes meet our business needs.				
98	My line manager uses performance problems as an opportunity for staff to learn and develop.				
L	**MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP STYLE**	Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Strongly

		Disagree			Agree
99	My line manager motivates and inspires employees. (E)				
100	My line manager removes obstacles that inhibits my performance. (R)				
101	My line manager effectively communicates ideas, opinions, questions or concerns.				
102	My line manager takes accountability for his/her decisions and actions.				
103	My line manager ensures that the team is aware of and understand the organisation's vision, mission and values.				
104	My line manager embraces the organisation's values thus providing a good example for employees to follow.				
105	My line manager explains business decisions confidently.				
106	My line manager demonstrates commitment to always work towards the achievement of Company X's goals.				
107	My line manager maintains high standards of personal and professional conduct.				
108	My line manager keeps commitments made to me. (E)				
109	My line manager keeps commitments made to the team. (E)				
110	My line manager gets team members to identify and work towards shared goals.				
111	My line manager helps me to understand the link between my performance goals and my business unit's goals.				
112	My line manager implements the right processes and systems to solve problems and make the most of opportunities for improvement.				
113	My line manager acts as a role model of commitment to change within Company X.				
114	My line manager takes the initiative to identify and remove barriers to deliver excellent customer service.				
115	My line manager sets high personal standards in customer service and is an example to follow.				
116	My line manager continually looks at new developments and applies relevant best practices within our department.				
	SECTION 2 : BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION				

This information will be used to analyse various groups within the organisation in order to understand their perceptions. Individual information is anonymous, and there is no way that your line manager can trace your responses back to you.

A Your age (X) ONE of the following boxes				
Less than 25 years old				
25 – 39				
40 – 54				
55 or older				
B Years of service with COMPANY X (X) ONE of the following boxes				
Less than 1 year				

	1 year, but less than 5 years				
	5 years, but less than 10 years				
	10 years, but less than 20 years				
	20 years or more				
	C. What is your employment status? (X) one of the following boxes:				

	EMPLOYMENT STATUS/BAND	TYPICAL JOBS		(X)
	1. Permanent Part Timers (PPT)			
	2. Band A –	Sales Associates		
	Operators/Clerical/Administrators	Maintenance Assistant		
		Unpack and Checker		
		Clerk s		
		Administrators		
	3. Band B –	Supervisors		
	Support or Junior Specialist or Supervisory	Assistant Buyer/Planner		
		Pattern Maker		
		Shipping Controller		
		Customer Services Supervisor		
	4. Band C –	Buyers/Planners		
	Junior Management or Specialists	Collections Managers		
		Sewing Floor Manager		
		Shipping Manager		
		Retail Auditor		
	5. Band D –	Divisional Controllers		
	Middle Management or Senior Specialists	Specialist Buyers		
		Asset Protection Manager		
		Accountant		
	6. Band E -	Divisional Buying Managers		
	Senior Management or Experienced Specialists	Executive Managers		
		Divisional Planning Managers		
	7. Band F and above –	Executive Managers		
	Executives			
	D. In which chain/business unit do you work? (X) ONE of the following boxes			
	Business unit 1			
	Business unit 2			

Business unit 3					
Business unit 4					
Business unit 5					
Business unit 6					
Business unit 7					
E. Your gender? (X) ONE of the following boxes					
Male					
Female					
F. Your race? (X) ONE of the following boxes					
African					
Coloured					
Indian					
White					
Other					
THANK YOU ONCE AGAIN FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.					

APPENDIX C: OPS ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]

						Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
J83	.349	.075	.093	.433	.027	.089	.050	.164	.027	.075	.124	-.022	.142
J84	.288	.085	.099	.599	.075	.108	.082	.194	.057	.096	.108	.002	.061
J85	.644	.088	.075	.403	.017	.043	.056	.143	-.037	.027	.058	.052	.224
J86	.370	.150	.131	.552	.077	.101	.071	.130	.078	.062	.119	.022	.098
J87	.439	.178	.189	.469	.050	.119	.049	.137	.088	.036	.087	-.021	.137
J88	.650	.099	.113	.376	.042	.071	.055	.104	-.003	.017	.013	.024	.205
J89	.173	.122	.114	.635	.143	.107	.102	.051	.175	.174	-.049	.042	-.160
J90	.181	.124	.126	.655	.194	.112	.112	.070	.164	.172	-.071	.061	-.173
E37	.364	.158	.199	.401	.061	.145	.076	.066	.210	.078	.091	-.030	.128
E38	.651	.101	.142	.335	.098	.082	.061	.063	.061	.021	.009	-.025	.226
E39	.409	.212	.173	.460	.101	.147	.091	.061	.199	.062	.056	-.030	.111
E40	.677	.114	.112	.324	.061	.089	.051	.053	.078	.022	.026	.034	.183
E41	.330	.155	.213	.433	.047	.156	.078	.112	.340	.128	.088	-.024	.064
E42	.639	.105	.147	.287	.118	.112	.068	.042	.169	.053	-.014	-.107	.182
E43	.604	.114	.177	.227	.123	.105	.081	.032	.155	.065	-.046	-.100	.174
C21	.626	.100	.088	.135	.155	.097	.081	.069	.194	.054	-.048	-.074	.211
C22	.655	.109	.104	.113	.146	.139	.088	.061	.194	.048	-.058	-.054	.196
C23	.734	.118	.121	.141	.083	.087	.061	.048	.154	.033	-.057	.135	.181
C24	.724	.116	.072	.140	.114	.084	.090	.097	.147	.026	-.002	.070	.190
C25	.277	.164	.237	.254	.046	.134	.097	.114	.498	.116	.073	.095	.054
C26	.227	.162	.206	.210	.118	.210	.132	.110	.569	.125	.038	-.031	-.005
C27	.184	.146	.193	.163	.128	.222	.153	.118	.516	.098	.000	-.056	-.018
C28	.233	.213	.152	.216	.094	.191	.153	.119	.528	.104	.043	-.016	.011
I74	.136	.124	.118	.139	.107	.695	.063	.090	.095	.072	.067	-.005	-.042
I75	.180	.126	.132	.130	.194	.699	.109	.109	.083	.062	.021	.010	.009
I76	.184	.134	.132	.100	.198	.553	.113	.127	.099	.058	-.011	-.020	.020
I77	.437	.159	.197	.093	.180	.386	.091	.107	.095	.044	-.002	.040	.075
I78	.326	.151	.323	.142	-.005	.529	.068	.070	.177	.096	.072	.106	.029
I79	.359	.160	.343	.159	-.008	.463	.085	.076	.180	.095	.068	.129	.041
I80	.413	.142	.324	.168	.014	.325	.072	.139	.202	.124	.135	.082	.070
I81	.256	.108	.292	.203	.020	.237	.089	.183	.232	.186	.068	.008	-.004
I82	.184	.134	.205	.078	.110	.323	.091	.138	.150	.077	.034	-.078	-.035
K91	.277	.115	.080	.100	.186	.118	.097	.650	.063	.059	.042	.018	.053
K92	.291	.122	.169	.153	.168	.141	.094	.660	.098	.080	.021	.017	.008

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]

						Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
K93	.269	.134	.083	.218	.094	.187	.094	.605	.114	.101	.096	.000	-.023
K94	.350	.181	.224	.280	.121	.173	.097	.368	.174	.097	.080	.002	-.058
K95	.670	.135	.141	.200	-.002	.114	.058	.343	.051	.068	.078	.010	.048
K96	.663	.126	.125	.196	-.002	.093	.055	.390	.034	.085	.092	-.006	.056
K97	.244	.144	.157	.218	.197	.152	.154	.421	.211	.122	.017	-.032	-.080
K98	.651	.111	.156	.148	.024	.114	.065	.276	.067	.076	.082	-.029	.020
L99	.786	.124	.125	.170	.049	.072	.062	.112	.031	.048	.033	.062	.013
L100	.752	.134	.135	.140	.018	.094	.053	.131	.055	.070	.095	.036	-.033
L101	.789	.113	.142	.100	.083	.085	.064	.103	.068	.057	.013	.011	-.018
L102	.745	.118	.170	.064	.049	.107	.065	.059	.074	.065	.018	.031	-.067
L103	.747	.142	.147	.072	.128	.124	.082	.086	.113	.075	-.008	-.095	-.027
L104	.773	.131	.174	.087	.069	.103	.072	.073	.088	.062	.008	-.018	-.092
L105	.711	.130	.155	.049	.115	.108	.092	.068	.129	.072	.008	-.066	-.074
L106	.750	.133	.153	.064	.152	.104	.095	.067	.103	.078	-.015	-.095	-.075
L107	.788	.136	.165	.077	.077	.095	.060	.050	.068	.060	-.007	.049	-.082
L108	.763	.133	.156	.078	.082	.100	.059	.080	.063	.072	.055	.047	-.088
L109	.771	.146	.158	.065	.084	.104	.076	.075	.084	.068	.046	.022	-.102
L110	.766	.161	.157	.078	.096	.103	.058	.084	.076	.066	.074	-.057	-.076
L111	.757	.133	.122	.099	.118	.111	.062	.107	.067	.063	.131	-.066	-.035
L112	.775	.152	.151	.109	.078	.103	.072	.086	.075	.060	.078	-.018	-.076
L113	.797	.136	.163	.119	.060	.079	.058	.055	.066	.064	.046	.016	-.095
L114	.754	.145	.130	.092	.145	.082	.085	.054	.069	.050	.026	-.004	-.094
L115	.754	.146	.125	.092	.134	.079	.078	.032	.065	.043	.020	.037	-.111
L116	.765	.155	.140	.124	.105	.091	.072	.074	.079	.065	.096	-.035	-.075
H60	.265	.169	.135	.110	.614	.183	.092	.108	.099	.050	.156	-.034	.045
H61	.241	.147	.119	.077	.699	.155	.089	.134	.065	.037	.169	-.020	.055
H62	.209	.165	.064	.090	.684	.127	.100	.148	.049	.009	.118	.044	.052
H63	.524	.148	.114	.135	.209	.103	.066	.186	.097	.082	.366	.029	.070
H64	.374	.149	.161	.139	.280	.120	.081	.176	.102	.112	.358	.019	.009
H65	.312	.156	.183	.079	.297	.284	.052	.163	.124	.078	.360	-.040	-.021
H66	.768	.128	.106	.149	.134	.055	.074	.111	.011	.039	.192	.083	.030
H67	.496	.208	.204	.222	.192	.121	.102	.141	.140	.074	.324	-.007	-.031
H68	.457	.212	.186	.131	.100	.125	.080	.123	.111	.074	.253	-.029	-.012
H69	.134	.172	.079	.110	.579	.062	.144	.036	.029	-.002	-.078	.046	-.050

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
H70	.312	.212	.165	.265	.375	.057	.122	.057	.090	.049	.077	.098	-.088
H71	.221	.170	.155	.089	.182	.113	.222	.192	.168	.129	.163	.037	-.032
H72	.660	.167	.176	.104	.194	.125	.108	.090	.112	.090	.195	-.068	-.038
H73	.687	.188	.178	.112	.120	.098	.085	.113	.084	.086	.217	-.033	-.067
F44	.590	.230	.101	.141	.225	.054	.126	.027	.018	.030	-.045	.365	-.025
F45	.647	.216	.146	.118	.141	.070	.087	.015	.014	.032	.021	.427	-.021
F46	.676	.214	.158	.113	.116	.049	.071	.015	-.003	.040	.029	.387	-.009
F47	.193	.681	.053	.034	.115	.069	.092	.087	.038	.037	-.004	.080	.074
F48	.158	.626	.049	.031	.239	.054	.120	.081	.021	.032	-.089	.170	.056
F49	.201	.703	.070	.096	.170	.064	.083	.072	.045	.041	-.011	.106	.065
F50	.151	.610	.106	.115	.151	.098	.130	.060	.156	.052	.045	.063	.004
F51	.650	.289	.195	.039	.131	.065	.111	.024	.062	.050	.024	.207	-.006
F52	.301	.374	.301	.185	.006	.106	.107	.077	.328	.124	.160	.218	-.054
F53	.641	.290	.218	.063	.075	.081	.077	.028	.090	.054	.097	.170	-.031
F54	.194	.240	.265	.212	.060	.120	.112	.103	.349	.185	.164	.143	-.091
G55	.377	.270	.231	.254	.098	.073	.132	.125	.122	.195	.272	.073	.048
G56	.325	.239	.220	.224	.038	.095	.114	.146	.133	.263	.294	.044	.037
G57	.135	.125	.150	.199	.019	.086	.101	.089	.097	.713	.063	.015	.012
G58	.111	.117	.220	.149	.067	.134	.111	.075	.127	.538	.015	-.009	-.039
G59	.143	.110	.171	.154	.020	.078	.095	.086	.086	.803	.033	.008	.021
A1	.290	.578	.294	.164	.059	.116	.097	.045	.141	.098	.096	.035	-.009
A2	.286	.591	.326	.179	.056	.120	.084	.035	.129	.090	.103	.044	-.015
A3	.202	.658	.240	.089	.059	.090	.112	.055	.079	.077	.048	-.066	-.022
A4	.223	.623	.241	.115	.098	.113	.132	.072	.106	.074	.054	-.102	-.041
A5	.130	.262	.116	.068	.427	.033	.186	.031	.002	-.010	-.139	-.021	-.014
A6	.257	.329	.226	.213	.028	.145	.074	.104	.112	.104	.184	-.117	-.105
A7	.276	.525	.240	.145	.154	.094	.122	.075	.017	.054	.087	-.166	-.065
A8	.242	.547	.214	.075	.117	.096	.136	.070	.043	.056	.081	-.133	-.044
A9	.335	.375	.316	.256	.151	.125	.113	.039	.101	.069	.116	.013	-.068
A10	.254	.337	.341	.268	.167	.151	.149	.061	.176	.171	.129	-.040	-.154
D29	.146	.201	.170	.374	.303	.085	.221	.093	.076	.123	-.017	.038	-.156
D30	.113	.183	.202	.450	.321	.102	.235	.057	.135	.200	-.075	.060	-.259
D31	.360	.245	.349	.207	.060	.136	.160	.045	.118	.098	.087	.111	-.056
D32	.118	.252	.110	.144	.249	.093	.447	.045	.072	.036	-.004	.028	-.035

APPENDIX C: OPS ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX (CONTINUED)

Rotated Factor Matrix^a

	Factor												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
D33	.136	.129	.146	.048	.224	.073	.530	.083	.053	.053	-.035	.009	.035
D34	.090	.175	.127	.094	.056	.083	.592	.043	.096	.069	.019	.008	.035
D35	.137	.170	.213	.094	.113	.080	.670	.090	.076	.100	.076	.013	.001
D36	.192	.202	.269	.157	.109	.104	.607	.093	.111	.101	.099	.010	-.059
B11	.261	.218	.523	.151	.146	.169	.192	.108	.130	.134	.090	-.053	-.036
B12	.276	.204	.714	.150	.079	.106	.113	.076	.128	.112	.023	.079	.040
B13	.286	.200	.741	.098	.118	.083	.132	.077	.081	.109	-.014	.051	.059
B14	.256	.191	.664	.034	.178	.087	.176	.085	.057	.082	-.046	.006	.060
B15	.298	.239	.644	.110	.143	.137	.158	.080	.089	.094	.037	-.048	-.021
B16	.610	.169	.421	.091	.105	.097	.119	.045	.030	.060	.030	.020	-.044
B17	.257	.158	.411	.166	.027	.194	.093	.119	.134	.138	.163	-.073	-.073
B18	.225	.158	.586	.085	.152	.118	.138	.044	.072	.058	-.012	.008	.017
B19	.338	.210	.539	.180	.007	.141	.084	.050	.097	.083	.084	.094	.002
B20	.316	.199	.534	.200	.052	.185	.128	.101	.137	.112	.151	-.046	-.063

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Factor Transformation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	.712	.315	.325	.280	.197	.211	.173	.176
2	-.686	.366	.337	.185	.192	.206	.261	.085
3	.071	.605	.043	-.515	.255	-.225	.120	-.273
4	-.044	-.025	-.603	.205	.682	.036	.110	.284
5	.021	-.444	.305	-.578	.303	.462	.090	.155
6	.035	-.429	.286	.241	.298	-.383	.431	-.385
7	.018	-.031	-.008	-.232	-.055	-.483	.198	.512
8	.093	.013	-.453	-.233	-.038	.243	.203	-.358
9	.021	.034	-.137	-.103	-.389	.030	.668	.296
10	-.042	-.014	.037	.020	-.048	.260	-.064	.224
11	.034	.107	-.053	.144	-.078	.315	.103	-.140
12	.005	.060	.097	-.198	.220	-.197	-.303	.127
13	-.027	-.038	-.056	-.095	.021	.034	.221	-.265

APPENDIX C: OPS ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX (CONTINUED)

Factor Transformation Matrix

Factor	9	10	11	12	13
1	.182	.140	.108	.034	.005
2	.207	.202	.054	-.020	-.076
3	-.254	-.252	-.080	.112	-.097
4	-.059	-.162	.009	-.016	.049
5	.001	-.105	.061	-.129	-.079
6	-.109	.075	-.266	.106	-.075
7	-.216	.475	.285	-.110	-.202
8	.326	.544	-.111	.109	-.273
9	.153	-.295	-.342	-.026	.235
10	-.457	.210	-.264	.737	.079
11	-.628	.215	-.197	-.588	.056
12	.241	.334	-.534	-.172	.518
13	-.082	.149	.548	.118	.723

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

APPENDIX D: OPS ITEMS EXCLUDED IN ROATED FACTOR MATRIX

DIMENSION	QUESTIONS
Values & Culture	6. In the area I work, emnployees are encouraged to become involved in community involvement.
	7. In the area I work, I feel free to talk about new ideas.
	8. In the area I work, I feel that my values are supported by the Company values.
Workforce Diversity	17. In the area I work, the Broad Based Economic Empowerement strategy has been clearly communicated to all staff.
Communication	28. In the Company, communication flows freely between departments.
Work environment	31. In our team, we are not victimised when we raise complaints.
	34. In the area i work, the toilet facility is always clean.
	35. I work in as safe and secure environment.
	36. My work environment is comfortable and allows me to be effective.
Relationships	54. Senior management at Company X is approachable.
Recognition & reward	55. In teh area I work, excellent performance is recognized.
	56. In the area I work, excellent performance is reqarded.
Performance Management	64. My performance agreement outputs match what I am expected to do.
	65. I understand how the performance management process works.
	71. I have enough resources to carry out my work.
HR policies & procedures	80. The performance management process is applied fairly to all.
	81. The application of recruitment and selection procedures, are in accordance with the organisation's business strategy.
	82. There is a clear policy that demonstrates a commitment towards dealing with HIV/Aids in the workplace.
Learning & development	94. In the area I work, employees' jobs give them the opportunity to do what they are best at.
	97. In Company X, training programmes meet business needs.

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APPENDIX E: EXIT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

EMPLOYEE EXIT INTERVIEW

As an employer, Company X is committed to providing a positive work environment for its employees.
The Exit Interview provides a valuable source of information to measure our success in reaching this goal.
The data obtained from this interview will be used to enhance our recruitment and retention efforts, and to assess the overall quality of work life at Company X.

Your responses are confidential to the Human Resources Department. When appropriate, information in aggregate form only may be shared with managers or supervisors.

While the organization does not require you to provide any of the following information, your assistance will help Company X in its continuing effort to provide the best possible work environment for its staff members.

Therefore, we ask that you take a few minutes to complete the questionnaire below.

Thank you for your assistance and good luck in your future endeavours.

HR Director

EMPLOYEE EXIT INTERVIEW

Section 1: Personal data

Name _____

Position _____

Chain _____

Department _____

Line Manager _____

Employment Type	FFT	PPT	P5	P6	P7	Other

Band	A	B	C	D	E	F

Race	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Other

Gender	Male	Female

Age Group	< 25	26 – 35	36 – 45	46 – 55	>55

Qualifications	Below Matric	Matric	Diploma/ Degree	Honours degree	Masters degree	PHD	Other

Tenure	Less than 1 year	1 – 2 years	Less than 5 years	More than 5 years	More than 10 years

On boarding	Group Induction	Chain Induction	Department Induction	HR Induction

Last Performance Rating	80	90	100	110	120

Would you re-employ?	Yes	With Recommendations	No

Comments on "With Recommendations":

287

Section 2:
Dimension: People

Values and Culture		80	90	100	110	120
2.1	Honesty and integrity were valued					
2.2	Employees were supported and respected					
2.3	Employees lived by the organizations' values					
2.4	Employees were free to talk about new ideas and suggestions					
Relationships – (in relation to your own team)						
2.5	Working relationships were open and honest					
2.6	Communication within the team was effective					
2.7	There was good cooperation within the team					
2.8	There was good cooperation with other departments					
Performance Management						
2.9	Poor performance was effectively managed					
2.10	I received enough feedback regarding my work performance					
2.11	Goals were clearly set and measured					
2.12	My line manager was a good coach, helping me to improve my performance					
Policies						
2.13	There was consistent application of policies and procedures					

Section 3
Dimension: Leadership

Management and Leadership Style		80	90	100	110	120
3.1	Management effectively communicated with the team					
3.2	Management was effectively responsive to employees' ideas, opinions, questions and concerns					
3.3	Management embraced the organization's values thus providing a good example for employees to follow					
3.4	Management conducted themselves in a professional ethical manner					

Additional comments:

Section 4
Dimension: Rewards

Recognition and Reward	80	90	100	110	120
4.1 Excellence was recognized and rewarded					
4.2 Individual performance was adequately rewarded					
Compensation					
4.3 My salary matched the responsibilities I had					
4.4 The salary I was paid was fair and comparable to similar jobs in the market					
Health and Benefits					
4.5 The organization offered comprehensive health benefits					
4.6 The organization offered comprehensive retirement benefits					

Section 5
Dimension: Opportunity

Training and Development	80	90	100	110	120
5.1 I received adequate training and development to do my job well					
5.2 I had the opportunity to apply what I have learnt from training programs					
Career Development					
5.3 Management assisted me in my development					

Section 6
Dimension: Work

Innovation	80	90	100	110	120
6.1 My job had provided me with the opportunity to work on innovative, "leading edge" projects					
Work-Life Balance					
6.2 My job allowed me to balance my work and my Other interests					

Section 7
Dimension: Organization

Workforce Diversity	80	90	100	110	120
7.1 The organization's level of commitment to embracing a diverse workforce					
7.2 The extent to which I have experienced racism					
7.3 The extent to which I have experienced favouritism					
7.4 Fears and expectations regarding Employment Equity were adequately addressed					
Company Reputation (EOC)					
7.5 The degree to which I viewed Company X as a market leader					
7.6 The degree to which I related to Company X as a good company to work for					

Additional comment

Section 8

8.1   Describe/share your work experience at Company X (e.g. Line Manager, colleagues, peers and other departments

8.2   What was/were the most meaningful aspect/s of your employment?

8.3   What was/were the least meaningful aspect/s of your employment?

8.4   What suggestions do you have that would make Company X a better place to work?

8.5   What are your reasons for terminating your employment with Company X?

8.6   What are some of the things that could have made you stay at Company X?

8.7   Would you consider returning to Company X in the future?

8.8   Would you work in the same department?   Yes   No

APPENDIX F: STAY INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

COVER LETTER

You have been selected to be part of a research project that is investigating the role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover. This research is part of Doctoral studies I am completing through Unisa, which have been approved by Company X. The data received will be helpful in understanding employee turnover as it affects Company X, on which basis we can design specific strategies to manage this.

The questionnaire has **9 short questions** and should not take you longer than **5 minutes** to complete.

Your input will be treated as strictly confidential and will not be disclosed to anyone in the organisation. The results will be reported holistically for trends to be identified and addressed.
I thank you in advance for your willingness to complete the questionnaire.

Regards

Liziwe Masoga

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

There are no wrong or right answers, please answer the questions as honestly as possible.
Answer the questions by choosing your response from the drop down menu.

QUESTIONS

1. Does your current job match the expectations you had before you started?

Yes	No

2. Does the culture of the organisation match the expectations you had before you started?

Yes	No

3. When you joined the organisation, did you feel that you fitted well into its culture?

Yes	No

4. Were you assigned a mentor/coach to assist with your transition either into a new role or the organisation?

Yes	No

5. If you had your own way, would you be working for the organisation a year from now?

Yes	No

6. Are you planning to search for a new job in the next 12 months?

Yes	No

7. What attracted you to the organisation? Please tick the **2** most important reasons for you.

The rewards	
The work	
The people	
The opportunities	
The organisation	
Other (specify)	

8. What would make you leave the organisation? Please tick the **2** most important reasons for you.

The rewards	
The work	
The people	
Leadership	
Better opportunities elsewhere	
Working conditions	
The culture	
Other (specify)	

9. What other factors do you believe are important in retaining your services in Company *X*?

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

APPENDIX G: COMPARISONS OF OPS COMPLETERS AND NON COMPLETERS ON NINE BIPOLAR SCALES

	Ranks			
	Participation	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Assertive	Completed the questionnaire	1216	763.26	928123.50
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	783.72	249221.50
	Total	1534		
Flexible	Completed the questionnaire	1216	751.90	914307.50
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	827.16	263037.50
	Total	1534		
Trusting	Completed the questionnaire	1216	760.22	924430.00
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	795.33	252915.00
	Total	1534		
Phlegmatic	Completed the questionnaire	1215	759.04	922238.50
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	797.40	253572.50
	Total	1533		
Gregarious	Completed the questionnaire	1216	764.39	929497.00
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	779.40	247848.00
	Total	1534		

	Ranks			
	Participation	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Persuasive	Completed the questionnaire	1216	760.73	925043.00
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	793.40	252302.00
	Total	1534		
Contesting	Completed the questionnaire	1216	775.23	942678.00
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	737.95	234667.00
	Total	1534		
Pessimistic	Completed the questionnaire	1216	780.64	949254.00
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	717.27	228091.00
	Total	1534		
Pragmatic	Completed the questionnaire	1216	774.78	942130.00
	Did Completed the questionnaire	318	739.67	235215.00
	Total	1534		

APPENDIX G: COMPARISONS OF OPS COMPLETERS AND NON COMPLETERS ON NINE BIPOLAR SCALES (CONTINUED)

Test Statistics[a]

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Assertive	188187.500	928123.500	-.743	.458
Flexible	174371.500	914307.500	-2.746	.006
Trusting	184494.000	924430.000	-1.269	.204
Phlegmatic	183518.500	922238.500	-1.393	.164
Gregarious	189561.000	929497.000	-.544	.586
Persuasive	185107.000	925043.000	-1.186	.236
Contesting	183946.000	234667.000	-1.348	.178
Pessimistic	177370.000	228091.000	-2.293	.022
Pragmatic	184494.000	235215.000	-1.278	.201

a. Grouping Variable: Participation

APPENDIX H: SEM MODEL FOR STAYERS SAMPLE
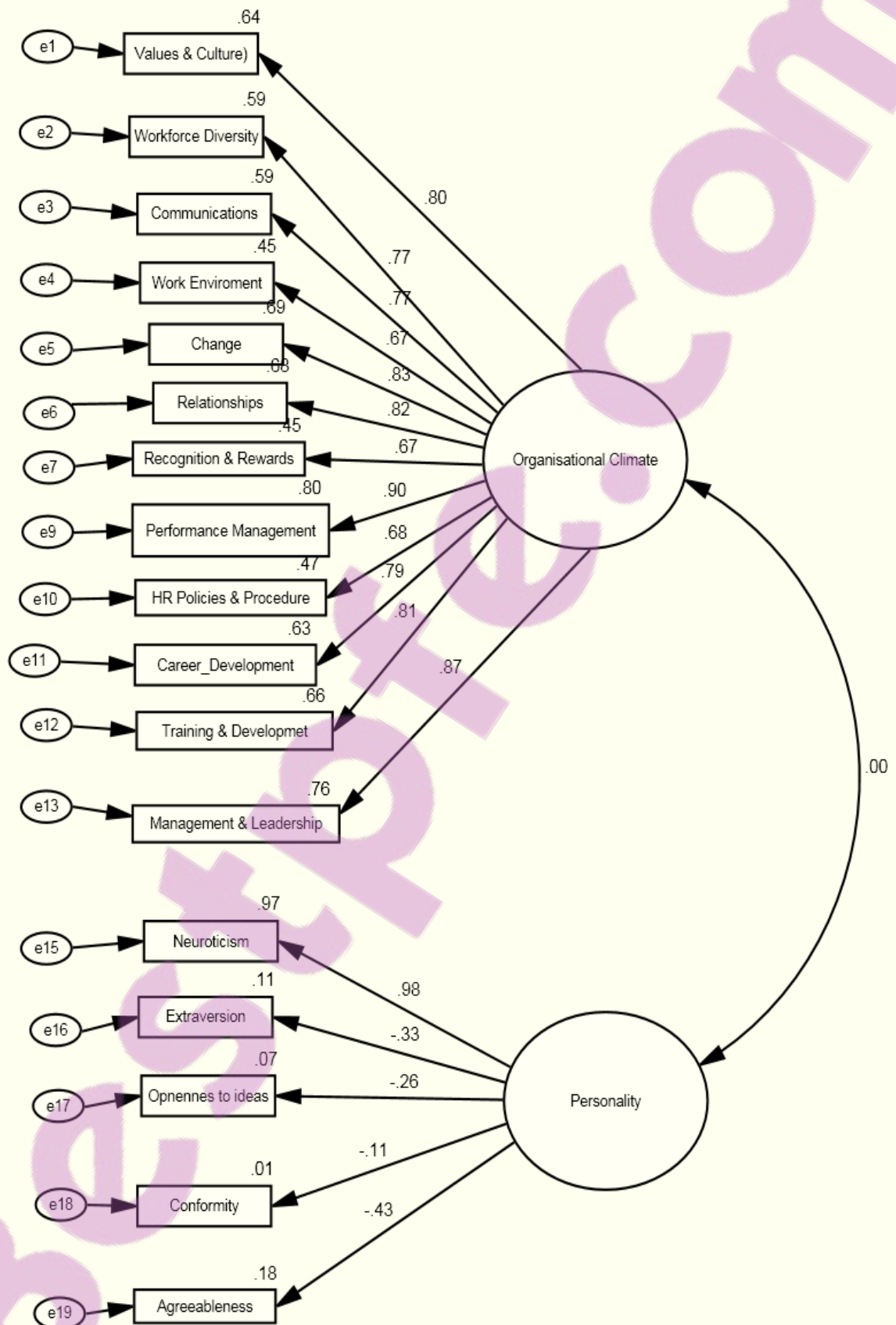
APPENDIX H: SEM MODEL FOR STAYERS SAMPLE (CONTINUED)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Workforce Diversity	<---	Organisational Climate	.997	.043	23.374	***	
Communications	<---	Organisational Climate	1.024	.044	23.527	***	
Work Environment	<---	Organisational Climate	.709	.036	19.822	***	
Change	<---	Organisational Climate	.874	.033	26.108	***	
Relationships	<---	Organisational Climate	1.260	.049	25.835	***	
Recognition rewards	<---	Organisational Climate	.533	.027	19.558	***	
Performance Management	<---	Organisational Climate	1.591	.054	29.265	***	
HR Policies	<---	Organisational Climate	.804	.040	20.198	***	
Career Development	<---	Organisational Climate	1.055	.043	24.528	***	
Training & Development	<---	Organisational Climate	.918	.036	25.314	***	
Neuroticism	<---	Personality	1.000				
Extraversion	<---	Personality	-.282	.053	-5.326	***	
Openness to ideas	<---	Personality	-.197	.040	-4.854	***	
Conformity	<---	Personality	-.080	.029	-2.742	.006	
Management Leadership	<---	Organisational Climate	2.432	.087	28.057	***	
Agreeableness	<---	Personality	-.375	.065	-5.762	***	
Values &Culture	<---	Organisational Climate	1.000				

			Estimate
Workforce Diversity	<---	Organisational Climate	.766
Communications	<---	Organisational Climate	.770
Work Environment	<---	Organisational Climate	.675
Change	<---	Organisational Climate	.830
Relationships	<---	Organisational	.824

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Recognition & rewards	<---	Organisational Climate	.667				
Performance Management	<---	Organisational Climate	.897				
HR Policies	<---	Organisational Climate	.685				
Career Development	<---	Organisational Climate	.794				
Training & Development	<---	Organisational Climate	.812				
Neuroticism	<---	Personality	.984				
Extraversion	<---	Personality	-.327				
Openness to ideas	<---	Personality	-.262				
Conformity	<---	Personality	-.112				
Management &Leadership	<---	Organisational Climate	.872				
Agreeableness	<---	Personality	-.425				
Values &Culture	<---	Organisational Climate	.803				

Intercepts: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Values & Culture	30.262	.108	279.283	***	
Workforce Diversity	30.199	.113	266.833	***	
Communications	25.862	.116	223.477	***	
Work Environment	26.396	.091	288.614	***	
Change	20.160	.092	220.013	***	
Relationships	33.373	.133	250.859	***	
Recognition &rewards	13.787	.070	198.319	***	
Performance Management	43.893	.154	284.399	***	
HR Policies	27.956	.102	273.738	***	
Career Development	23.634	.116	204.509	***	
Training & Development	21.434	.098	218.002	***	
Management &_Leadership	56.262	.243	231.918	***	
Neuroticism	4.805	.077	62.756	***	
Extraversion	5.473	.065	84.105	***	
Openness to ideas	3.737	.057	66.082	***	
Conformity	7.597	.054	141.519	***	
Agreeableness	3.453	.066	51.936	***	

Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Personality <--> Organisational Climate	-.007	.194	-.036	.971	

Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Personality <--> Organisational Climate	-.001

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Agreeableness	.181
Management &Leadership	.760
Values &Culture	.644
Conformity	.013
Openness to ideas	.069
Extraversion	.107
Neuroticism	.969
Training & Development	.660
Career Development	.630
HR Policies	.469
Performance Management	.804
Recognition & rewards	.445
Relationships	.679
Change	.689
Work Environment	.455
Communications	.593
Workforce Diversity	.587

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	52	1355.498	118	.000	11.487
Saturated model	170	.000	0		
Independence model	17	7900.805	153	.000	51.639

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.828	.778	.841	.793	.840
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.771	.639	.648
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1237.498	1122.718	1359.700
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	7747.805	7459.982	8041.946

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1.682	1.535	1.393	1.687
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	9.802	9.613	9.256	9.978

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.114	.109	.120	.000
Independence model	.251	.246	.255	.000

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1459.498	1461.873		
Saturated model	340.000	347.766		
Independence model	7934.805	7935.582		

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	1.811	1.668	1.962	1.814
Saturated model	.422	.422	.422	.431
Independence model	9.845	9.488	10.210	9.846

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	86	94
Independence model	19	21

Minimization: .016
Miscellaneous: .405
Bootstrap: .000
Total: .421

APPENDIX I: FIT STATISTICS FOR LEAVERS SAMPLE

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	52	646.099	118	.000	5.475
Saturated model	170	.000	0		
Independence model	17	5453.102	153	.000	35.641

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.882	.846	.901	.871	.900
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.771	.680	.694
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	528.099	452.103	611.602
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	5300.102	5062.064	5544.478

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.887	.725	.621	.840
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	7.491	7.280	6.953	7.616

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.078	.073	.084	.000
Independence model	.218	.213	.223	.000

APPENDIX I: FIT STATISTICS FOR LEAVERS SAMPLE (CONTINUED)

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	750.099	752.735		
Saturated model	340.000	348.620		
Independence model	5487.102	5487.964		

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	1.030	.926	1.145	1.034
Saturated model	.467	.467	.467	.479
Independence model	7.537	7.210	7.873	7.538

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	163	177
Independence model	25	27

Minimization:	.015
Miscellaneous:	.391
Bootstrap:	.000
Total:	.406

APPENDIX J: COEFFICIENT ALPHA – ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE (STAYERS SAMPLE)

Reliability statistics

Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Career development	.974	8
Change	.983	7
Communication	.976	8
HR policies & procedures	.989	9
Training & development	.977	8
Management & leadership	.995	18
Performance Management	.991	14
Relationship	.992	11
Recognition & rewards	.918	5
Values & culture	.991	10
Work environment	.977	8
Workforce diversity	.991	10

APPENDIXL K: COEFFICIENT ALPHA – ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE (LEAVERS SAMPLE)

Reliability statistics

Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Career development	.982	8
Change	.988	7
Communication	.987	8
HR policies & procedures	.990	9
Training & development	.988	8
Management & leadership	.997	18
Performance Management	.993	14
Relationship	.992	11
Recognition & rewards	.966	5
Values & culture	.993	10
Work environment	.988	8
Workforce diversity	.994	10

APPENDIX L: HOTELLING T² PERSONALITY

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Status	1	Stayers	804
	2	Leavers	729

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.991	17852.035[b]	9.000	1523.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.009	17852.035[b]	9.000	1523.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	105.495	17852.035[b]	9.000	1523.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	105.495	17852.035[b]	9.000	1523.000	.000
Status1	Pillai's Trace	.009	1.556[b]	9.000	1523.000	.123
	Wilks' Lambda	.991	1.556[b]	9.000	1523.000	.123
	Hotelling's Trace	.009	1.556[b]	9.000	1523.000	.123
	Roy's Largest Root	.009	1.556[b]	9.000	1523.000	.123

a. Design: Intercept + Status1

b. Exact statistic

Mann-Whitney Test

	Ranks			
	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Conformity	Stayers	746	724.38	540387.00
	Leavers	690	712.14	491379.00
	Total	1436		

Test Statistics[a]	
	Conformity
Mann-Whitney U	252984.000
Wilcoxon W	491379.000
Z	-.579
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.563
a. Grouping Variable: Status	

Mann-Whitney Test

	Ranks			
	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Neuroticism	Stayers	745	734.46	547169.50
	Leavers	690	700.23	483160.50
	Total	1435		

Test Statistics[a]	
	Neuroticism
Mann-Whitney U	244765.500
Wilcoxon W	483160.500
Z	-1.578
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.115
a. Grouping Variable: Status	

Mann-Whitney Test

	Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
		Ranks		
Assertive	Stayers	805	746.60	601009.50
	Leavers	729	790.58	576335.50
	Total	1534		
Flexible	Stayers	805	759.95	611761.00
	Leavers	729	775.84	565584.00
	Total	1534		
Trusting	Stayers	805	767.54	617872.50
	Leavers	729	767.45	559472.50
	Total	1534		
Phlegmatic	Stayers	804	759.35	610517.50
	Leavers	729	775.44	565293.50
	Total	1533		
Gregarious	Stayers	805	767.22	617612.00
	Leavers	729	767.81	559733.00
	Total	1534		
Persuasive	Stayers	805	734.77	591493.50
	Leavers	729	803.64	585851.50
	Total	1534		
Contesting	Stayers	805	762.54	613843.00
	Leavers	729	772.98	563502.00
	Total	1534		
Pessimistic	Stayers	805	785.94	632683.50
	Leavers	729	747.14	544661.50
	Total	1534		
Pragmatic	Stayers	805	777.32	625746.50
	Leavers	729	756.65	551598.50
	Total	1534		

APPENDIX M: STAYERS AND LEAVERS COMPARISON ON PERSONALITY (CONTINUED)

Test Statistics[a]

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Assertive	276594.500	601009.500	-1.967	.049
Flexible	287346.000	611761.000	-.714	.475
Trusting	293387.500	559472.500	-.004	.997
Phlegmatic	286907.500	610517.500	-.720	.472
Gregarious	293197.000	617612.000	-.026	.979
Persuasive	267078.500	591493.500	-3.079	.002
Contesting	289428.000	613843.000	-.465	.642
Pessimistic	278576.500	544661.500	-1.730	.084
Pragmatic	285513.500	551598.500	-.927	.354

a. Grouping Variable: Status

APPENDIX N: FUNCTIONAL/DYSFUNCTIONAL TURNOVER AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE SCORES

Ranks

	Classification of turnover	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Organisational Climate	Dysfunctional	323	207.09	66889.00
	Functional	86	197.16	16956.00
	Total	409		

Test Statistics[a]

	Organisational Climate
Mann-Whitney U	13215.000
Wilcoxon W	16956.000
Z	-.692
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.489

APPENDIX O: MENTORS/COACHES AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE SCORES

Ranks

	Mentor or Coaches allocated	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Organisational Climate	Yes	117	128.00	14976.50
	No	138	128.00	17663.50
	Total	255		

Test Statistics[a]

	Organisational Climate
Mann-Whitney U	8072.500
Wilcoxon W	17663.500
Z	-.001
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.999

a. Grouping Variable: Mentor or Coaches allocated

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks				
	Intention to quit	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	Planned quitting	51	57.13	2913.50
Organisational Climate	Unplanned quitting	54	49.10	2651.50
	Total	105		

Test Statistics[a]	Organisational Climate
Mann-Whitney U	1166.500
Wilcoxon W	2651.500
Z	-1.557
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.120

a. Grouping Variable: Intention to quit

APPENDIX Q: FUNCTIONAL/DYSFUNCTIONAL TURNOVER AND MANAGEMENT STYLE

Ranks

	Classification of turnover	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Management & Leadership	Dysfunctional	323	207.57	67044.00
	Functional	86	195.36	16801.00
	Total	409		

Test Statistics[a]

	Management & Leadership
Mann-Whitney U	13060.000
Wilcoxon W	16801.000
Z	-.854
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.393

a. Grouping Variable: Classification of turnover

APPENDIX R: STAYERS AND LEAVERS COMPARISON ON RACE

			NRace				Total
			Indian	Coloured	White	African	
Status	Stayers	Count	115	168	109	414	806
		% within Status	14.3%	20.8%	13.5%	51.4%	100.0%
		% within NRace	51.1%	52.2%	59.9%	51.6%	52.6%
	Leavers	Count	110	154	73	389	726
		% within Status	15.2%	21.2%	10.1%	53.6%	100.0%
		% within NRace	48.9%	47.8%	40.1%	48.4%	47.4%
Total		Count	225	322	182	803	1532
		% within Status	14.7%	21.0%	11.9%	52.4%	100.0%
		% within NRace	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.454[a]	3	.216
Likelihood Ratio	4.487	3	.213
Linear-by-Linear Association	.000	1	.989
N of Valid Cases	1532		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 86.25.

APPENDIX S: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERFORMANCE, PERCEPTION OF RECOGNITION AND REWARDS AND INTENTION TO STAY.

Correlations

		Performance rating	Recognition & Rewards
Performance rating	Pearson Correlation	1	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.564

Correlations

			Performance rating	Recognition & Rewards	Quitters
Spearman's rho	Performance rating	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.017	-.061
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.565	.506
		N	1535	1218	120
	Recognition & Rewards	Correlation Coefficient	-.017	1.000	-.072
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.565	.	.480
		N	1218	1218	99
	Quitters	Correlation Coefficient	-.061	-.072	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.506	.480	.
		N	120	99	120

		Performance rating	Recognition & Rewards
	N	1535	1218
Recognition & Rewards	Pearson Correlation	-.017	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.564	
	N	1218	1218

APPENDIX T: CORRELATION BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE PERCEPTION AND PERFORMANCE

Correlations		Performance rating	Organisational Climate
Performance rating	Pearson Correlation	1	-.004
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.893
	N	1535	1218
Organisational Climate	Pearson Correlation	-.004	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.893	
	N	1218	1218

APPENDIX U: ADDITIONAL HYPOTHESES

			Neuroticism	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conformity	Intention to quit
					Correlations		
Spearman's rho	Neuroticism	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.313**	-.410**	-.134**	-.069
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.462
		N	1435	1435	1435	1435	115
	Extraversion	Correlation Coefficient	-.313**	1.000	.071**	.106**	.050
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.008	.000	.596
		N	1435	1435	1435	1435	115
	Agreeableness	Correlation Coefficient	-.410**	.071**	1.000	-.101**	.083
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.008	.	.000	.379
		N	1435	1435	1435	1435	115
	Conformity	Correlation Coefficient	-.134**	.106**	-.101**	1.000	.016
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.861
		N	1435	1435	1435	1436	115
	Intention to quit	Correlation Coefficient	-.069	.050	.083	.016	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.462	.596	.379	.861	.
		N	115	115	115	115	126

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

Regression Conscientiousness 1b,2b,3b,4b

	Variables Entered/Removed[a]		
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Conformity, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to quit

b. All requested variables entered.

APPENDIX U: ADDITIONAL HYPOTHESES (CONTINUED)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.091[a]	.008	-.028	.509

a. Predictors: (Constant), Conformity, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	.238	4	.059	.229	.922[b]
1	Residual	28.510	110	.259		
	Total	28.748	114			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to quit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Conformity, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	1.484	.395		3.753	.000
	Neuroticism	-.010	.029	-.039	-.352	.726
1	Extraversion	.012	.031	.039	.390	.697
	Agreeableness	.012	.027	.049	.458	.648
	Conformity	-.006	.031	-.019	-.190	.850

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to quit

Regression 6a

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Management & Leadership[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to quit

b. All requested variables entered.

APPENDIX U: ADDITIONAL HYPOTHESES (CONTINUED)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.158[a]	.025	.015	.498

a. Predictors: (Constant), Management & Leadership

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.653	1	.653	2.631	.108[b]
	Residual	25.575	103	.248		
	Total	26.229	104			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to quit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Management & Leadership

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.197	.424		5.184	.000
	Management & Leadership	-.012	.008	-.158	-1.622	.108

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to quit

Regression 6b

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Management & Leadership[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Classification of turnover

b. All requested variables entered.

APPENDIX U: ADDITIONAL HYPOTHESES (CONTINUED)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.066[a]	.004	.002	.733

a. Predictors: (Constant), Management & Leadership

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.127	1	1.127	2.098	.148[b]
	Residual	260.540	485	.537		
	Total	261.667	486			

a. Dependent Variable: Classification of turnover

b. Predictors: (Constant), Management & Leadership

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.547	.161		9.593	.000
	Management & Leadership	-.004	.003	-.066	-1.449	.148

a. Dependent Variable: Classification of turnover