THE IMPACT OF JOB INSECURITY ON JOB SATISFACTION AND

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AT FEMINA GARMENTS IN ZIMBABWE

A CASE STUDY

by

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ABSTRACT

The overall aim of the study was to investigate the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Job insecurity has increased considerably over the recent decade in the clothing industry of Zimbabwe. Negative economic growth, retrenchments and company closures have led to job insecurity increase in Zimbabwe. Against this background, the literature suggests that job insecurity has a negative impact on different job attitudes. The study was conducted at Femina Garments, a clothing manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. The study adopted the quantitative research design and a survey method was employed for all 109 employees at Femina Garments. A structured closed-ended questionnaire was used to collect data. A significant response rate of 93.58% was obtained using the personal method of data collection. The responses to the questionnaire were captured and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows. Several hypotheses were formulated and tested using the Pearson`s chi-square and Spearman`s rank order correlation co-efficient. The main findings revealed that job insecurity did have an impact on organisational commitment. The findings also revealed that job insecurity had no relationship with job satisfaction at Femina Garments. The recommendations suggest that management at Femina Garments should provide clear communication, provide social support and maintain a balanced psychological contract. The recommendations also suggest that management at Femina Garments should provide salaries and benefits that are market related. The study concludes by providing directions for future research.

DECLARATION

I Stephen Taduvana hereby declare that this dissertation submitted for the Degree of Masters in Management Sciences specialising in Human Resources Management in the Faculty of Management Sciences at Durban University of Technology is my own original work and has not previously been submitted at any institution of higher education. All the sources have been acknowledged, accurately cited and referred to in the bibliography list.

Signed………………………….   Date………………………………

Stephen Taduvana

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

According to Mahmood and Amiresmaili (2013:343), the workforce is the most important and valuable resource of the organisation. Srivastava (2013:159) attests that job satisfaction and organisational commitment is the key for an organisation to display performance and profit. Kang, Gold and Kim (2012:316) state that job insecurity in today`s workforce is common, given the stiff competition amongst businesses, global recession and deteriorating economic conditions, especially in Zimbabwe. Mashoeu (2011:1) postulates that job insecurity is on the rise due to organisational changes, restructuring and downsizing of the workforce for organisations to remain profitable. Tshuma (2015:1) attests that job insecurity in Zimbabwe is alarmingly high. Most employees are increasingly feeling insecure in their jobs due to increasing economic challenges which have resulted in company closures and subsequent job losses. Mpofu (2013:83) states that the clothing industry has gone through negative growth since 2000, with many factory closures. This has seen a number of companies in the clothing manufacturing sector closing and a number of people employed by this sector losing their jobs (Huni, 2015:1). The industry used to have 495 companies in 2000 but only 206 companies have survived (Mpofu, 2013:83).

According to Nguwi (2015:1), most companies in Zimbabwe are retrenching their workers and many companies are failing to remunerate their employees. Therefore, employees remain sceptical about whether their prospects are improving or not. At its peak in the 1990s, Femina Garments employed more than 300 workers. However, the company currently has only 109 employees. Femina Garments was established in 1968 and it is located in the city of Bulawayo in the Matebeleland

province of Zimbabwe. Femina Garments is a clothing manufacturing organisation with more than 40 years of experience in producing quality women`s clothing.

Femina Garments has a total workforce of 109 employees. Like any other company, Femina Garments is faced with operational constraints as a result of the economic challenges facing Zimbabwe. High costs of utilities are a major constraint that is affecting the organisation, as the costs charged by Zimbabwe`s electricity supply authority, Tel-one and city councils are very high. Furthermore, old machinery and shortages of finance for recapitalisation of the organisation are also constraints affecting Femina Garments. Femina Garments has stood the taste of time and is managing to survive despite all the constraints the organisation is facing. In support of this study, Julic Bonnet (2015:1) states that the workers are the soul of any organisation and it is important to keep them satisfied and committed, despite the economic climate that has made it difficult for companies to provide secure and steady employment. Therefore, this study will be beneficial for Femina Garments.

1.2   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Srivastava (2013:159) states that organisations have over the years been confronted with the most difficult challenge of keeping the workforce both satisfied and committed. Job insecurity is an issue of concern amongst employees in the textile and clothing industry of Zimbabwe. Youmans (2014:1) states that the clothing industry in Zimbabwe has experienced a sharp decline in employment numbers from 36 000 employees on its peak in 2005 to 7 000 employees in 2014. Femina Garments and the remaining companies are battling to survive due to the harsh economic climate. This has led to the downsizing of the workforce and the emergence of contractual employment. A feeling of uncertainty about the continued existence of jobs and a sense of instability and insecurity has developed amongst employees within the company, which has resulted in low job satisfaction that has in turn resulted in poor organisational commitment. Concerns of decreased performance and absenteeism are some of the problems at Femina Garments. Job

insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been widely explored. However, no such study has been carried out at Femina Garments in the clothing sector in Zimbabwe.

1.3   TERMINOLOGY

The terminology that is frequently used in this study is defined below.

1.3.1   JOB INSECURITY

According to Reinardy (2012:56), job insecurity is the perception of potential loss of continuity in a work situation that can range from perpetual loss of the occupation itself to loss of valued employment facets.

1.3.2   JOB SATISFACTION

Gunlu, Aksarayli and Percin (2009:695) explain that job satisfaction is the sense or a general feeling of workers concerning their work and the job components such as the working environment, working conditions, equitable rewards, and communication with colleagues.

1.3.3   ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Azeem and Akhtar (2014:128), organisational commitment is the employee`s strong belief in organisational objectives and principles; an eagerness to

put forth a significant effort on behalf of an organisation; and a strong desire to continue as a member of an organisation.

1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the research is to investigate the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study are:

- ➢ To investigate the level of job insecurity at Femina Garments.
- ➢ To determine the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction at Femina Garments.
- ➢ To ascertain the impact of job insecurity in relation to organisational commitment at Femina Garments.
- ➢ To determine the factors that influence job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to investigate the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. This study attempts to provide answers to the following research questions:

- ➢ What is the level of job insecurity at Femina Garments?

➢ To what extent does job insecurity influence job satisfaction at Femina Garments?

➢ How does job insecurity influence organisational commitment at Femina Garments?

➢ What are the factors that influence organisational commitment and job satisfaction at Femina Garments?

1.7   SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study will be restricted to Femina Garments, a clothing company in Zimbabwe. This is an in-house study. Therefore, it will not include other clothing companies in Zimbabwe.

1.8   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study will make a significant attempt to determine if job insecurity has an impact on the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The study will provide important information for the purposes of analysis and intervention at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The contribution of this research is to add to the body of existing knowledge and provide recommendations in relation to job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments. The research problem is worth studying because job insecurity has increased considerably over the recent decade in the clothing industry of Zimbabwe.

1.9   LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review is a systematic, express and reproducible technique for recognising, assessing and incorporating the existing body of knowledge produced by researchers and scholars (Fink, 2010:3). The researcher will ensure that the literature fulfils the research objectives and answer the research questions. The literature will give a brief explanation of job insecurity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the impact of job in security on organisational commitment as well as job satisfaction.

1.9.1 JOB INSECURITY

According to Yusoff, Mat and Zainol (2014:19), job insecurity is an employee's awareness of a possible threat to continuity in his or her occupation. Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015:25) explain that job insecurity is an employee's fear of losing his/her job, being unemployed or having some responsibilities removed or being allocated specific tasks and duties that are undesirable. De Witte (2005:2) identifies three forms of job insecurity, namely job insecurity as a state of public awareness; job insecurity at organisational level; and acute job insecurity. Jandaghi, Mokhles and Bahrami (2011:6854) state that job insecurity at a company level refers to unstable and insecure employment in the organisation.

According to Van Wyk and Piennar (2008:56), job insecurity is predicted by individual and situational characteristics which are referred to as antecedents of job insecurity.   Antecedents of job insecurity include macro level factors such as the unemployment rate, individual background characteristics and the personal traits of the individual. Sverke, De Witte and Hellgren (2013:485) affirm that job insecurity has consequences for the individual as well as the organisation. Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012:33) explain that job insecurity has consequences that can be health, attitude and behaviour related. Job insecurity has short-term and long-term

consequences for both the organisation and the individual (Ritcher, 2011:23). Chirumbolo (2014:555) states that individual consequences include stress, burnout and decreased health all of which have an impact on the functioning of the organisation by such phenomena as decreased performance, reduced quality, increased absenteeism and turnover intentions. However, Kang, Gold and Kim (2012:317) argue that when workers believe they are insecure in their jobs, they put more effort and go above their call of duty.

Bosman, Laba and Buitendach (2005:32) confirm that job insecurity has two themes, namely cognitive job insecurity and affective job insecurity. According to Pienaar, De Witte, Hellgren and Sverke (2013:3), cognitive job insecurity is the possibility of job loss and affective job insecurity is the fear of job loss. In addition, Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015:25) add that job insecurity has quantitative and qualitative elements. Quantitative job insecurity is when an individual is concerned about losing the whole job whereas qualitative job insecurity is the depreciation of valued job facets. Moreover, Borman and Hegde (2012:316) state that job insecurity has subjective and objective components. Subjective job insecurity entails the perception of a risk to the present job and objective job insecurity relates to the events that threaten the jobs of employees (Barling and Cooper, 2008:185). Bosman, Laba and Buitendach (2005:31) state that job insecurity is centred on the employee's perception and analysis of his/her immediate work environment.

1.9.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is the most researched job attitude in the organisational sciences and it is a focal point of numerous theories and models of employee behaviour and attitudes (Judge and Klinger, 2009:393). According to Azeem and Akhtar (2014:128), job satisfaction is a pleasing positive affective state which arise from the evaluation of one`s job or job experience. Azadeh and Ahranjani (2014:345) state that what makes a job pleasing does not rely only on the environment of the job, but also on the demands of the individual. Furthermore, Azeem and Akhtar (2014:128)

affirm that job satisfaction is an emotion resulting from an individual`s degree of perception about the fulfilment of his or her needs. Mahmood and Amiresmaili (2013:343) postulate that job satisfaction is a complicated notion which involves workers` feelings about numerous elements inside and outside the job. Moreover, employee perceptions and attitudes to their jobs play a major role in their performance.

Zhang, Diaz, Tang and Tang (2013:428) highlight that job satisfaction entails judgements and attitudes towards several features such as work, rewards, promotional opportunities, supervision, job security and relationships with co-workers. Moreover, Stella (2007:36) states that the availability of power, status and task clarity has an influence on job satisfaction. Ozturk, Hance and Young-Im (2014:299) attest that job characteristics and job design are the determinants of job satisfaction. In addition, Gunlu, Aksarayli and Percin (2009:695) state that there are three employee attitudes to job satisfaction, namely intrinsic, extrinsic and general reinforcement factors. When these are summed up, the general job satisfaction construct is formed. According to Dinoka, Perera, Khatibi, Navaratraia and China (2014:97), extrinsic factors such as company policies, administration, working conditions and employee relations are dissatisfiers and intrinsic factors which include achievement, recognition, the work itself and responsibility are satisfiers.

According to Ciarniene, Kumpikaite and Vienazindiene (2010:978), there are many theories explaining job satisfaction. These theories are grouped either as process or content theories. Process theories give explanation on how needs and goals are satisfied and accepted cognitively and they include the Equity Theory; Vroom`s Expectancy Theory, Job Characteristic Model; Goal-Setting Theory; and Lawler`s Expectancy Model. On the other hand, the content theories focus on identifying the needs and goals and their prioritisation by the individual to get job satisfaction. Well documented content theories of job satisfaction are Maslow`s Hierarchy of Needs; Herzberg's Two Factor Theory; Theory X and Y and Achievement Theory (Saif, Nawaz, Jan and Khan, 2012:1387).

Dugguh and Dennis (2014:12) postulate that Herzberg`s Two Factor Theory focuses on the outcomes of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Moreover, the theory highlights that specific features of a job cause job satisfaction and motivation but certain variables also cause job dissatisfaction. Herzberg`s theory highlights the importance of the job environment as the primary determinant of employee satisfaction (Ciarniene, Kumpikaite and Vienazindiene, 2010:978). Furthermore, Man, Modrak, Dima and Pachura (2011:10) state that the Equity Theory shows how an individual perceives fairness in relation to social relationships. When an individual perceives the relationship to be fair, he or she will be satisfied. However, if the relationship is perceived as not fair then the individual will be dissatisfied.

1.9.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Huang and Hsiao (2007:1265), organisational commitment is the quality of an individual's recognizable proof with and inclusion in a specific association. Akoto and Akoto (2014:2) affirm that organisational commitment is a psychological state that attaches the employee to the organisation. Organisational commitment is the attachment between an individual and the employing organisation. It is the bond to the entire organisation and not a particular job or work group (Lambert, Kim, Kelley and Hogan, 2013:196). You, Huang, Wang, Ni liu, Lin and Tseng (2013:66) contend that organisational commitment is a behavioural display for the interaction between an individual and a group. Elizur, Kantor, Yaniv and Sagie, as cited by Beukes and Botha (2013:1), note that there are two sorts of commitment. Moral commitment is the attachment or loyalty to something and calculative commitment which is the possible benefit an individual would get by being committed. Various authors such as Srivastas (2013:159); Gunlu, Aksarayli and Percin (2009:696) and Ozturk, Hancer and Young (2014:299) highlight that there are two approaches to organisational commitment, which are based on attitude and behaviour.

According to Cetin, Kizil and Zengin (2013:4), attitudinal organisational commitment is divided into three categories, namely affective, continuance and normative

commitment. Affective commitment is an emotional attachment to the organisation, while continuance commitment is based on the costs that an employee incurs when leaving the organisation. Furthermore, normative commitment is a perceived state of mind by the employee to stay with the organisation (Quick and Nelson, 2011:64). In addition, Babalola (2013:207) identifies three facets of organisational commitment, namely:

➢ Acknowledgment of hierarchical objectives;
➢ An eagerness to work hard for the association; and
➢ A desire to stay with the association.

According to You, Huang, Wang, Ni-Liu, Lin and Tseng (2013:67), organisational commitment is crucial to create teams that are loyal, to attain high performance and for organisations to exploit the competencies of employees in order to effectively achieve organisational objectives. Moreover, Srivastava (2013:159) states that organisational commitment is an index for organisational performance. Becker, Ullrich and Dick (2013:131) highlight that organisational commitment is considered important due to its influence on citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, counter-productive activities and organisational effectiveness. However, Morrow (2011:20) states that low organisational commitment amongst employees is detrimental to the organisation because it is associated with reduced organisational resources and competitive edge. Organisational commitment is influenced by a range of factors, including employment opportunities, work environment, personal background characteristics and job related factors, interpersonal relationships within the organisation, the leadership style within the organisation, as well as the structure of the organisation (Babalola, 2013: 209).

1.9.4 JOB INSECURITY AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION

According to Fatima, Noraishah, Nasir and Khairuddin (2012:50), job insecurity and job satisfaction have a positive association. Chirumbolo (2014:556) states that job insecurity is a determinant of job satisfaction. Mahmoud and Reisel (2014:49)

concur that job insecurity has a positive influence on job satisfaction. Riesel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Jong (2010:74) attest that job satisfaction is one research attitudinal outcome of job insecurity. Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012:34) state that the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction is understandable in light of the fact that employment provides satisfaction in terms of economic stability, social contacts and self-efficacy. Furthermore, Labuschagne, Bosman and Buitendach (2005:26) postulate that job insecurity has a primary influence on employee attitudes towards their jobs. Mashoeu (2011:2) states that job insecurity is linked with lower levels of extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction.

According to Artz and Kaya (2014:2873), the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction is not just an element of how likely it is that an employee loses an occupation, but how likely it is that an employee could secure another. The impact of this on an employee`s job satisfaction is distinctive, relying upon whether the employee is insecure or not and whether employment opportunities are rare or ample. Mahmoud and Reisel (2014:56) poset that overtime workers develop and form emotional attachments towards their organisation and job satisfaction is considered paramount amongst these attachments. However, experiencing job insecurity could threaten these attachments and make them weaker.

Reinardy (2012:55) references previous studies that have revealed that a perception of job insecurity, as well as how survivors cope with change, has an impact on job satisfaction. A study on job insecurity, job satisfaction and the organisational commitment of employees at an organisation in Gauteng province by Buitendach and De Witte (2005:33) revealed that job insecurity is associated with less organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Job insecurity has a tendency to influence job related attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In the same vein, De Witte (2005:2) concurs that job insecurity is a stressor with negative job related attitudes such as low job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall (2006:244) contend that such negative attitudes are not important in light of the fact that workers are unique and they translate their circumstance uniquely in contrast to each other.

1.9.5 JOB INSECURITY IN RELATION TO ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Furaker and Berglund (2014:168) state that there is significant literature on how job insecurity is related to organisational commitment. According to Reinardy (2010:55), multiple layoffs challenge employee's commitment to the organisation. Lee and Peccei (2006:667) state that employees whose job in the organisation are not secure and certain, are less inclined to a feeling of commitment to the organisation. Babalola (2012:207) attests that job insecurity is connected with job loss, strain and psychological distress, with a deterioration in organisational commitment. Buitendach and Laba (2005:33) state that a feeling of job insecurity threatens the basics of attachment, such as commitment, satisfaction and trust. According to Caballer, Sora and Maria (2010:62), workers with perceptions that their jobs are insecure are likely to display work withdrawal behaviour and low organisational commitment. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, as cited in Peene (2009:4), also discovered that the higher the level of job insecurity, the less the employees are committed to the organisation and they will have intentions to leave the organisation. Peene (2009:5) concurs that the relationship between job insecurity and workers' commitment has been studied and has generally indicated a moderate negative effect between the two variables.

Moshoeu's (2011:91) findings revealed that an analysis of the theoretical model of job insecurity illustrates that there is a mutually dependent connection between job insecurity and organisational commitment. However, Peene (2009:3) argues that the relationship between organisational commitment and job insecurity relies on numerous factors, including labour market characteristics, individual characteristics and employability. In addition, Furaker and Berglund (2014:168) state that the psychological contract and nature of the employment contract also influence organisational commitment. The psychological contract implies that employers and employees have mutual expectations of each other. When workers sense that their jobs are insecure, they hold back their loyalty. De Cuyper, Notelaers and De Witte (2009:200) found that amongst permanent workers, job insecurity was negatively correlated with organisational commitment.   Individuals holding permanent,

temporary and fixed term contracts react differently to job insecurity. Therefore, the relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment and factors affecting it are investigated in this study.

1.10   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

According to Walliman (2011:172), research methodology provides a very brief description of a range of commonly used research methods so that the researcher has a basic idea of the options available when planning the research. This section addresses how the study was carried out and how the data was collected and analysed. It focuses on the research design, ethical considerations, data collection and questionnaire design and data analysis.

1.10.1 SECONDARY DATA

Rabianski (2003:43) defines secondary data as data that has already been collected and recorded by someone else and is readily available from other sources. Walliman (2011:178) states that there are various sorts of secondary data, the most used being documentary libraries in the form of written and non-written materials and research data in the form of statistical information. The researcher used the secondary data which includes text books, journals, reports and articles on the internet.

1.10.2 PRIMARY DATA

According to Driscoll (2011:153), primary data is data that is collected by the researcher, usually by survey research. In this study, a closed-ended structured

questionnaire (Annexure B) was utilised as a data collection tool to gather primary data from the respondents.

1.10.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:53), research design is a procedure for gathering, investigating, interpreting and reporting data in research studies. Davies (2007:25) states that there are three options open for the researcher, namely a quantitative research method, a qualitative research method and mixed methods research. For this study, the quantitative research method was used. According to Muijs (2011:3), quantitative research clarifies phenomena by gathering numerical information that is examined utilising scientifically based techniques. Rasinger (2014:10) states that quantitative research is characterised by data that is in some way or other quantifiable.

1.10.4 TARGET POPULATION

According to Rasinger (2014:44), the target population is a group of people in which the researcher is generally interested. The target population of a study encompasses all the people to whom the survey results will be applied or generalised. In this study, the target population equated to 109 employees at Femina Garments. The list of the target population was obtained from the Human Resource Department at Femina Garments.

1.10.5 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sarantakos (2005:152) describes sampling as the procedure employed to extract samples to study from the target population. Sampling can either be probability or

non-probability. According to Nueman (2011:242), probability sampling includes a random procedure in which everybody in the population has an equivalent and independent chance of being incorporated into the sample. On the other hand, non-probability sampling is non-random as individuals are incorporated into a sample because they are available and keen to take part in the study (Gray, 2009:148). For the purpose of this study, the survey method was employed due to a relatively small target population of only 109 employees. Therefore, there was no need for sampling.

1.10.6 SURVEY METHOD

For the purpose of this study, a survey method was used. Fox and Bayat (2007:87) postulate that a survey is a study of an entire population as opposed to selection by using a sampling technique. This method includes covering the whole target population. Davies (2007:70) states that material produced by a survey will be an accurate reflection of the reality it describes. The target population at Femina Garments was too small to warrant the selection of a sample.

1.11   PILOT STUDY

Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:52) describe a pilot study as testing the actual questionnaire on a small sample taken from the community in which the research will be conducted. The pilot study was conducted by selecting ten random respondents who did not form part of the target respondents. They were randomly selected to test the questionnaire and changes were made to the research instrument before the execution thereof. The questions that were cited as ambiguous were rephrased. According to Lapan and Quartaroli (2009:87), a pilot study ensures that the required amendments can be made before the final questionnaire is administered to the target population in the study.

1.12 CONSTRUCTS OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Punch (2005:95) defines the reliability of measurement as the extent to which those instruments produce the same results for repeated tests. According to Wisker (2009:39), reliability in research must depend on the rigour of the methods of data collection. The concern is that they must be reliable and not distort the outcomes. Punch (2009:246) describes validity as the extent to which the research questionnaire measures what it claims to measure. Denscombe (2010:298) attests that validity concerns the correctness of the data in terms of the research question under investigated. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:80) conted that the measuring instrument to be used must be both reliable and valid.

1.13 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The researcher administered the questionnaire with a covering letter to the respondents, using the personal method of data collection. The respondents were given one week to fill in the questionnaire and thereafter the researcher collected them personally. There was no personal interaction with the respondents. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:257), the personal method of data collection ensures a high response rate compared to other methods.

1.14 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Bryman and Cramer (2009:24) state that the responses to the closed-ended structured quantitative questionnaire are captured to form a data set. Thereafter, the data was analysed using the latest version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows employing the most appropriate statistical tests.

1.15 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Bell (2010:45) states that research ethics are guidelines, code of practice and procedures including such issues as dishonesty in relation to investigations, infringement on privacy, safety and care needed when the study involves children or any sensitive issues. Nueman (2006:139) emphasises confidentiality, which is protecting the identity of those providing data, and that the data should not be identifiable with any particular respondent. Bell (2010:45) explains that anonymity is a guarantee that the researcher will not have the capacity to tell which reactions originate from which respondents. In the measuring instrument that was used to collect data, there was no need for respondents to provide their names or identity details.

1.16 STRUCTURE OF THE CHAPTERS

CHAPTER 1: Provides the introduction and overview of the study, problem statement, the research objectives, research questions and a brief exposition of the related literature.

CHAPTER 2: Literature review. This chapter highlights the literature review by reviewing various secondary sources to build a theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 3: Explains in detail the research methodology and design that was used.

CHAPTER 4: Discusses how the data will be analysed and the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5: Concludes with the findings of the study and makes recommendations based on the empirical analysis.

1.17   CONCLUSION

Chapter one has presented the background and overview of the study. As job insecurity is the main concern of employees in the clothing manufacturing sector of Zimbabwe, this study investigates the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments, a clothing manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. The next chapter presents the literature related to job insecurity, organisational commitment and job satisfaction, as well as previous studies that were conducted on the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The research problem addresses three main variables, namely job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The present chapter describes relevant literature by reviewing various secondary sources to build a sound theoretical framework.   Therefore, this chapter explains the antecedents of job insecurity, the components of job insecurity and the consequences of job insecurity.   The chapter also describes the concepts of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to Fink (2010:3), a literature review is the methodical and reproducible process for identifying, assessing and producing the existing body of finished and documented knowledge produced by researchers, scholars and practitioners.

2.2   JOB INSECURITY

According to Parumasur and Dachapalli (2012:31), job insecurity has two distinctive perspectives, which are a multi-dimensional concept and a global concept. Pienaar, De Witte, Hellgren and Sverke (2013:3) attest that the global view of job insecurity is generally a fear about the threat of job loss and job discontinuity. There are three important components for this approach, namely perceptions; a sense of instability about the future; and also the doubt about continuation of the job as such (Van Wyk and Piennar, 2008:56). On the other hand, Barling and Cooper (2008:187) state that a multifaceted approach to job insecurity is linked with concerns regarding the continuation of the content or specific aspects of the job and the individual`s capability to counteract those threats. A feeling of powerlessness lies at the centre

of the multifaceted approach. According to Martinez, Cuyper and De Witte (2010:195), job insecurity is the perceived hopelessness to sustain required stability in a threatened work situation. Yousoff, Mat and Zainol (2014:19) state that job insecurity is the employee's expectations concerning stability in a work situation. Chirumbolo (2015:555) explains that job insecurity is the perception and fear of having one's job at risk. Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012:32) attest that job insecurity is not only about the threat of job loss but it also involves the fear of losing the most valued features of the job such as salary, promotional opportunities, rank and access to resources. Reinardy (2012:56) agrees with Dachapalli and Parumasur's assertion that job insecurity is the awareness of possible failure of continuity in a work situation that includes both permanent loss of the job and loss of valued job facets. This view comprises multi-dimensional perspectives. The multi-dimensional approach definition of job insecurity is appropriate because it focuses on losing valuable job features, the total job itself and perceived powerlessness. Rogelberg (2007:418) posits that job insecurity can be classified as subjective or objective, cognitive or affective, and quantitative or qualitative job insecurity.

2.2.1 JOB INSECURITY CONSISTS OF SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE COMPONENTS

Vuoriob, Blonk and Price (2015:147) describe subjective job insecurity as the worker's perception of the risk of losing the work. According to Borman and Hegde (2012:316), subjective job insecurity is the awareness of a possible risk of losing the current job, and a sense of powerlessness to sustain required continuity in such a work situation. Barling and Cooper (2008:185) concur that subjective job insecurity explicitly relies on individual perceptions of job security which can be influenced by economic, social, organisational and individual characteristics. Smith (2013:44) adds that subjective job insecurity take worker`s experiences and perceptions of potential job-loss threat into consideration.

Martinez, Cuyper and De Witte (2010:195) view objective job insecurity as the events that threaten the work situation. Smith (2013:43) states that objective job insecurity is the possibility of retaining one's job when faced with the threat of involuntary loss. Cooper and Antoniou (2013:143) postulate that objective job insecurity is influenced by the amount of employment in a society, degree of economic recession in a given sector, amount of downsizing and number of layoffs, length of time in the employment relationship, as well as length of time taken to find another job. Furthermore, Smith (2013:43) states that objective job insecurity can be retrenchments, economic conditions in the country, an outsourcing in the organisation or a transformation in the organisational structure. According to Rogelberg (2007:418), objective job insecurity can be measured by determining the growth rate of an industry in a country, since jobs in a growth industry are secure, whereas those in an industry with negative growth are insecure. Barling and Cooper (2008:186) affirm that management, through strategic planning and company economic forecasts, can objectively identify positions within the company that are more or less likely to be outsourced, eliminated, retained and expanded.

2.2.2 JOB INSECURITY HAS AFFECTIVE AND COGNITIVE COMPONENTS

Staufenbiel and Konig (2011:2) postulate that affective job insecurity deals with the emotional aspects of the job insecurity experience. Huang, Lee, Ashford, Chea and Ren (2010:24) agree that affective job insecurity is about the emotional aspects of the job insecurity experience, such as being concerned, troubled or nervous about losing the job or particular job facets. On the other hand, Vulkan, Saloniemi, Svalund and Vaisanen (2015:35) state that cognitive job insecurity is the possibility of job loss. In support, Staufenbiel and Konig (2011:2) explain that cognitive job insecurity captures the cognitive aspects of job insecurity, for instance the perception of the likelihood of losing a job or losing attractive features of the job.

2.2.3 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE COMPONENTS OF JOB INSECURITY

Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015:31) contend that quantitative job insecurity is the perceived fear of losing the job itself. Quantitative job insecurity is when individuals are not sure about whether they will be capable of keeping their jobs or they become unemployed. Hellgren, Sverke and Naswall (2006:8) concur that quantitative job insecurity is being concerned about losing the job itself. According to Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015:31), quantitative job insecurity is akin to the global perspective which entails worrying about losing the job as a whole. Furthermore, Kaniasty, Moore, Howard and Bachwald (2014:162) view qualitative job insecurity as the perceived threat of weakened quality in an employment relationship. De Witte, De Cuyper, Handaja, Sverke, Naswall and Hellgren (2010:44) postulate that qualitative job insecurity refers to the security concerning the continued availability of treasured job features such as salary, working conditions and the job content. In support, De Witte, De Cuyper, Elst, Vanbelle and Niesen (2012:12) concur with the view that qualitative job insecurity relates to the possible depreciation of quality in the employment relationship caused mainly by declining working conditions; lack of job and promotional opportunities; and decreasing pay, amongst other valuable job aspects. Qualitative job insecurity echoes the multi-dimensional perspective that pertains to losing important job features.

2.3 DIMENSIONS OF JOB INSECURITY

The dimensions of job insecurity are based on the theoretical model of job insecurity designed by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt in1984 and further enhanced by Ashford, Lee and Borko in 1989. The model highlights that the sense of job insecurity resides in the severity of the threat and powerlessness to counteract the threat (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 2010:9).

2.3.1 SEVERITY OF THE THREAT TO THE JOB

According to Ritcher (2011:8), the severity of the threat is the extent of perceived threat to stability in a job situation. The risk might affect various job features or the total job. Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012:255) state that the significance of job facets determines the salience of job facets such as salary, promotional opportunities, job opportunities and position in the organisation. According to Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (2010:9), the loss of valued features is regarded as a kind of job insecurity in as much as it involves losing the job as the affected worker knows it. However, the severity of the threat is less since the person remains a member of the organisation.

Rodelberg (2007:419) states that the severity of the threat can be influenced by the occurrence of a variety of negative events that affect an individual`s total job in a negative way, for instance being dismissed or retrenched for a short while. According to Moshoeu (2011:36), the significance of the whole job determines how salient the job is to a person. A perceived threat to total job loss is an approximated probability of the job itself being at risk or the perception of losing the job. When the perception of losing the job and losing valued job features are summed, they yield a weighted rate of the severity of the threat.

2.3.2 PERCEIVED POWERLESSNESS OF JOB INSECURITY

Perceived powerlessness is important in the study of job insecurity since it exacerbates the experienced threats (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 2010:10). Kang, Gold and Kim (2012:317) postulate that perceived job insecurity makes it difficult to respond sufficiently because of ambiguity. Consequently, employees are left with the feeling of an unmanageable situation and powerlessness. According to Karkoulina, Mukaddan, McCarthy and Messara (2013:58), powerlessness exists in four forms, namely:

- Lack of protection (trade unions, bargaining councils and employment contracts are forms of protection. However, when employees do not have this protection they feel insecure);

- Unclear expectations (poor performance appraisals and ambiguous objectives and goals result in a lack of corrective action to avoid the threat from employees);

- Culture of the organisation (powerlessness thrives in authoritarian cultures); and

- The beliefs employees have about the organisation's standard operating process for dismissing workers. In the case of dismissing workers, the lack of policies such as progressive discipline and an automatic review of decisions to dismiss make an employee feel very insecure. In the case of workforce reduction, organisations resorts to retrenchment as a standard operating procedure without considering alternatives such as attrition, early retirement and job sharing (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984:443).

Karkoulina, *et al.* (2013:60) state that powerlessness predicts job insecurity in a workplace and it also aggravates job insecurity. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (2010:10) state that if an employee encounters the threat of losing the job but has the power to resist such a threat, a feeling of job insecurity will not result. However, when an employee perceives his/her job to be at risk and is unable to resist the threat, the employee will experience powerlessness, which leaves them feeling susceptible to a threatening situation.

Martinez, Cuyper and De Witte (2010:195) state that job insecurity is a perceptual phenomenon in that it relies mostly on the perception an employee has about the threatening situations or events. Employees are different and for that reason they experience different degrees of job insecurity, depending on how each individual evaluates his/her future job situation. All these situations have a different meaning to workers. Some individuals might experience job insecurity in an extremely stable situation and others may not experience job insecurity in a very unsafe situation. The following section explains the antecedents of job insecurity.

2.4   ANTECEDENTS OF JOB INSECURITY

According to Van Wyk and Piennar (2008:56), antecedents of job insecurity is a collective phrase for variables that either project or cause the perception of job insecurity in individuals. Antecedents are individuals and background characteristics predicting job insecurity. In addition, Blackmore (2011:6) states that job insecurity occurs from an interface between situational characteristics and characteristics of individuals that impact the interpretation employees make of environmental variables. Mauno and Kinnunen (2010:296) categorise antecedents of job insecurity into three levels, namely variables on the macro level such as the county or the organisation (level of unemployment in a country and organisational changes); personal background characteristics which decide the worker`s position in the organisation (positional factors such as tenure, educational background, age and occupational level); and personality traits.

2.4.1 ORGANISATIONAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS

According to Vuori, Blonk and Price (2010:111), the perception of job insecurity is correlated with the degree of unemployment in a country. Within the country differences are due to industrial and organisational variables and whether it is a private or a public organisation. Abdullah and Ramay (2012:91) state that jobs in government and its parastatals are considered more secure than the private sector because of the legal and cultural constraints which work in favour of employees. It is easier for employees to be retrenched in private enterprises than in state-owned organisations.   Jack and Brotheridge (2007:44) attest that organisational change and downsizing contributes to the feeling of job insecurity. Job insecurity feelings develop from frequent re-organisation and public statements concerning the need to adjust to change. It is an indication that the job security of an individual might be at threat. Terell (2015:15) claims that during organisational change, workers consider the possibility of being out of a job or being unable to learn new processes and systems. In support of the above, Babalola (2011:206) concurs that employees are

very affected by organisational change through job loss, loss of valued job features and seeing others losing their jobs.

According to Autor and Dorn (2013:1), feelings of job insecurity are more prolific during organisational change because employees are concerned with their permanent employment contracts being replaced with temporary contracts. Technological changes have led to the automation of operations, which has resulted in the deskilling of jobs and redundancy of employees in many sectors and industries. The experience of job insecurity is often preceded by organisational change processes such as restructuring, business process re-engineering, mergers and acquisitions, as well as outsourcing. Moorhead and Griffin (2010:515) posit that employees fear organisational change because it makes their jobs obsolete or reduces their opportunities for future pay increases. In other words, organisational change poses a risk of job loss and loss of valued job features.

Variables in the macro environment also cause a feeling of job insecurity amongst employees. Jones and Hill (2009:73) highlight that the macro environment includes macroeconomic, global, technological, demographic and social, as well as political and legal environments. The macroeconomic climate has a great influence on organisations operating in a certain environment. For instance, in the Zimbabwean context, the country has experienced significant economic and socio-political changes over the past ten years which has seen many companies closing and reducing the workforce as measures to survive (Bird and Prouse, 2008:12). Unemployment is estimated at around 94% (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2008:30). This induces a feeling of insecurity amongst employees in different organisations.

According to Bendix (2010:387), cyclical downturns, market losses and economic factors compel organisations to reduce the workforce. Furthermore, the introduction of technology causes employee redundancy. However, Overell (2013:3) is of the view that the general economic climate does not affect job insecurity feelings but the direct experience of the workplace brought about by the economic climate. Labour

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legislation within the country can also be an antecedent of job insecurity. Labour legislation must protect employees from unnecessary job losses. When the legislation is not protective, the feeling of insecurity concerning jobs can emerge amongst employees (Nguwi, 2015:1).

2.4.2 INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS THAT INFLUENCE JOB INSECURITY

According to Sverke, Hellgren, Naswall, Chirumbolo, De Witte and Goslinga (2005:70), it is important to differentiate antecedents of job insecurity that relate to the environment and individuals. The individual characteristics that influence job insecurity include age, gender, tenure, educational background and the position an individual holds in the organisation.

2.4.2.1 THE EFFECTS OF AGE ON JOB INSECURITY

According to Vosko, McDonald and Campbell (2009:229), older workers experience higher levels of job insecurity than younger workers because of the challenges they face in finding new jobs somewhere else should they be layed off or lose their jobs. Villosio, Di Piero, Giordanengo, Pasqua and Richard (2008:22) indicate that older workers value different job features than young workers. When valued job features are threatened, older workers feel more insecure compared to younger workers. In support, Parusumar and Dapachalli (2012:33) state that there is a direct relationship between age and threats to job facets, signifying that older workers experience more threat to job facets than younger workers. Pedraza and Bustillo (2007:15) state that older workers experience more job insecurity because of their family responsibilities. Young workers between the age of 16 and 24 years are not afraid of job loss because they do not have any family responsibilities as compared to those who are older than 45 years (Pedraza and Bustillo, 2007:15).

2.4.2.2   GENDER AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB INSECURITY

Okurame (2014:143) states that anticipated job insecurity is of threat to men because of their traditional role that requires men to support their families with their earned income. This traditional role is associated with higher levels of job insecurity in men than women. According to Rosenblatt, Talmud and Ruvio, as cited by Parusumar and Dachapalli (2012:34), there is a significant distinction between gender and perceived threats to job features. Men tend to be more insecure in comparison to women because they put much emphasis on family responsibilities and financial concerns. On the other hand, women are concerned about job features such as job content and job schedules (Parusumar and Dachapalli, 2012:34). In support, a study by De Witte (1999:156) at a Belgian plant that is part of a European company in the metal working industry revealed that women report higher job insecurity than man because it is not as easy for women to find new employment as it is for men. Furthermore, Hellgren, Sverke and Naswall (2006:9) express that men are more prone to job insecurity since it debilitates their personality to a higher degree than women. However, a woman who is the provider for the family could be comparably be relied upon to experience more employment uncertainty than a man who do not have this duty to the same degree.

2.4.2.3   EDUCATIONAL   BACKGROUND   IN   RELATION   TO   JOB INSECURITY

Bustillo and Pedraza (2007:9) state that education enhances the resources of workers for facing challenges in their organisations and labour market. In line with the above, Marcos (2009:79) states that employees with higher educational qualifications have higher readiness and control over their future employment. Therefore, educated employees experience lower job insecurity as compared to those that are not educated. Lower education, skill levels and work experience contribute to employees having fewer employment opportunities in the labour market, thereby increasing their dependent on their current jobs and making the

threat of losing the job harsher (Marcos, 2009:79). Moreover, Buitendach, Oosthuyzen, Van Wyk and C De (2005:72) concur that employees with lower educational backgrounds are more vulnerable to job loss threats due to a shortage of the skills and abilities necessary to allow them to have more options in the labour market. Furthermore, Tlakdharee, Ramidial and Parumasur (2010:256) state that low skilled workers in the industry and employees with fixed-term employment contracts generally experience job insecurity because they are the most likely to be layed off should the organisation consider reducing costs.

2.4.2.4   TENURE AND THE FEELING OF JOB INSECURITY

According to Vosko, McDonald and Campbell (2009:227), tenure is the length of time a worker has worked for the same organisation. Senior employees with a long tenure with the organisation are more vulnerable to job loss as they are potential targets for early retirement and redundancies during organisational restructuring exercises. In contrast, Barfield, Heiduk and Welfens (2003:344) states that employees who have more years with the organisation encounter lower levels of employment uncertainty than those with a few years particularly when the rule of last in first out is applied during layoffs. A study on the impact of job insecurity on burnout of employees in the training and development environment by Tlakdharee, Ramidial and Parumasur (2010:266) revealed that employees with higher tenure reported the lowest level of job insecurity. The first workers to be considered for retrenchment are those with shorter tenure, including workers hired on fixed term contract.

2.4.2.5   THE POSITION OF AN EMPLOYEE IN THE COMPANY AND THE FEELING OF JOB INSECURITY

Ye, Cardon and Rivera (2012:297) posit that managerial workers may be different from non-managerial workers in terms of perceived job insecurity. Managerial

employees possess more social capital, skills and knowledge to counteract the potential threat of total job loss and loss of valued features. According to Greenhaus and Callanan (2006:433), managerial employees` social network is large and more diverse than non-managerial workers. In terms of social capital, managers have access to information and have many professional contacts which provide more options such as new employment opportunities for them and therefore better mobility to manage job insecurity. Employees with higher hierarchical positions in the organisational have more skills and knowledge than those with lower positions. This allows for a wider scope of future employment, as well as better financial security and professional mobility that provides employees in managerial positions with more resources to cope with job insecurity (Debus, Konig and Kleinmann, 2014:343).

Employees with higher positions in the organisation may respond more strongly to threats of job loss as they believe in meritocratic individualism. According to Morcos (2009:80), meritocratic individualism means that a person gets what he/she deserves. Therefore, any career hindrances lead to guilt, self-doubt and uncertainty which will lead to the decreased wellbeing of an employee. Hellgren, Sverke and Naswall (2006:10) state that the type of employment contract an employee holds can influence the perception of job insecurity. Furthermore, Tlakdharee, Ramidial and Parumasur (2010:260) explain that employees who are employed on a permanent basis might experience less job insecurity than contract workers because if the organisation is to reduce its workforce, employees that are not regarded core to the organisation will be the first one to leave. On the other hand, temporary workers are aware of the time limit to their contracts and they are less likely than permanent employees to experience job insecurity (Debus, Konig and Kleinmann, 2014:333).

2.4.3 THE IMPACT OF PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS ON JOB INSECURITY

According to Blackmore and Kuutz (2011:9), employability influences the perception of job insecurity amongst the workers in that it allows an individual to be practical and flexible in his/her career. Vuori, Blonk and Price (2010:120) contend that employability concerns the evaluation of the worker`s chance of finding another job. In addition, employees who believe that they have higher chances of finding other jobs should they get retrenched experience lower perceived job insecurity as compared to those who believe that they do not have control over their fate and future. De Vos, Beatrice and Heijden (2015:171) concur that more employable employees may perceive low levels of job insecurity compared to low employable ones. The magnitude of job insecurity reduces when the workers perceive many employment options rather than a few.

One of the personal characteristics that have been identified in literature as an antecedent of job insecurity is locus of control. Hellgren, Sverke and Naswall (2006:10) postulate that an individual with an internal locus of control has control over his/her life, therefore it reduces the perception of job insecurity. In addition, Ito and Brotheridge (2007:45) affirm that employees with an internal locus of control believe that environmental situations have less impact on them and they have the power to counter any risks the environment might create, thereby having less job insecurity. Individuals who have an internal locus of control are more capable of controlling and coping with job transitions such as job loss and job hunting than their external locus of control counterparts. In contrast, Astarlioglu, Kazazcu and Varnali (2011:429) state that people with high external loci of control are likely to account for higher levels of job insecurity. Moreover, Barling and Cooper (2008:181) attest that persons with an external locus of control report high levels of perceived job insecurity as well as more mental health complaints as a result of insecurity than their counterparts.

Winefield, Boyd, Saebel and Pignata (2008:87) suggest that negative affectivity is also an antecedent of job insecurity. Individuals with negative affectivity display a common trend in perceiving themselves and their environment from a negative perspective. Such an attitude spills over to their work life and as a result they experience job insecurity. The findings of Morcos (2009:92) revealed that employees expressing a high degree of negative affectivity reported more reactions to job insecurity that those with low negative affectivity.

2.5   CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INSECURITY

According to Ritcher (2011:23), job insecurity has consequences for both the individual and organisation. Van Wyk and Piennar (2008:59) state that the consequences of employment instability are the results and effects of perceived job insecurity on employees and employing organisations. Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012:33) iterate that several studies suggest that job insecurity is linked to diverse outcomes, which can be generally grouped as attitudinal, health related and behavioural. Van Wyk and Piennar (2008:64) categorise the consequences of job insecurity into individual, organisational and social consequences as shown in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Categories of consequences of job insecurity

Categories of job insecurity consequences	Consequence
Individual consequences	➢ Life satisfaction ➢ Physical health / general health ➢ Burnout ➢ Career loyalty ➢ Psychological health
Organisation consequences	➢ Absenteeism ➢ Job involvement and withdrawal ➢ Job performance ➢ Job safety ➢ Resistance to change ➢ Organisational commitment ➢ Organisational trust ➢ Turnover intentions ➢ Job satisfaction
Social consequences	➢ Household stability ➢ Quality of family life ➢ Unemployment ➢ Union loyalty ➢ Withdrawal from union membership

Source: Van Wyk, M. and Piennar, J. (2008:64). Adapted.

As depicted in Table 2.1 above, the consequences of job insecurity are grouped into individual, organisation and social categories and are briefly explained below.

2.5.1 INDIVIDUAL CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INSECURITY

According to Blackmore and Kuutz (2011:12), job insecurity is a job-related stressor that has negative consequences on the individual experiencing it. Job insecurity has

consequences on the physical and psychological health of an individual and it causes burnout.

2.5.1.1   JOB INSECURITY AND PHYSICAL HEALTH

According to Karadecka (2010:71), higher levels of job insecurity result in poor physical health of workers. In the view of Burgard, Brand and House (2009:778), a person who is concerned about being unemployed might experience stress. The stress is experienced due to the expected problems associated with becoming unemployed, mental strain related with being powerless and uncertainty about the future. Employees' responses to the stress caused by job insecurity can be behavioural, affective and physiological. The accumulation of these can result in permanent and apparent unpleasant consequences on mental and physical health in the long term (Laszlo, Pikhart and Kopp, 2010:868).

Fink (2010:605) states that job insecurity has been linked with an increase in short illness and medically certificated spells of sickness absence from all causes; musculo-skeletal disorders; and trauma in New Zealand. Vuori, Blonk and Price (2015:109) highlight that job insecurity is linked to wellbeing problems ranging from increased receptiveness to diseases such as colds and flu and the calcification of arteries. Moreover, Ferie, as cited by Karadecka (2010:71), attests that job insecurity is related to higher systolic and diastolic blood pressure, ischaemic heart disease and high body mass index. Furthermore, job insecurity increases the use of health services such as consultations to doctors and medical aid. However, Burgard, Brand and House (2009:778) argue that the pre-existing health problems of an employee are not a result of job insecurity. Furthermore, when workers are given similar objective employment conditions, the perception and outcomes of perceived job insecurity might differ across employees based on how they evaluate their context and situation (Fink, 2010:605). In other words, job insecurity is subjective and for that reason employees respond in different ways even though they are exposed to the same situations (Masia and Piennar, 2011:2).

Figure 2.1: **Job insecurity: the health effects of a psychosocial work stressor**
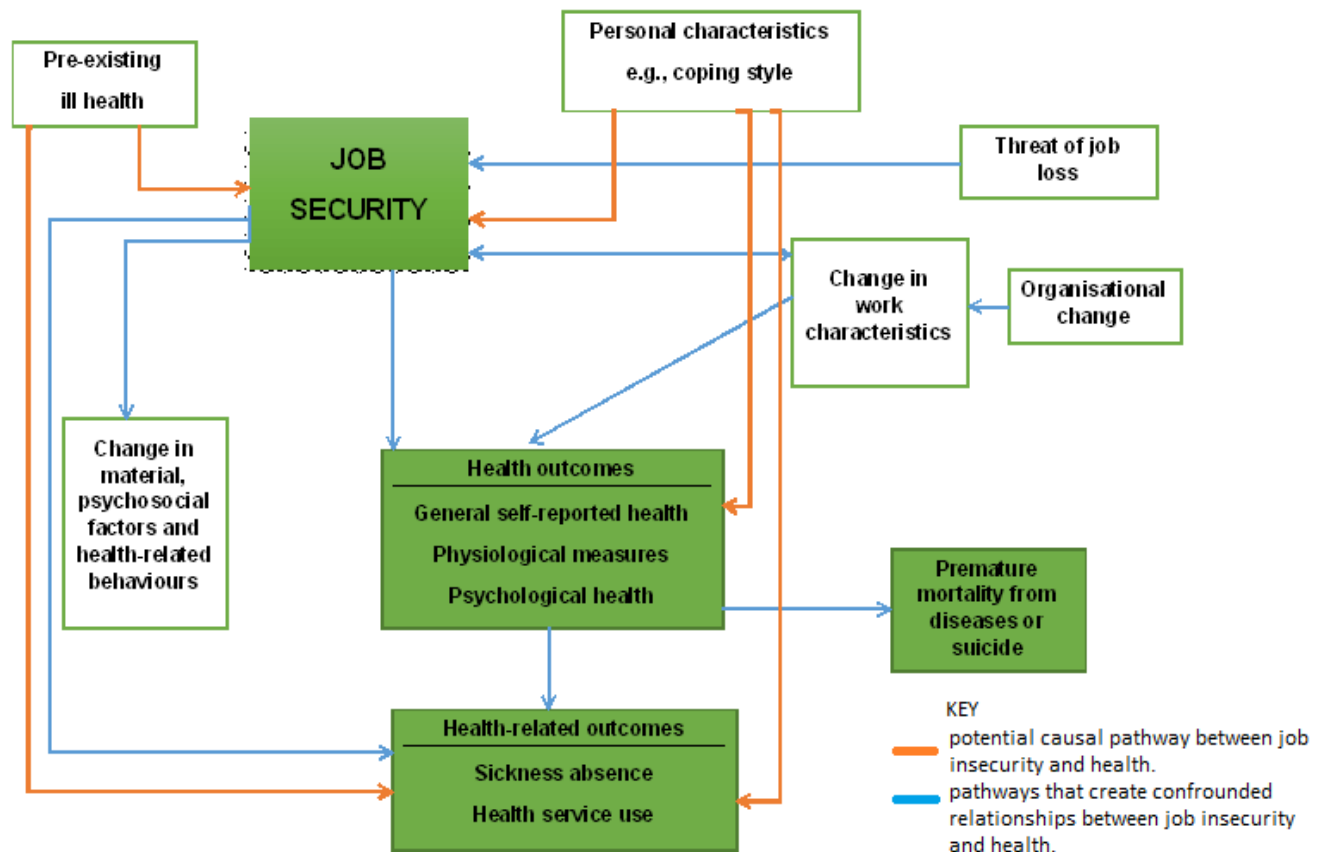
Source: Fink, G. (2010:605). Adapted.

As illustrated in Figure 2.1 below, the threat of job loss, change in work characteristics and organisational change cause job insecurity. Depending on personal characteristic, coping with such a threat has direct effects on the health of an individual and this leads to sickness absence, premature mortality from diseases or suicide and increases in health service use.

2.5.1.2   PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH AS A CONSEQUENCE OF JOB INSECURITY

According to Martinez, Cuyper and De Witte (2010:195), job insecurity is one of the predominant work stressors. Nothing is worse than uncertainty and the fear of being jobless can be worse than the reality of being laid off. Tilakdharee, Ramidial and Parumasur (2010:256) state that job insecurity is the phase between being employed and unemployment, when employees are not aware of their fate. Job insecurity is considered to be an introduction to termination and unemployment. Job insecurity is an insecure phase in which termination is more or less predictable and it is the most stressful part of the whole employment process. In support, Yussof, Mat, Zainol (2014:22) postulate that a feeling of uncertainty in relation to the employee`s future employment has severe consequences for an individual because economic and other highly appreciated aspects of life will be at risk.

Jobs provide income, social connections, structured life and opportunities for individual growth. Emberland and Rundmo (2010:454) affirm that the possible loss of such psychologically important elements entail reduced personal well-being and that knowledge of how to deal with a threat to something valued leads to stress experiences. Job insecurity is distressing because of long-lasting uncertainty. Yaslioglu, Karagulle and Baran (2013:333) state that a lack of clarity about the future and having frequent uncontrollable problems can have more severe consequences on the psychological well-being of an individual. Chirumbolo (2015:555) points out that higher feelings of job insecurity predict higher levels of physiological strain and poor mental health. Moreover, Burgard, Brand and House (2009:778) state that job insecurity is linked with psychological distress such as anxiety, depression and alcohol abuse, as well as psychomatic complaints such as fatigue and insomnia.

2.5.1.3 JOB INSECURITY CAUSES BURNOUT

Numerous studies have found that job insecurity and burnout are positively related (Tilakdharee, Ramidial and Parumasur, 2010:267; Ismail, 2015:318; Bosmas, Rothman, Buitendach, 2005:49; and Piccoli and Bellotto 2015:1080). Kadlec and Shopshire (2012:8) concur that burnout is alleged to potentially develop after long-lasting exposure to job insecurity. According to Tlakdharee, Ramidial and Parumasur (2010:155), burnout is a multi-dimensional and persistent stress response owing to numerous stressful attempts to manage a variety of stressful conditions. Aybas, Elmas and Dundar (2015:195) highlight that job insecurity is the major cause of burnout amongst workers. Furthermore, when organisations make big changes such as downsizing, restructuring, mergers and acquisitions, workers have to cope with the loss of their colleagues and flexible employment contracts. Under such circumstances, the way is paved for employees to develop a burnout syndrome. Kadlec and Shopshire (2012:8) affirm that burnout is the affective reaction to stress and it has two dimensions, namely exhaustion and disengagement. Ismail (2015:311) explains that the exhaustion component of burnout is the physical feeling of being exhausted and overextended at work. The disengagement aspect of burnout is when employees distance themselves from their jobs and developing negative and cynical attitudes towards their jobs.

2.5.2 THE CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INSECURITY ON THE ORGANISATION

According to Burgard, Brand and House (2009:780), the feeling of job insecurity does not have an impact on individuals only but it affects the organisation as well. The consequences of job insecurity on the organisation include job satisfaction, turnover, job safety, resistance to change, job involvement, job performance, employee absenteeism and organisational commitment.

2.5.2.1   JOB INSECURITY AND JOB SATIFACTION

The impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction is confirmed in the studies of Ashford, Lee and Borko (1984:819); Riesel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Konig (2010:86); De Witte (2005:4); Fatima, Noraishah, Nasir and Khairuddin (2012:51); as well as Riesel and Mahmoud (2014:56) which conclude that job insecurity is linked to reduced job satisfaction amongst employees. According to Arts and Kaya (2014:2875), one of the most significant and influential job characteristic that determines job satisfaction is job security because workers who consider their jobs to be secure are statistically significantly more inclined to report higher job satisfaction than those that consider their jobs to be insecure.

Labuschange, Bosman and Buitendach (2005:27) state that job satisfaction is a multi-faceted attitude and it is affected by situational factors of the work environment, as well as dispositional characteristics of the environment. In light of the above, Fatima, *et al.* (2012:51) attest that if employees perceive that their jobs are insecure, they confront the danger of losing positive advantages socially and mentally that accompany the employment. Furthermore, job insecurity negatively affects job satisfaction because of the uncertainty in predicting and controlling the availability of the job and economic strain on the employees. In addition, Riesel, *et al.* (2010:77) state that the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction is logical since jobs present many sources of satisfaction such as financial stability, social relations and self-efficacy hence, losing them can cause dissatisfaction.

2.5.2.2   JOB INSECURITY AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Schermehorn, Hunt, Obsorn and Uhl-Bein (2011:357) state that people have many reasons to resist change and one of them is job insecurity. Organisational change has at least two types of uncertainty that are likely to arise, namely job insecurity and anticipated organisational change. Amos, Ristow, Ristow and Pearse (2008:274)

explain that imagined fears of the unknown, job insecurity, financial loss and reduced job status are all possible sources of resistance to change in people. Robbins, Judge, Odental and Roodt (2009:486) concur that individuals who require security the most oppose change as it threatens their safety. In addition, layoffs are a possibility with change, thereby generating feelings of possible job loss and job insecurity, and those who remain also feel insecure trying to do the work of two or more people (Robbins, *et al.*, 2009:486). According to Saiyadain (2009:214), a change that threatens job security of the employees is resisted very strongly. In support, Pathak (2011:105) concurs that a change that can eliminate jobs is a threat for employees, therefore it faces strong resistance.

2.5.2.3   JOB INSECURITY AND JOB SAFETY

According to Fink (2010:607), job insecurity increases job-related injuries and accidents due to its negative impact on worker safety motivation and safety compliance. Probst, Barbanelli and Petitta (2013:384) state that job insecurity has negative effects on workers` safety behaviour, attitudes and outcomes. In support, King (2013:1) concurs that workers who feel vulnerable pay less attention to safety, feel pressured to cut safety corners and may be reluctant to report safety violations because they fear job loss. According to a study by Brubaker and Probst, as cited by Probst *et al.* (2013:384), employees with jobs that are insecure suffer more accidents and injuries compared to those with relatively more secure jobs. In addition, Kim and Park (2013:211) agree that accidents are influenced by job stress, job insecurity and job autonomy.

Allahyari, Rangi, Khosravi and Zayeri (2010:6) state that the cognitive failure approach highlights that job insecurity accounts for high rates of workplace accidents. Probst, Barbanelli and Petitta (2013:387) explain that workers who regard their jobs as insecure have less cognitive resources to dedicate to safety and therefore experience more injuries. Manchi, *et al.* (2013:237) define cognitive failure as a mistake in the performance of an action that the person is normally capable of

completing. According to Manchi, Godwa and Hanspal (2013:237), adverse internal state such as stress, mental fatigue and distraction are some of the unsafe acts that cause cognitive failures. This implies that job insecurity is a dominant work stressor that can lead to cognitive failures. Emberland and Rundmo (2010:454) attest that job insecure workers engage in risk prone behaviour when the working conditions are considered to be dissatisfying.

Figure 2.2:   The effects of job insecurity on employee safety

Source: Probst, M.T. and Brubaker, T.L. (2001:141). Adapted.

As illustrated in Figure 2.2 below, the perception of job insecurity causes job dissatisfaction. In addition, job dissatisfaction is expected to lower levels of safety knowledge and safety motivation which compromises safety compliance and results in workplace accidents and injuries.

2.5.2.4   JOB INSECURITY AND JOB INVOLVEMENT

Peiro, Sora and Caballer (2012:446) state that job involvement reflects the extent to which individuals are identified mentally with their work, as well as the significance of their work in self-image. According to Kieselbach and Triomple (2010:37), when workers are insecure, they frequently involve themselves in job withdrawal behaviour such as tardiness and absenteeism. Workers who perceive their jobs to be insecure have lower work involvement (Peiro, Sora and Caballer, 2012:450). Stander and

Rothmann (2010:1) explain that job insecurity is a job-related stressor and reactions to job insecurity are considered as distancing strategies that let workers disassociate themselves from their work stressor, which is their job tasks and activities.

2.5.2.5   JOB INSECURITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

According to Vuori, Blonk and Price (2015:109), the impact of job insecurity on employee performance is very complex.   Wang, Lu and Siu (2014:3) state that when workers are faced with job insecurity, they are motivated to work hard to capitalize on their chances of retaining their employment or at least reducing the risk of job loss. In contrast, Staufenbiel and Konig (2010:107) postulate that in an insecure job situation, workers might be worried about working hard as it may be fruitless since they do not see any future with their current employer. In support, Huang, Niu, Lee and Ashford (2012:756) concur that when workers experience job insecurity, they expend their resources towards being concerned about their work situation rather than towards doing extremely well in their work activities. Consequently, their work performance suffers. Workers require security assurance in relation to their jobs, otherwise they will not put effort into achieving the objectives of the organisation (Nehmeh, 2009:10).

Furthermore, a study by Staufenbiel and Konig (2010:108) at a German electronics wholesaler revealed that job insecurity led to poor job attitudes, which in turn had a negative result on performance. They also found that job insecurity led employees to increase their performance to avoid being laid off. However, the findings of Abramis, as cited by Salmon and Heey (2002:182), with United States workers, suggests that the relationship between job insecurity and performance is linear and negative: the lower the job insecurity the better the performance of workers.

2.5.2.6   JOB INSECURITY AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Mullins (2010:283) states that the mounting pressure for organisations to transform has encouraged an increase in the lack of expectations with the traditional psychological contract being based on employment of indefinite duration and stable promotion in the organisation. Cullinane and Dundon (2006:5) define the psychological contract as a person`s belief in the mutual obligation between an employee and the employer. The significant feature of the relationship between the organisation and the individual is a psychological contract which entails a procedure of giving and receiving by the employee and the employing organisation (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006:6). Mullins (2010:282) states that one of the individual's expectations of the organisation is to make every reasonable effort to provide job security. According to Ye, Cardon and Rivera (2012:296), mutuality is a crucial aspect of the psychological contract. When mutuality is not present, it can result in the perceptions of unfulfilled obligations, contract breach and infringement that produce negative attitudinal outcomes such as low organisational commitment on the part of the employees.

Babalola (2012:207) highlights that job insecurity cause's a deterioration of organisational commitment amongst employees. According to Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015:38), when employees feel that their jobs are insecure, the economic and political alternative for an individual employee is to leave the organisation and look for a better job elsewhere in the labour market. In addition, Lee and Peccei (2007:662) postulate that the reciprocity concept applies in terms of job insecurity and employee commitment. According to this concept, workers that regard their organisation as valuing them and caring for their wellbeing are more likely to experience a sense of responsibility towards the organisation. Therefore, they reciprocate with loyalty and commitment. On the other hand, when workers experience the stress and ill-health associated with job insecurity, they might reciprocate with intentions to quit, absenteeism and reduced commitment towards the organisation (Lee and Peccei, 2007:663).

Buitendach and Laba (2005:33) are of the view that employees build attitudinal and affective attachment to their organisations over a period of time, which proves trust, commitment and satisfaction. A feeling of job insecurity is a threat to such commitment, trust and satisfaction. In today`s dynamic world with high job insecurity, employees are in constant fear for their jobs, resulting in them losing their motivation and commitment towards their employing organisations. In contrast, Moshoue and Geldenhuys (2015:38) state that loyalty is the product of factors that bond workers with the organisation and it makes employee exit expensive. This means that a worker can attempt to avert losing valuable job aspects and the job itself by simply indicating their willingness and devotion to the organisation.

2.5.2.7   TURNOVER INTENTIONS AND ABSENTEEISM

According to Bernston, Naswall and Sverke (2010:9), job insecurity is related with a high turnover rate and decreased loyalty towards the organisation. Emberland and Rundmo (2010:453) contend that turnover is a result of an intention to withdraw. In addition, workers` loyalty and intentions to remain employed by the organisation deteriorate when the organisation fails to provide steady and secure employment. Keller, Samuel, and Semmer (2014:129) state that when workers fears that they might lose their jobs, the alternative choice an employee can take to minimise the risk is to look for and accept a new job with high a level of job security. Blau (2007:137) posits that job insecurity is a stressor. Therefore, it has a negative impact on organisational commitment, which can cause workers to desert the organisation.

2.5.3 SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INSECURITY

Job insecurity is a dominant stressor and its impact extends to the people around the job holder. Social consequences that result from job insecurity are union loyalty and activism, as well as the impaired quality of family life.

2.5.3.1   UNION LOYALTY AND ACTIVISM

De Cuyper, De Witte and Sverke (2014:579) state that job insecurity elicits and strengthens union membership. According to Chung and Oorschot (2010:15), job insecurity encourages workers to join trade unions because unions are there to support and provide a voice for employees. When employees feel that their jobs are insecure, they seek social protection.   Social protection implies avoiding and managing situations that may negatively affect workers. Therefore, social security is central to worker's decisions to unionise and to stay unionised (De Cuyper, De Witte and Sverke, 2014:579).   Furthermore, De Witte, Sverke, Ruysseveldt, Goslinga, Chirumbolo, Hellgren and Naswall (2007:3) state that people join trade unions because of instrumental motives which are financial, juridical and protection in difficult times. The need for protection is central to the instrumental motivation and it includes the protection against possible dismissals and against job insecurity. Workers regard the union as a way to voice their job insecurity concerns. Therefore, they see the union as a means to voice their opinion and strengthen their position.

2.5.3.2   JOB INSECURITY AND QUALITY OF FAMILY LIFE

Gallie (2013:7) postulates that job insecurity has a negative impact on the quality of family life. Voydanoff (2013:53) concurs that job insecurity is a strain-based demand that has negative consequences for family quality and individual well-being because it threatens the economic well-being needed to participate adequately in family life. According to Moore, Sixsmith and Knowles (2007:68), the threat of actual job loss creates difficulties for both workers and their spouses. Wives are affected by their husbands' levels of job insecurity because women spend much time and energy in supporting their husbands' work. On the other hand, men rely on their wives for emotional support and this burden of care is detrimental for the wellbeing of the family (Moore, Sixsmith and Knowles, 2007:68).   In support, Ritcher (2011:27) concurs that a husband`s insecurity concerning the future of his job spills over to the spouse and ultimately has a negative effect on her wellbeing. Voydanoff (2013:54)

highlights that job insecurity is a job-related stressor that has psychological spill over effects on family life, increasing the extent to which work interferes with family life.

2.6   IMPACT OF JOB SATISFACTION

According to Ekermans, Moerdyk, Schoombe, Swanepoel and Aardt (2006:187), the term job satisfaction can be defined in numerous ways. Mullins (2007:277) agrees with Ekermans, *et al.*'s assertion that job satisfaction is a multifaceted concept which has different meaning to people.   Dennis and Dugguh (2014:11) regard job satisfaction as a collection of positive and negative dispositions that are obtained and cultured all the way through experience, positive or negative attitudes based upon an individual's genetic inheritance.   Job satisfaction is a result of an employee`s creation of his or her place of work reality, experiences, support of co-workers and supervisor's appraisal (Dennis and Dugguh, 2014:11).

Robbins, Odendaal, Judge and Roodt (2009:72) note that job satisfaction is an employee`s common attitude to his/her job. Quick and Nelson (2013:113) define job satisfaction as an enjoyable or positive affective state resulting from the evaluation of a job or job experience.   Funmilola, Sola and Olusola (2013:510) view job satisfaction as the degree to which the job environment fulfils the worker`s needs. Job satisfaction is about the attitudes and feelings employees have concerning their jobs. Positive and desirable attitudes lead to satisfaction. Negative and undesirable attitudes show job dissatisfaction (Armstrong and Taylor, 2014:177).   Gunlu, Aksarayli and Percin (2009:695) explain that employee satisfaction is the sense or a general feeling of the workforce about their work and the job elements, such as the job environment, working conditions, fair rewards and communication with co-workers. In the same vein, Adhikari and Deb (2013:29) state that job satisfaction is an intangible variable and it is the end product of different attitudes that an individual holds towards different facets of the job.

2.6.1 PURPOSE OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is an important job attitude that has an essential influence on workers' performance, commitment towards the organisation, turnover and absenteeism.

2.6.1.1   JOB SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

Robbins, *et al.* (2009:77) highlight that management`s concern in job satisfaction tends to centre on its impact on the performance of employees. Nelson and Quick (2011:113) state that managers and non-managerial employees hold a common view that a pleased or satisfied individual is more productive at work. According to Aziri (2011:78), job satisfaction is an employee`s sense of accomplishment and excelling on the job. Job satisfaction means enthusiasm and contentment with the work and it is the key ingredient that leads to the attainment of other objectives that will result in a feeling of fulfilment.

Furthermore, the behaviour of workers depends on how satisfied they are with their jobs, which also affects the performance and activities of the organisation. Job satisfaction leads to positive behaviour towards work, whilst dissatisfaction in the job can lead to negative behaviour from workers (Aziri, 2011:78). In the same vein, Kreitner and Kinicki (2010:176) reference a team of researchers that attempted to solve the job satisfaction and job performance argument by conducting a meta-analysis of data from 312 samples in 54,417 people. The study found that job satisfaction and performance were quite related. This was an important discovery because it supported the belief that employee job satisfaction is a key job attitude. Management should consider employee job satisfaction when attempting to increase employees` work performance.

Job satisfaction is connected to organisational citizenship behaviour that is above and further than the call of the job (Quick and Nelson, 2011: 116). Satisfied workers make positive remarks about the organisation, desist from complaining when facing difficulties at work and they assist their co-workers. Going beyond the call of duty is crucial to organisations that make use of teams to get jobs done. Furthermore, workers depend on further assistance from other co-workers to accomplish their tasks (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2009:174). Luthans (2011:144) argues that the prevalence of research evidence indicates that there is no strong relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. Satisfied employees are not automatically the highest performers. There are many possible moderating factors, the most significant being rewards. If employees get rewards they feel even-handed and satisfied. As a result, this will lead to greater performance. Spector (1996:233) states that although employee performance and job satisfaction are related, there are two opposing explanations, as illustrated in Figure 2.3 below.

Figure 2.3: Two possible models illustrating how job performance relates to job satisfaction

Source: Spector, P.E. (1996:233). Adapted.

The first model in Figure 2.3 highlights that employee satisfaction leads to job performance. Individuals who are satisfied with their jobs work harder and perform better. In the second model (Figure 2.3), job performance leads to rewards and as a result, an employee will be satisfied with the job. High performers benefit from their performance through rewards and this enhances their satisfaction. Employees that perform well can receive more salary and credit which might increase job satisfaction (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2008:175). Furthermore, Robbins, *et al.* (2009:77) argue that shifting from the individual level to that of the organisation, there is new support for the original job satisfaction and employee performance relationship. When job satisfaction and performance data is collected for the entire organisation instead of at an individual level, organisations with more satisfied workers are more likely to be efficient than organisations with less satisfied workers (Robbins, *et al.*, 2009:78).

2.6.1.2   JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER

Job satisfaction has a considerable effect on employee turnover. Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012:275) acknowledge that the degree to which an organisation can retain its workers depends on the level of job satisfaction of its workforce. Kreitner and Kinicki (2010:176) state that turnover is a problem because it interrupts the continuity of the organisation and it is very costly in terms of separation costs (for example severance pay, costs associated with exit interview and placement fees) and replacement costs (for instance sourcing expenses, selection costs, orientation and training expenses). Job satisfaction has a modest negative relationship with turnover. Given the strength of this relationship, supervisors are advised to attempt to decrease employee turnover by increasing employee job satisfaction (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2010:176).

Quick and Nelson (2011:116) attest that when workers are not happy, they can consider the option to quit their jobs. The most common aspect that leads to discontent at work is a misfit between an employee's values and the organisation's values, which is referred to as person-organisation fit. Individuals who believe that

their values do not match with the organisation experience dissatisfaction and ultimately leave the organisation when they get job opportunities elsewhere. Robbins and Judge (2013:118) state that a significant moderator of job satisfaction and employee turnover relationship is the level of employee performance. Particularly, the level of satisfaction is not significant in forecasting the exit of higher performers. The organisation normally makes substantial efforts to retain top performers through praise, pay rises, recognition and more promotional opportunities. Just the opposite tends to happen for those who perform poorly. Yucel (2012:45) states that few attempts are made by the organisation to keep poor performers. Instead, there may even be slight pressure to encourage them to leave the organisation. Therefore, job satisfaction is essential in influencing low performers to stay more than better performers.

2.6.1.3   JOB SATISFACTION AND ABSENTEEISM

According to Quick and Nelson (2011:116), individuals who are dissatisfied with their jobs will be not present at work more frequently. The kind of dissatisfaction that often leads to employee absenteeism is unhappiness with the work itself. A considerable body of research has revealed that, in general, employee satisfaction is negatively associated with absenteeism and the magnitude of this relationship is moderate. Bourgogne, Russo, Miragli and Vecchione (2012:131) explain that the association between job satisfaction and employee absenteeism can be described by the withdrawal model of absenteeism. The withdrawal model of absenteeism regards absence from work as a personal and voluntary behavioural reaction of withdrawal caused by unhappiness with unpleasant working conditions. Consistent with recommendations from McDonald, is to increase the level of job satisfaction to reduce absenteeism (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2010:175). However, Luthans (2011:145) argues that with absenteeism there are many other variables that influence the decision not to show up for work besides satisfaction with the job. For instance, those who feel that their job is important are likely to have lesser absenteeism than those who do not feel this way. Job satisfaction does not automatically lower absenteeism but absenteeism can be caused by low job satisfaction.

2.6.2 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB SATISFACTION

Mullins (2007:277) states that job satisfaction can be examined in two forms, namely regarding the fit between what the organisation need and what the worker is looking for and in terms of the fit between what the worker is looking for and what they are actually getting. Robbins and Judge (2013:115) attest that job satisfaction is influenced by the job itself, promotional opportunities, colleagues, salary and working conditions in an organisation. In support, Quick and Nelson (2013:113) highlight that job satisfaction can be regarded as both a general feeling and as a fulfilment of five specific elements of the work, namely salary, promotional opportunities, work itself, management and colleagues. They further postulate that personal characteristics also affect job satisfaction.

2.6.2.1   NATURE OF THE WORK AND ITS INFLUENCE ON JOB SATISFACTION

According to Saari and Judge (2004:397), research studies across several years, organisations and kinds of jobs revealed that when workers are asked to assess different features of their jobs, the nature of the job itself comes out as the most significant job aspect. Robbins and Judge (2013:115) explain that the nature of the job is the degree to which the work presents the worker with interesting responsibilities, opportunities for learning and individual development, as well as the chance to be liable and responsible for results. According to Armstrong and Taylor (2014:177), the level of job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction is influenced by intrinsic motivational factors. These factors are linked to the work content, especially the five dimensions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback.

Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011:103) affirm that workers have a preference for jobs that are mentally demanding. Jobs must give workers the chance to make use of their knowledge and abilities; provide a range of activities; and provide autonomy and feedback. Sypniewska (2013:59) adds that the activities

and tasks of the job can be assessed on a scale that varies from boring and repetitive to diverse and motivating. However, the job tasks and activities are influenced by a range of factors because the worker has to weigh up the excessiveness or deficiency of the tasks; the time pressure; level of autonomy and accountability for the results of the job that the worker bears; the freedom in decision making, as well as the content of his job. Another important aspect of the work that affects job satisfaction is job design (Lumley, 2011:103). Armstrong and Taylor (2014:145) postulate that the crucial aim of job design is to realise the social responsibilities of the organisation to the individuals who work in it by enhancing the quality of work life, which depends on both performance and the job satisfaction of the workers.

2.6.2.2   THE ROLE OF WORKING CONDITIONS ON JOB SATISFACTION

According to Mullins (2007:278), a progressively more vital matter affecting employees` job satisfaction and effectiveness is the nature of the work environment and workplace facilities. Wallace (2010:49) states that working conditions refer to various features of the working environment. Working conditions do not only refer to the physical conditions of the building and workplace, but also other non-physical facets of the job, which can be explained as an environment`s climate. In addition, Sypniewska (2014:58) attests that the working environment concerns aspects of the job that should add to the conduciveness and safety felt by workers at the work place. Working conditions within the organisation are a vital factor in employee job satisfaction.

Landy and Conte (2010:409) state that job satisfaction depends on the match between the conditions of work and employee's physical needs. In addition, working conditions that make it possible to attain goals and objectives are also satisfying. According to Luthans (2011:143), if working conditions are excellent (hygienic, good-looking surroundings, for example), employees will find it easier to carry out their work. When the working conditions are not conducive (hot, noisy surroundings, for

instance), it will not be easy for employees to carry out their tasks and activities properly. Generally, individuals do not give working conditions attention except when they are very bad. When there are complaints about working conditions, these are sometimes really nothing more than expressions of other problems (Luthans, 2011:143).

2.6.2.3 THE IMPACT OF PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES ON JOB SATISFACTION

Promotion is a vital facet of an employee's career and life. Luthans (2011:142) highlights that promotional opportunities have a varying impact on job satisfaction. Promotions take diverse forms and have a selection of associated rewards. Alshitri (2013:4) states that promotions allow employees to grow personally, have more responsibilities, high social status and often carry a substantial wage increase. Employees that are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those whose promotion is based on merit. Job satisfaction is likely to be experienced by employees who perceive promotional opportunities within the organisation to be fair (Alshitri, 2013:4). Furthermore, when employees have no chance of getting promoted or advancing in their careers, it will be very easy to become frustrated and dissatisfied (Ekermans, *et al.*, 2006:186).

Recently, the flattening of organisations and associated empowerment strategies have seen promotion in the traditional sense of going up the hierarchical organisational ladder of success no longer presented as it was some time ago. Workers in the new paradigm are aware that traditional promotions are not available but they are not even as desired. A good work environment and chances to develop academically and widen the skills base has for many become more vital than promotional opportunities (Luthans, 2011:142).

2.6.2.4   PAY/SALARY AND ITS EFFECTS ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION

Luthans (2011:142) describes salary as the sum of monetary compensation that is paid to the employee and the extent to which the amount is considered fair in relation to that of other employees in the organisation. Compensation systems play a vital role in influencing a worker`s level of job satisfaction.   In the same context, Funmilola, *et al.* (2013:518) state that pay has a major impact on job satisfaction, particularly when workers seek pay systems that are transparent and in line with their expectations. Adhikari and Deb (2013:23) posit that economic benefits such as salary/pay and monetary benefits are the most important aspects that influence the level of job satisfaction. Redmond (2015:11) states that a premise in the research of job satisfaction is that people determine job satisfaction by comparing the actual salary they are getting from the job at present and what they are expecting to get. In support, Mustapha (2013:246) states that when employees are not remunerated well, a situation of emotional dissatisfaction can develop.   This emotional discrepancy grows and mounts up over time, resulting in an individual being discontented and unsatisfied working for an organisation.

Parvin and Kabir (2011:119) contend that money is an excellent motivator, all workers work for money; workers want money; and good pay and remuneration are key factors in satisfying employees. Similarly, Luthans (2011:142) adds that money does not only assist employees to attain their basic needs but is also involved in providing upper-level need satisfaction. A study by Bustamam, Teng and Abdullah (2014:400) on hotel industry employees in Malaysia proved that there was an important and positive relationship between financial rewards and job satisfaction. When workers are completely satisfied with their compensation, the result will be higher a level of job satisfaction. A further study by Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw and Rich (2010:162) concluded that the level of salary has a positive but modest association with job satisfaction. However, the relationship between salary level and job satisfaction is weak because of the facets of job satisfaction. Pay is not as important as other facets such as work satisfaction.

Another significant aspect in relation to pay that affects the level of job satisfaction is a feeling of justice and fairness. Sypniewska (2013:59) states that employees assess the fairness or rightness of bonuses and if the outcome is positive, achieve satisfaction. According to the theory of justice, motivation in workers is the outcome of the contentment with what a worker is given in exchange for his/her contributions. In addition, Bakhshi, Kumar and Rani (2009:150) attest that workers who perceive fairness in their organisation are more likely to experience satisfaction with their work, feel less likely to leave and are committed their jobs.

2.6.2.5 EMPLOYEE SUPERVISION IN RELATION TO JOB SATISFACTION

Alshitri (2013:4) states that a direct manager`s behaviour is a determinant of employee job satisfaction. Luthans (2011:143) concurs that supervision is another reasonably significant source of job satisfaction. When the supervisor is friendly, understanding, involves employees in decision-making, fairly appraises their performance and shows personal interest in them, employees' job satisfaction increases. A supervisor has a strong impact on the attitude of workers towards their jobs. Saleem (2015:565) postulates that the responsibility of a supervisor in the organisation is to create a fair and conducive atmosphere that fulfils the needs and expectations of the employees. A fair relationship between supervisors and workers is vital for the organisation as it positively influences job satisfaction. In support, Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015:719) agree that good and effective supervision results in job satisfaction.

According to Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob (2011:29), the leadership style of the supervisor plays a crucial part in influencing job satisfaction. Various leadership styles build different working conditions and directly affect employee's job satisfaction. Two facets of leadership style that influence job satisfaction exist. One is worker centeredness, which is determined by the extent to which a manager takes personal interest and care about the workers (Luthans, 2011:143). The other is participation or influence, which is demonstrated by supervisors who permit their

employees to partake in the decisions that impact their jobs and in most cases, this approach leads to job satisfaction. A participative climate shaped by the manager has a more considerable effect on employee satisfaction than does partaking in a specific decision (Mullins, 2007:370).

2.6.2.6   THE ROLE OF CO-WORKERS IN JOB SATISFACTION

According to Sypniewska (2013:58), important aspects influencing job satisfaction are connections, meetings and relationships with colleagues and superiors. Interpersonal relations at the workplace are very important for workers. Gu and Siu (2008:565) state that communication between workers at different levels, particularly support, encouragement and assistance from supervisors and co-workers encourage a pleasant working environment in which worker's job satisfaction is likely to be sustained. Ekermans, *et al.* (2006:187) state that friendly, supportive colleagues and group members are a modest cause of job satisfaction. The good and best work group and efficient teams make the work more pleasant. On the other hand, this aspect is not necessary for employee job satisfaction. However, if the reverse circumstances are present and the individuals are hard to get along with, this issue might have a negative impact on job satisfaction (Luthans, 2011:143).

2.7   THEORIES ON JOB SASITISFACTION

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2010:149), many theories explain job satisfaction. Saif, Nawaz, Jan and Khan (2012:1387) state that there are many well documented job satisfaction theories. However, the researcher focuses only on three theories, namely Herzberg`s Two Factor Theory, the Job Characteristic Model and the Equity Theory.

2.7.1 JOB CHARACTERISTIC MODEL

Job Characteristic Model was developed in 1975 by Hackman and Oldham. The model provides insight into the job elements necessary for the motivation, satisfaction and performance of the job holder. The model suggests that the design of jobs can make a difference. Problems of job satisfaction fall away when the job incumbent is well matched to the job. When the individual is matched to the job, hard work and performing well just take place because it is rewarding and satisfying (Knights and Willmott, 2007:50). However, the happy congruence of an individual and job as internal motivation relies on three key conditions:

➢ The work should be experienced as meaningful, as something that matter to the individual;

➢ The job must ensure that employees are responsible for the results; and

➢ Individuals must have information of the results of their work. Feedback about results enables employees to have a basis upon which to feel happy or bad about what they are doing.

Individuals feel dissatisfied when one or more of these critical psychological states is not there. These psychological states are internal to the individual and they are related to five key job characteristics. In order to experience work as meaningful, three job characteristics are necessary, namely:

➢ Skills variety: A job must include an assortment of exercises drawing upon a variety of abilities;

➢ Task identity: A job must include the completion of an entire task or finish using a piece of work with a visible result.

➢ Task significance: A job and its results need to make a difference to other people, whether inside or beyond the organisation.

According to Knights and Willmot (2007:51), jobs need to involve considerable freedom, independence and discretion in how they carried out in order to encourage feelings of responsibility for what one does. Through autonomy and freedom to carry out the job, an individual will have a feeling that the results are the outcomes of their own efforts and something for which one has personal responsibility. Furthermore,

in order to have information of the results of the job, a person needs feedback. Feedback must come directly from the work, rather than indirectly through supervisors.

2.7.2 HERZBERG`S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

The two-factor theory explains that certain aspects of a job cause job satisfaction, while certain characteristics cause job dissatisfaction. According to Amos, Ristow and Ristow (2009:156), factors that cause job satisfaction are different from those causing job dissatisfaction. Employee job satisfaction is determined by satisfiers, whereas job dissatisfaction stems from hygiene factors. Dugguh and Dennis (2014:12) describe satisfiers as features of the job that make individuals want to perform and get satisfaction in return. Furthermore, when satisfiers are present, employees will be satisfied. However, their absence does not cause dissatisfaction. On the other hand, hygiene factors are preventative. When hygiene factors are neglected, they make employees feel dissatisfied. However, if addressed they do not contribute significantly to job satisfaction and performance. The theory suggests a dual continuum, the opposite of satisfaction being no dissatisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction being no satisfaction (Creed, 2011:101). Table 2.2 below shows the division between hygiene factors and satisfiers.

Table 2.2   Factors that cause job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction

Factors for Satisfaction (satisfiers)	Factors for Dissatisfaction (Hygiene)
Achievement	Company policies
Recognition	Supervision
The work itself	Relationship with supervisor and peers
Responsibility	Work conditions
Advancement	Salary
Growth	Status
	Job Security

Source: Amos, L.T., Ristow, T. and Ristow, L. (2009:157). Adapted.

As depicted in Table 2.2, satisfiers are factors that cause job satisfaction and include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth. Table 2.2 also indicates that organisational policies, supervision, relationships amongst supervisors and peers, working conditions, pay, status and job security are hygiene factors. According to Amos, Ristow and Ristow (2009:157), when applying Herzberg`s theory, managers need to make sure that policies and the working environment do not result in dissatisfaction. In addition, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2015:248) advise that management must provide effective and supportive supervision, offer competitive compensation packages, provide job security and build a climate of respect and dignity for all the employees.   Herzberg suggests that management should focus on the following in order to create job satisfaction:

➢ Provide opportunities for employees to achieve their full potential;
➢ Recognise employee's contributions;
➢ Set challenging, yet achievable objectives as part of performance management;
➢ Provide opportunities for advancement and growth; and
➢ Give as much responsibility to each employee as possible.

2.7.3 THE EQUITY THEORY

According to Creed (2011:108), the Equity theory explains how an individual perceives fairness in relation to social relationships. According to the Equity theory, through a social exchange an individual compares the total of output gained with the input, as well as how much effort another individual put forth. Man, Modrak, Dima and Pachura (2011:10) explain that employees consider their qualifications, contributions to work and the contributions of the jobs to them. In addition, employees compare what they put into their work in terms of effort, time, skills and education and what they get out of their work in terms of personal benefits as well as feelings, meaningfulness, responsibility and working conditions. The outcome of this social comparison process is the perception of equity and inequity.

Moorhead and Griffin (2010:96) state that there are two forms of inequity, namely underpayment inequity and overpayment inequity. Underpayment inequity is when an individual believes that he/she is getting less out than someone else (referent) does, relative to what they both put in. Overpayment inequity is when a person feels that he or she gets more out than someone else (referent) relative to the inputs (Amos, Ristow and Ristow, 2009:161). When people find themselves in inequitable relationships they become dissatisfied. In such a situation, both the people who get too much and too little feel dissatisfied. The individual who is getting too much feels guilty and the person who is getting less feels humiliated. In such circumstances people try to eliminate their inequalities by restoring equity by distorting the inputs or outputs, distorting their perceptions towards the situation, seeking legal action or leaving the organisation as shown in Table 2.3 below. Baure and Erdogan (2012:214) highlight the basic responses of an individual to feelings of inequity, which are presented in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3 Basic responses to feelings of inequity

Reactions to inequity	Example
Distort perceptions	Changing one's reasoning to trust that the referent really is more gifted than suspected beforehand
Increase referent's inputs	Urging the referent to work harder
Reduce own input	Intentionally advancing less exertion at work. Decreasing the nature of one's work
Increase own outcomes	Arranging a raise for oneself or utilizing dishonest methods for expanding rewards. For example, taking from the organization
Change referent	Contrasting oneself with somebody who is worse off
Leave the situation	Leaving one's place of employment
Seek legal action	Suing the organization or recording an objection if the unfairness being referred to is under lawful assurance

Source: Baure, T. and Erdogan, B. (2012:214). Adapted.

2.8   IMPACT ON ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Legge (2005:214) postulates that organisational commitment is becoming increasingly recognised and is a major variable of interest to both theorists and researchers in the field of organisational behaviour. The reason organisational commitment catches so much attention from scholars is mainly based on the notion that high organisational commitment is beneficial to the organisation. The importance of organisational commitment was highlighted by Walton as cited by Armstrong and Taylor (2014:186), when he proposed the concept of a commitment based approach. The commitment-based approach is for a broad human resource management approach in the methods by which employees are supervised, work is planned and organisations are managed. The aim of the approach is to develop mutuality, a position that exists when supervisors and workers are mutually dependent and both gain from the interdependency.

According to Armstrong and Taylor (2014:186), the commitment-based approach promotes mutuality. Organisational goals, rewards, influence, respect and responsibilities must be mutual. The essence of mutuality is to draw out

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commitment, which in turn will produce both better organisationl performance and greater human development. In this respect, You, Haung, Wang, Liu, Lin and Tsang (2013:68) affirm that organisational commitment is key to teams that are loyal and high performance, and it enables maximum exploitation of employee competencies so that the organisation can attain its objectives.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2010:166), organisational commitment reveals the level to which an employee wants to be part of the organisation and is dedicated to its objectives.   Organisational commitment is a significant job attitude because committed employees are expected to show motivation to work hard in order to attain organisational objectives and have greater aspiration to stay working for the organisation.   McShane and Von Glinow (2014:77) state that organisational commitment is an attitude and is defined as:

- ➢ A powerful urge to remain an individual from a specific organisation;
- ➢ An ability to apply high level of effort in the interest of the organisation; and
- ➢ A clear confidence in and acknowledgment of the qualities and objectives of the organisation.

Organisational commitment is an attitude that reflects workers` loyalty to the organisation.   In addition, organisational commitment is a continuous process by which workers articulate their concern for the organisation, its continued success and well-being (Luthans, 2011:147).

Ling and Yuen (2014:158) claim that employee commitment is a psychological state which explains the relationship between employees and the organisation, as well as the implications of continuing with the employing organisation.   Meyer and Allen (1997:3) describe committed employees as those who stick with the organisation through difficult and smooth situations, attend work frequently, put in a full day, safe guard organisational properties and company goals.   Quick and Nelson (2011:117) characterise organisational commitment as the vigour of an employee`s identification with an organisation.   This description of commitment is in line with the definition of organisational commitment by Robbins and Judge (2013:109), which states that it is

the extent to which a worker identifies with a specific organisation and its goals and desires to remain a member of the organisation. In addition, Armstrong and Taylor (2014:154) state that organisational commitment refers to attachment and loyalty and is connected with the feelings employees have about their organisation.

2.8.1 THE NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Mclaggan, Bezuidenhout and Botha (2013:3) highlight that in all the definitions of organisation commitment, a common element is the belief that commitment attaches a person to a course of action. Allen and Meyer (1984), as cited by Legge (2005:215), propose that a difference be made between affective and continuance commitment. With affective commitment based on emotional attachment to the organisation and continuance commitment denoting the perceived costs related with and involvement in the organisation. Normative commitment, which is a third and distinguishable component of commitment, was later added by Meyer and Allen in 1990. Normative commitment is the perceived duty to remain with the organisation (McShane and Von Glinow, 2014:77). The components of commitment are characterised by mindset and develop in various ways. They have different effects on job behaviour. Meyer and Herscovith as cited by Kreitner and Kinicki (2010:67), use a three-component model as depicted in Figure 2.4 in relation commitment. They distinguish organisational commitment in three dimensions, namely affective, continuance and normative commitments.

Figure 2.4   The three-component model of commitment
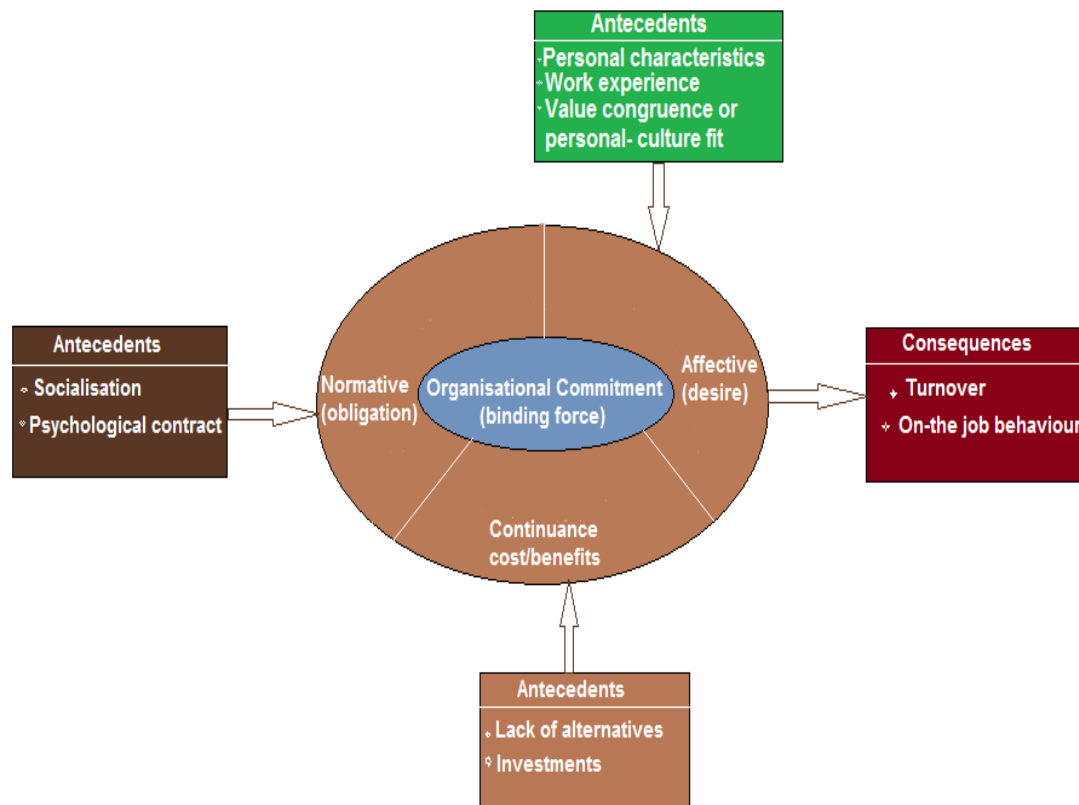
Source: Kinicki, A. and Kreitner, R. (2010:67). Adapted.

2.8.1.1   AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

As shown in Figure 2.4 above, the first dimension of employee commitment is affective commitment which signifies the employee`s emotional attachment to the organisation. Luthans (2011:148) defines affective commitment as the worker`s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Hitt, Miller and Colella (2009:165) state that affective commitment implies that an individual has a strong positive attitude towards the organisation. Affective commitment is determined by the degree to which a person is psychologically attached to the organisation in which they are employed, through feelings such as loyalty, affection, worth, belongingness and pleasure (Dixit and Bhati, 2012:37). Ghorpade, Lackritz and Moore (2012:286) state that the heart of affective

commitment is an emotional attachment generated by the person`s response to the organisation that leads the individual to assume ownership, in a psychological sense of the organisation and to put in extra effort and involvement to ensure its survival.

Legge (2005:215) describes affective commitment as an intention of an employee to remain in the organisation because of a strong desire to do so. Furthermore, loyalty and a deep concern for the organisation`s welfare is at the centre of affective commitment. Furthermore, affective commitment consists of three elements, namely working hard for the organisation, believing in the objectives and principles of the organisation and an intention to remain a member of the organisation (Quick and Nelson, 2011:117).   Meyer and Herscovith (2001:56) postulate that affective commitment develops when an employee or situational factor chips in to the possibility that an individual become involved in a course of action and recognises the worth significance of the alliance with the organisation or pursuit of action. The situational variable must ensure that individuals obtain their identities from being with an organisation or from functioning towards a goal and this contributes to the development of affective commitment (Dixit and Bhati, 2012:37).

Lambert, Kim, Kelly and Hogan (2013:196) explain that affective commitment builds up when people believe that the organisation is satisfying their needs, recognise that they are being treasured, respected and treated with dignity.   An emotional attachment reflects the workers` feeling of belonging, loyalty, pride and recognition with the internalisation of the core values of the organisation (Lambert, *et al.* 2013:196).   The three-component model (Figure 2.4) indicates that affective commitment is affected by factors such as personal characteristics, work experience and value congruence or person-culture fit.

2.8.1.2   CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Luthans (2011:148) explains that continuance commitment (Figure 2.4) is focused on the costs that the worker incurs when leaving the organisation. Lambert, *et al.* (2013:196) state that continuance commitment is based on the investment that an individual makes during his tenure with the organisation. According to Legge (2005:215), continuance commitment encompasses two different elements, one concerned with sunk costs and the other with a lack of attractive opportunities. Sunk costs are the investments of an employee in the organisation which include salary and benefits, social relationships and skills which will be lost or decrease in value if the employee part ways with the organisation. These costs bond the employee to the organisation and make it hard for employees to leave the organisation. Employees are forced to commit themselves to the organisation because of the high financial, social, psychological and other costs associated with departing the organisation. According to Niya, Kherrandish and Amirbakhtiyarrand (2014:2090), continuance commitment is a result of employees being conscious of the negative implications of deserting the organisation and the reason for remaining in the organisation is an attempt to keep the benefits that are obtained by staying employed with the organisation.

Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007:64) emphasise that for employees who are committed to the organisation in the continuance way, their preference to stay is embedded in a sense of economic necessity. Cortez (2008:16) postulates that individuals whose major connection to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain with the organisation because they need to do so. However, individuals may be committed to the organisation because scarce employment opportunities tend to compel them to uphold their course of action and remain with their organisation (Hitt, Miller and Colella, 2009:165). In addition, Hitt, *et al.* (2009:165) argue that continuance commitment develops because individuals have no better opportunities, hence they will be committed to the organisation. In agreement with this view, Pittinky and Shih (2005:11) attest that a perceived lack of opportunities and mobility to transfer skills and education from the current

organisation to other organisations is the main cause of continuance commitment. When individuals experience this restriction of alternatives, the perceived need to remain with the organisation might increase.

2.8.1.3   NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

The last dimension of the three-component model (Figure 2.4) is normative commitment. Quick and Nelson (2011:117) define normative commitment as a perceived duty to continue with the organisation. Employees who are committed the normative way remain with their current organisation since they feel that they should. In agreement with the above, Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007:64) state that employees with normative commitment stay with the current organisation out of a sense of moral duty to remain. In addition, Hitt, Miller and Colella (2009:165) postulate that normatively committed workers stay with their organisation because they do not want to let their co-workers down. Workers with normative commitment believe that they are forced to stay with the organisation, the reason being a sense of duty for co-operation with the organisation (Amirbakhtiyarrand, Niya and Kherrandish, 2014:290). According to Meyer and Parfyanova (2010:284), normatively committed individuals consider it morally right to stay employed with the organisation even when they are not satisfied with their jobs or even when better opportunities arise.

Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007:63) explain that normative commitment develops as an outcome of the internalisation of normative pressures to follow a course of action and the reception of rewards that develop a sense of obligation to give in return. A family history of being involved in a certain occupation or receiving economic support to pursue a profession can contribute to the growth of normative commitment. Meyer and Parfyanova (2010:284) posit that the development of normative commitment is an outcome of moral reasons. The moral involvement in the organisation is an orientation of high intensity that develops through the internalisation of objectives, values and norms. Meyer and Parfyanova (2010:284)

further state that normatively committed workers are keen to make a personal sacrifice for the organisation since they consider it the right thing to do.

Croson (2007:100) posits that normative commitment is influenced by the principles of reciprocity between the organisation and its employees. The reciprocal obligation suggests that an individual receiving the benefits has a strong normative responsibility to pay back the benefit in some way. This implies that employees may frequently sense that they have a debt to pay back to the organisation by remaining loyal. Psychological contracts are also related to the development of normative commitment. Dundon and Callinane (2006:3) state that the psychological contract comprises expectations, core obligations and rights that govern the relationship. The parties in the employment relationship believe they are in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocity. Therefore, employees may develop a sense of indebtedness when they consider investments made in them by the organisation (Tan, 2012:1).

2.8.2 FACTORS THAT AFFECT ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Commitment to the organisation can be affected by a range of considerations. The factors that affect organisational commitment include employment opportunities, work environment, personal characteristics, job-related factors, relationship between employees and management, leadership style, as well as the structure of the organisation.

2.8.2.1   EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

The availability and scarcity of employment opportunities influence organisational commitment. Cortez (2008:19) states that when the labour market is characterised by a high unemployment rate and few employment opportunities, employees tend to

be committed to their organisations. However, when people can easily find alternative employment opportunities they become less loyal to the organisation as they consider such attractive options. The scarcity of employment opportunities results in continuance commitment based on membership, where employees are committed based on the financial worth of remaining with an organisation weighed against leaving it (Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007:64).

2.8.2.2   WORK ENVIRONMENT

Working environment is another factor that affects employee commitment. According to Quick and Nelson (2011:223), some organisations have low-stress, healthy environments whereas others have high-stress environments that may put workers` healthy at risk. Drummond (2000:206) states that potential stressors include working fast, engaging in work that involves risks and danger, working long hours, noise as well as fumes. Employees who perceive that their work environment is not conducive will be less dedicated to the organisation and usually have intentions to leave. Another factor within the work environment that influences employee commitment is human resource management practices. Laba and Choudhary (2013:413) explain that employee commitment can be enhanced by instilling the values of people first through giving them proper remuneration that is just and fair, promotion, training and development. These customs highlight the attractive aspects of the job for the career growth of workers which, is paid back by commitment (Laba and Choudhary, 2013:413).

2.8.2.3   PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Personal characteristics that can affect organisational commitment include age, gender, educational level and years of service (Cortez, 2008:19). According to Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007:65), gender affects a person`s subjective

experience of their work and career. Women perceive their careers differently from men because of historic experiences as a minority group in a male dominated work environment. Women are likely to occupy lower status in the labour market and have a tendency to leave the organisation because of dissatisfaction with working in male-dominated environments (Cortez, 2008:19). Education and tenure are the most significant contributors to organisational commitment. Older employees with long tenure with the organisation and persons who are pleased with their job performance tend to report high levels of organisational commitment (Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007:65). Furthermore, Baure and Erdogan (2015:165) state that individuals with a positive affective disposition who experience more positive moods and less negative moods are more likely to be committed to their organisation, whilst people with negative dispositions tend to be less satisfied and committed.

2.8.2.4   JOB-RELATED FACTORS THAT AFFECT ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The presence of some characteristics on the job appears to make workers more committed to the organisation. According to Baure and Erdogan (2015:161), the fit between the employees, the job environment and the environmental demands influence work attitudes. When employee abilities match job demands and employee values match organisational values, employees tend to be more committed to the organisation they are working for. Drummond (2000:71) postulates that perceived injustice also influences commitment, especially when it comes to downsizing. Downsizing is likely to be perceived as unjust if the selection for dismissal reflects office politics rather than operational requirements.

Job-related stress, role conflict and ambiguity are also predictors of organisational commitment. Robbins and Judge (2013:244) state that when individuals are confronted with divergent role expectations and job-related stress, they display

withdrawal behaviour which includes absenteeism, reduced loyalty and eventually turnover. In addition, a lack of promotional opportunities, monotonous and boring tasks as well as low levels of responsibility and autonomy in an individual`s job can lead to reduced commitment. On the other hand, Baure and Erdogan (2015:162) argue that using a range of skills, having independence at work, getting feedback on the job and performing significant tasks are some job characteristics that are connected to organisational commitment.

2.8.2.5   RELATIONSHIPS   WITH   CO-WORKERS   IN   RELATION   TO   ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Baure and Erdogan (2015:163) explain that relationships between colleagues and supervisors are the predictor of contentment at work and organisational commitment. The interaction between employees; the degree of compassion amongst them; the level of social acceptance within the group; and whether employees are treated with respect are all essential factors surrounding happiness at work and employee commitment. Other relationships within the organisation, such as work groups and teams, can have an impact on employee commitment. According to Limpanitgal, Boonchoo and Photiyarach (2014:102), individuals and their colleagues tend to engage in social relations in the organisation and this shapes their work experience. Furthermore, colleagues provide desirable support that makes positive work encounters and that may lead other workers to a feeling of belonging and loyalty, which characterises affective commitment (Limpanitgal, *et al*. 2014:102).

2.8.2.6   STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANISATION

Organisational structure has a significant role in employee commitment. Al-Qatawneh (2014:35) states that bureaucratic organisational structures tend to have a negative outcome on employee commitment. Employees' commitment can be increased by providing employees with greater influence and direction in the

organisation. In addition, the elimination of bureaucratic barriers and the establishment of flexible structures is more likely to contribute to the improvement of organisational commitment (Al-Qatawneh, 2014:35).

2.8.2.7   THE LEADERSHIP STYLE EMPLOYED BY SUPERVISORS

According to McLaggan, Bezuidenhout and Botha (2013:4), leadership styles and employee commitment are highly interconnected since effective leaders strongly motivate their workers to commit themselves to the organisation. Stander and Rothman (2008:11) conclude that a leader`s behaviour has a positive effect on worker`s attitudes towards their jobs. These positive attitudes will result in employee`s desire to sustain their relationship with the organisation. Manetje (2005:51) posits that the solution to the problems regarding organisational commitment, motivation, loyalty and attachment does not entail in providing motivators only, but also the elimination of demotivators such as leadership styles that are not commensurate with employee aspirations.

2.8.3   WHY EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT MATTERS TO ORGANISATIONS?

Luthans (2011:148) highlights that organisational commitment has mixed outcomes. The issues of employee commitment to the organisation matter because high levels of commitment lead to numerous positive organisational outcomes, whereas low levels of commitment can be detrimental to the organisation.

2.8.3.1   POSITIVE EFFECTS OF HIGHLY COMMITTED EMPLOYEES

According to Armstrong and Taylor (2014:186), committed employees contribute more positively to the organisation than less committed employees. Quick and

Nelson (2011:116) state that employees who identify strongly with the organisation are more likely to form organisational citizenship behaviour. When the employees adopt such behaviour, they go beyond the call of duty and assist in the achievement of organisation objectives. Kreitner and Kinicki (2008:168) highlight that organisational commitment is related to job performance. This means that management can increase productivity by improving workers` commitment towards the organisation. In addition, Luthans (2011:148) states that high commitment helps to reduce the costs of turnover and absenteeism. This implies that committed employees put more effort to perform and invest their resources in the organisation.

Furthermore, Luthans (2011:148) posits that organisational commitment relates to other attractive outcomes such as perceptions of a warm, caring organisational climate and being a good team member who is willing to help. Moreover, committed employees are success and innovation driven, with the ultimate aim of engaging in and improving performance. According to Moshoue (2011:69), employee commitment leads to organisational effectiveness due to several favourable organisational outcomes associated with high levels of commitment. In support, Suliman and ILess, as cited by Moshoue (2011:69), highlight the following important aspects of organisational commitment:

➢ It promotes better supervisor-employee relationships;
➢ It creates a conducive work environment;
➢ It reduces employee withdrawal actions such as lateness, absenteeism and turnover; and
➢ It positively influences workers' readiness for innovation and creativity.

2.8.3.2 NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF LOWLY COMMITTED EMPLOYEES

Organisational commitment causes employees to develop work attitudes. Neimger, Willenbrock, Kauffeld and Henschel (2010:568) state that employees first become committed to their organisations before developing attitudes such as job satisfaction

and involvement. Therefore, when employees are less committed to the organisation, they develop poor work attitudes. According to Morrow (2011:20), employees who are less committed to their organisation are more likely to be absent frequently, and engage in counter-productive behaviours such as stealing, aggression and sabotage. In addition, Neimger*, et al.* (2010:568) highlight that organisations with a less committed workforce has less resources for its ability to compete with other organisations. Moshoue (2011:67) postulates that at the point when workers leave, they take with them their abilities and experience and this has negative outcomes for the organisation in terms of recruitment, selection, induction and training procedures. Organisations with lowly committed employees usually have a high rate of turnover and absenteeism. When employees are less committed to the organisation, they will consider alternative available employment opportunities and they are likely to quickly leave their jobs. Moreover, less committed individuals refrain from work and they are frequently absent and are high users of sick leave (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2009:168).

2.9   CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the literature relevant to job insecurity, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Job insecurity as a concept was clarified and its dimensions, antecedents and its consequences were explored. The literature confirms that job insecurity has an impact on both organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the literature highlights factors that influence both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The next chapter discusses the research methodology and design.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a comprehensive discussion of literature by reviewing various secondary sources and building a theoretical framework. This chapter addresses the research methodology that was used in this study.   According to Wisker (2009:90), the research methodology documents the research design that was adopted, provides a description of the target population, sampling techniques, the survey method, construction of the research questionnaire, data collection methods, ethical considerations, pilot study, as well as how the data was analysed. This study adopted a quantitative research design and the survey method was used. In order to determine the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe, structured closed-ended questionnaires were used to gather data.   The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24.0 was used to analyse the data.

3.2   THE RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:53), research design is a process for gathering, evaluating, interpreting and reporting information in research studies. Cooper and Schindler (2006:192) concur that the research design constitutes the blueprint for collecting, measuring and analysing data.   Punch (2007:63) portrays research design as all matters involved in setting up and carrying out a research study, from recognising the problem through to reporting and to publishing the findings. The research design is a game plan that determines how an answer will be formed for the research question.   The research design is very useful because it

guides the methods that the researcher must undertake in the study and the logic by which the researcher interprets the study when completed (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011:53). In addition, Maggetti, Gilardi and Radaelli (2013:10) state that the research design reduces or controls bias.

Cooper and Schindler (2006:150) highlight the essentials of a proper research design, which includes a time based plan. It must be based on research questions, direct the choice of sources and types of data, and set the procedures for every research activity. When choosing a research design, the researcher must take into account the rationale of the research, research questions and the nature of research and data required (Nishishiba, Jones and Kraner, 2014:49). The research design needs to be in alignment with the research objectives and questions, allowing the researcher to collect appropriate data that provides answers to the research questions (Dornyei, 2014:35).

3.3   TYPES OF RESEARCH DESIGNS

According to Morgan (2014:45), in social research, one of the most basic choices the researcher is likely to face is between using the qualitative research method or quantitative research method, or a combination of the two. There are three types of research designs, namely quantitative research method, qualitative research method and mixed method research design (Davies, 2007:25). The three types of research design are described briefly as follows:

3.3.1 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

Sekaran (2003:87) states that the qualitative research design is carried out in a natural setting and includes a procedure of developing a complex and holistic picture of the phenomenon of interest. Qualitative research does not depend on the use of

numbers but it focuses on phenomena that cannot be described adequately with statistics. The qualitative research design relies on the skills and abilities of the researcher to collect information using structured data collection methods such as observations and interviews. According to Giddings (2006:199), the qualitative research design is flexible because it has a phenomenological perspective, plus the data and the circumstances can change.

3.3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Maree (2007:145), the quantitative research method is a procedure that is methodical and objective in its way of using mathematical data from only a certain subgroup of a population to generalise the results to the universe that is being studied. Struwing and Stead (2013:3) postulate that the primary role of quantitative research is to test an idea or theory about the relationship between two or more variables. The quantitative research method allows researchers to often try to establish casual relationship between construct and variables. In support, Morgan (2014:48) posits that quantitative research is linked to theory testing through clear pre-arranged research designs. With regard to this study, the researcher selected and used the quantitative research method.

Quantitative research measures the constructs studied, usually through the use of questionnaires or some form of structured observation (Struwing and Stead, 2013:4). Rasinger (2014:10) states that quantitative research is characterised by data that is in some way quantifiable. Payne and Payne (2004:180) postulate that the quantitative research method searches for regularities in people by separating the social world into elements called variables, which can be represented by numbers as frequencies or rates and whose relations with each other can be discovered by statistical techniques and accessed through researcher-introduced stimuli and systems. In quantitative research, the focus is empirical inquiry. The survey instrument is administered to individuals whose responses are then aggregated to form overall measures for the target population (Struwing and Stead, 2013:6).

3.3.3 MIXED METHODS RESEARCH DESIGN

The mixed method research design is a combination of two methods, namely qualitative research design and quantitative research design. According to Dornyei (2014:35), the mixed methods research design is utilised when the study is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. A mixed methods research design uses interviews and questionnaires to collect research data. This method draws on both the quantitative and qualitative research methods after noting the merits and demerits that are associated with purely qualitative and quantitative bias in research (O`leary, 2014:122). The mixed method research design allows the researcher to study trends that are explored when conducting quantitative research and which could be further explored by qualitative research.

3.4   PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION

Struwig and Stead (2013:82) state that primary data is data that is collected for the research project. Driscoll (2011:153) describes primary data as data that is gathered by the researcher and usually done by survey research. A research project is commonly focused on obtaining answers to the research questions and fulfilling research objectives. A research questionnaire and interview are data collection instruments that allow the researcher to search for answers to the research questions. In support, Gray (2009:337) states that primary data can be gathered by interviews, questionnaires and observational methods. Regardless of the method used, there must be a set procedure for the collection process to standardise the data collected. The researcher used the questionnaire (Annexure B) to collect the primary data for this study.

3.5   SECONDARY DATA COLLECTION

According to Rabianski (2003:43), secondary data is accessible from sources other than the present research project.   Habermann (2003:287) states that secondary data can be grouped into three broad categories which are: raw data already collected (for instance, traffic count); summaries of figures (for example, figures supplied by Statistics Zimbabwe); and written treatises (for instance, books, articles and theses).   Walliman (2011:178) highlights that the chief advantage of using secondary data is greater speed and lower costs of retrieval compared to primary data. For the researcher, libraries were the most obvious starting point for collecting data. For example, academic databases such as Emerald, ERIC, Cihnahl and psychology and behavioural sciences collection were used by the researcher. The secondary data was carefully examined to fit the research needs.

3.6   TARGET POPULATION

Rasinger (2014:44) defines a target population as the group of people a researcher is generally interested in. Melville and Goddard (2004:29) concur that a population is the subject of research interest. Struwing and Stead (2013:114) state that the target population is the combined total of all the elements one is focusing on. The total population of employees at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe was 109 employees. The list of the target population was obtained from the Human Resources Department. Femina Garments is a medium-sized company with a long history in the clothing industry of Zimbabwe. The employees at Femina Garments were capable of providing the researcher with the required data via the questionnaire about the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.7 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sarantakos (2005:152) describes sampling as the procedure employed to extract samples for study. All research including qualitative and quantitative research involves sampling (Punch, 2005:101). Therefore, the key notion is the target group that would be the focus of the study. According to Sapsford (2007:51), sampling is when the researcher selects a sample to study, which is comparable to the group under study so that legitimate generalisations can be made about the group on the basis of the sample. The basis of quantitative sampling is that the researcher analyses data gathered from the sample but desires in the end to make generalisations about the total target population from which the sample is selected (Punch, 2005:101). Nueman (2011:241) states that there are two categories of sampling methods, namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling techniques.

3.7.1 PROBABILITY SAMPLING METHODS

Sarantakos (2005:154) states that probability sampling is the process in which the selection of respondents is directed by the Probability Principle. The Probability Principle ensures that each element of the target population has an equivalent, quantifiable and non-zero chance of being included in the sample. In the probability sampling method, the respondents are selected at random from the population so that each individual in the target population has a known probability of being selected (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011:174). Nueman (2011:241) states that probability sampling is very efficient in that it saves time, costs and is accurate. According to Nishishiba, Jones and Kraner (2014:79), probability sampling comprises four techniques, namely;

➢ Simple random sampling;

➢ Systematic sampling;

➢ Stratified random sampling; and

➢ Cluster sampling.

3.7.2 NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING

Non-probability sampling does not utilise the rules of probability theory and the selection of the sample is not logical as in probability sampling (Nishishiba, Jones and Kraner, 2011:82).   Sarantakos (2005:163) states that with non-probability sampling not all the elements in the population have an even probability of being chosen in the sample. Nueman (2011:242) postulates that non-probability sampling is appropriate for a small number of investigative preliminary research and qualitative research studies.   According to Sarantakos (2005:163), the examples of non-probability sampling are:

➢ Accidental sampling;

➢ Purposive sampling;

➢ Quota sampling; and

➢ Snowball sampling.

However, the survey method was used for this study due to a relatively small target population. Therefore, there was no need for selecting a sample.

3.8   JUSTIFICATION FOR USING THE SURVEY METHOD

Fox and Bayat (2007:87) state that a survey is a study of an entire population.   A survey is an experimental and rational study involving the systematic and unbiased gathering of data from a population as well as the statistical analysis of the results (Denscombe, 2013:12).   Furthermore, Denscombe (2013:12) states that the survey method has emerged as one of the most common approaches to social science research. Creswell and Plano Clack (2011:155) postulates that the survey method is the most popular way to gather primary data since it utilises a questionnaire to collect facts, opinions and attitudes.   In addition, Maree (2007:155) describes a survey as the appraisal of the current status, opinions, beliefs and attitudes by using questionnaires from a known population. Brannick and Roche (2007:11) state that a survey method can be used to carry out exploratory, descriptive and analytical investigations.   Pillay (2006:39) attests that a survey method is reasonably free from the personal bias of the researcher, it provides data which is more reliable, credible and covers more people in less time.   In addition, Denscombe (2013:12) postulates that in order to generalise the findings, the survey must be of an adequate size. This study includes the entire target population of 109 employees at Femina Garments.   The target population was too small to warranty the selection of a sample, hence justifying the use of a survey method.

3.9   QUESTIONNAIRE CONSTRUCTION

According to Hall and Hall (2002:98), a questionnaire is a set of questions for the respondents to complete themselves.   When designing a questionnaire, the researcher needs to consider the nature of data that will be produced by the questions and the statistical methods that will be utilised to analyse it (Maree, 2007:158). Struwig and Stead (2013:93) highlight that designing a questionnaire needs the researcher to pay attention to the appearance of the questionnaire, question sequence, wording of the questions and response categories.

3.9.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD QUESTIONNAIRE

Maree (2007:159) states that the questionnaire must come out user friendly, neatly printed, and with a font that is clear and visible. It must contain simple instructions, be printed on high quality paper and few concision statements that may support the respondents to take time to fill in the questionnaire. In addition, Payne and Payne (2004:186) postulate that questions should be worded and ordered in such a way that all the respondents can understand. Hall and Hall (1996:98) state that questions take two forms which are open-ended and closed or pre-coded questions. In this research, close-ended questions were used. According to Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:109), closed questions restrict responses to a list of options provided by the researcher.

All the research statements in the questionnaire were scaled. Punch (2005:92) attests that the definite words to be utilised in the scaled item responses depend on the subject matter the researcher is dealing with. The 5 Point Likert Scale was used. The 5 Point Likert Scale allows the respondents to point out the extent, to which they agree or disagree, with provision for a neutral column for each of a series of statements related to the main theme (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009:123). Maree (2007:167) states that the Likert Scale is very convenient when the researcher wants to measure a construct. The questionnaire consists of pre-coded research statements. According to Maree (2007:168), coding entails assigning numeric codes to each response which falls in a specific section of the questionnaire. Coding makes it easy to capture data since the respondents are required to tick the numeric code on each Likert Scale statement.

3.9.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire included a covering letter (Annexure A) and basic instructions on how to complete the questionnaire.   The questionnaire`s design (Annexure B) consists of 35 statements and comprised of four sections:

- ➢ Section A - This comprised questions regarding biographical data of the respondents.

- ➢ Section B - This consisted of the job insecurity survey.

- ➢ Section C - The section covered the organisational commitment survey.

- ➢ Section D - This section consisted of the job satisfaction survey.

The Likert scale format was used allowing the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a series of statements about a given main theme (Saunders, *et al.*, 2009:123). Section B, C and D of the questionnaire were measured on a 5 point Likert Scale with scale responses varying between agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

3.9.3 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF A QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaires, like any data collection tool has merits and demerits. Denscombe (2010:170) acknowledges the following advantages and disadvantages of using structured questionnaires in gathering research data.

3.9.3.1   ADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES

The questionnaire was adopted for the following reasons:

➢ Questionnaires are economical. Questionnaires can provide a substantial quantity of research data and they are comparatively inexpensive in terms of materials, money and time.

➢ Questionnaires provide standardised responds. All the respondents are given the same questions with no scope for difference. There is modest chance for the data to be influenced by interpersonal factors.

➢ Pre-coded answers. This makes coding and statistical analysis easy.

➢ Anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed.

➢ Respondents can take time to respond at their own convenience.

3.9.3.2   DISADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES

When using the questionnaire for research studies, the following disadvantages should be noted:

➢ A questionnaire does not give enough chance for the researcher to verify the honesty of the responses provided by the respondents. The researcher does not convene with the respondents and the responses are given at a distance.

➢ Pre-coded questions can be provoking and thus discourage the respondents from responding. The tick box practice may encourage individuals to respond, however, this same practice may be considered as negative and put individuals off co-operation with the study.

➢ Follow-up procedures for late responses are required to ensure high response rate.

➢ Respondents may be unwilling to participate in the study.

3.9.4 PILOT STUDY

Gomm (2009:245) defines pilot study as the initial research that is conducted to assist planning a more significant study through trying out techniques of research instrumental in development. According to Sarantakos (2005:254), a pilot study is employed by the quantitative researchers before the actual data collection commences. Bless and Higson-smith (2004:52) state that a pilot study is testing the research questionnaire (Annexure B) on a small sample taken from the community in which the research will be conducted. The main goal of the pilot test is to determine probable faults, insufficiency, vagueness and problems in all facets of the questionnaire so that they can be amended before the actual data collection takes place.   Furthermore, Lapan and Quartaroli (2009:87) explain that the pilot study ensures that respondents understand the questions the same way and it enables necessary revisions and adjustments to be made before the final questionnaire (Annexure B) is administered to the target population.

In addition, Nueman (2011:350) highlights that through pilot study the researcher can conduct cognitive testing in which the researcher studies how the respondents answer questions in a pilot test situation. Cognitive testing helps the researcher to recognise problems in the questionnaire under development through asking a small number of pre-test respondents to verbally report their thoughts while responding to draft questions (Nueman, 2011:351).   This information is used to refine the questions.   In this study, the pilot study was conducted by administering the questionnaire to ten random respondents who were not part of the target population. After the pilot test was carried out, the ambiguity of a few questions was identified and corrected. The final necessary revisions and corrections were made to limit any form of ambiguity. After the researcher was satisfied that the questionnaire was free from errors, it was administered to the target respondents.

3.9.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY CONSTRUCTS

According to Gaur and Gaur (2009:31), the most crucial aspects of precision when designing a questionnaire are validity and reliability. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:80) state that the research instrument to be used to collect research data must be both reliable and valid. In order for the conclusions to be drawn, the research should generate true information on the one hand, and be repeatable on the other (May, 2011:77). The pilot study was conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument.

3.9.5.1   VALIDITY

Punch (2005:95) describes validity as the degree to which an instrument measures what it claims to measure. Sarantakos (2005:83) concur that validity informs the researcher whether the measuring tool measures what it is believed to measure and whether this measurement is correct and accurate. Nueman (2011:211) adds that validity suggests truthfulness. Furthermore, Nueman (2011:211) cites four types of measurement validity, namely:

➢ Face validity - entails the conclusion by the scientific community that the indicator actually measures a construct.

➢ Content validity - a measure is considered to have content validity if it includes all probable dimensions of the research study.

➢ Construct validity - a measure can declare construct validity if its theoretical construct is valid, and if it measures the constructs it is invented to measure.

➢ Criterion validity - this type of validity make use of some standard or principle to indicate a construct precisely. The validity of an indicator is established by weighing it against another measure of the same construct in which the researcher has confidence.

3.9.5.2   RELIABILITY

Reliability of a measurement is the degree to which the instruments produce equivalent results for repeated trials (Punch, 2005:95). Maree (2007:147) states that reliability deals with the consistency or repeatability of a measure or an instrument. For instance, a questionnaire. High reliability is obtained when the questionnaire gives the similar findings if the study is repeated on the same sample. Sarantakos (2005:88) affirms that the rationale of reliability testing is to guarantee that the data collection instruments are robust and not sensitive to changes of the researcher, the respondent or the research conditions. Sarantakos (2005:88) further highlights the following types of reliability:

➢ Stability reliability which relates to reliability across time. It determines whether a measure produces dependable results if it is employed at different points in time.

➢ Representative reliability. It determines whether the measure will be dependable if utilised in populations other than the original population of subjects.

➢ Equivalence reliability. This type of reliability relates to reliability across indicators and to multiple indicators in the procedures. It determines if the measure in question produces consistent results across indicators.

Nueman (2011:209) states that researchers can improve reliability by clearly conceptualised constructs, use of an accurate level of measurement, using multiple indicators and using pilot tests. In this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study to resolve any shortfalls and refine the final research questionnaire (Annexure B).

3.10 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

A variety of methods can be employed to gather data from the respondents and each method has its own merits and demerits. According to Plowright (2011:17), the selection of the data collection method depends on the degree of structure and the level of mediation, which is the distance location of the researcher in relation to the issues under study. The degree of structure of data collection methods determine the level of pre-structuring of the data collected which will have implications on the way the data is generated, collected and analysed. Plowright (2011:17) further elaborates that the level of mediation is very important in determining the method of data collection. Denscombe (2010:152) states that researchers must search for the most suitable method in practice that is best suited for the task at hand. Struwig and Stead (2013:88) highlight the following common data collection methods used by researchers:

➢ Group administration of questionnaires. The data collection method regularly utilized is the group administration of survey instruments, where the analyst waits while an entire group of the respondents complete the questionnaire.

➢ Postal survey. Questionnaires are mailed to the respondents who have to read instructions and answer the questions.

➢ Telephone survey. The respondents are phoned by experienced interviewers who ask the respondents questions and record the answers.

➢ Face-to-face survey. Well trained interviewers visit the respondents, ask the questions and record the answers.

➢ Personal method of data collection. Personal method where the researcher distributes the questionnaires personally and collects completed questions later.

In this study, the researcher adopted the personal method of data collection. According to Struwig and Stead (2013:90), personal method provides a good response rate. In support, Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:257) agree that personal method of data collection ensures a high response rate compared to other methods.

3.11   FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

In order to test and evaluate the empirical dimensions of the study, hypotheses were formulated. The formed hypotheses were tested and analysed. These will be explained further in chapter 4 on the analysis of results and discussion of the findings. The following hypotheses were formulated:

H1   There is a significant relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H2   There is a significant correlation between job insecurity and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H3   There is a significant relationship between job environment and the loyalty of employees at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H4   There is a significant correlation between organisational problems and emotional attachment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H5   There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H6   There is a significant correlation between employees being satisfied with their salary and loyalty at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H7   There is a significant relationship between working conditions and emotional attachment to the organisation at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H8   There is a significant correlation between employees at Femina Garments feeling a strong sense of belonging to the organisation and getting along with co-workers.

H9   There is a significant difference between employees being satisfied in their jobs and being offered promotional opportunities at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H10   There is a significant relationship between employees identifying the organisational problems as their own and the flow of communication at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H11   There is a significant difference between employees being offered the chance to use their abilities and having the opportunity for promotion at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H12   There is a significant relationship between the relationship of employees with their supervisors at the organisation and the perceived satisfaction related to working conditions at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

H13   There is a significant correlation between the emotional attachment of employees to Femina Garments in Zimbabwe and the flow of communication in the organisation.

3.12   ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A letter of permission (Annexure D) to conduct the research at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe was obtained before the questionnaires were administered.   The questionnaires were distributed using the personal method of data collection.   The questionnaire can be administered in two ways when using personal method of data collection.   According to Struwig and Stead (2013:88), the questionnaire can be administered and completed in the presence of the researcher or completed without the presence of the researcher.   In this research study, the researcher used the personal method of data collection in which the questionnaire was administered and filled in when the researcher was not in attendance.   Burns and Bush (2002:202) state that the absence of the researcher allows the respondents to fill in the questionnaire in private, at their own time and in a comfortable manner.   There was no interaction between the researcher and the respondents.   The researcher requested all the respondents to return the completed questionnaires after one week.   After the one-week period had elapsed the researcher personally collected the questionnaires from the respondents.

3.13   ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

O`leary (2014:64) describes ethics as principles of behaviour that act to state what is really acceptable in a profession. Sarantakos (2005:16) acknowledges that codes of ethics have been formed within research institutes, professional associations and higher education institutions to guarantee that investigations are carried out according to professional and ethical standards.   Bell (2010:45) explains that

research ethics are guidelines, code of practice and procedures including such issues as deception relating to investigations, infringement on privacy, safety and confidentiality. The respondents are more likely to give such information when they perceive that the researcher wants serious answers for a justifiable research purpose and when they are assured that their responses will remain confidential. In this study the researcher adhered to the following ethical measures:

> **Informed consent**

With regard to this study, the researcher first obtained permission to conduct the research (Annexure C) and a letter of informed concern was obtained from Femina Garments in Zimbabwe (annexure D). A covering letter (annexure A) ensured that the respondents were aware of the nature, purpose and objectives of the study. In addition, the covering letter explained procedural issues that were followed during the research.

> **Right to voluntary participation**

Melville and Goddard (2004:45) contend that researchers need to avoid doing harm to people, respect people as individuals and do not subject people to unnecessary research. In addition, Nueman (2011:351) stresses the need for researchers to ensure voluntary participation by the respondents and respondents must give informed consent to take part in the research. The researcher notified the respondents that participation was strictly voluntary and there were no adverse consequences for respondents should they chose to withdraw.

> **Anonymity and confidentiality**

The anonymity of the respondents is also important. Bell (2010:45) attests that the researcher must not be capable to know which responses come from which respondents. In the questionnaire that was used to collect data, there was no area that requires respondents to put their names or identity details. In this study all the information that was collected was treated with utmost confidentiality. The covering letter (Annexure A) reinforced confidentiality and anonymity.

3.14   ANALYSIS OF DATA

De Vos, Stydom, Fouche and Delport (2007:333) state that data analysis is a procedure of bringing order, structure and meaning to the data gathered in research. Furthermore, Sarantakos (2005:60) states that data analysis is the statistical analysis of data collected in research to establish whether the generated hypotheses have been supported. After collecting the questionnaires from the respondents, the response rate was calculated and questionnaires were checked to ensure that all respondents had answered and completed all the statements.   The responses to the closed-ended structured quantitative questionnaire were captured to form a data set. Sekaran (2006:301) states that after data has been collected from the target population, the next step is to analyse the data to test the research hypotheses. Therefore, the data was analysed using the latest version of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows using appropriate statistical tests.

3.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained the research methodology that was employed to gather the primary data for this research. The research design and approach that was utilised to gather data was also discussed. This chapter detailed a discussion of the research instrument, data collection method that was used, ethical considerations, validity and reliability as well as analyses of the data was presented. The survey method was used and the questionnaire as a data collection instrument was utilised to gather data. Having discussed how the data was collected in this study, the following step is to analyse the data and use the statistical tests to interpret the data in a meaningful manner. The following chapter presents an overview of the results and discusses the findings emanating from the field work.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the research methodology utilised to collect data for this study. This chapter addresses the research results and findings. In addition, this chapter collates the research results captured from the questionnaire in order to conduct a detailed analysis of the findings and to determine if job insecurity has an impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The initial results present the descriptive statistics in the form of graphs, cross tabulations and other figures for the quantitative data that was analysed. Inferential techniques include the use of other non-parametric tests as the data was in an ordinal format.

The main aim of the research was to study the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. A quantitative research method was adopted for this study. The structured closed-ended research questionnaire was administered to all employees at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The personal method was used to distribute the questionnaire. In total, 109 questionnaires were distributed and 102 were returned which gave a 93.58% response rate. The survey method was used due to a relatively small population of 109 employees from Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The responses to the research questions were captured to form a data set. Thereafter, the responses were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 and using appropriate statistical tests. The initial results for each category are shown in numbered Tables and Figures.

4.2   THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research instrument consisted of 34 items and in the main variables, the data analysis was ordinal in nature. The questionnaire was divided into sections which measured various themes as illustrated below:

Section A   Biographical data

Section B   Job insecurity

Section C   Organisational commitment

Section D   Job satisfaction

4.3   SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

This section summarises the biographical characteristics of the respondents. The section focuses on the age, gender, type of employment contract, length of service and the educational level of the respondents. The statistical information is presented in numbered figures and frequency tables.   The initial analysis is shown in a numbered Table and the same results are also depicted in a numbered Figure.

4.3.1 GENDER OF RESPONDENTS

Table 4.1   Gender of respondents (n=102)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	53	51.96%
Female	49	48.04%
Total	102	100%

Figure 4.1   Gender of respondents (n=102)
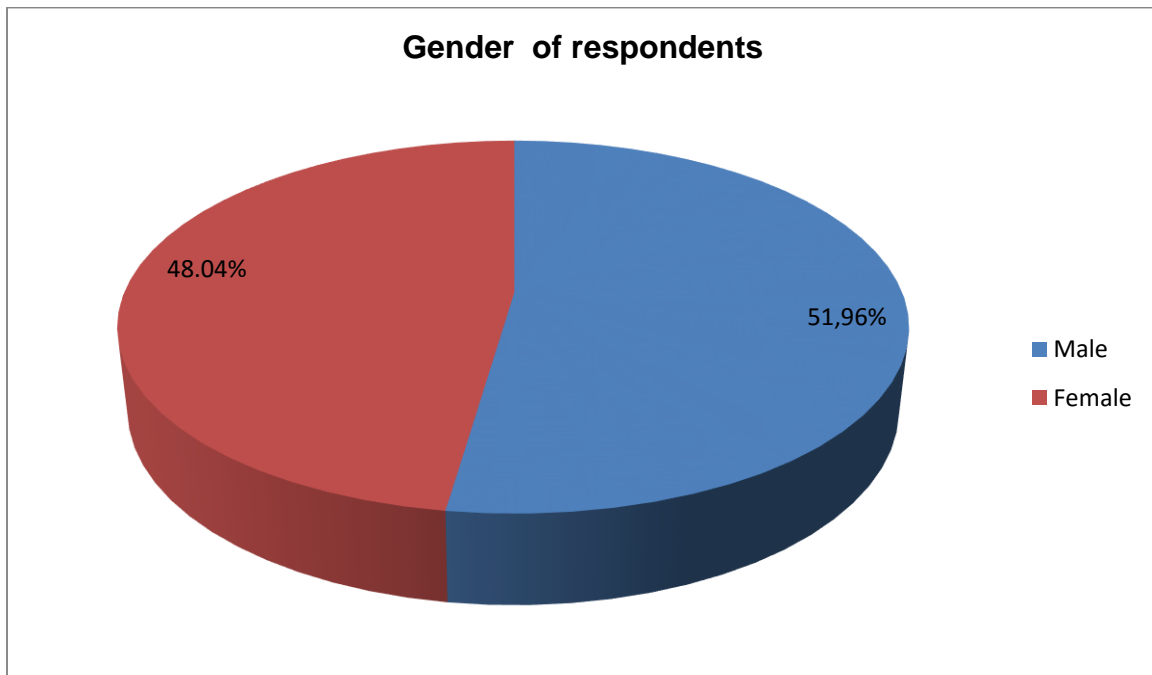
Figure 4.1 depicts a pie chart that illustrates the gender of the respondents. Figure 4.1 shows that there was a moderate balance between males (51.96%) and females (48.04%) at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. In relation to gender, Table 4.1 above also provides the number of male and female that where part of the study. Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1 suggest that Femina Garments employed moderately more males than females. In support, research conducted by Waveren, Trjdens, Williams and Martin (2010:55) on the overview of women employed generally the in Zimbabwean clothing industry revealed that the manufacturing sector employed fewer women (37.9%) than men (62.1%).

4.3.2 AGE GROUP OF THE RESPONDENTS

Table 4.2   Analysis of the age groups of respondents (n=102)

Age range	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 20 years	11	10.79%
21- 30 years	36	35.29%
31- 40 years	34	33.33%
41- 50 years	8	7.84%
51+ years	13	12.75%
Total	102	100%

Figure 4.2   Analysis of the age groups of respondents (n=102)
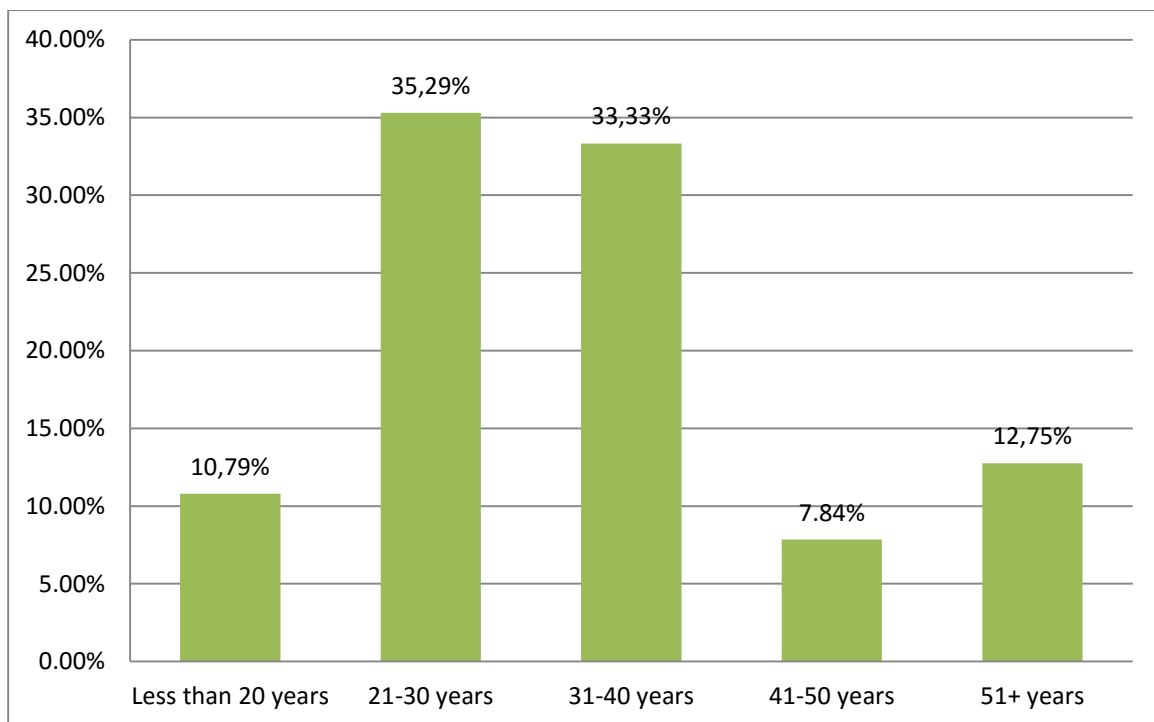
Figure 4.2 and Table 4.2 respectively indicate that 35.29% of the respondents were between the ages of 21- 30 years, followed by 33.33% in the age group of 31- 40 years. Both Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 reveal that employees in the age groups of 21- 30 and 31- 40 were mostly employed by Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. In addition, 12.75% of respondents were over 51 years old and a further 10.79% were less than 20 years of age. It is clear from the pie chart (Figure 4.2) that 7.84% of the

respondents were between the ages of 41-50 years. This category represents the smallest group in the survey.

4.3.3 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN THE GENDER AND AGE PROFILES OF THE RESPONDENTS

Table 4.3   Comparison between age and gender of the respondents (n=102)

Age range	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female			
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Less than 20 years	6	5.89%	5	4.90%	11	10.79%
21- 30 years	17	16.67%	19	18.63%	36	35.29%
31- 40 years	19	18.63%	15	14.70%	34	33.33%
41- 50 years	4	3.92%	4	3.92%	8	7.84%
51+ years	7	6.86%	6	5.89%	13	12.75%
Total	53	51.96%	49	48.04%	102	100%

Table 4.3 above indicates that within the age category of 31 to 40 years, 18.63% were males and 14.70% were females. In addition, within the category of 21- 30 years, 18.63% were females and 16.67% were males. Within the age category of 41 to 50 years both males and females were 3.92% and this group represents 7.84% of the total population. The age group of 51 years and older comprised 6.86% males and 5.89% females. In relation to employees less than 20 years old, Table 4.3 shows that 5.89% were men and 4.90% were women.

4.3.4 LENGTH OF SERVICE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Table 4.4   Length of service of respondents (n=102)

Length of service	Frequency	Percentage
1-5 years	54	52.94%
6-10 years	27	26.47%
11-15 years	7	6.87%
16-20 years	5	4.90%
21-25 years	2	1.96%
26-30 years	2	1.96%
Over 30 years	5	4.90%
Total	102	100%

Figure 4.3   Length of service of respondents (n=102)
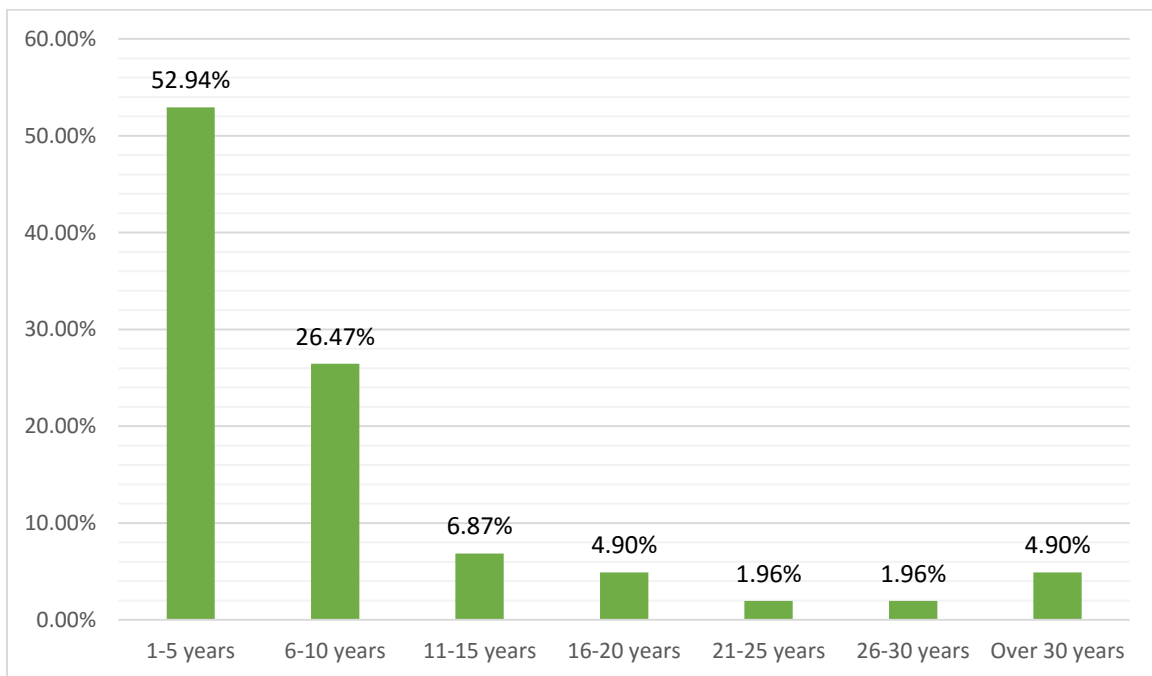
Table 4.4 and Figure 4.3 above provide the length of service of respondents in the survey. In the survey of 102 employees, 52.94% had 1-5 years of service; 26.47% had 6-10 years of service, followed by 6.87% who had 11-15 years of service and 4.90% who had 16-20 years of service. The employees with 21-25 years of service and those with 26-30 years of service both constituted 1.96% of the population and 4.90% was made up of employees with 30 years of service. Both Table 4.4 and

Figure 4.3 illustrate that 52.94% of the respondents had less than 5 years as their length of service at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Overall, this reflects that 47.06% (100% less 52.94% respondents with 1-5 years of service) of the respondents had more than 5 years of service at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

4.3.5 TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT CONTRACT OF THE RESPONDENTS

Table 4.5 Type of employment contract (n=102)

Employment Contract	Frequency	Percentage
Fixed term	61	59.80%
Permanent	41	40.20%
Total	102	100%

Figure 4.4 Type of employment contract (n=102)
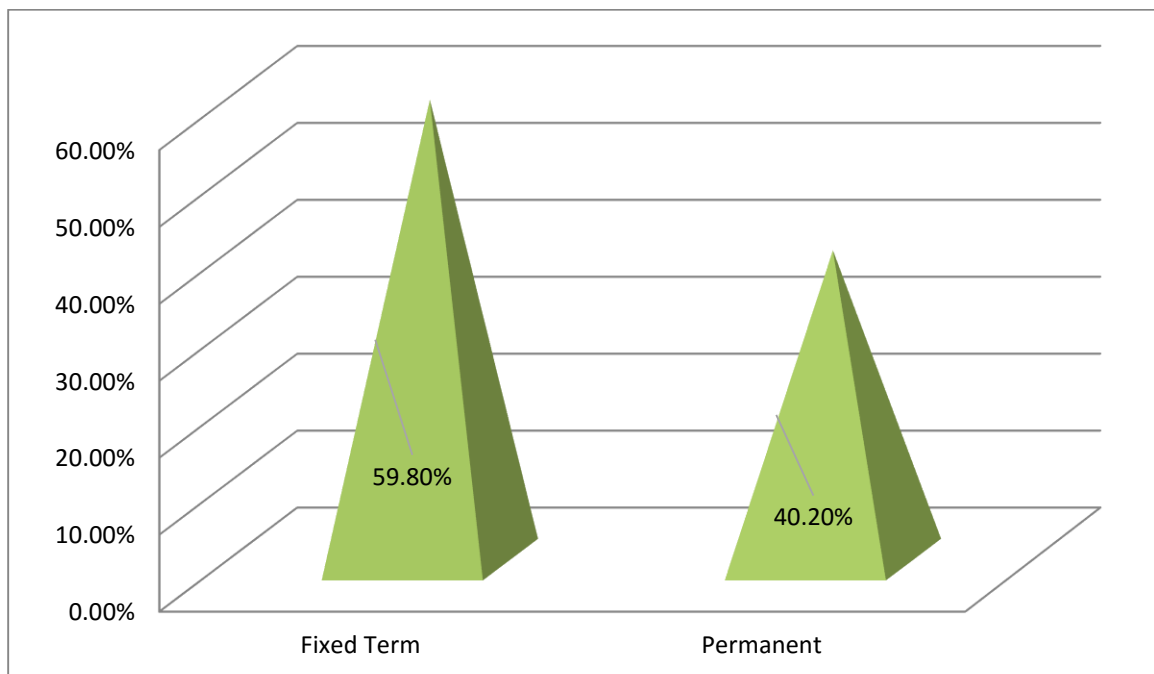
Table 4.5 and Figure 4.4 above indicate the type of employment contracts of the respondents at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe, where 59.80% of the respondents were employed on the basis of fixed-term contracts and 40.20% were permanent

employees. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.4 respectively suggest that Femina Garments employs most of its workers on fixed-term contracts. Given the difficult economic climate in Zimbabwe, Aleksynska and Muller (2012:3) state that the reason for the growing trend towards fixed-term contracts is to lower the labour and non-labour costs associated with employment contracts of a fixed term duration.

4.3.6 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN GENDER AND THE TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT OF RESPONDENTS

Table 4.6 **Comparison between gender and the type of employment of respondents at Femina Garments (n =102)**

Employment Contract	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female			
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Fixed Term	42	41.18%	19	18.63%	61	59.80%
Permanent	11	10.78%	30	29.41%	41	40.20%
Total	53	51.96%	49	48.04%	102	100%

Table 4.6 presents a comparison between gender and the type of employment of respondents at Femina Garments. Table 4.6 shows that Femina Garments employed more men (41.18%) on fixed-term contracts and most women (29.41%) were employed on a permanent basis. Based on Table 4.6, it is evident that the comparative analysis of gender and type of employment contract at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe corresponds with the International Labour Organisation report (2014:11), which states that skilled women comprised a high number of employees in critical positions with permanent and secure jobs in the textile, clothing and leather, as well as footwear industries.

4.3.7   EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OF RESPONDENTS

Table 4.7   Educational levels of respondents (n=102)

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
Lower than O level	20	19.61%
O level certificate	35	34.14%
A level certificate	16	15.68%
Certificate	7	6.86%
Diploma	11	10.78%
Undergraduate degree	8	7.84%
Postgraduate degree	5	4.90%
Total	**102**	**100%**

Figure 4.5   Educational levels of respondents (n=102)
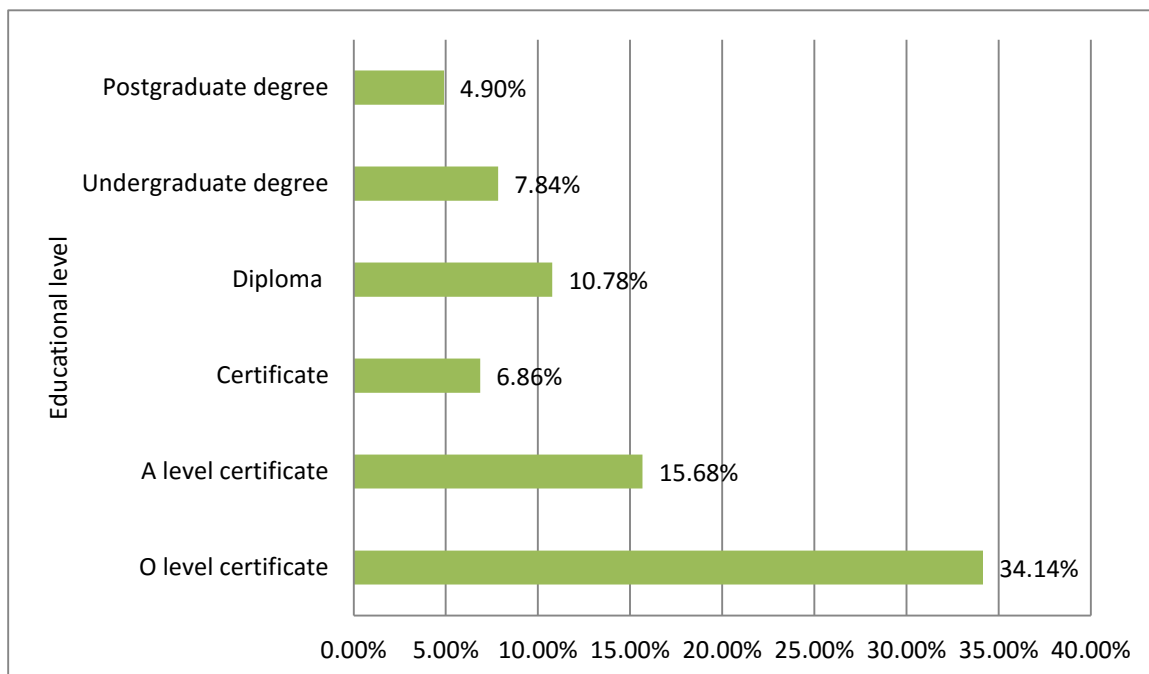
The educational levels of the respondents are depicted in Figure 4.5 and Table 4.7 above. In the survey of 102 employees, only 4.90% had a postgraduate degree and 7.84% had an undergraduate degree. Figure 4.5 and Table 4.7 also reflect that the highest educational qualification for the majority of respondents at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe was an Ordinary level certificate (34.14%) followed by 19.61%

respondents with a lower than Ordinary level certificate, whilst 10.78% comprised respondents with a Diploma; 15.68% with an Advanced level certificate and 6.86% had a National Certificate. The results indicate that Femina Garments in Zimbabwe employed more qualified employees. The results are supported by Mpofu (2013:83) who states that the clothing manufacturing industry of Zimbabwe has more qualified and skilled employees who produce high quality products.

4.4   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics require ordering and summarising the data by means of tabulations and graphical representations, as well as the calculation of descriptive measures (Gaur and Gaur, 2009:37). According to Treiman (2009:114), descriptive statistics are very useful because it permits the reader to understand the most basic aspects of the data being analysed.   The descriptive statistics relating to job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been outlined in this section. In this study, the descriptive statistics are presented using frequency tables, graphs and various statistical tests that were performed to analyse the data.

4.4.1 SECTION B: ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO JOB INSECURITY

This section deals with the results of the questionnaire on job insecurity. Table 4.8 below shows the percentile summary of the scoring patterns relating to job insecurity. The levels of disagreement were aggregated to show a single category of disagreement and a similar process was conducted for the levels of agreement. The results are presented in Figure 4.6 using summarised percentages for the variables of the sub-statements that constitute each category.

Table 4.8   Scoring patterns relating to job insecurity (n=102)

	STATEMENT	RESPONSES	RESPONSE OPTIONS			TOTAL
			AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
B1	I am certain of my job environment	COUNT	58	23	21	102
		PERCENTAGE	56.86%	22.55%	20.59%	100%
B2	I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job	COUNT	53	23	26	102
		PERCENTAGE	51.96%	22.55%	25.49%	100%
B3	I feel uncertain about the future of my job	COUNT	40	30	32	102
		PERCENTAGE	39.22%	29.41%	31.37%	100%
B4	I worry about the continuation of my career	COUNT	50	18	34	102
		PERCENTAGE	49.02%	17.67%	33.33%	100%
B5	I fear that I might lose my job	COUNT	43	25	34	102
		PERCENTAGE	42.16%	24.51%	33.33%	100%
B6	I fear that I might get fired	COUNT	21	24	57	102
		PERCENTAGE	20.59%	23.53%	55.88%	100%
B7	There is a possibility that I might lose my job in the near future	COUNT	46	26	30	102
		PERCENTAGE	45.10%	25.49%	29.41%	100%
B8	I think that I will be able to continue working here	COUNT	50	39	13	102
		PERCENTAGE	49.02%	38.24%	12.75%	100%
B9	I am worried about my job security	COUNT	55	21	26	102
		PERCENTAGE	53.92%	20.59%	25.49%	100%
B10	There is a small chance that I will become unemployed	COUNT	43	36	23	102
		PERCENTAGE	42.16%	35.29%	22.55%	100%

Figure 4.6   Summary of the scoring pattern relating to job insecurity (n=102)
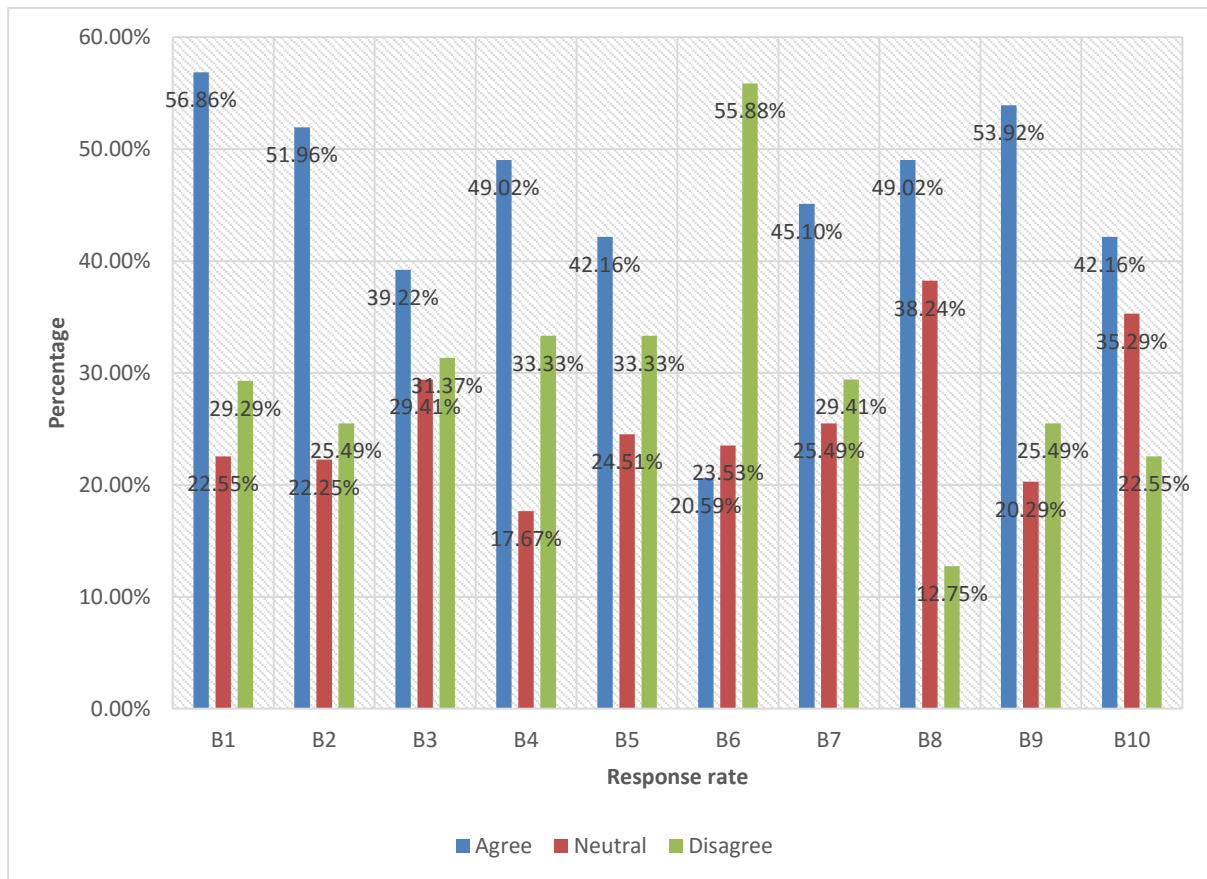
Table 4.8 and Figure 4.6 respectively show the summary of the scoring patterns pertaining to job insecurity.   The statement for B1 shows that the majority of respondents (56.86%) indicated that they were certain of their job environment, while 20.29% of the respondents indicated that they were not certain of their job environment.   According to Bernston, Naswall, Lindfors and Sverke (2014:2030), what happens around a person contributes to the interpretation of the situation as being uncertain, and thus to the formation of job insecurity perceptions.   Therefore, the interpretation of a job insecurity feeling can be influenced by making sense around the events and situations at work (Martinez, Cuyper and De Witte, 2010:195). Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall (2006:8) concur that job insecurity can be conceptualized as the individual's perception of their own situation, as well as their sense of the surrounding job environment.

In Figure 4.6 the statement for B6 indicates that 55.88% of the respondents were not afraid that they might get fired and 20.59% were afraid that they might get fired.   This

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analysis indicates higher levels of disagreement (55.88%). According to Karkoulina, Mukaddan, McCarthy and Messara (2013:58), the organisation's standard operating procedure for dismissing employees determines the degree of powerlessness to counteract the job loss threat. Employees are dismissed based on misconduct, inability to do the work they are employed for and operational requirements of the employer (Swanepoel and Slabbert, 2012:321). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (2010:10) state that the lack of fair dismissal procedures makes employees feel very insecure.

Futhermore, Figure 4.6 shows that the statement for B2 revealed that 51.96% of the respondents were very sure that they will be able to keep their jobs and 25.49% indicated that they were not sure if they will be able to keep their jobs. This indicates that the minority of respondents (25.49%) had fears of job insecurity. According to Hellgren, Sverke and Hellgren (2006:8), quantitative job insecurity is when employees are not sure that if they will be able to secure their jobs or become unemployed in the future. Statement B8 shows that 49.02% of respondents thought that they would be able to keep working at Femina Garments. A minority of the respondents (12.75%) indicated that they did not think they would contiue working at Femina Garments. These results are consistent with Bhebhe`s (2014:4) findings on the job survey that was carried out in Zimbabwe in 2014. The survey revealed that 61.34% of respondents felt secure in their current jobs regardless of retrenchments and company closures that had affected most industries. In support, Pittinky and Shih (2005:11) attested that a perceived lack of opportunities and mobility to transfer skills and education from the current organisation to other organisations were the main causes of job insecurity feelings.

According to De Witte, De Cuyper, Elst, Vanbelle and Niesen (2012:12), qualitative job insecurity is the perceived weakening of the employment relation. In Figure 4.6, the statement for B4 illustrates that 49.02% of respondents were worried about the continuation of their careers, whilst 33.33% were not worried about the continuation of their careers. Vanbelle and Niesen (2012:12) state that depreciation in the quality

of employment stems from the declining value of job aspects such as pay, promotion and working conditions.

As shown in Figure 4.6 above, 53.92% of the respondents indicated that they were worried about their job security, while 25.49 % indicated that they were not worried about their job security (statement B9). The results indicate the subjective component of job insecurity. According to Smith (2013:44), subjective job insecurity is the perception of a potential job loss which is influenced by individual, social and organisational characteristics. This shows that most of the respondents (53.92%) at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe had a job insecurity feeling. This corresponds with the Industrial Psychology Consultants (IPC)'s Employee Confidence Report (2014:10) conducted in Zimbabwe which revealed that employees were increasingly feeling insecure about their jobs largely due to increasing economic challenges which resulted in company closures and consequently job losses.

Moreover, it is significant to note that there was a high level of neutral responses. As shown in Figure 4.6 above, all the statements (B1- B10) on the job insecurity summary revealed more than 15% neutral response. Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall (2006:8) state that job insecurity is a very sensitive issue. Employees at Femina Garments were afraid of voicing their opinions. According to Shreurs, Guanter, Jawah and De Cuyper (2015:1112), job insecurity is a sensitive subject and punishment or reward influences how employees voiced their opinions regarding job insecurity. Feltoe and Reid-Rowland (2015:60) state that freedom of expression is the right that most citizens in Zimbabwe do not enjoy because of the political culture and instability in the country.

4.4.2 SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

This section deals with descriptive statistics regarding perceptions of organisational commitment by respondents at Femina Garments. Table 4.9 and Figure 4.7 below show percentile summarised scoring patterns relating to organisational commitment.

Table 4.9 Organisational commitment scoring patterns (n=102)

	STATEMENT	RESPONSES	RESPONSE OPTIONS			TOTAL
			AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
C1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation	COUNT	72	14	16	102
		PERCENTAGE	70.59%	13.73%	15.69%	100%
C2	I really feel as if this organisation`s problems are my own	COUNT	79	14	9	102
		PERCENTAGE	77.45%	13.73%	8.82%	100%
C3	The organisation has a great personal meaning to me	COUNT	69	24	9	102
		PERCENTAGE	67.65%	23.53%	8.82%	100%
C4	This organisation deserves my loyalty	COUNT	90	7	5	102
		PERCENTAGE	88.24%	6.86%	4.90%	100%
C5	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now even if I wanted to	COUNT	70	19	13	102
		PERCENTAGE	68.67%	18.63%	12.75%	100%
C6	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation	COUNT	15	19	68	102
		PERCENTAGE	14.71%	18.63%	66.66%	100%
C7	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation	COUNT	21	17	64	102
		PERCENTAGE	20.59%	16.67%	62.75%	100%
C8	I do not feel like part of the family at my organisation	COUNT	16	18	68	102
		PERCENTAGE	15.69	17.65%	66.66%	100%
C9	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	COUNT	58	21	23	102
		PERCENTAGE	56.86%	20.59%	22.55%	100%
C10	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it	COUNT	74	18	10	102
		PERCENTAGE	72.55%	17.65%	9.80%	100%

Figure 4.7   Summary of organisational commitment scoring patterns (n=102)
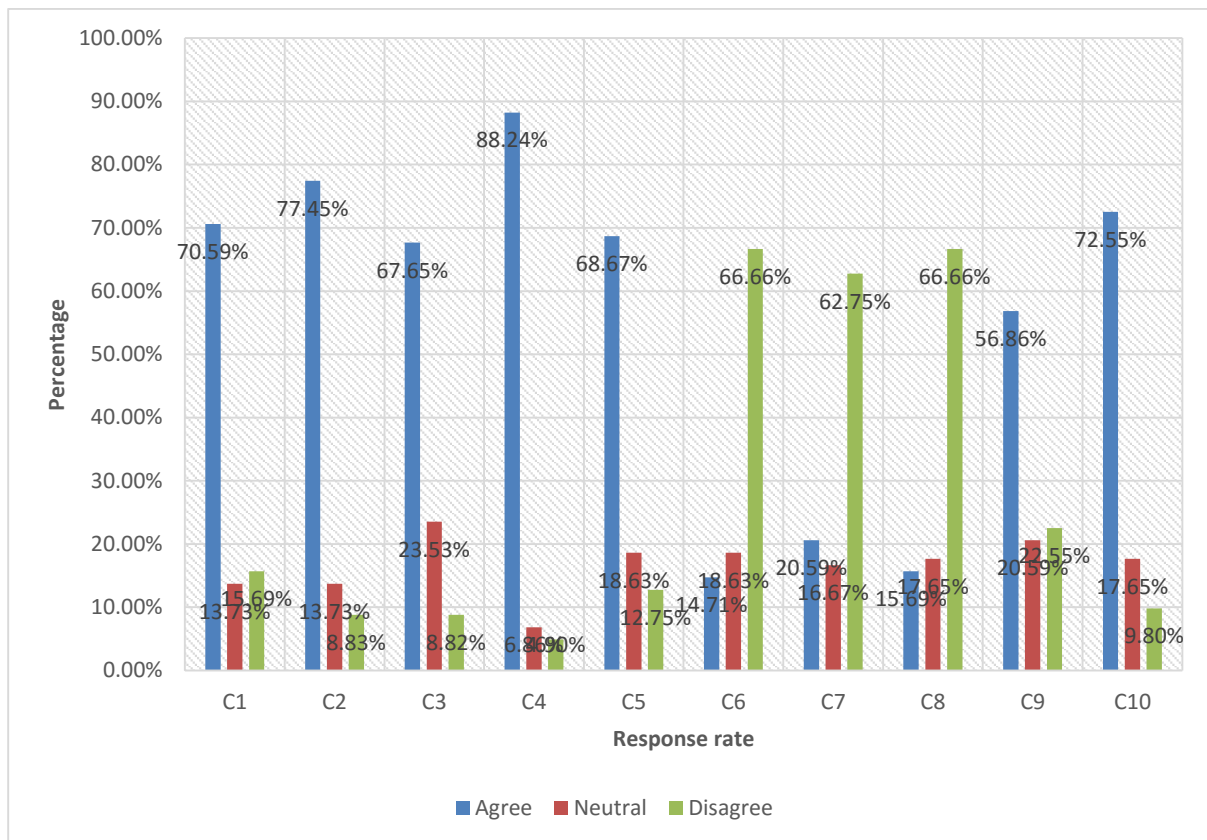
According to Kinicki and Kreitner (2010:67), the sub-scales for measuring the organisational commitment of employees are affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. The affective commitment of employees in this study is shown in Figure 4.7 as C2, C3, C4, C6, C7, C8 and C10. All the scorings regarding this sub-scale were significantly different and show that the employees were greatly committed to the organisation in an affective way. Dixit and Bhati (2012:37) state that affective commitment is determined by the extent to which an individual is attached to the organisation through feelings such as emotional attachment, affection, loyalty, a feeling of belonging and pleasure. Figure 4.7 indicates that 84.24% of the respondents were loyal to their organisation (statement C4). Statement C8 shows that 66.66% of the respondents believed they were part of the family and felt that they belonged to the organisation and 62.75% indicated that they were emotionally attached to the organisation (Statement C7). In addition, the

statement for C10 revealed that 72.55% of respondents found it pleasurable to discuss their organisation with people outside it. The overall results show that the majority of respondents demonstrated their affective commitment towards Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

The subscale of normative commitment is shown as C1 and C9 in Figure 4.7. The response to statement C1 revealed that 70.59% of respondents were happy to spend the rest of their careers at Femina Garments and 15.69% indicated that they were not happy to spend their careers at the present organisation. Furthermore, the statement for C9 illustrates that of the 102 respondents, 56.86% would feel guilty if they left Femina Garments and 22.55% indicated that they would not feel guilty. The results (C1 and C9) suggest that the respondents tend to stay with Femina Garments because they perceive it as an obligation to stay. According to Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007:64), employees are committed the normative way because they felt that they had a moral obligation to stay at Femina Garments. Meyer and Parfyanova (2010:284) explain that normative committed workers are keen to make a personal sacrifice for the organisation because they think it is the right thing to do.

Continuance commitment is illustrated in Figure 4.7 as C5, for which 68.67% of the respondents indicated that they found it very hard for them to leave their current organisation even if they wanted to and 13.7% revealed that they could easily desert their current organisation. The results revealed that continuance commitment amongst respondents was high. Hitt, Miller and Colella (2009:165) state that when there are scarce employment opportunities in the labour market, employees would be committed to the organisation the continuance way. In Zimbabwe, the rate of unemployment is around 94% (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2008:30). Therefore, employees have very few employment alternatives and therefore opt to stay with their current organisations irrespective of any negating factors.

Overall, the organisational commitment survey results indicate that the majority of respondents at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe tend to remain with the organisation because they desire to (affective commitment), they need to (normative commitment) and they want to avoid the costs linked with separation from the employing organisation (continuance commitment). Consequently, this resulted in an increased total organisational commitment by employees at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

4.4.3 SECTION D: JOB SATISFACTION

This section underscores the descriptive analysis underpinning the job satisfaction of the respondents in the survey. Table 4.10 and Figure 4.8 below summarise the percentile scoring patterns relating to job satisfaction, followed by the descriptive analysis.

Table 4.10   Job satisfaction scoring patterns (n=102)

	STATEMENT	RESPONSES	RESPONSE OPTIONS			TOTAL
			AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
D1	I am satisfied with the way my job provides for steady employment	COUNT	55	23	24	102
		PERCENTAGE	53.92%	22.55%	23.53%	100%
D2	I am satisfied with my salaries and benefits	COUNT	21	23	58	102
		PERCENTAGE	20.59%	22.55%	56.86%	100%
D3	I am satisfied with the working conditions at this organisation	COUNT	61	23	18	102
		PERCENTAGE	59.80%	22.55%	17.65%	100%
D4	I am satisfied with the way my co-workers get along with each other	COUNT	82	9	11	102
		PERCENTAGE	80.39%	8.82%	10.78%	100%
D5	I have opportunities to get promoted	COUNT	46	23	33	102
		PERCENTAGE	45.10%	22.55%	33.35%	100%
C6	I have a chance to do something that uses my abilities	COUNT	83	8	11	102
		PERCENTAGE	81.37%	7.84%	10.78%	100%
D7	Communication and flow of information is good in this organisation	COUNT	77	16	9	102
		PERCENTAGE	75.49%	15.69%	8.82%	100%
D8	I have job security	COUNT	42	23	37	102
		PERCENTAGE	41.18%	22.55%	36.28%	100%
D9	I am satisfied with my relationship with my supervisor	COUNT	86	8	8	102
		PERCENTAGE	84.31%	7.84%	7.84%	100%
D10	Overall, I am satisfied with my job	COUNT	82	11	9	102
		PERCENTAGE	80.39%	10.78%	8.82%	100%

Figure 4.8   Summaries of job satisfaction scoring patterns (n=102)
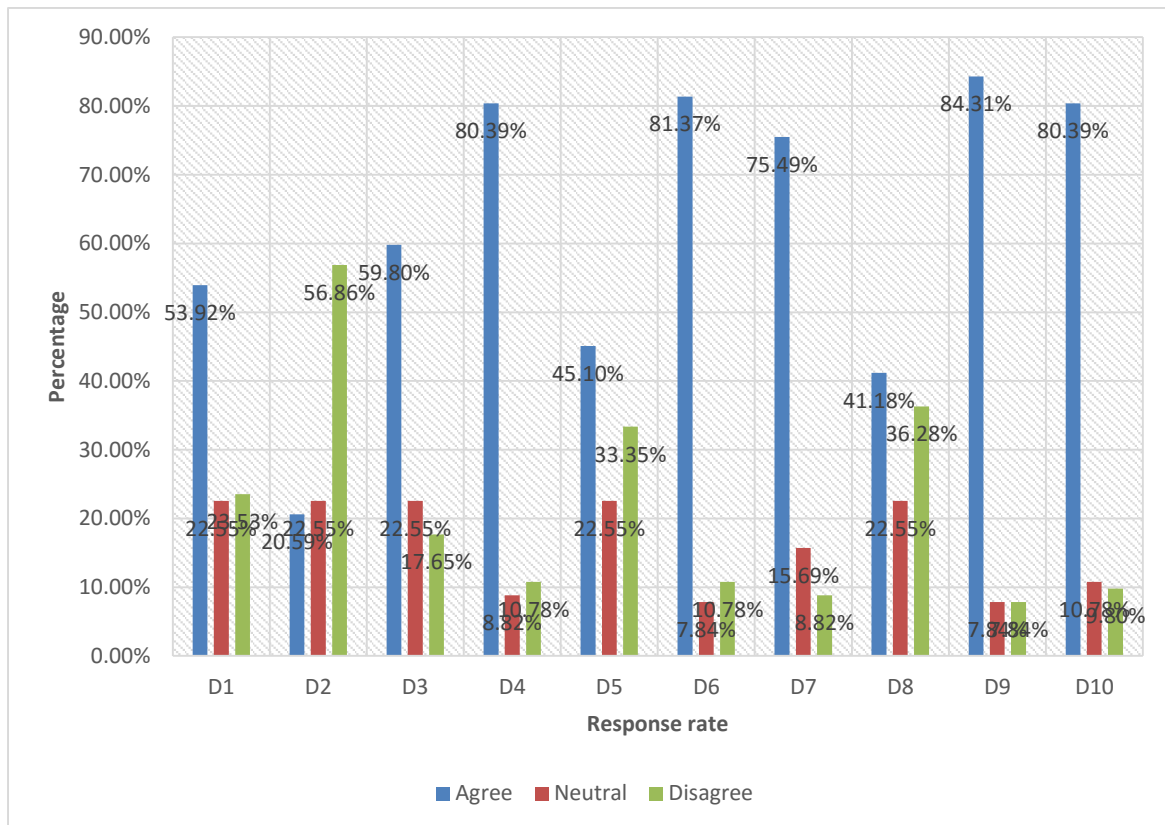
The descriptive analysis of this section for each statement (D1-D10) is depicted in Table 4.10 and Figure 4.8 respectively. The respondents indicated that they were satisfied with most elements of their jobs. From the results, it is important to note that most respondents were satisfied with the interpersonal relationships within the organisation. The interpersonal relationships measurements are shown in Figure 4.8 above as D4, D7 and D9. D4 illustrates that 80.39% of the respondents were satisfied with the way in which co-workers get along with each other. According to Sypniewska (2013:58), when co-workers are friendly, supportive and get along with each other, it creates a favourable atmosphere for job satisfaction. As indicated in Figure 4.8, the analysis for D7 in relation to communication flow indicates that 75.49% of the respondents perceived that communication and the flow of information is very good in the organisation. Good communication between workers at different levels creates an environment where job satisfaction is likely to be sustained (Gu and Siu, 2008:565). In addition, the analysis for D9 indicates that 84.31% of respondents revealed that they had good relationships with their supervisors.

According to Saleem (2015:565), a good relationship between managers and employees is very important because it positively influences job satisfaction.

As shown in Figure 4.8 (D2) in relation to salaries and benefits, 56.86% of respondents were not satisfied with their salaries and benefits, while 22% indicated that they were satisfied with their salaries and benefits. The costs of doing business in Zimbabwe are very high, coupled with the influx of cheap imported clothes into the market. Hence, the local clothing manufacturing companies are struggling to survive (Huni, 2015:1). In order for business to survive, labour cost reduction is necessary as it constitutes more than half of the total costs. According to Gumbo (2015:1), the textile and clothing industry reduced salaries by an average of 30% in recent years as part of measures to contain costs and retain viability. Furthermore, Gumbo (2015:1) states that the minimum pay for workers in the textile and clothing sector in Zimbabwe is USD200 which is far less than the poverty datum line of USD500 for 2016.

Moreover, Figure 4.8 and Table 4.10 for D3 in relation to working conditions showed that the majority of respondents (59.80%) were satisfied with the working conditions in the organisation, while a minority of respondents (17.65%) indicated that they were not satisfied with the working conditions at Femina Garments. Working conditions are central to job satisfaction because employees spend most of their time at their workplaces, thereby making working conditions critical to job satisfaction. In support, Luthans (2011:143) concurs that when working conditions are good, then employees will be satisfied with their jobs. According to Stimpson (2005:320), better working conditions eliminate job dissatisfaction in the workplace but cannot offer conditions for job satisfaction to exist.

A highly significant majority of respondents (81.37%) in Figure 4.8 for D6 in relation to skills and abilities revealed that they had a chance to do something that utilised their abilities, while 10.78% indicated that they did not have the chance to use their abilities. This shows that jobs at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe are designed in

such a way that requires employees to use their skills and abilities in relation to their job descriptions. Kaymaz (2010:70) states that job design had extremely important effects in increasing the job satisfaction of the employees. In support, Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011:103) state that employees prefer jobs that allow them to utilise their skills, abilities and that are mentally demanding.

4.5   HYPOTHESIS TESTING

According to Fink (2008:338), a hypothesis is an unproven theory that can be tested through research. The main objective of hypothesis testing is to test a theory, which is an organised system of assumptions and principles that attempts to explain phenomena and how they are related. To appropriately test a hypothesis, it must be predicted and clearly articulated (Jackson, 2011:263). The main aim of the study was to investigate the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. After presenting the descriptive analysis of the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe, it was necessary to test the relevant hypotheses. For each of the hypotheses formulated, two non-parametric tests were used to determine the degree of causality or significance. Furthermore, these statistical tests were conducted at a 95% confidence interval using the SPSS version 24 program.

Hypothesis 1

H_1 There is a significant relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.11 Relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction (n=102)

Statements D10 and B9	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	25.881	16	0.081
Likelihood ratio	22.812	16	0.074
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.912	1	0.065
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.543		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 25.881, df = 16, Significant p > 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.543, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.11 reveals that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p > 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient (rs < 0.7) produced a non-significant result. The Pearson's Chi-Square value of 25.881 is less than the χ^2 cut-off value of 26.296, whilst the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient of 0.543 is less than the rs cut-off value of 0.7. As depicted in Table 4.11, the test statistics show that there is no significant difference between job insecurity and job satisfaction, hence the hypothesis is rejected. The outcome of this finding is inconsistent with research conducted by Reisel, Tahira and Probst (2010:84) on the effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour of employees in the West Coast in the USA. The study revealed that job insecurity was negatively related to job satisfaction. In addition, the study conducted by Fatimah, Noraishah, Nasir (2012:50) in the textile industry in Malaysia also revealed that if employees perceived their job security was threatened and in jeopardy, then this affected their job satisfaction. Moreover, the findings of Mahmoud and Reisel (2014:47) in private hospitals in Damascus and Rural Damascus revealed that job insecurity was the main source of nurses` dissatisfaction in private hospitals.

Hypothesis 2

H2   There is a significant correlation between job insecurity and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.12   Relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment (n=102)

Statements C4 and B9	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.912	8	0.049
Likelihood Ratio	11.912	8	0.084
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.114	1	0.761
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.791		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 38.912, df = 8, Significant $p < 0.05$; Spearman (r_s) = 0.791, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.12 reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square test result ($p < 0.05$) is significant. There is a significant correlation between job insecurity and organisational commitment. The Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient ($r_s > 0.7$) also supports a strong correlation between job insecurity and organisational commitment. The correlation between job insecurity and organisational commitment can be explained by the concept of a psychological contract, which entails a process of giving and receiving by the worker and the organisation. According to Mullins (2010: 282), workers anticipate that the organisation will endeavour to give professional

stability in return for their dedication. In addition, the perceived risk of losing one`s occupation is connected with lower commitment and less readiness to stay with the organisation (Furaker and Berglund, 2014:181). Lord and Hartley (1998:353) conducted a research on job insecurity and organisational commitment in a changing public service organisation. The findings of their research revealed that there was relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment. Moreover, the results of this hypothesis correspond with research conducted by Pillay (2006:53) on the relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment, as well as job satisfaction in a leading telecommunication company in South Africa which revealed that job insecurity had a weak inverse relationship with organisational commitment. The results of this study correlates with the findings of Moshoue (2011:135), who explored the relationship between job insecurity, organisational commitment and work engagement amongst staff in a tertiary education institution. The results showed that job insecurity had a significant relationship with organisational commitment. Therefore, the findings of this hypothesis suggest that job insecurity had an impact on organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Hypothesis 3

H3   There is a significant relationship between job environment and the loyalty of employees at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.13   Relationship between Job environment and loyalty towards the organisation (n=102)

Statements C4 and B1	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.412	8	0.009
Likelihood Ratio	28.109	8	0.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.311	1	0.071
Χ²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.722		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 33.412, df = 8, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.722, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.13 reveals that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient (r_s > 0.7) produced a moderately significant result. The test statistics show that there is a moderately significant relationship between job environment and loyalty towards the organisation. According to Quick and Nelson (2011:223), when employees perceive their work environment to be conducive, they will be more dedicated to the organisation. Laba and Choudry (2013:413) state that human resources practices play a significant role in enhancing employee commitment through proper the dissemination of information regarding work at all levels

Hypothesis 4

H$_4$ There is a significant correlation between organisational problems and emotional attachment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.14   Relationship between organisational problems and emotional attachment at Femina Garments (n=102)

Statements C2 and C7	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	47.162	8	0.008
Likelihood Ratio	38.109	8	0.012
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.501	1	0.092
X^2	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.819		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 47.162, df = 8, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.819, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.14 above reveals that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient (r_s > 0.7) are highly significant. There is a highly significant correlation between organisational problems and emotional attachment at Femina Garments. That is, the more personal the organisation`s problems become, the less attached one is to the organisation. Organisational problems present stress to employees and they would disassociate themselves from their stressors by leaving the organisation. Cei (2011:1080) states

that organisational problems cause occupational stress which negatively affects organisational commitment. A study by Mehta, Singh, Bhakar and Sinha (2010:107) on emotional attachment towards the organisation found that the primary factors for emotional attachment were motivation, bonding, job security, leadership and career development.

Hypothesis 5

H$_5$ There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.15   Relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments (n=102)

Statements D10 and C1	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.712	8	0.0001
Likelihood Ratio	39.871	8	0.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.911	1	0.082
X^2	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.814		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 45.712, df = 8, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.814, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

In relation to Table 4.15 above, the Pearson Chi-Square value (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient (r_s > 0.7) are highly significant. This

result reflects that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The results are consistent with the study reported by Haung and Hsiao (2007:1274) who conducted research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Taiwan and found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were mutually related. Furthermore, a study by Yucel (2012:55) explored the relationship amongst job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions in a Turkish manufacturing company. The results revealed that job satisfaction positively influences organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 6

H_6 There is a significant correlation between employees being satisfied with their salary and loyalty at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.16   Relationship between satisfaction with salary and loyalty at Femina Garments (n=102)

Statements D2 and C4	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28.433	12	0.093
Likelihood Ratio	24.944	12	0.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	17.776	1	0.002
X^2	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.712		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 28.433, df = 12, Significant p > 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.712, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.16 illustrates that the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p > 0.05) was not significant.   However, the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient (r_s > 0.7) produced a significant result.   Therefore, it may be deduced that there was a moderate significant correlation between salary and benefits and loyalty of the employees towards the organisation.   According to Stimpson (2005:320), pay and working conditions can be improved to remove dissatisfaction about work, but cannot on their own provide conditions for employee commitment to exist.   Akoto and Akoto (2014:2) state that loyalty is a psychological attachment of an employee to the organisation.   According to Lambert, Kim, Kelley and Hogan (2013:196), loyalty develops when workers consider that the organisation is approaching them with deference, reasonableness, nobility and fulfilling their needs. In the same context, Quick and Nelson (2011:117) state that loyalty is a plan of an individual to stay with the current organisation as a result of a strong aspiration to do so.

Hypothesis 7

H7   There is a significant relationship between working conditions and emotional attachment to the organisation at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.17   Relationship between working conditions and emotional attachment to the organisation at Femina Garments (n=102)

Statements C7 and D3	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	52.433	16	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	50.331	16	0.019
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.116	1	0.008
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.813		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 52.433, df = 16, Significant $p < 0.05$, Spearman (r_s) = 0.813, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

In relation to Table 4.17, both the Pearson Chi-square test ($p < 0.05$) and Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient ($r_s > 0.7$) revealed a highly significant result. There is a significant relationship between the working conditions and emotional attachment to the organisation. Luthans (2011:142) states that when working conditions are bad, employees find it difficult to perform their duties and this reduces their commitment towards their organisation. According to Meyer and Allan (1997:412), inappropriate human resource practices such as promotions, recruitment, leadership style and selection have a negative effect on the organisational commitment of employees. In addition, partial ownership of the organisation by employees affects organisational commitment. Levy (2013:460) explains that partial ownership of the organisation by employees gives them a sense of importance, makes them feel part of decision-making and creates a sense of attachment and belongingness.

Hypothesis 8

H[8]   There is a significant correlation between employees at Femina Garments feeling a strong sense of belonging to the organisation and getting along with co-workers.

Table 4.18   Relationship between feeling of belongingness and co-worker relationships at Femina Garments (n=102)

Statements C6 and D4	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	55.103	16	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	50.982	16	0.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.108	1	0.009
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.826		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 55.103, df = 16, Significant $p < 0.05$, Spearman (r_s) = 0.826, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.18 shows that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result $(p < 0.05)$ and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient $(r_s > 0.7)$ are highly significant. There is a high correlation between a sense of belongingness towards the organisation and satisfaction with how the co-workers get along with each other. The workplace environment is made up of working relationships between supervisors and employees. When employees find the relationships between co-workers to be positive and supportive, they tend to have a sense of belongingness (Baure and Erdogan, 2015:163). Moreover, other relationships in the organisation

such as teams and work groups can also influence the feeling of belongingness. Limpanitgal, Booncho and Photiyarach (2014:102) attest that the interactions between individuals in the workplace form their work experience, which can lead to a feeling of belonging and loyalty towards the organisation.

Hypothesis 9

H$_9$ There is a significant difference between employees being satisfied in their jobs and being offered promotional opportunities at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.19   Relationship between promotional opportunities and employees being satisfied with their jobs (n=102)

Statements D10 and D5	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	59.132	16	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	54.991	16	0.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.012	1	0.001
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.886		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 59.132, df = 16, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.886, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.19 illustrates that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient result (r_s > 0.7) are very highly

significant. The results suggest that employee being satisfied in their jobs at Femina Garments is not dependent on promotion. Kosteas (2011:174) states that job promotion is an important facet of an employee's career and it comes with an increased compensation package. Nooh, Naseem and Khan (2015:1499) emphasise that equal promotional opportunities for all workers increases job satisfaction. However, the research that was conducted by Ehsan, Danish and Muner (2012:6) revealed that promotion has less influence on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 10

H$_{10}$ There is a significant relationship between employees identifying the organisational problems as their own and the flow of communication at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.20 Relationship between identifying organisational problems as their own and flow of communication (n=102)

Statements C2 and D7	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	57.932	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	54.982	16	0.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.172	1	0.001
X^2	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.862		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 57.932, df = 16, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.862, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.20 highlights that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result ($p < 0.05$) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient ($r_s > 0.7$) are highly significant. There is a highly significant relationship between employees identifying organisational problems as their own and the flow of communication at Femina Garments. Owoeye and Dahunsi (2014:75) state that communication advances job effectiveness through the smooth flow of information within the organisation. Moreover, Perry and Mahoney (1995:339) found that when communication was not effective, it affected the morale and attitude of employees.

Hypothesis 11

H_{11} There is a significant difference between employees being offered the chance to use their abilities and having the opportunity for promotion at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.21   Relationship between promotional opportunities and chances to use abilities (n=102)

Statements D6 and D5	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	52.199	16	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	49.106	16	0.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.761	1	0.003
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.799		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 52.199, df = 16, Significant $p < 0.05$, Spearman (r_s) = 0.799, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.21 shows that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient result (r_s > 0.7) are highly significant. There is a highly significant difference between employees being offered the chance to use their abilities and having the opportunity for promotion at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. The results indicate that having skills and knowledge and being allowed to use it on the job does lead to promotion. According to Pfeifer, Janssen, Yang and Backes-Gelluer (2011:3), often employees perceive that new skills will create an expectation of future promotion. In addition, Jehanzeb and Bashir (2013:248) concur that employees expect promotion as organisations require workers to appraise their professional skills and abilities and use them to achieve the set goals.

Hypothesis 12

H_{12} There is a significant relationship between the relationship of employees with their supervisors at the organisation and the perceived satisfaction related to working conditions at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.22 Relationship of employees with their supervisors at the organisation and perceived satisfaction related to working conditions (n=102)

Statements D9 and D3	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	58.118	16	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	52.971	16	0.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.336	1	0.001
X^2	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.884		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 58.118, df = 16, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.884, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

The Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient $(r_s > 0.7)$ shown in Table 4.22 above illustrates a highly significant relationship between the relationship of employees with their supervisors at the organisation and the perceived satisfaction related to working conditions that exist at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Ali and Adan (2013:68) state that working conditions include all the situations affecting the workforce in the organisation, including relationships between supervisors and employees. According to Stringer (2014:136), a good supervisor and employee relationship creates mutual trust, support, effective communication and satisfaction within the working environment. Research conducted by Schutte, Chastang and Malard (2014:900) found that a psychological working environment which included poor relationships between

workers and supervisors was associated with poor health amongst employees in 34 European countries.

Hypothesis 13

H₁₃   There is a significant correlation between the emotional attachment of employees to Femina Garments in Zimbabwe and the flow of communication in the organisation.

Table 4.23   Relationship between emotional attachment of employees and flow of communication at Femina Garments (n=102)

Statements C7 and D7	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	59.613	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	54.761	16	0.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.187	1	0.003
X²	26.296		
Spearman`s rank order Correlation co-efficient	0.883		
Number of Valid Cases	102		

* Pearson Chi-Square = 59.613, df = 16, Significant p < 0.05, Spearman (r_s) = 0.883, Cut-off parameter: Spearman Significance $(r_s > 0.7)$

Table 4.23 reveals that both the Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.05) and the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient (rs > 0.7) produced a highly significant result. According to Trajkova, Andonov and Minajloski (2014:526), a good flow of information in the organisation has a positive effect on the emotional

attachment of employees. Research by Okpu and Obiora (2015:73) which investigated team briefing and employee commitment in the Nigerian banking industry, found that effective communication had a strong effect on the emotional attachment of employees.

4.6   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The nature of the data was in ordinal format. This precluded the use of the more robust tools of parametric tests. In addition, few studies have looked into how job insecurity affects job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Zimbabwe. This study shows findings that are specific to Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other organisations in the clothing sector of Zimbabwe.

4.7   CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the analysis of the results and discussion of the findings at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Descriptive statistics were presented to indicate the level of job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by the respondents. Moreover, 13 hypotheses were tested for their statistical significance using SPSS version 24. This proved a useful guide to gauge the perceptions of the respondents at Femina Garments in relation to the analysis of the questionnaire variables. The next chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations on the basis of the empirical findings. These recommendations can only be generalized to Femina Garments in Zimbabwe as this study was an in house investigation.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the interpretations, discussions and analysis of the research results.   This chapter highlights the conclusion and makes recommendations arising from the empirical analysis of the results, as well as indicating the directions for future research.   Since this study was an in-house investigation, the recommendations are generalised to Femina Garments in Zimbabwe only. However, they may prove to be useful to other scholars researching similar fields of study.   The main aim of this research was to investigate the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe.   The conclusions of this study are in line with the research objectives and they answer the main aim of the study.

The researcher provided an overview of the job insecurity problem and the impact it may have on organisational commitment and job satisfaction.   The theoretical framework was built by reviewing various secondary sources.   The study adopted a quantitative research design, and a structured closed-ended questionnaire (Annexure B) was used to collect primary data.   A survey method was used as the target population was made up of only 109 employees and was thus too small to select a sample.   The personal method of data collection was used and a 93.58% response rate was obtained.   The data was analysed using the latest version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows.   The descriptive statistics relating to the variables were analysed and the hypotheses were tested, presented and discussed.

5.2   CONCLUSION

The results of this study fulfilled the main aim by showing that job insecurity has an impact on organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. According to David (2015:103), in order to build a work environment that enhances organisational commitment, management needs to ensure that employees are satisfied with their jobs through reviewing promotional opportunities, training and providing job security. Despite many research findings that job insecurity impacts on job satisfaction, the empirical findings of this study revealed that there was no significant relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Hong, Hamid and Saller (2013:28) affirm that job satisfaction is mainly influenced by five main factors, namely promotional opportunities, salary, supervision, the work and relationships with co-workers. However, job insecurity must not be ignored because it did not impact on job satisfaction in this study at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Riesel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Jong (2010:3) state that job insecurity is negatively related with employee performance, and job and organisational attitudes.

The findings also indicated that job insecurity was modest among the workforce at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. In addition, job satisfaction and organisational commitment was high amongst the respondents even though most of them revealed that they were not satisfied with their salaries and benefits. David (2015:103) states that management must provide salaries that are market related in order to reduce turnover intentions and increase the workforce's satisfaction with their jobs, as well as increasing employee commitment.

5.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Arising from the empirical analysis of the statistics, the following tentative recommendations are proposed for the management at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe:

5.3.1   Salary and benefits should be market-related

The findings indicated that the majority of the employees were not satisfied with their salaries and benefits. Management at Femina Garments should match the salaries and benefits of the employees with market-related rates. In the same context, Parvin and Kabir (2011:119) state that employees work for money and employees want a reasonable remuneration package. Therefore, a good compensation package is a key factor in satisfying employees.

5.3.2   Maintaining a balanced psychological contract

Management at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe should maintain a balanced psychological contract. A psychological contract is the personal set of mutual expectations held by individuals regarding their duties and their entitlements (Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall, 2007:91). According to De Witte (2005:4), the infringement of the psychological contract can erode the employment relationship. Management at Femina Garments should satisfy the needs of employees through job security, career growth, skills development, involvement, fairness, equity and providing satisfying jobs. A balanced psychological contract ensures a continuous and pleasant relationship between employees and employers (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt, 2013:337).

5.3.3 Working conditions

It is also recommended that the management at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe ensures that working conditions within the organisation are conducive. The findings revealed that working conditions influenced the emotional attachment of employees. Drummond (2000:206) states that individuals who regard their working conditions as unfavourable, will be less committed to the organisation and will have intentions to leave the organisation.

5.3.4 Employee relationships with co-workers and supervisors

The results revealed that there was a significant association between a feeling of belongingness and co-workers' relationships at Femina Garments. A highly significant number of respondents indicated that they are satisfied with their co-worker relationships at Femina Garments. Therefore, management at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe should promote positive relationships amongst employees and also their supervisors within the organisation through formal and informal means such as team building and social events.

5.3.5 Communication within the organisation

The results revealed that the majority of respondents were satisfied with the flow of information within the organisation. In addition, the findings indicated a highly significant relationship between the flow of communication and emotional attachment to the organisation. According to Probst (2005:323), when an organisation does not have proper channels of communication, employees feel more insecure regarding their jobs and as a result display intentions to leave. Therefore, management should have honest, transparent and open communication with employees to improve perceived predictability and sustainability of future incidents such as retrenchment,

layoffs and mergers, while at the same time allowing the workforce to feel that they are valued and respected at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. In addition, communication ensures that the employees are aware and certain of their job environment.

5.3.6 Employability of the workforce

Management at Femina Garments should train and develop employees to equip them with professional, interpersonal and entrepreneurial skills. According to Nella (2015:1), employability entails how confident an individual is in finding an alternative job when they part ways with their current organisation. Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiro and De Witte (2009:745) state that when the organisation improves the employability of the workforce, it will improve the quality of the employees, which can be an asset during hard recessionary periods such as the case in Zimbabwe.

5.3.7 Provide social support

The results indicated that the majority of employees at Femina Garments were worried about their job security and the continuation of their careers. Management at Femina Garments should provide additional support to help employees cope with stress through counselling, career guidance, loans and providing entrepreneurial skills. This can lessen the depressing impact stemming from job insecurity. Hassard, Teoh and Cox (2010:1) state that social support can be provided by various sources in the workplace such as co-workers and managers, and it has been found to show a buffering effect against the damaging impact of job insecurity.

5.3.8 Job environment

Management at Femina Garments should ensure that the employees are aware and certain of their job environment. The findings indicated that being certain about the job environment impacts on employee loyalty. Therefore, management should involve employees when making organisational decisions and communicating those decisions so that they will be certain of their workplace environment. Involvement of employees when making decisions regarding various workplace issues can range from giving possible solutions, being asked for advice on decisions or even having the authority to make decisions (Probst, 2005:327).

5.3.9 Organisational problems

Top management at Femina Garments should solve problems within the organisation. The findings indicated that a majority of the respondents perceived organisational problems as their own. Therefore, management at Femina Garments should minimise problems in the organisation inorder to ensure a harmonious work environment.

5.4   DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The focal point of this research was to investigate the impact of job insecurity on organisational commitment and job satisfaction at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe. Future research may replicate the study in other organisations in the clothing manufacturing sector in Zimbabwe to provide comparable insights. It is recommended that future research should examine the possible differential effects of different dimensions of job insecurity on organisational commitment and job satisfaction.   In addition, job insecurity has become a challenging social phenomenon in Zimbabwe. Therefore, its effects on the families of the affected

individuals should be investigated. Moreover, the literature highlighted that job insecurity violates psychological contract principles. Therefore, this should also be considered for future research by other scholars.

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Cell: +27734534969

300 Alpine Road

Overport, Durban.

4000.

3 August 2015

Dear Respondent

ASSISTANCE: QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION – RESEARCH

I am a registered student at the Durban University of Technology in the Department of Human Resources Management. I humbly request your assistance in completing the attached questionnaire for the M. Tech: Degree in Human Resources Management. My topic is entitled: The impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe- A case study.

Permission has been kindly granted by Femina Garments to conduct the in-house investigation and for the administration of the questionnaires in relation to the topic. In order to successfully complete my Master's degree, the latter part of the empirical framework involves the administration of a structured closed ended questionnaire. You have been selected as one of the respondents comprising the sampling frame of this organisation.

I will be grateful, if you kindly complete the attached questionnaire. I will be personally collecting the completed questionnaires. The questionnaire would take about 15 minutes to complete and only requires you to tick the relevant precoded response. Please answer all questions and do not leave any blank. Please be assured that your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will not be divulged to any other party. Your name should not be mentioned on the questionnaire and will remain anonymous. Your participation is merely voluntary and there is no coercion or undue influence in completing this questionnaire. In addition, the responses to the questionnaire, once collated, will be used for statistical purposes only.

Your co-operation in assisting me with this important component of my study is highly appreciated and I look forward to a speedy return of the questionnaire. If there are any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me at the above cell number. I take this opportunity of again thanking you in advance in order to enable me to complete this research project. Many thanks and kind regards.

Sincerely

Stephen Taduvana

Instructions

1.	Answer all questions/statements.
2.	Place a tick on the selected option for each question/statement.
3.	Please do not leave any question/statement blank.
4.	You have the right to withdraw from participating at any point without prejudice.

Section A: Biographic information

1. Please indicate your gender.

1.1	Male	1
1.2	Female	2

2. Please indicate your age group.

2.1	Less than 20 years	1
2.2	21-30 years	2
2.3	31-40 years	3
2.4	41-50 years	4
2.5	51 years and older	5

3. Indicate your years of service at this company.

3.1	1-5 years	1
3.2	6-10 years	2
3.3	11-15 years	3
3.4	16-20 years	4
3.5	21-25 years	5
3.6	26-30 years	6
3.7	Above 30 years	7

4. Please indicate your type of employment contract.

4.1	Fixed term contract	1
4.2	Permanent	2

5. JOB INSECURITY SURVEY

PLEASE TICK ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.		Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5.1	I am certain of my job environment.	1	2	3	4	5
5.2	I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5.3	I feel uncertain about the future of my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5.4	I worry about the continuation of my career.	1	2	3	4	5
5.5	I fear that I might lose my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5.6	I fear that I might get fired.	1	2	3	4	5
5.7	There is a possibility that I might lose my job in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
5.8	I think that I will be able to continue working here.	1	2	3	4	5
5.9	I am worried about my job security.	1	2	3	4	5
5.10	There is a small chance that I will become unemployed.	1	2	3	4	5

6. **ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SURVEY**

PLEASE TICK ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6.1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.2	I really feel as if this organisation`s problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
6.3	The organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.4	This organisation deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5
6.5	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5
6.6	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.7	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.8	I do not feel like part of the family at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.9	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5
6.10	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5

7. JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

PLEASE TICK ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.		Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
7.1	I am satisfied with the way my job provides for steady employment.	1	2	3	4	5
7.2	I am satisfied with my salary and benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	I am satisfied with the working conditions at this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	I am satisfied with the way my co-workers get along with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
7.5	I have opportunities to get promoted.	1	2	3	4	5
7.6	I have a chance to do something that uses my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
7.7	Communication and flow of information is good in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
7.8	I have job security.	1	2	3	4	5
7.9	I am satisfied with my relationship with my supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
7.10	Overall, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your cooperation.

300 Alpine Road

Overport Durban

4000.

24 July 2015

The Managing Director

Femina Garments

P O. Box 8308

Belmont, Bulawayo

Zimbabwe

Dear Sir/Madam.

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

My name is Stephen Taduvana, and I am a Human Resources Management Masters student at Durban university of Technology (DUT) in Durban South Africa. The research I wish to conduct for my Master's Thesis entitled **"An investigation into the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe- A case study**".

Most companies are faced with a difficult challenge of having a workforce that is satisfied and committed. When employees are satisfied with their jobs and committed to the organisation the result is high productivity. High production and labour costs have led to the closure of companies and retrenchment of employees. This has left employees uncertain about their future. The main aim of the study is to determine the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

I am hereby seeking your consent to use your organisation as a case study, distribute questionnaires and ask your employees to voluntarily fill out these questionnaires. This research is meant to solve challenges that are related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment in today`s organisations. You are assured that data collected will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will not be divulged to any other party. Furthermore, the results of this research are for statistical purpose only and the summary of the results will be disclosed to you.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide a bound copy of the thesis. If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on taduvanas@gmail.com or contact my supervisor Professor Jinabhai at jinabhai@dut.ac.za or +27837869712 and Mrs Lourens at Melaniel@dut.ac.za or +27835538640. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

Stephen Taduvana

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P. O. BOX 8306, BELMONT
TEL: (263-9) 465571, 465581
FAX: (263-9) 463200
Email: femina@netconnect.co.zw
BULAWAYO, ZIMBABWE

GARMENTS (Pvt.) Ltd.

24th July 2015

Mr Stephen Taduvana

Dear Mr Taduvana,

This is to confirm that permission is granted for you to conduct research for academic purposes at Femina Garments (Pvt) Ltd.

We understand that information from this research will be used for your Master's thesis in Human Resource Management, and is titled 'The impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction and organizational commitment at Femina Garments in Zimbabwe – a case study'.

We agree that you may distribute questionnaires to our employees and understand that the findings will be made available to the management of Femina Garments.

Yours faithfully

J. Bonett

Director

DIRECTORS: J. F. BONETT (Managing), J. A. Le ROUX, P. C. BONETT, M. Le ROUX,