The psychological contract: Personal and Job-related variables and the intention to leave.

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Hons. (Bcom)

This dissertation is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Magister Commercii in Labour Relations Management in the Faculty of Humanities (School of Behavioural Sciences) at the North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus.

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Vanderbijlpark
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The reader is reminded of the following:

- The references, as well as the editorial style as prescribed by the Publication Manual (6th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA) were followed in this dissertation. This practice is in line with the policy of the programme in Labour Relations Management and Industrial Psychology at the North-West University.

- The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation (NRF) towards this research is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at are those of the author and should not necessarily be attributed to the National Research Foundation.

This dissertation is submitted in the form of two research articles.
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Thank you to my employer for granting me all the opportunities associated with everything regarding this study.

This study is dedicated to my husband Fanie Lombard.
SUMMARY

**Title:** The psychological contract: Personal and Job-related variables and the intention to leave.

**Key words and terms:** Psychological contract, autonomy, employability, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave.

Globally, employees are experiencing extensive change in the workplace. Downsizing, rightsizing or restructuring have become familiar terms in difficult economic conditions and imply that rationalising of jobs is inevitable. Organisations attempt to reduce costs, which in turn places pressure on employees to modify their jobs and seek alternative employment. This increases their intention to leave (Illy & Brotheridge, 2004).

The researcher is interested in determining how satisfied employees are with their life in general, in their jobs, and whether the constructs at hand can lead to an intention to leave. This is information that an organisation might value due to high turnover costs. Employability and autonomy are linked to the above concepts.

With reference to the above formulation of the problem statement, the general objective of this research is to determine the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave of security employees in the Vaal Triangle.

The primary objective of this research is to determine the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave of security employees in the Vaal Triangle. A cross-sectional survey design was used. Constructs were measured by means of the psychological contract (employer obligations, employee obligations), a biographical questionnaire, employability questionnaire, autonomy questionnaire, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave questionnaires.
The research method for each of the two articles consists of a brief literature review and an empirical study. An exploratory factor analysis, as well as Cronbach alpha coefficients, was computed to access the reliability. Validity of the different product moment correlation coefficients and regression analysis were used to examine the relationship between the constructs employed in this research.

Significant differences are found between various individual characteristics and the scores of the psychological contract (employer obligations, employee obligations and the psychological contract), the individual characteristics, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave.

Conclusions are made, limitations of the current research are discussed and recommendations for future research and the organisation are put forward.
OPSOMMING

Titel: Dis psigologiese kontrak: Persoonlike en Werksverwante veranderlikes en die voorneme om dien te verlaat.

Sleutelwoorde en -termie: Psigologiese kontrak, outonomiteit, indiensneembaarheid, werksbevrediging, lewensbevrediging en die voorneme om diens te verlaat.

Werknemers regoor die wêreld ervaar ‘n intensiewe ervaring in die werksopset. Afskaling, aanpassing en herstrukturering is nou algemene termes in die ekonomiese sektor en impliseer dat rasionalisering onvermydelik is. Ondernemings poog om kostes te verlaag, wat om die beurt druk op werknemers plaas om hulle beroep aan te pas en om elders werk te soek. Dit verhoog dan die voorneme om die werkgewer se diens te verlaat (Iyo & Brotheridge, 2004).

Die navorser stel daarin belang om te bepaal tot watter mate werknemers tevrede is met hulle lewe en werk, asook om te bepaal hoe die betrokke konstrukte lei tot ’n voorneme om diens te verlaat. Hierdie is waardevolle inligting aangaande hoë arbeidsomset in die onderneming. Indiensneembaarheid en outonomiteit gaan hiermee gepaard.

Met verwysing na die voorafgaande uiteensetting van die probleem stelling, is die algemene doelwit van hierdie navorsingstuk om die verhouding tussen die psigologiese kontrak, indiensneembaarheid, outonomiteit, werksbevrediging, lewensbevrediging en die voornemens van sekuriteit werknemers in die Vaaldriehoek om diens te verlaat te bepaal.

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie navorsing is om die verhouding tussen die psigologiese kontrak, indiensneembaarheid, outonimititeit, werksbevrediging, lewensbevrediging en die voornemens van sekuriteit werkers in die Vaaldriehoek om diens te verlaat te bepaal. ’n Dwarssnee opname-ontwerp was aangewend. Konstrukte was deur middel van die volgende bepaal: die psigologiese kontrak (werknemer- en werkgewersverpligtinge), ’n biografiese vraelys, indiensneembaarheid vraelys, outonomiteits vraelys, werksbevrediging vraelys, lewensbevrediging vraelys, asook ’n vraelys wat fokus op die voorneme om diens te verlaat.
Die navorsingsmetodiek vir beide artikels bestaan uit ’n literatuuroorsig, asook ’n empiriese studie. ‘n Onderzoekende faktorontleding, asook Cronbach se alfa-koeffisiënt was aangewend om betroubaarheid te bewerkstellig. Die geldigheid van produk-oomblik korrelasiekoëffisiënte en regressie-analise was gebruik ten einde die verhouding tussen die betrokke konstruksies van hierdie studie te ondersoek.

’n Beduidende verskil is gevind tussen onderskeie eienskappe en die resultate van die psigologiese kontrak (werknemer- en werkgewersverpligting, asook die psigologiese kontrak), die individuele eienskappe, indiensneembaarheid, outonomiteit, werksbevrediging, lewens bevrediging en die voorneme om diens te verlaat.

Samevattings is gemaak, beperkings oor die huidige navorsing is bespreek en voorstelle vir toekomstige navorsing, asook vir die onderneming is voorgestel.
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Barend Johannes Venter, hereby declares that the dissertation of Mali Wilmari Pretorius (TITLE: The psychological contract: Personal and Job-related variables and the intention to leave) has been edited and proofread, as well as sections translated in his capacity as language specialist.

Regards

Barend Johannes Venter
Text Editor

Barend Johannes Venter verklaar hiermee dat Mali Wilmari Pretorius se verhandeling (TITEL: Dis psigologiese kontrak: Persoonlike en Werksverwante veranderlikes en die voorneme on dien te verlaat) geredigeer en geproeflees, asook gedeeltes daarvan vertaal is in sy hoedanigheid as taal spesialis.

Die uwe
Barend Johannes Venter
Teksredakteur
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

In this dissertation the general objective is to determine the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave of security employees in a company within the Vaal Triangle.

In this Chapter the problem statement is discussed and the research objectives are set out, which include the general objective and specific objectives. The research method is explained and the chapter divisions for the two articles given.

1.1 Problem statement

Within security organisations, it is evident that most employees (more specifically security guards) are dissatisfied with their jobs. This could be attributed to numerous reasons, including the monotony of routine work, no autonomy, or violation of the psychological contract. Employees might feel that employers do not comply with what is expected of them (also referred to as “employer’s obligations”). When employees are discontented, it might lead to the desire to leave their employment.

During 2009/2010, the researcher was involved in chairing numerous disciplinary hearings. The researcher could not help but to notice that employees showed very poor attitudes when they were charged with disciplinary actions. These attitudes led to the research at hand, where the researcher was interested in determining whether these attitudes were detrimental to their job satisfaction or general life satisfaction, and whether their life satisfaction had an influence on their job satisfaction or vice versa. Furthermore, the question was raised that, if these employees experience both life- and job dissatisfaction, it would lead to the desire to leave the organisation.

It may also be that many employees’ frustrations with their position in the company affect their personal life. Job dissatisfaction then could predict life dissatisfaction. When employees
experience negativity towards their job and their personal life, the only other option might be to have the intention to leave.

The literature reveals that an employment relationship comes into being by virtue of a valid employment contract (Grogan, 2003). Whereas the contract of employment consists only of the special arrangements relating to work that are agreed upon between the employer and employee, the employment relationship encompasses the entire legal relationship between contracting parties. The rights and obligations may be laid down in the individual contract by collective agreement or law (Carrim, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006). The psychological contract can be described as what one believes he/she is entitled to receive and obligated to give in exchange for the other party's contribution. The psychological contract can be used to explain the everyday employment relationship (Conway & Briner, 1998).

When focusing attention to the work environment, employment relationships and changes in the industrial world, it also leads to changes pertaining to economy, technology and industrial structures of the working class, companies and overall employment (Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, Erasmus, & Tsabadi, 2005). Increased national and international competition demands that South African organisations comply and accept these rapid changes. When accepting change, the organisations open themselves to challenges when referring to the employment relationship (Rousseau, 2004).

Employability can be explained as the ease with which a new employment can be entered into. Different researchers state that temporary staff members tend to seek job opportunities outside their current workplace, whereas permanent employees often remain loyal to their employers (Psycones, 2005; Kerstin, 2002). However, De Jong and Schalk (2003) state that there is a lack of research when referring to changes in the employment relationship, the psychological contract and employability.

Before either party enters into such an agreement/contract, neither the employer nor the employee has any rights against the other, as it is easy to distinguish between a prospective employer and prospective employee (Grogan, 2003). However, the employment contract, which
can be permanent or temporary in nature, constitutes special arrangements as agreed upon by both parties involved.

A significant feature of the employment contract in the workplace is *autonomy*. Autonomy refers to an individual’s opportunities and freedom on behalf of their employer so that the worker can participate in decision-making within the work environment (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006). In wealthy countries, workplace autonomy is highly valued and leads to optimism amongst employees. Security organisations, according to the researcher experience a great degree of pressure to deliver high quality services, which results in numerous initiatives being taken by the security sector in order to improve its performance. This is initiated due to new technological advances and management, as well as employers’ involvement with their workers/employees.

The *employment relationship* is a multiplicative inverse, in other words, it focuses on what is owed to each other. This relationship is split in two: the employer receives the employee’s labour, as the employee is obliged to supply it in return for remuneration. This multiplicative inverse relationship results in the psychological contract that includes mutual obligations and expectations from all parties involved (Conway & Briner, 1998).

When referring to the employment relationship, one can say that the psychological contract is an ideal and perfect concept playing a part in the individualised work environment, where individual employees feature in personalised relationships with managers and employers (Rousseau, 2001). The psychological contract can therefore be used to explain the everyday employment relationship (Conway & Briner, 1998) and achieves two main aims: it defines the employment relationship, as well as manages the aforementioned expectations (Rousseau, 2003).

In the above paragraphs, the researcher mentions organisational changes that South African organisations need to give attention to. If these changes are not adhered to, employees may feel betrayed by their managers or employers. Over the last thirty years, studies show that job satisfaction is related to life satisfaction (Rode, 2004).
Rode (2004) mentions that empirical studies have reported a moderate correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Diener, Robert, Larsen, Randy and Griffin (1985, p 71) define life satisfaction as “a cognitive, judgmental process; it depends on a comparison of one’s circumstances with what is thought to be an appropriate standard.” Life satisfaction is viewed as the degree to which an individual is happy and pleased with his/her life (Rode, 2004). When individuals are satisfied in their job and overall life, their performance in the organisation tends to be higher and better. Previous studies confirm the latter as well as the fact that life satisfaction not only influences, but is also the consequence of job satisfaction (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002; Rode, 2004).

When attempting to explain the defined line between job and life satisfaction, three theoretical models come to mind (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002). Firstly, the spillover model suggests that satisfaction in one domain of an individual's life extends to other areas. A definite order is irrelevant, as it could either be “life-to-job” satisfaction or “job-to-life” satisfaction. A positive relationship between job and life satisfaction is noted in this model. Employees who experience job satisfaction are also believed to be happy and satisfied in their non-work activities, while employees who are not satisfied at work show the opposite.

The compensatory model, in contrast to the spillover model, states a negative relationship between job and life satisfaction (George & Mallery, 2003). When employees are not satisfied in their work, they will most likely compensate, by finding something they much rather like, resulting in greater satisfaction. These activities include activities that hold no relationship to their work or job.

The “met expectations” theory clearly states that when job expectations are not satisfied or met, employees will have low job satisfaction, which in turn will lead to employees leaving their employment (Paul, Niehoff, & Turnley, 2000). Thus, psychological contracts should comply with certain factors. These factors include consistency and coherence in terms of promises, mutual expectations and mutual obligations (Rousseau, 2004). It has been shown that the psychological contract influences employees' work outcomes in that the fulfilment of the
psychological contract consequently leads to greater job satisfaction and the employee’s intent to stay with the company.

Clark (1993) analyses another distinctive variable when looking at job and life satisfaction. Clark (1993) found that women show higher levels of job satisfaction, even after some of the variables were managed. *Job satisfaction* appears to be a topic in high demand, as there are many different definitions of this concept. De Loach and Monroe (2004, p. 209) define job satisfaction as “having task significance, supervisory support, autonomy and no role overload”, amongst other things.

Moodley and Coopoo (2006) define job satisfaction as an emotional response to an employment situation that is determined by how well an employee's outcome objectives meet or exceed initial expectations. Job satisfaction also closely relates to the perception and evaluation of jobs in which needs, values and expectations play an important role (Veloutsou & Panigyrakis, 2004). Predictors of job dissatisfaction include promotional opportunities; the work itself; factors such as supervision, co-workers, working conditions and remuneration (Moodley & Coopoo, 2006; Robinson, 1996); play a role, whereas contributing factors to job satisfaction include: participative decision-making (autonomy), the opportunity to use one's knowledge and skills, and organisational values that employees can identify with (Carrim, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006).

When an employee experiences a growing divergence of opinion between what was expected of him/her and what was received in exchange (employer and employee obligations), the employee might experience decreased job satisfaction – especially if these elements were perceived as important by the employee (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

According to researchers such as Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992), intentions in the workplace are the most immediate determinants of actual behaviour. Once people have actually shown an intention to leave, it would be difficult to change their whole perception and way of thinking. Intention to leave refers to an employee's attitude that favours one option over another such as leaving the job (Sjoberg & Sverke, 2000).
Numerous researchers have attempted to answer the question of what determines people’s intention to leave by investigating possible antecedents of such behaviour (Kalliath & Beck, 2001). While actual tendencies to leave are the primary focus of interest to employers and researchers, intention to leave is argued to be a strong substantial indicator for such behaviour. A predictor of people’s intention to leave is a lack of overall job satisfaction. However, it is important for both parties (employee and employer) to understand which factors of job satisfaction are related to a party’s intention to leave. Not only are the economic costs of lost employees (turnover) very high, but the disruption caused by unmanaged departure of employees in terms of social and communication structures, decreases cohesion and commitment among those who stay (Mobley, 1982; Staw, 1980; Ton & Huckman, 2008).

A meta-analysis, which includes nine studies involving 1 739 employees, reveals a significant negative relationship between intention to leave and job satisfaction. Managers can potentially enhance employees' motivation through various attempts to increase job satisfaction and decrease their intention to leave (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1994). The analysis also shows that temporary workers will have higher job satisfaction than their counterparts (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1995). This being said, it was found that individuals who became temporary employees because they had no other choice have less job satisfaction and a negative outlook on their work than those who voluntarily assume these jobs (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1994).

Veloutsou and Panigyrakis (2004) also confirm in their study that low levels of job satisfaction are generally associated with increased intention to leave. Ngo, Foley and Loi (2005) have also argued that job satisfaction affects intention to leave because employees who are not satisfied in their work have a greater tendency to leave the organisation.

As mentioned by Anderson and Schalk (1998) and Guest and Conway (2000), it is meaningful to take a look at the psychological contract, which includes the mutual expectations of the employer and employee to be of great influence on employee behaviour and attitudes (Anderson & Schalk, 1998).
This study is important to the researcher, as the researcher is indirectly involved in the organisation. Due to a lack of research with regards to satisfaction and intention to leave, the researcher would want to make her own conclusions in the organisation being studied.

Based on the above-mentioned description of the research problems, the following research questions can be formulated:

- What are the conceptualisations of the psychological contract (employer’s obligations and employee’s obligations), employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave according to the literature?
- What is the relationship between individual characteristics, the psychological contract (employer’s obligation and employee’s obligations), employability, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave?
- Does the psychological contract predict the relationship between the perception of obligations, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave?
- Does job dissatisfaction result in intention to leave?
- Does job satisfaction predict life satisfaction and intention to leave?

1.2 Expected contribution from the study

1.2.1 Individual Contribution

Not only will the researcher gain insight as to how satisfied the organisation’s employees are, but the researcher will know how the obligations from the employer’s side are perceived by employees. Insight as to whether the employees in the organisation will have the intention to leave due to dissatisfaction will be a great advantage. Information will be used to assist the directors of the organisation in focusing their attention on the psychological contract and to gain more insight with regards to expectations being met.
1.2.2 Contribution to Labour Relations

Due to little or no research with regards to job satisfaction and life satisfaction in security employees resulting in intention to leave an organisation, this study will contribute to Labour Relations Management as a whole by establishing the main constructs and the effect of job- and life satisfaction.

1.2.3 Contribution to organisations in South Africa

This study can assist any organisation in determining how important it is to meet expectations that are perceived as important by employees.

The results can also assist organisations to ensure that their employees are satisfied (obligations are met, autonomy given, employability). If employees do not have job satisfaction, it might lead to life dissatisfaction and an intention to leave the company as the outcome.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In order to answer the above research questions, the following research objectives are set. The research objectives are divided into a general objective, as well as specific objectives.

1.3.1 General objective

With reference to the above formulation of the problem statement, the general objective of this research is to determine the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave of security employees in company within the Vaal Triangle.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of this research article are:
Article 1: The individual characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave.

- To conceptualise job characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave as stated in literature (Chapter 2 – Article 1: literature review).
- To determine the relationship between job characteristics (the type of contract, gender, age, tenure) and the personal variables; the psychological contract (employer’s obligation and employee’s obligations), employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave (Chapter 2 – Article 1: Hypothesis 1-15).

Article 2: The relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave of security employees.

- To conceptualise the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave.
- To investigate the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave of security employees (Chapter 3 – Article 2: Literature review).
- To determine if job satisfaction predicts life satisfaction (Chapter 3 - Hypothesis 5).
- To determine if job satisfaction predicts an employee’s intention to leave the company (Chapter 3 – Hypothesis 7).

1.4 MODELS AND THEORIES

A model’s main aim is to show the main components of a process and to answer questions. It tries to reproduce the dynamics of an occurrence through the relation between the main elements in a process and to represent it in a simplified way (Mouton & Marais 1992). A model can be utilised to investigate new prospective areas of research (Mouton & Marais, 1988). A theory is defined as "a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions and propositions that present a
systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting these phenomena” (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

When looking at the overall picture of the psychological contract, one must keep in mind as to how to state the context in which it operates. The psychological contract should not be seen as a closed, isolated or detached concept, and can influenced by a whole range of factors, both determined by the individual and the organisation.

The researcher will make use of two models which are integrated into one model. The first model from Guest and Conway (2004) provides a framework in which the psychological contract influences the employment relationship. In order to fully comprehend the psychological contract, it is important to state the context in which it operates. The psychological contract is not an isolated, detached concept. It is influenced by a whole range of factors, both individual and organisational. The psychological contract itself also affects a range of attitudes and behaviours of the employee as well as the employer. The second model by Guest and Conway (2004) looks at the causes and consequences of the psychological contracts as one of the more inclusive ones. It includes attitudinal (job satisfaction) as well as behavioural consequences (intention to leave).
Autonomy refers to the control employees exert over their jobs as reflected in their decision-making ability. Literature substantiates the positive link between autonomy and job satisfaction (Iverson & Roy, 1994). It is expected that, where employees are in stable employment and have opportunities for career development, job satisfaction is increased (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Iverson & Roy, 1994).

Research has shown that when employees repeat the same job day-in and day-out (which is evident in the security sector, especially with security guards) employees will be dissatisfied (Iverson & Deery, 1997).

Personal variables refer to the employees’ expectations of what they should bring to the organisation. Research suggests that the mood dispositions of positive and negative affectivity impact on employee attitudes such as job satisfaction. In fact, literature indicates that
dispositional factors are primarily responsible for the temporal stability and cross-situational consistency of job satisfaction results (Lewin & Stokes, 1989).

When employees feel that the employer/organisation is not keeping their side of the bargain, the end result will be dissatisfaction in the workplace and can lead to them leaving the organisation (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Guest and Conway (2004) state that the psychological contract is a valuable concept, because it recognises the individualization of the employment relationship.

Both parties in the employment relationship (employer and employee) have their own ideas and views on the mutual expectations. Although the psychological contract contains the expectations and concerns of the individual employee, it also allows the contextual factors to shape individual attitudes and behaviour. For the purpose of this study, these contextual factors include job satisfaction and intention to leave.

Certain factors such as autonomy, employability, routinisation, employment and employee expectations and promotional opportunity have an effect on job- and life satisfaction. Life dissatisfaction and job dissatisfaction can then lead to intention to leave the organisation.

1.5 RESEARCH METHOD

Phase 1: Literature review

This research, pertaining to the specific objectives, consists of two phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

In Chapter 2 - Article 1, the content focuses on the review, discussion and analysis of individual characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave, as well as individual characteristics of employees.
In Chapter 3 - Article 2, the content focuses on the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. The specific objective is to focus on the following: To determine if job satisfaction predicts life satisfaction and to determine if job satisfaction predicts an employee’s intention to leave the company.

In the literature review, the emphasis falls on the relationship between the psychological contract, job satisfaction and intention to leave. The following databases will be consulted:

- Reportorium of South African Journals
- Library catalogues
- Academic books
- Electronic journals

Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study consists of a research design, participants, measuring battery and statistical analysis.

1.5.1 Research Design

A cross-sectional survey design was used to describe the information on the population collected and to reach objectives. A correlation design was used to assess interrelationships among variables at one point in time, without any planned intervention (Huysamen, 1993).

1.5.2 Participants

The population of 297 employees working in the security industry was targeted for this research. A response rate of 217 (73%) was obtained. The studied population includes security guards, control room operators, administration employees, technical assistants, cleaners, sales department, fire department, armed response, CCTV operators, supervisors and directors.
The employees with the lowest skill-level are adequately literate in order to allow for valid completion of questionnaires. Supervisors assisted with the distribution of the questionnaires. An information letter was included in the questionnaire explaining and assuring the confidentiality and purpose of the survey. Employees had the choice of sending their questionnaire via internal mail to the supervisor’s office if they did not want them to be collected.

1.5.3 Measuring battery

The following questionnaires were used in the empirical study:

*Biographical questionnaire:* (BIQ) was constructed in order to obtain relevant biographical data about the participants in the research. The biographical information includes gender, age, status, type of contract.

*Psychological contract:* this measures the employer obligations scale and employee obligations scale of the Psycones (2005). Employer obligations scale of Isakson, Bernhard, Peiró, Caballer, Gracia, & Ramos (2003) was used to obtain data on the promises and commitments that the employers sometimes make to their employees. The questionnaire consists of 15 items, arranged along a 6-point frequency-rating scale varying from 0 (No) and to 5 (Yes, and promise fully kept). Typical questions on this questionnaire are "Has your organisation promised or committed itself to provide you with interesting work?" and "Has your organisation promised or committed itself to help you deal with problems you encounter outside work?"

The *Employer Obligations Questionnaire* as developed by Isaksson and Johannson (2003) was used to gather data on the promises and commitments the employers sometimes make to their employees. The questionnaire consists of 15 items arranged along a 6-point frequency-rating scale with 0 being “No” and 5 being “Yes, and promise fully kept”. Typical questions on this questionnaire range from “Has your organisation promised or committed itself to provide you with interesting work?” to “Has your organisation promised or committed itself to help you deal with problems you encounter outside work?” In the study conducted by Mpotane (2007), a
Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.93$ was obtained, indicating the internal consistency of this questionnaire. In this study, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.93$ was also obtained.

*Employee obligations questionnaire (Isakson et al., 2003):* this was utilised to determine promises and commitments that individuals sometimes make to their organisation. The questionnaire consists of 16 items, arranging along a 6-point frequency-rating scale varying from 0 (No) and to 5 (Yes, fully kept promise). Examples of questions in this questionnaire are "Have you promised or committed yourself to go to work even if you do not feel particularly well?" to "Have you promised or committed yourself to work enthusiastically on jobs you would prefer not to be doing?". In the study conducted by Mpotane (2007), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.88$ was found. In this study a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.90$ was obtained. These findings confirm the internal consistency of the measuring instrument.

*Employability:* the scale of De Cuyper and De Witte (2005) was used in the Psycones project (2005) to measure employability. The questionnaire consists of five items. The following statements, amongst others, are used: “I am confident that I could quickly get another job”; “I am optimistic that I will find another job, if I look for one”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0.70 to 0.81 was found in the Psycones project (2005).

*Autonomy:* the scales of Rosenthal, Guest and Peccei (1996) were used. The questionnaire consists of four items. The following statements are used to measure autonomy: “I can plan my own work”; “I can carry out my work in the way I think best”; “I can vary how I do my work”; “I can influence the way my section is organised”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0.74 and 0.82 was found in the Psycones project (2005).

*Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ)* in Price (1997) was used to measure the perceived job satisfaction of the participants. Only four items were used to measure job satisfaction of the 18 original questions. The following statements are found on this questionnaire: “I am not happy with my job”; “I am often bored with my job”; “Most days I am enthusiastic about my job”; and “I find enjoyment in my job”. The items are rated on a widely used Likert-type scale, varying from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). In the study conducted by Brayfield and Rothe
(1951), items on job satisfaction was reported to have had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.87 (Price, 1997).

Life satisfaction (Guest & Conway, 1998): the life satisfaction scale was utilised to measure life satisfaction. The scale consists out of six items. These items were also rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 being “strongly disagree”, 3 being “neither agree nor disagree”; and 5 being “strongly agree”. The types of statements reflected on this questionnaire are, “Your life in general”, “Your family life”, “Your leisure time” and “Your state of health and well-being”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0.81 and 0.85 was found in the Psycones project (2005).

Intention to Leave Questionnaire (Price, 1997): intention to leave measures the desire to leave the company (De Jong & Geurtz, 1997). A modified version of the “intention to leave”-questionnaire by Isakson and Johannson (2003) was used. Four items of Price (1997) are used to measure intention to leave (“I would be reluctant to leave this job” – reverse code). The Cronbach alpha coefficient in previous studies (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006) range from $\alpha = 0.79$ to 0.82. The IQQ measures the employee's desire to leave rather than his/her actual intention to leave and that the exact time of departure is set in advance, which possibly influences the intention to leave before the contract expires (De Jonge & Geurtz, 1997).

1.5.4 Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis is carried out with the PSAW programme (PSAW, 2010), making use of descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis), Cronbach’s alpha and inter-item correlations coefficients, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analyses.

In essence, statistical analysis entails the analyst breaking down data into constituent parts to obtain answers from the various research questions, thus testing research hypotheses (Kerlinger, 1986). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data. Kerr, Hall and Kozub (2002) state that descriptive statistics summarise the characteristic of the data set.
To test for the various mediating effects, the procedures as described in Baron and Kenny (1986) were followed. Regressing the mediator on the independent variable and showing it to have an effect can illustrate mediation. Then it can be implemented by showing the dependent variable to have an effect on the independent one in a second regression, and finally by regressing the dependent variable on both the proposed mediator and the independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation will be used to determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires. Also, the multiple regression analysis will be done to determine the predictive value of variables.

MANOVA and ANOVA were used to determine the significance of the difference between biographic groups. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the significance of differences between biographic groups, while Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a procedure used for comparing samples to determine whether there is sufficient evidence to infer that the means of the corresponding population distributions also differ (George & Mallery, 2003). For the purpose of this research, Univariate Analysis of Variance is listed. According to De Vos (1998), “univariate analysis” means that one variable is analysed, mainly with a view of describing that variable. Kerr et al. (2002) adds that one-way ANOVA’s are employed to address research questions that focus on differences in terms of one dependent variable and one independent variable. The independent variable has two or more levels of variance, e.g. type of contract (permanent contract and temporary contract).

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION AND PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

The researcher made arrangements with the three directors to inform them of the specific details of the research. The researcher insured the directors that confidentiality will be of utmost importance, and that nobody will be forced to participate. Guards, armed response workers, as well as control room- and administrative employees were informed that they would be asked to complete the questionnaire anonymously, and without any obligation, and that all confidentiality will be maintained with this regard. When results are available, a meeting will be arranged with
the security organisation and a full discussion as to what the results revealed will be shared with the three directors and employees.

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters in this dissertation are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Problem statement and objectives.
Chapter 2: Research Article 1: The individual characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave
Chapter 3: Research Article 2: The relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave
Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

1.8 SUMMARY

In Chapter 1 the researcher gave a brief summary to motivate why this study would make a contribution. A problem statement was underlined. The research method includes: the literature review, empirical study, research design, study population, measuring instrument, data analysis and research procedure. A chapter division was also given.
REFERENCES


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS, THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT, AUTONOMY, JOB SATISFACTION, LIFE SATISFACTION AND THE INTENTION TO LEAVE.

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between job characteristics (the type of contract, gender, age, tenure) and the psychological contract (employer’s obligation and employee’s obligations), autonomy, employability, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave. A cross-sectional survey design was conducted among 297 security employees in a private company situated in Vanderbijlpark. A total number of 217 respondents completed the questionnaire, which is a response rate of 73%. No significant relationship was found between years of tenure and employability. A practically significant relationship with a large effect exists between employer obligations and job satisfaction, whereas a practical significant relationship with a medium effect was established between employee obligations and job satisfaction. If an employee shows job satisfaction, he/she is less likely to leave the employer.

OPSOMMING

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie navorsing was om die verhouding te bepaal tussen werkseienskappe (die tipe werkskontrak, geslag, ouderdom, jare diens) en die psigologiese kontrak (beide die werknemer en die werkgewer se verpligtinge), selfbestuur, dienswaardigheid, werksbevrediging, lewensbevrediging en die voorneme om diens te verlaat. ‘n Dwarssnee opname-ontwerp was geneem onder 297 securiteitswerknemers werkagtig vir ‘n privaatmaatskappy in Vanderbijlpark. ‘n Totaal van 217 deelnemers het die vraelys voltoo, wat ‘n respons van 73% teweeggebring het. Geen beduidende verhouding was tussen die jare van diens en dienswaardigheid gevind nie. ‘n Praktiese beduidende verhouding met ‘n groot effek is bevestig tussen werkgewersverpligtinge en werksbevrediging, terwyl ‘n praktiese beduidende verhouding met ‘n medium effek tussen werknemersverpligtinge en werksbevrediging bepaal is. Indien ‘n werknemer werksbevrediging toon, is sy/haar voorneme om diens te verlaat laer.
The private security industry in South Africa has grown at an exceptional rate over the last two decades, while the biggest growth in numbers was within the guarding sector (Minnaar, 2005). Private security serves the interests of a specific client by protecting the economic interests of the individual or organisation/client through rendering quality services (Pillay, 2007). As mentioned by Minnaar (2005) security guards deal with criminal attacks in armed robberies at shopping malls, banks, car parks, at secured neighbourhoods, road closure access points and other circumstances on a frequent basis, which raises the question of how these employees experience their work environment. One of the most significant areas of most people’s lives is the world of work (Compton, 2005). Individual employees bring to their jobs many qualities, attitudes, beliefs and skills that are referred to as “individual characteristics” (Levy, 2005). The world of work includes both permanent and temporary employees, young and older employees and employees with different tenure.

The private security industry saw a growth in the number of temporary employees who require specialised knowledge and experience within the sectors (Minnaar, 2005). It becomes increasingly important to remain employable to be able to find new employment on the internal and external labour market (Kinnunen, Mäkikangas, Mauno, Siponen, & Nätti, 2011).

Perceived employability is more important to temporary employees as is the case with permanent contracts (de Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Bernston, Witte, & Alarco, 2008). Employability remains a concept lacking in research and the prevalence of temporary employment received limited attention (Kinnunen et al., 2011). Previous studies focus on the liaison between age and employee attitudes and the results show that age is related to greater satisfaction, lower employability and intention to leave (Kinnunen et al., 2011). Groot and Maasen van den Brink (2000) explain that employees with longer years of tenure in organizations tend to be less employable within the firm.

Temporary employees have a limited possibility of getting their contracts renewed or to be promoted to a permanent contract, but in their day-to-day work they shared the same workplace as permanent employees, carry out the same tasks in the same space, and are managed by the same supervisor. Different researchers are of view that permanent employees will remain
devoted to the organisation and won’t seek other employment opportunities, as opposed to temporary employees.

*Employability* can be explained as the effortlessness with which a new employment can be entered into (Psycones, 2005). There is a lack of research when referring to the employability, the psychological contract and employment relationships (De Jong & Schalk, 2003).

Chambel and Alcover (2011) explain that different researchers reveal temporary employees as having more limited terms and conditions in their employment relationships, specifically their psychological contract and that the employer having less obligations towards them. The content of temporary employees’ psychological contract is more economic-orientated and less socio-emotional orientated. They further mention that, according to Rousseau (1990), these new characteristics of the psychological contract have a devastating consequence on a business because they threaten positive employee behaviour and attitudes.

Characteristics of the job itself, as well as the work environment are important to satisfaction. The nature of a job plays a major role in an employee’s life, seeing as most people’s job and life satisfaction are positively and significant related (Lin, 2005). When referring to satisfaction one can distinguish between life- and job satisfaction. Life satisfaction is usually measured by people’s expressed satisfaction with features of their environment and everyday lives (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979) and consists of five domains that include health, material well-being, intimacy, productivity and emotional well-being (Campbell, Converse, & Roger, 1976).

Work is also a vital factor in an individual’s everyday life. Most people spend countless hours at work, relating it to job satisfaction and its correspondence with variables such as the psychological contract (Yousef, 2000). Job satisfaction is intimately tied to a person’s values and needs and is defined as our emotional reaction to how well those needs are satisfied and our values are supported (Compton, 2005). Khalid, Salim, Loke and Khalid (2011) explain that demographic variables such as age and gender always have a varying impact on the overall satisfaction of employees within the workplace and found that job satisfaction increased with age due to their abilities, as well as an adjustment in their needs and wants in terms of the outcome of
work done, whereas other studies found that the outcome of job satisfaction varies across age groups. These are motivated by diverse incentives in job satisfaction dimensions.

According to Matthewman, Rose and Hetherington (2009), in theory, job satisfaction is related to the degree to which one’s profession is viewed by individuals as fulfilling their values, while the degree of satisfaction is related to the differences between their preferences in relation to certain job factors, such as remuneration, autonomy of work and their perceptions of the actual state of the employment (Matthewman, Rose & Hetherington, 2009).

Job autonomy refers to the degree with which employees have power over decision making in their jobs. Previous literature validates the positive association between autonomy and job satisfaction (Iverson & Roy, 1994). The question can be asked if the degree of job satisfaction is related to security employees’ autonomy of work. A high level of job autonomy indicates that an employee has discretion over how his or her tasks are to be performed (Jex & Britt, 2008). Temporary employees have less job autonomy and challenges than those on permanent contracts (Russell-Gardner & Jackson, 1995). According to de Jonge and Schaufeli (1998), older and more experienced employees have greater job autonomy.

The aim of this research is to determine the relationship between type of contract (full-time and part-time employment) and the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and security employees’ intention to leave. The type of employment contract is not considered as the most vital aspect in research, and findings are often generalised to all employees. The researcher first conceptualises the type of contract, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave, which leads to the formulation of specific hypotheses.

**The psychological contract and individual characteristics of employees**

When parties enter into an employment contract, whether it is full-time or part-time, an employment relationship is born. According to De Cuyper et al. (2008), there is no theoretical framework to analyse the effects of temporary employment available. The employment
relationships is governed by the psychological contract (Niehoff & Paul, 2001). With the existence of an employment relationship, each party incurs certain rights and obligations (Bendix, 2001). Shore and Tetrick (1994) explain that previous research has viewed the psychological contract as a clarifying structure for the employment relationship.

The *Psychological contract* has been defined as a set of shared obligations and embedded promises as perceived by the employee (Rousseau, 1990). The contract refers to employees’ insight of what the employers owe them (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). As soon as the individual becomes conscious that he/she owes the employer contributions (labour, sacrifices etc.) in return of an incentive (job security, remuneration etc.), obligations become contractual. Conway and Briner (2002) found that that work/employment status moderates the relationship strength between the psychological contract fulfillment and well-being.

McDonald and Makin (2000) suggest that temporary employees’ expectations with regards to the psychological contract are higher than those of the permanent employees. Temporary employees’ increased expectations include differences across work status (i.e. promises made). Temporary employees are dealt with differently by the organisation in terms of work carried out, autonomy and opportunities for advancement, individual level and reasons connected with less time spent at the workplace (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984). Morrison and Robinson (1997) are of judgment that part-time employees are overthrown by the perception that they are not treated equally, that they don’t have a problem (overlook) with the work status. Du Plooy (2008) found a noteworthy disparity between the type of employment contract and the employer’s obligations. A study by De Beer (2011) indicates that temporary employees experience higher employee obligations than permanent employees.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 1:** Temporary employees’ expectations of employer obligations are higher than those of permanent employees.
Temporary employees will perceive the psychological contract differently when they know they are treated similar to permanent employees with regards to enticement received and contributions to give (Conway & Briner, 2002). Steffy and Jones (1990) however found in their study that permanent employees have higher prospects than temporary employees.

While workforces around the globe are ageing, older employees will be key players in the tight job market. One challenge many organisations must deal with is retaining and motivating older employees (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Limited research is available on the differences between younger and older employees in the psychological contracts with their organisations (Van der Heijden, Schalk, & Van Veldhoven, 2008). It is unclear how younger people differ from older employees in their ideas of employer obligations, and how reactions to organisational treatment differ with age (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). It is plausible that younger employees will have different needs to satisfy than older employees, thus the existence of different expectations from their employers. Older employees are anticipated to show different reactions to situations as opposed to younger employees in the same situation where the employer fails to fulfil its obligations (Schein, 1978). Du Plooy (2008) explains that age has a momentous outcome on employer obligations. A significant difference was found between employer obligations and age, but no significant differences were found between employee obligations and age (De Beer, 2011).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 2: Younger employees differ in their perceptions of employer obligations from older employees.

Employability and individual characteristics of employees

In the world of work, each and every individual must take responsibility to manage his/her own career and ensure continuous employment (Baruch, 2001). There has been little or no proof to clarify what composes employability and how employability should be administered (De Grip, van Loo & Sanders, 2004, p. 215). Employability can be summarised as to how individuals in an
organisation handle the changing employment environment and conditions, and how organisations can maintain their ability to adapt and succeed to enhance its competitiveness.

Anderson and Schalk (1998) rest the notion of employability within the “new psychological contract”. It is expected from the employer’s side to present amenities to enhance the employability level of employees, while the employees are encouraged to use these amenities. This implies an inherent link between the content of the psychological contract and the concept of employability.

Baruch (2001) is of opinion that that when referring to employability, the organisation should present employees with a different type of psychological contract so they will believe that a fair transaction exists, and they won’t feel deceived. Due to an intensified need for employability, empirical research in this area is needed: this is evidence on its own for the close relationship between the psychological contract and employability (De Jong & Schalk, 2003).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 3: A relationship exists between employability and the psychological contract.

Due to the fact that temporary employment became a high demand, employees cannot be sure to have lifelong employment with one employer (Forrier, Sels, Hootegem, De Witte & Van der Steene, 2002).

When looking at age and employability, it is important to understand why it gets harder to remain employed as people progress later in their careers. There exists a negative association between employability and age as it is sourced on organisational attitudes and new agreement of employability expectations with older workers (Garavan and Coolahan, 1996; van der Heijden, 2002). In the face of population ageing, it is commonly believed that older employees have to be stimulated to stay longer in the labour force (OECD, 2006). Chan and Stevens (2001) is of opinion that job loss occurs more frequently with older individuals. Moreover, Hanish (1999) agrees that the unemployment spell lengthens as people grow older and it gets harder to be employed (Chan & Stevens 2001). The American Association of Retired Pearsons (AARP, 2002)
states that, if job seekers expect a negative attitude of future employers towards applicants moving closer towards the retirement age, their perceived alternatives in the labour market may decrease with age.

Employability in females did not match employability in males during the last century. The female labour force has grown in most developed countries. Female employees were hardly seen in higher positions; they fell into lower-ranked pay scales and chances for promotion were relatively low (Anker, 1997). However, Rothwell and Arnold (2005) disagree and found that gender had no statistical relationship with self-perceived employability. Tome (2007) reported that employees that worked for longer periods of time (tenure) seem to have higher employability. However, he strongly noted that this was recorded when there was a dual labour market that occurred due to different economic conditions within the period. Given the inconsistent findings on the tenure on employability, more studies in this area are required. Du Plooy (2008) found that a practical significant relationship exists between participants who have less than one-year experience, and that they also have less employer obligations than those who work longer than 21 years.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 4: Longer tenure is expected to have a positive impact on employability.

**Job autonomy and individual characteristics of employees**

Job autonomy is described as the employees’ significant lack of restrictions, self-government and diplomacy when scheduling his or her work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Autonomy leads to more satisfied employees as employees feel responsible and accountable for their efforts in the workplace. Studies from Loher, Noe, Moeller, and Fitzgerald (1985) confirm that autonomy is positively associated with satisfaction for temporary and permanent employees (Davis-Blake, Broschak, George, 2003).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 5: Employees’ experience of autonomy is positively associated to satisfaction.
In a study conducted by Baker and Aldrich (1996), job autonomy was significantly lower for temporary employees than for permanent employees. When high levels of job satisfaction are experienced by temporary employees it is due to increased knowledge from multiple employers and the identity-enhancing careers recommended by higher levels of job autonomy (Baker & Aldrich, 1996). In a study conducted by De Cuyper and De Witte (2006) there was a difference in the views of temporary and permanent employees to the issues of autonomy and workload. The results stated that autonomy doesn’t play a role in temporary employees when referring to job satisfaction. Temporary employment is linked to low autonomy, which is likely to yield destructive psychological outcomes for the employees. It is also assumed by De Cuyper and De Witte (2006) that autonomy arbitrates the relationship between the type of employment contract and the psychological conclusions.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 6: Temporary employment could be linked with low autonomy.

Job autonomy has received insignificant thought/consideration in the literature. Job autonomy means that an individual can manage the arrangement and pace of work. Job autonomy, high salary and pleasant working conditions are considered important by majority male and female employees (Neil & Snizek 1987). Neil & Snizek (1987) also found that male employees have more autonomy than female employees. The results not only indicate that men have on average more overall job autonomy than women, but that men's advantage continue after controlling for gender composition of occupation and authority position. Gender and autonomy are more vital determinants of the degree of job autonomy than occupational segregation (Treiman & Hartmann 1981). In a study conducted by Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, and Mount (1998), no significant relationship existed between autonomy and tenure.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 7: Men have more overall job autonomy than women.
Job satisfaction and individual characteristics of employees

Job satisfaction is a topic in high demand as there are many different definitions of job satisfaction. De Loach and Monroe (2004, p. 209) define job satisfaction as “having task significance, supervisory support, autonomy and no role overload”. Job satisfaction is a concept that has been defined as a positive attitude that is based on the perception of the job as something pleasant that provides the individual with what he or she needs. Job satisfaction is an important research focus area in organisations.

The psychological contracts are essential as it leads to greater job satisfaction and commitment to the organisation (Guest, 1998; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005). As mentioned by Oshagbemi (2003), when employees are not satisfied in their jobs it might lead to increased turnover, lower job performance, absenteeism and extra-role behaviours. Job satisfaction is of utmost importance for an individual’s physical and mental well-being relating back to life satisfaction. Yousef (2000) mentions that job satisfaction has a positive association with life satisfaction.

When an employee’s personal capacities and values are looked after and the organisation offers rewards and opportunities, employees will have increased job satisfaction (Dawis, 1992; Roberts & Roseanne, 1998). Job satisfaction entails the individual's feelings and thoughts (inspirations) and evaluation of his/her job, and can be influenced by the individual’s exclusive circumstances, which include expectations, needs and principles. Individuals will therefore evaluate and assess their jobs on the basis of factors that they regard as being important to them (Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002).

When an individual enjoys his/her job, has the opportunity to grow in the organisation, and respects his/her their supervisors, they will be satisfied (Kleiman, 1997).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 8: Employer and employee obligations influences the job satisfaction of employees.
Groot and Van den Brink (1999) found that temporary employees are more satisfied with their job than permanent employees. Employees who work part-time are more satisfied in general and more satisfied with their flexibility (working hours) and job content than opposed to employees who work full-time (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984; Wotruba, 1990; Conway & Briner, 2005), less satisfied (Hall & Gordon, 1973), slightly more satisfied (Austin, 2009) and showing no divergence (Logan, O’Reilly, & Roberts, 1973). While studies by Connely and Gallagher (2004) and De Witte (1999) find no association between permanent and non-permanent employees and their job satisfaction.

Arvey, Carter and Buerkley (1991) found that there is a consistent relationship between age and job satisfaction. The relationship between age and job satisfaction is found to be U-shaped (Warr, 1994), resulting in a low overall correlation between age and job satisfaction. According to Warr (1992), older employees report higher levels of satisfaction than younger employees. Buitendach (2004) proves that younger employees experience lower job satisfaction than employees older than 55 years.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 9: A positive relationship exists between employee status (permanent and temporary), age and job satisfaction.

When linking gender to job satisfaction, Hulin and Smith (1964) suggest that gender-based job satisfaction is determined by education, pay and tenure and males and females are equally satisfied with their jobs when these factors are controlled. Ball, de Lange, Jansen and Van der Velde (2008) found that a small positive correlation exists between age and job satisfaction, and a small negative correlation exists between tenure and job satisfaction.

Price and Mueller (1986) state that employees who have longer tenure, have a higher level of job satisfaction because they are more likely to have more control over their jobs and perform less routine tasks.
Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 10: A correlation exists between employees autonomy and job satisfaction.

**Life satisfaction and individual characteristics of employees**

Life satisfaction is viewed as the extent to which an individual is pleased with his/her life (Rode, 2004). With the new global technological development, people put a high price on quality of life. Nowadays, people don’t only focus their attention on their work life but also to their non-work-related life. Therefore, understanding employees’ life satisfaction is becoming more crucial. As most employees spend majority of their time at work, the relationship between job satisfaction and a measurement of overall life satisfaction reflects the importance of work as a single factor.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 11: A relationship exists between an employee’s job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

In a study conducted by Heller, Judge and Watson (2002), permanent employees will have higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction than temporary employees. Fast and Frederick (1996) found that temporary employees had lower levels of non-work interference than permanent employees, as temporary employees are paid less, have routine tasks and limited promotion opportunities.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 12: Permanent employees will have higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction than temporary employees.

Diener (1984) suggests that women are more satisfied with their lives than men. One might understand the logic behind this reasoning as women express changing attitudes towards work and because of changes in life and individual characteristics of women in the work force (Kavanagh & Halpern, 1977).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 13: Women would report higher levels of life satisfaction than men.

**Intention to leave and individual characteristics of employees**

In today's competitive business world, it is necessary to conduct research on how employees can function at their best and, at the same time, to the advantage of the organisation. Investigation will give a clear understanding of the impact of employees leaving the organisation. Intention to leave a job refers to the intent or predisposition to leave the organisation where one is presently employed (Pienaar & Bester, 2006). According to researchers such as Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), intentions are a reliable indication of actual behaviour. Intentions are also of practical value from a research perspective, as once people have actually showed an intention to leave; there is little likelihood of gaining access to them to understand their prior situation. Intention to leave refers to an employee's attitude that favors one option over another such as leaving the job (Sjoberg & Sverke, 2000).

The findings of Von Hippel, Mangum, Greenberger, Skoglund, and Heneman (1997) states when employees are satisfied, they will have little or no intention to leave due to some sense of commitment. This is important for organisations that consider temporary employees as a strategic resource because a high turnover rate can result in higher replacement and training cost for organisations (Horn & Griffeth, 1995). Research by Isaksson and Johansson (2003) found that age was clearly the predominant factor and that older employees were generally more inclined to leave the company (intention to leave) than younger colleagues.

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 14:** An employee who experiences job satisfaction will have less intention to leave.

Pudney and Shields (2000) found no significant effect of gender on intention to leave, however, Cohen (1988) found that there can be a prediction between gender and intention to leave. It was found that gender has a small but significant effect on the dependent variable of intention to leave.
The longer a worker is involved with an organisation, the more capital they are likely to build and the more commitment they tend to show. An increased commitment and satisfaction leads to a lower intent to leave the organisation (Bingley & Westergaad-Nielsen, 1998).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 15: No relationship exists between gender and intention to leave.

To enhance the insight of aspects affecting the employment relationship for future research of security companies in the Vaal Triangle and in South Africa, the link between the concepts of type of employment contract, gender, age, tenure, and the psychological contract, employability, job autonomy, life satisfaction, job satisfaction and intention to leave is important. See Figure 1 for the conceptualisation between the individual differences (type of contract, age, tenure, gender), employability, job autonomy, life satisfaction, job satisfaction and intention to leave.

Figure 1: Conceptualisation between individual differences, employability, job autonomy, life satisfaction, job satisfaction and intention to leave (Adapted from Guest & Conway, 2004) and (Iverson & Maguire, 2000).
This research will be an aid to assist security organisations to improve their knowledge on the employment contract of their employees. The research aims to gain further knowledge in the field of the psychological contract theory by assessing individual characteristic differences in the psychological contracts (employer obligations, employee obligations).

**AIM OF STUDY**

The general objective of this article is to determine the relationship between individual characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave.

**METHODS**

**Research Design**

A survey design (questionnaire) was used to achieve the research objectives. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, by means of which a sample is randomly drawn from the security population at a particular point in time (Shaugnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

_Cross-sectional designs_ are appropriate where groups of subjects at various stages of development are studied simultaneously, whereas the _survey technique of data collection_ gathers information from the target population by means of questionnaires (Burns & Grove, 1993).

**Participants**

The population of 297 employees working in the security industry was targeted for this research. A response rate of 217 (73%) was obtained. The studied population includes security guards, control room operators, administration employees, technical assistants, cleaners, sales department, fire department, armed response, CCTV operators, supervisors and directors. The biographical characteristics of the study population are detailed in Table 1.
Table 1

Compilation of Study Population (N=217)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of contract</td>
<td>Permanent employee</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temporary employee</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>65.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing response</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female (1)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (2)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20 years and younger (1)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21 – 30 years (2)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 – 40 years (3)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41 – 50 years (4)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51 – and older (5)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Less than 1 year (1)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 – 5 years (2)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 5 years (3)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing Responses</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Grade 9 and below (1)</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 10 – 12 (2)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma (3)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree and higher qualification (4)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing response</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicates that 5.1% are permanent employees, while 65.9% are temporary employees. The majority of the participants (51.6%) are male and only 21.2% are female. The predominant age in this population falls in the age group of 31–40 years, totalling 29.5% of the participants. In terms of qualifications, the majority of the participants (41.9%) have Grade 9 and below; 28.6% Grade 10–12; while 1.4% have diplomas. A further 1.4% have a post-graduate degree.
Furthermore, Table 1 indicates that 28.6% of the participants have got tenure of less than a year at the security organisation, 37.3% of employees have tenure of more than 1 year and 5 years.

**Measures battery**

The following questionnaires were used in the empirical research:

*Biographical questionnaire:* (BIQ) was created to obtain relevant biographical data on the participants in the research. The biographical information includes type of contract, age, gender and status.

The *Employer Obligations Questionnaire*, as developed by Isaksson et al. (2003), was used to obtain data on the promises and commitments the employers make to their employees. The questionnaire consists of 15 items arranged along a 6-point frequency-rating scale with 0 being “No” and 5 being “Yes, and promise fully kept”. Typical questions on this questionnaire range from “Has your organisation promised or committed itself to provide you with interesting work?” to “Has your organisation promised or committed itself to help you deal with problems you encounter outside work?” In the study conducted by Mpotane (2007), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.93$ was obtained, indicating the internal consistency of this questionnaire. In this study, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.93$ was also obtained.

The *Employee Obligations Questionnaire* by Isakson *et al.* (2003) was used to determine some promises and commitments that employees often make to the organisation. The questionnaire consists of 16 items arranged along 6-point frequency-rating scale with “0” being “NO”, and 5 being “YES, fully kept promise”. Examples of questions on this questionnaire vary from “Have you promised or committed yourself to go to work even if you do not feel particularly well?” to “Have you promised or committed yourself to work enthusiastically on jobs you would prefer not to be doing?” In the study conducted by Mpotane (2007), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.88$ was found. In this study a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.90$ was obtained. These findings confirm the internal consistency of the measuring instrument.
Employability: The scale of De Witte as used in the Psycones project (2005) will be used to measured employability. The questionnaire consists of five items. The following statements are used: “I am confident that I could quickly get another job”; “I am optimistic that I will find another job, if I look for one”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0,70 and 0,81 in the Psycones project (2005) was found.

Autonomy: The scales of Rosenthal, Guest and Peccei (1996) will be used. The questionnaire consists of four items. The following statements are used to measure autonomy: “I can plan my own work”; “I can carry out my work in the way I think best”; “I can vary how I do my work”; I can influence the way my section is organised”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0,74 and 0,82 in the Psycones project (2005) was found.

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire: The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ) by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) as cited in Price (1997) will be used to measure the perceived job satisfaction of the participants. The original questionnaire consisted of 18 items of which only four will be used for the purpose of this study. The items are rated on a widely used Likert-type scale, varying from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The following statements are found on this questionnaire: “I am not happy with my job”; “I am often bored with my job”; “Most days I am enthusiastic about my job”; and “I find enjoyment in my job”. In the study conducted by Brayfield and Rothe, items on job satisfaction are reported to have had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,87 (Price, 1997).

Life satisfaction: The life satisfaction scale of Guest and Conway (1998) will be utilised to measure life satisfaction. The scale consists out of six items. The items are also rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 being “Strongly disagree”; 3 being “Neither agree nor disagree”; and 5 being “Strongly agree”. The types of statements used in this questionnaire are “Your life in general”; “Your family life”; “Your leisure time”; and “Your state of health well-being”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0,81 and 0,85 in the Psycones project (2005) was found.

The Intention to Leave Questionnaire (IQQ) (Price, 1997) is a modified version of Isaksson (2003). It was measured by using four items, namely "I would be reluctant to leave this job" and
its reverse code (Price, 1997). In previous studies (Isaksson, 2003; de Cuyper & de Witte, 2000) a Cronbach alpha coefficient ranged from $\alpha = 0.79$ to $0.82$. The IQQ measures the employee's desire to leave rather than his/her actual intention to leave and that the exact time of departure is set in advance, which possibly influences the intention to leave before the contract expires (De Jong & Geurtz, 1997).

**Research procedure**

The researcher made arrangements with the three directors to inform them of the specific details of the research. The researcher insured the directors that confidentiality will be of utmost importance, and that nobody will be forced to participate. Guards, armed response workers, as well as control room- and administrative employees were informed that they would be asked to complete the questionnaire anonymously, and without any obligation, and that all confidentiality will be maintained in this regard. When results are available, a meeting will be arranged with the security organisation and a full discussion as to what the results revealed will be shared with the three directors and employees.

**Statistical analysis**

The statistical analysis is carried out with the PSAW 18 programme (PSAW, 2010), making use of descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis), Cronbach’s alpha and inter-item correlations coefficients, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analyses. The statistical analysis entails the analyst breaking down data into constituent parts to obtain answers from the various research objectives (Kerlinger, 1986).

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse data, including means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis. Cronbach’s alpha and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the measuring items and determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires.
Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients were used to specify the relationship between variables. Effect sizes were computed to assess the practical significance of relationships between variables in this study. The level of statistical significance are set at $p<0.01$, while a cut-off point of 0.30 is set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients, which represents a medium effect, a cut-off point of 0.05 represents a large effect. The sole use of statistical significance testing is criticized by Steyn (2002) and it is recommended that effect sizes be established to determine the importance of a statistically significant relationship.

MANOVA and ANOVA were used to determine the significance of the difference between biographic groups. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) will be used to determine the significance of differences between biographic groups, while Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a procedure used for comparing samples to determine whether there is sufficient evidence to infer that the means of the corresponding population distributions also differ (George & Mallery, 2003).

**RESULTS**

A simple principal component analysis was carried out on 15 items of the employer obligations on security employees in the Vaal Triangle. The scree plot showed that two factors could be extracted. An analysis of the eigenvalues ($>1.00$) and scree plots indicate that three factors could be extracted, which explains 48,51% of the total variance. For employee obligations, 17 of the items were carried out. The scree plot showed that two factors could be extracted, and analysis of the eigenvalues ($>1.00$) and scree plots indicate that three factors could be extracted, which explains 48,51% of the total variance. Component analysis was carried out on four items for autonomy, four items for employability, four items for job satisfaction, six items for life satisfaction and four items for intention to leave on security employees in the Vaal Triangle. The scree plot showed the following factor(s) for the following constructs: Autonomy (1) factor; employability (1) factor; job satisfaction (1) factor; life satisfaction (1) factor; and intention to leave (1) factor. Due to the analysis of the eigenvalues ($>1.00$) and scree plots, it explain total variance for Autonomy (48,32%), employability (59,43%), job satisfaction (49,59), life satisfaction (60,16%) and intention to leave (40,92%).
The descriptive statistics, alpha coefficients, skewness and kurtosis of the psychological contract (employer obligations, employee obligations) are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-Item Correlations Coefficients of the Measuring Instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test and subscales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Employer Obligations</td>
<td>31.17</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Employee Obligations</td>
<td>60.43</td>
<td>12.96</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employability</td>
<td>13.10</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>-0.50</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Autonomy</td>
<td>13.58</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Job satisfaction</td>
<td>15.17</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Life satisfaction</td>
<td>26.60</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Intention to leave</td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The information reflected in Table 2 indicates that the scores on all the subscales have a normal distribution (skewness and kurtosis smaller than one), with the exception of the subscale: Employer obligations and employee obligations that have a skewness and kurtosis larger than one. The information reflected in Table 2 indicates normal negative distribution scores for employer obligations, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. Employee obligations’ kurtosis is 3.08 and therefore it is not normally distributed and spread in the data. Employability shows skewness and it shows a negative value of -0.75. Most of the scores of the histogram are to the right, and therefore negatively skewed. Furthermore, the results in Table 1 show acceptable Cronbach Alpha coefficients varying between 0.67 and 0.86 were obtained. The mean inter-item correlations of the most of the scales are acceptable. A Cronbach alpha of 0.70 is considered acceptable in the natural sciences (Nunnally, 1978) but Cronbach alphas of less than 0.60 have been noted in the social sciences (Hatcher, 1994).
Table 3

Correlation coefficients between type of contract, the psychological contract (employer obligations, employee obligations), employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test and subscales</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Employment contract</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Employer obligations</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employee obligations</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Employability</td>
<td>0.12**</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Autonomy</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Life satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.40**</td>
<td>0.23**</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>0.33**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Intention to leave</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is statistically significant p≤0.05
** Correlation is practically significant r≥0.30 (medium effect)
** Correlation is practically significant r≥0.50 (large effect) (Cohen, 1988).

Table 3 shows that the type of employment contract shows a statistically significant relationship with employability. Employer obligations show a practically significant relationship with a medium effect with employee obligations and life satisfaction. A practically significant relationship with a large effect exists between employer obligations and job satisfaction. Employee obligations show a statistically significant effect with employability and job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 (a relationship between employability and psychological contract) is partially accepted, because no relationship was found between employer obligations and employability but a statistically significant relationship exists between employee obligations and employability.

A practically significant relationship with a medium effect was found between employee obligations, autonomy and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 8 (employer and employee obligations influence job satisfaction of employees) are accepted because employer and employee obligations are practically significant related to job satisfaction.

No relationship exists between employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. Therefore hypothesis 5 is rejected (employees experience autonomy positively...
related to satisfaction). A practically significant relationship with a medium effect exists between autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Hypothesis 10 (a correlation exists between job satisfaction and autonomy) is accepted. This means that if employees experience autonomy they also experience job satisfaction. No relationship exists between autonomy and intention to leave. Job satisfaction shows a practically significant relationship with life satisfaction. Hypothesis 11 (a relationship exists between and employee’s job satisfaction and life satisfaction) is accepted. No relationships exist between intention to leave and life satisfaction. Hypothesis 14 that states an employee who experiences job satisfaction is less intent on leaving, is rejected because no relationship was found between job satisfaction and intention to leave. This implies, for example, that employer’s obligations will not always be associated with high intention to leave and vice versa.

Next, MANOVA (multivariate analysis of variance) will be used to determine differences between personal variables, job related variables and intention to leave. Results were firstly analysed for statistical significance using Wilks’ Lambda statistics. ANOVA was used to determine specific differences whenever statistical differences were found. The results of the MANOVA analysis are given in Table 4.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of contract</td>
<td>0,93</td>
<td>2,01</td>
<td>7,0</td>
<td>0,05*</td>
<td>0,07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0,94</td>
<td>1,90</td>
<td>7,0</td>
<td>0,07</td>
<td>0,06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0,63</td>
<td>3,38</td>
<td>28,0</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>0,70</td>
<td>3,41</td>
<td>21,0</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.05 = significant

In an analysis of Wilks' Lambda, values as seen in Table 4 indicating a statistically significant difference were obtained for type of contract, age and tenure, but no relationship exists with gender. Hypothesis 7 states that men have more overall job autonomy than women are then rejected because no difference was found between gender and job-related variables. Hypothesis
13 is rejected because women’s satisfaction with their lives does not differ from men. Hypothesis 15 was also rejected because no relationship was found between gender and intention to leave.

Table 5

ANOVAS – Differences in the Psychological Contract Levels, Employability Levels, Autonomy Levels, Job Satisfaction Levels, Life Satisfaction Levels, Intention to Leave Levels and Type of Contract

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Temporary employees</th>
<th>Permanent employees</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employer obligations</td>
<td>31,50</td>
<td>28,66</td>
<td>0,29</td>
<td>0,01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee obligations</td>
<td>60,82</td>
<td>59,61</td>
<td>0,75</td>
<td>0,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employability</td>
<td>13,03</td>
<td>15,08</td>
<td>0,05*</td>
<td>0,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>13,47</td>
<td>14,54</td>
<td>0,30</td>
<td>0,01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>15,25</td>
<td>15,00</td>
<td>0,78</td>
<td>0,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>25,86</td>
<td>29,92</td>
<td>0,06</td>
<td>0,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to leave</td>
<td>10,49</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>0,60</td>
<td>0,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\eta^2 > 0,25 = $ large effect
* Statistically significant difference: $p < 0,05$

A significant difference was found between permanent and temporary employees regarding employability. Temporary employees experience less employability than permanent employees. No difference between permanent and temporary employees regarding employer obligations, employee obligations, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave was found.

Hypothesis 1 (temporary employees’ expectations of employer obligations are higher than those of permanent employees) is rejected. Hypothesis 6 (temporary employment could be associated with low autonomy) is also rejected because no relationship was found between temporary employment and autonomy. Permanent employees did not have higher job satisfaction or life satisfaction than temporary employees, therefore Hypothesis 12 is rejected.
Table 6

ANOVAS – Difference in employer obligations, employee obligations, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, intention to leave levels and age groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>19 years and younger</th>
<th>20 – 29 years</th>
<th>30 – 39 years</th>
<th>40 – 49 years</th>
<th>50 years and older</th>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( \eta^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employer obligations</td>
<td>32,70</td>
<td>28,19</td>
<td>30,45</td>
<td>32,76</td>
<td>46,00</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee obligations</td>
<td>68,40</td>
<td>55,97</td>
<td>60,50</td>
<td>62,04</td>
<td>75,59</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employability</td>
<td>14,60</td>
<td>13,11</td>
<td>13,07</td>
<td>12,70</td>
<td>13,20</td>
<td>0,70</td>
<td>0,01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>14,30</td>
<td>13,65</td>
<td>13,07</td>
<td>12,93</td>
<td>18,00</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>15,00</td>
<td>13,90</td>
<td>15,25</td>
<td>16,00</td>
<td>19,40</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>24,50</td>
<td>25,65</td>
<td>24,30</td>
<td>28,98</td>
<td>33,80</td>
<td>0,00*</td>
<td>0,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to leave</td>
<td>9,00</td>
<td>9,97</td>
<td>10,91</td>
<td>10,43</td>
<td>12,00</td>
<td>0,14</td>
<td>0,03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \eta^2 > 0,25 = \) large effect

* Statistically significant difference: \( p < 0,05 \)

Employees who are older than 50 years of age experience employer obligations and employee obligations differently to employees between the ages of 20 and 29 years. Therefore Hypothesis 2 is accepted, because younger employees differ from older employees in their perceptions of employer obligations. Employees older than 50 years of age experience autonomy differently to those between the age group 40 to 49 years. Older employees experience a higher job- and life satisfaction than younger employees.

In Hypothesis 9 (a positive relationship between employee status, namely permanent and temporary contract), age and job satisfaction is partially accepted because no relationship exists between type of contract (Table 5), but a significant relationship was found between age and job satisfaction, where older employees experience higher job satisfaction than younger employees.
Employees with more years of tenure experience higher employer obligations, employee obligations, autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction than employees with less than one year of service. Hypothesis 4 is rejected because longer tenure did not play a role in the employability of employees.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between job characteristics (the type of contract) and the psychological contract (employer’s obligation and employee’s obligations), employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave of security employees at a company. To measure the employment relations in this study from an individual level perspective, the PSYCONES questionnaire was used. The employer obligations scale, employee obligations scale, employability scale, autonomy scale, life satisfaction scale and intention to leave scale show acceptable internal consistencies. The job satisfaction scale
indicates that a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.67 was found, but Cronbach alphas of less than 0.60 have been noted in the social sciences (Hatcher, 1994).

The theoretical and practical findings in this study indicate the following:

The information reflected indicates that the scores on all the subscales have a normal distribution (skewness and kurtosis smaller than one), with the exception of the subscale: Employer obligations and employee obligations that have a skewness and kurtosis larger than one. Acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying between 0.67 and 0.86 were obtained. The mean inter-item correlations of most of the scales are acceptable. A Cronbach alpha of 0.70 is considered acceptable in the natural sciences (Nunnally, 1978), but Cronbach alphas of less than 0.60 have been noted in the social sciences (Hatcher, 1994).

No difference between permanent and temporary employees regarding employer obligations, employee obligations, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave was found. Hypothesis 1, which stated that temporary employees’ expectations of employer obligations are higher than those of permanent employees, is rejected. Temporary employees’ expectations were not higher than those of permanent employees, indicated that temporary employees are not treated differently from permanent employees within this company.

Employees who are older than 50 years of age experience employer obligations and employee obligations differently to employees between the ages of 20 and 29 years. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is accepted, because younger employees differ from older employees in their perceptions of employer obligations. Van der Heijden, Schalk and van Veldhoven (2008) and Du Plooy (2008) also found that younger employees differ in their perception of employer obligations from older employees. It therefore indicates that younger employees have different expectations from their employer.

Pearson correlations indicate employee obligations show a statistically significant effect with employability and life satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (a relationship between employability and the psychological contract) is partially accepted, because no relationship was found between
employer obligations and employability but a statistically significant relationship exists between employee obligations and employability. It is expected from the employer to offer facilities to enhance the employability level of employees.

Employees with more years of tenure experience higher employer obligations, employee obligations, autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction than employees with less than one year of service. Hypothesis 4 is rejected because longer tenure did not play a role in the employability of employees. As mentioned by Tome (2007), a lack of research exists regarding employability and tenure of employees.

With regards to the autonomy of the employee the following findings were made. No relationship exists between employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. Therefore hypothesis 5 is rejected because it states that employees experience autonomy positively related to satisfaction. Davis-Blake, Broschak, George (2003) that found that autonomy is positively related to satisfaction. Autonomy does not play any role in the experience of job satisfaction for security employees. Hypothesis 6, which states that temporary employment could be associated with low autonomy, is also rejected because no relationship was found between temporary employment and autonomy. Hypothesis 7, which that states that men have more overall job autonomy than women, is rejected because no difference was found between gender and autonomy.

A practically significant relationship with a medium effect was found between employee obligations, autonomy and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 8 (employer and employee obligations influence job satisfaction of employees) is accepted because employer and employee obligations are practically significant related to job satisfaction. The psychological contract is important for an employee to experience job satisfaction. If an employee experiences job satisfaction, he/she demonstrates less intention to leave.

Hypothesis 9, which that states that a positive relationship between employee status (permanent and temporary contract), age and job satisfaction exists, is partially accepted because no relationship exists between type of contract, but a significant relationship was found between age
and job satisfaction, where older employees experience higher job satisfaction than younger employees. Inconclusive and inconsistent findings exist between type of employment contract and job satisfaction (2009). It is therefore very important that more studies should be done on type of employment contract and job satisfaction.

A practically significant relationship with a medium effect exists between autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Hypothesis 10 (a correlation exists between job satisfaction and autonomy) is accepted. This means that if employees experience autonomy they also experience job satisfaction. No relationship exists between autonomy and intention to leave. Job satisfaction shows a practically significant relationship with life satisfaction. Hypothesis 11 (a relationship exists between and employee’s job satisfaction and life satisfaction) is accepted.

Permanent employees did not have higher job satisfaction or life satisfaction than temporary employees. Therefore hypothesis 12 is rejected. These findings differ from the Heller, Judge and Watson (2002) that found that permanent employees experience higher job satisfaction than temporary employees.

Statistically significant differences were obtained for type of contract, age and tenure, but no relationship exists with gender. Hypothesis 13 is rejected because women satisfaction with their lives does not differ from men. According to Diener (1984) women are more likely to be satisfied with their lives than men. No relationships exist between intention to leave and life satisfaction. Hypothesis 14, which states an employee who experience job satisfaction are less intent on leaving, is rejected because no relationship was found between job satisfaction and intention to leave. This implies, for example, that employer’s obligations will not always be associated with high intention to leave and vice versa. Hypothesis 15 was also rejected because no relationship was found between gender and intention to leave.
Limitations and future research

This study provides a better understanding of the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave as stated in the literature.

Limitations were identified. When using a cross-sectional questionnaire design the researcher struggled to prove underlying relationships between the constructs. A longitudinal study approach can assist future researchers in identifying numerous points to target the organisational interventions. When organisations want to improve their employee’s evaluation of the psychological contract they must consider certain aspects of job satisfaction/life satisfaction and intention to leave as independently relevant to employees’ evaluations of their psychological contracts and ensuing attitudes and behaviours.

More detailed discussion could have followed if the populations had a greater variance in gender, age, qualification, educational background and size. This study was only conducted in one organisation. If the researcher had access to different security organisations, more details as to employer obligations and employee obligations could be analysed, as one company can only provide one set of data. Two or more organisations could have given the researcher more data to compare.

Another restraint pertains to the use of self-reported data. Any time self-reported data is used, common method variance may bias the observed relationship among variables. Doing so would improve our understanding of how relationships between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave unfold over time and may provide additional clarification.

However, this research does raise important questions which are concerned with the measurement and modeling of the main constructs and has implications for how future researchers can examine constructs that have developed independently, yet share a common underlying theme in South Africa.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 3
ARTICLE 2
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT, AUTONOMY, JOB SATISFACTION,
LIFE SATISFACTION AND INTENTION TO LEAVE

ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. A cross-sectional survey design was conducted among 297 security employees in a private company situated in Vanderbijlpark. A total of 217 respondents completed the questionnaire, resulting in a response rate of 73%. Employer obligations show a practically significant relationship with a medium effect with employee obligations and life satisfaction. A practically significant relationship with a large effect exists between employer obligations and job satisfaction. Employer obligations, employee obligations and employability predict a positive relationship with job satisfaction. However autonomy, life satisfaction and intention to leave did not predict job satisfaction.

OPSOMMING

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie navorsing was om die verhouding te bepaal tussen die psigologiese kontrak, dienswaardigheid, autonomiteit, werksbevrediging, lewensbevrediging en die voorneme om diens te verlaat. ‘n Dwarsnee onname-ontwerp was geneem onder 297 sekuriteitswerknemers werkagtig vir ‘n privaatmaatskappy in Vanderbijlpark. ‘n Totaal van 217 deelnemers het die vraelys voltooi, wat ’n respons van 73% teweeggebring het. Werkgewersverpligtinge het ‘n praktiese beduidende verhouding met ‘n middelmatige effek op werknemersverpligtinge en lewensbevrediging. ’n Praktiese beduidende verhouding met ‘n groot effek is bevestig tussen werkgewersverpligtinge en werksbevrediging. Werkgewersverpligtinge, werknemersverpligtinge en dienswaardigheid voorspel ‘n positiewe verhouding met wersbevrediging, terwyl autonomiteit, lewensbevrediging en die voorneme om diens te verlaat geensins werksbevrediging voorspel nie.
Investment into human resources has positive effects on the general industrial and technological base of society, contributing to economic wealth (Sempere, 2010). The private security industry in Europe, as well as in South Africa, has shown tremendous growth (van Steden & Nalla, 2010). The security industry, as opposed to defense sector (Sempere, 2010) and police services, has not been an area of intense research. Security is a necessity without which societies struggle to flourish.

The private security industry outnumbers police officers by 7:1 due to the limited protection against crime provided by South African police on a daily basis (Lubbe, 2010). An increased awareness of inefficiencies in providing conventional police services has led to communities and employers bypassing their police departments and contracted portions of public protective services by consulting private agencies (Levinson, 2002).

The majority of security companies are involved in guarding functions and provides they are hampered by various legislative controls and regulations (Minnaar, 2005). The industry provides a service to the private citizens of the country by protecting and safeguarding property in general by means of reactive security and armed escort services (Lubbe, 2010). However, little is known about how satisfied employees within the private security industry are with their work and life.

Work-life has been subjected to dramatic transformation over the last few years due to economic recessions, industrial restructuring, new information technology and accelerated global competition (Howard, 1995). At organisational level, the need to adapt to more difficult times and to cut back in companies have often meant more flexible use of labour by, for example, shorter tenure, as well as temporary work (De Witte, 1999). The ever-changing world of business is forcing organisations to be dynamic and constantly modify their management and operational techniques (Hancer & George, 2003). While organisations need to be competitive, employee wellness has also been shown to affect the bottom line. In this regard, Lease (1998) mentions a number of consequences of unhealthy organisations: lower job satisfaction, less involvement and commitment to work, intention to leave the organisation, withdrawal cognitions, psychological health and decreases in levels of productivity.
With global economic and technological development people value the significance of their quality of life. Therefore, according to the researcher, it is important for organisations to realise the importance of employees’ non-work-related life. It is expected of employees to devote most of their time, their flexibility and their skills, although they do not receive as much in terms of career opportunities and lifetime employment. There is an increased tendency for employers to employ employees on a temporary basis. Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni (1995) suggest that temporary staff have a different psychological contract with the organisation than their permanent counterparts. These differences, it is argued, will influence employees’ attitudes and behaviour.

Employability has emerged as a result of organisational and demographic changes. Organisations have started to reduce the number of employees, streamline the structures and outsource, and there has been a growing prominence on flexibility and employability. Employers seek individuals who have the ability to deliver and instantly contribute, rather than individuals who want long-term development and steady career paths. Garavan (1999) argues that the “advanced general skills” that characterise the new employability have become “the source of an organisation’s competitive advantage”. According to the researcher, organisations struggle to perform talent management (attract, locate and retain people with high employability skills).

Autonomy leads to employees feeling a greater sense of responsibility, as they can determine the outcome of their job performed. Autonomy is the degree to which a job provides an employee with the discretion and independence to schedule their work and determine how it is to be done. Higher levels of autonomy on the job have been shown to increase job satisfaction and in some cases motivation to perform the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Research with regards to job and life satisfaction is based on the specific notion that job satisfaction is a potential determinant of in-role performance, extra-role behaviour and absenteeism, and also that the primary antecedents of job attitudes are within management's ability to influence workers (Oshagbemi, 2003). Job satisfaction is an important aspect for individuals due to its relevance to the mental and physical wellness of employees. Work is an important aspect of people's lives and most people spend a high percentage of their time at work.
The reason relates to certain associations of job satisfaction with many variables such as the psychological contract (Yousef, 2000). However, De Jong and Schalk (2003) state that there is a lack of research when referring to changes in the employment relationship, the psychological contract and employability. Extensive research on the psychological contract, job and life satisfaction exist, but no studies were conducted that include all of the following constructs: the psychological contract and its relationship with autonomy, employability, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave of security employees.

The Psychological contract

Niehoff and Paul (2001) explain that an employment relationship is administered by the psychological contract. The psychological contract offers an increasingly accepted framework for investigating the employment relationship (Guest & Conway, 2000). The Psychological contract can be studied in terms of both its antecedents and consequences, and it is probable to expect that a positive psychological contract will lead to lower levels of stress and better physical and mental well-being (Guest & Conway, 2000). At the same time, research on the consequences, and more particularly the positive consequences (life satisfaction, job satisfaction, intention to stay) of the psychological contract is in its infancy.

The transformations that have taken place in the work climate have led to changes in the relationships between employees and employers, caused by the demand for greater flexibility on the part of employer and employees (Peiró, García-Montalvo, & Gracia, 2002). This change is depicted as the transition from the old to the new psychological contract (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995), meaning that the transformations have occurred which Guest and Conway (2002) defined as “[t]he perceptions of both parties to the employment relationship - organisation and individual – of the reciprocal promises and obligations implied in that relationship” (p. 22).

The psychological contract was defined by Rousseau (1995) as an individual viewpoint, created by the employer, which involves a trade agreement between the individual and his/her employer. Stipulations of an individual’s psychological contract include a person’s understandings of his or her own obligations as well as the employer’s obligations (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Many
researchers debated on whether the psychological contract is subjected to obligations, expectations, beliefs, promises or perceptions (Guest, 1998). Conway and Briner (2005) summarise all the elements of the psychological contract: employees’ beliefs about promises and obligations, which consist of both implicit and explicit obligations.

Different individuals have different beliefs as to how they perceive the psychological contract. These beliefs arise from overt promises made to the individual and the possible interpretation of past exchange (MacNeil, 1985).

The psychological contract is revised throughout the employee’s tenure in an organisation (Rousseau, 1995). The longer the relationship continues and/or the more the two parties interrelate with contributions from both sides, the broader array of contributions and inducements might be included in the contract (Rousseau, 1989). Breaching of the psychological contract occurs when one party in a relationship perceives another to have failed to fulfill promised obligations. Since contracts emerge under assumptions of good faith (gentleman’s agreement) and fair dealing (MacNeil, 1985), violation of the psychological contract is distinct from unmet expectations and perceptions. Psychological contract violation refers to the emotional and affective state following the belief that the organisation has failed to fulfill the psychological contract which leads to job dissatisfaction (Robinson & Morrison, 1997).

The “met expectations” theory also clearly states that when job expectations are not satisfied, employees will have low job satisfaction, which in turn will lead to employees leaving a company (Paul, Niehoff, & Turnley, 2000). Psychological contracts must be consistent and rational in terms of promises, mutual obligations and expectations (Rousseau, 2005). The psychological contract has an impact on an employee’s work outcome which as a result leads to greater job satisfaction and the employee’s intent to stay with the organisation. From this the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 1: The psychological contract predicts job satisfaction.
The psychological contract may contain promises about a career, workload and job content. Another aspect that could be considered is the state of the psychological contract, which is concerned with whether the promises have been kept from both the employer and the employee’s side.

Guest and Conway (2002) state that a positive psychological contract will be associated with lower levels of work-related stress, positive emotional states, higher self-reported well-being and more positive life satisfaction, including work-life balance and reported health.

Guest and Conway (1998) found that a positive state of the psychological contract is connected to life satisfaction, as well as higher levels of work satisfaction, satisfaction with employer-employee relations, motivation and intention to stay with the organisation. It is not associated with individuals’ self-assessments of performance, or with innovative behaviour, citizenship behaviour or with effort (which is externally driven, as opposed to motivation, which is more intrinsic). In other words, for employees there are positive work-related affective outcomes.

A positive assessment of the state of the psychological contract is positively associated with a tendency to report that emotional experiences are gained both at home and at work and reflect a domination of work as a source of emotional experience. Employees who show more emotional involvement in activities at home may be showing a reaction against a negative state of their psychological contract (Guest & Conway, 2000). Therefore the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 2: A positive psychological contract will predict positive life satisfaction.

**Employability**

A lack of a clear definition for employability exists because it is still in an initial stage of development and all studies are undertaken from different perspectives and disciplines, all having employment as a common outcome (Ferradas, 2010). Employability entails “determining, attaining, and maintaining the skills needed to work, marketing oneself in order to
obtain work, and working competently in order to retain work” (Romaniuk & Snart, 2000, p. 319).

Employability is seen as the probability of finding appropriate work and an outcome of a new psychological contract where short-term employment relationships are built around an exchange of benefits and contributions (McLeish, 2002). Despite the variety of conceptualisations regarding employability, Gazier (1998) encourages that a certain level of agreement has been reached on an interactive definition of the concept. It is recognised that an individual’s employability and the value it represents for employers are relative to the following: the labour context, others’ employability and opportunities, the rules of the market, the institutions, the employers and their attitudes, the level of demand for workers, and socio-economic factors (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005).

Individuals who have high levels of employability have the advantage to negotiate their employment conditions with their employer, and have the lavishness to obtain more satisfactory jobs (Rousseau, 2001). The above-mentioned is proven in definitions of employability such as that by Hillage and Pollard (1998), who represent it as an individual’s capability to gain and maintain initial employment, and move between the different roles within the same organisation, obtain new employment if required and (ideally) secure suitable and sufficiently fulfilling work.

Current researchers explain that employability can be seen as a multidimensional construct (Rothwell & Arnold, 2005; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010). This explains the presence of several definitions which differ in their emphasis on the individual, the organisation or internal of external work environment context (Ferradas, 2010).

Researchers distinguish between three different types of employability. Firstly, the competence-based employability focuses on “the continuously fulfilling, acquiring or creating of work through the optimal use of competences” (Van der Heijde & 2002, p. 143). Secondly, the activity-based that focuses on two concepts of employability, namely the “employability orientation” and “employability activities”. Employability orientation refers to the workers’ attitudes towards personal development of employees and mainly on employers’ intervention to
enhance their employability. Employability activities relate to the activities in which the employees participate to improve their employability (training programmes). The employability approach is more focused on the individual and not on the relation between the individual and the employer as was the case with employability orientation. Employability is more of an activity-based concept. The third type of employability is the self-perceived employability that focuses more on career management or to cope with the changing labour market.

Another dimensional approach of self-perceived employability is developed by De Cuyper and De Witte (2010), where they define employability as the “worker’s perception of available job opportunities, either with the current employer (i.e. on the internal labour market; internal perceived employability) or with another employer (i.e. on the external labour market)” (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010, p.2).

Due to organisational flexibility, employees are expected to walk the extra mile to ensure stable employment. When high levels of initiative, performance and engagement are performed, many employers struggle to reward employees. Certain rewards such as further education and training to attain skills (which are attractive to a wide range of employers) will allow them to obtain work in different organisations (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Altman and Post (1996) states that allowing employees the possibility to attain skills will reduce job insecurity. An alternative could be to establish personalised employment agreements, which meet the needs of the worker as well as the interests of the firm (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006).

The conditions determining employability, and its role in shaping and reshaping individual careers, has emerged as a key objective for those seeking ongoing, worthwhile employment (Forrier & Sels, 2003). At the same time, careers, or the longer-term outcomes of employment opportunities, are themselves undergoing a major paradigm shift. Employment and having a career are now seen less in terms of employment security within a single organisation and more in terms of individual employability across relevant labour markets (Newell & Dopson, 1996).
Employable employees have unique and conveyable skills to prove themselves to their employers. Career development and searching for the ideal job is their main strategy when interacting with the labour market.

Because employable people have human capital that facilitates them to fulfill employers’ expectations, it not only makes them more appealing to employers but also provides them with more and better choices of work and allows them to launch transactions which in turn can here be linked to job satisfaction (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Kristof, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) confirm that the match between personal characteristics and labour characteristics correlate highly and significantly with job satisfaction.

Employable people have an improved understanding of the employment relationship, as they receive more assumed obligations (promises) from their employers which are fulfilled, influencing increased levels of job satisfaction (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). According to Farradas (2010), employability had a significant negative association with job satisfaction. These results may have two major implications; firstly that employability’s association with job satisfaction diminishes to non-significance once work- and family-related variables are introduced. Secondly, the nature of this relationship would be negative. Recent studies show that employability relates positively to engagement and life satisfaction (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010).

From the aforementioned the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 3: Employability has a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction and a positive relationship with life satisfaction.

**Autonomy**

Job autonomy can be described as the extent to which an individual is given freedom, independence and discretion when performing an assigned task (Langfred & Moye, 2004; Ramesar, 2006; Robinson, Judge, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2009). According to Au and Cheung (2004), the loss of job autonomy leads to continuous job stress lower levels of job satisfaction.
This could have an influence on work performance and personal well-being. Research by Bandura (1986) indicates that insight of control and mastery are linked with lower levels of the psychological strains, while a workplace with low levels of job autonomy produces high stress levels amongst employees.

Williams and Anderson (1991) is of opinion that as individuals vary in outcomes and situations, it is important to incorporate this construct to determine the strength of the emotional and behavioural reactions that follow when violations of the psychological contract occur. When there is a violation in obligations perceived by an employee, it can influence how an employee responds to these unfulfilled organisational promises in numerous areas of the psychological contract. More specifically, the entitled individual responded more negatively to the psychological contract breaches that affected tangible extrinsic outcomes (i.e. pay, benefits). Conversely, the benevolent individual reacted more negatively when promises of autonomy and control were broken by the organisation.

When linking autonomy to job satisfaction and life satisfaction, the researcher refers to the research of Luis, Balkin, and Robert (2004), which states that when an employee has excessive autonomy it can lead to employee dissatisfaction. Different individuals have different needs for autonomy in their job. Many employees prefer assistance and direction from a manager and feel distressed with autonomy; they may not want to exert effort or take the responsibility of having their name solely associated with a task or project. Additionally, if employees are not well-equipped — either in training or in personality — to exercise autonomy, it may result in workplace tension, poor performance and decreased satisfaction.

In the research conducted by Nguyen, Taylor and Bradley (2003), it is clear that the degree of job autonomy is strongly related to overall job satisfaction. Their study reveals that as job autonomy increases, the probability of the employee experiencing job satisfaction increases, and even more for females than males (Nguyen, Taylor, & Bradley, 2003).

The following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 4: A relationship exists between autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction.
When given autonomy, employees might be of opinion that they are equal in authority to their direct supervisor. This may cause them to resent the extra responsibility or feel that their remuneration should be increased. A related concern is that managers may feel marginalised when employee autonomy increases, particularly when there is a change to a traditional work environment. Managers may feel that by giving employees autonomy, they no longer contribute as much to the organisation or that their jobs may be at risk.

Within security organisations, it is, according to the researcher evident that most employees (more specifically guards) are not satisfied with their jobs. This could be because of numerous reasons, some of which may include routine work, no autonomy or violation of the psychological contract. Employees might feel that employers do not comply with what is expected of their employer’s obligations. When employees are dissatisfied, this might lead to the intention to leave.

**Job satisfaction**

Lee (2004) explains that job satisfaction is the most widely researched psychological variable. Different social scientists agree to the meaning of the construct “job satisfaction” (Oshagbemi, 1999). According to Oshagbemi (1999, p.1) the most comprehensive definition of job satisfaction was given by Locke (1983), namely that job satisfaction results from the appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one’s important job values. Producing these values is congruent with, or helps to fulfill one’s basic needs". Job satisfaction refers to an individual’s positive emotional reactions to a certain job (Compton, 2005).

Job satisfaction can be seen as the degree to which employees like their jobs and is of significance for several reasons. Firstly, for employees, job satisfaction has consequences for subjective well-being and overall life satisfaction. Secondly, it is important for employers because job satisfaction is often considered as an important influence on organisational effectiveness and employee behaviour (Hirschfeld, 2000).
Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs. It emphasises the specific task environment where an employee performs his/her duties and reflects the more immediate reactions to specific tangible aspects of the work environment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). There are many factors that contribute to job satisfaction namely: pay, promotion, job conditions, supervision, coworkers, benefits; the nature of the work itself, communication and job security. When there is a miscommunication as to what the employee was expected to receive, the employee might experience a decrease in job satisfaction (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Similarly, the theoretical model of the psychological contract violation (Wolfe & Robinson, 1997) proposes that when an employee perceives a discrepancy in the reciprocal promises made between the employee and the organisation, their response may manifest as job dissatisfaction, with resultant increases in absenteeism and turnover. Thus satisfaction is also negatively related to turnover/intention to leave.

It has been concluded by Ho (2005) that the psychological contract influences employee outcomes, in that the fulfillment of the psychological contract consequently leads to greater job satisfaction. Employees initially hold unrealistic expectations and when these expectations go unmet, the psychological contract then predicts job satisfaction. When there is no job satisfaction it might lead to the employee leaving the organisation (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992).

The researcher is of opinion that a favourable employment relationship, together with a positive psychological contract has an effect on greater job satisfaction. Agho, Price and Mueller (1992) support this statement and confirm that employees who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to be better “soldiers” for the organisation which leads to a positive psychological contract.

Research by Tait, Padgett & Baldwin (1989) supports this positive relationship that implies that the job-life satisfaction and the life-job satisfaction causal sequence cannot occur concurrently (Schmitt & Bedeian, 1982). The direction of this relationship continues to be a source of debate. Conversely, Rousseau (1978) and Chacko (1983) contend that job satisfaction had a greater influence on life or non-work satisfaction than vice versa. This is explained by the values
individuals place on the work in general. Research by De Witte (1999) consistently shows a strong correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

This being said, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 5:** Job satisfaction predicts life satisfaction.

To determine whether job satisfaction predicts an employee's intention to leave, regression analyses were used by More (2007) to determine whether job satisfaction and organisational commitment can predict an intention to leave. Intention to leave was made a dependent variable with job satisfaction as independent variables. The results show that job satisfaction predicted 11% of the total variance, indicating that it holds a predictive value for intention to leave. Employees with higher job satisfaction levels will be better ambassadors for their employing organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000), whereas low levels of job satisfaction could lead to newcomers leaving their job (Paul, et al., 2000).

**Life satisfaction**

Life satisfaction is the extent to which an individual likes his/her life. Life satisfaction is a cognitive-judgemental process within the individual (Diener, Robert, Larsen, Randy and Griffin, 1985). It can be evaluated in relation to a life in general or a particular domain of life (friends, work, family) (Diener, et al., 1985; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2000).

Life satisfaction is seen as the degree to which an individual is happy and pleased with his/her life (Rode, 2004). Life satisfaction is simply an indication of the individual’s existing assessment of his/her happiness (Schwartz & Strack, 1999).

When individuals experience satisfaction in their jobs and lives, they tend to perform better in their work. Previous studies confirm the latter, and that life satisfaction has an influence and is the consequence of job satisfaction (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002; Rode, 2004).
Research indicates that life satisfaction can be viewed as the result, in part, of satisfaction with various life domains (Campbell, Converse & Rodgers, 1976). Individuals assess the particulars of experience when making overall satisfaction judgments. When individuals experience satisfaction in their jobs and lives, they tend to perform better in their work (Campbell, Converse & Rodgers, 1976).

An employee’s job plays a major role in his/her life. For most people job and life satisfaction are positively and significantly related (Lin, 2005). Life satisfaction is usually measured by people’s expressed satisfaction with features of their environment and everyday lives (Warr, 1999). Life satisfaction consists of five domains that include health, material well-being, intimacy, productivity and emotional well-being (Campbell, Converse & Roger, 1976).

Job satisfaction is a component of life satisfaction (Blyton, Bacon, Fiorito, & Heery, 2008) and therefore life satisfaction influences and is the consequence of job satisfaction (Rode, 2004). The results of Rode’s (2004) study confirm that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are positively and reciprocally related. Life satisfaction significantly influenced job satisfaction, and job satisfaction significantly influenced life satisfaction. Diener (1984) found that individuals who have higher levels of life satisfaction tend to have closer and more supportive social relationships than individuals with low baseline life satisfaction. Happy employees experience higher levels of job performance, well-being and job satisfaction than unhappy employees’ job satisfaction (Wright & Cropanzano, Bonett 2009).

From the aforementioned the following hypothesis is formulated:
Hypothesis 6: A relationship exists between life satisfaction and job satisfaction.

**Intention to leave**

Tett and Meyer (1993) define intention to leave as “a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organisation”. Intention to leave is related to actually leaving the organisation. Researchers have tried to answer the question of what determines an employee’s intention to leave (Saks, 1986; Kalliath & Beck, 2001). Martin (2011) explains that when a employee decides
to leave the organisation, it is evident that job dissatisfaction is on a level sufficient so much that the employee has reached a decision on the disability of movement and the perceived ease to move.

According to Fishbein and Azjen (1975) attitudes affecting intention to leave can be internal (perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction) or external (working conditions, environment).

In Dutch research focusing on the psychological contract, intention to leave is one of the most frequently used variables. In a study of Huiskamp and Schalk (2002), the question of 1 331 employees, significant relationships exists between the psychological contract fulfillment and intention to leave. Moreover, the number of obligations of both the employee and the employer lowered the intention to leave. In this study, the psychological contract had a higher impact on the intention to leave the organisation than biographical factors (age, education, etc.), highlighting the importance of the psychological contract (Schalk, Heinen, & Freese, 2001; Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Buunk, 1998).

Expectations have important implications for intentions to leave the employer. Employees with expectations are likely to be more motivated to participate in development activities in order to ensure employability. Ashford, Lee and Bobko (1989) found that if employees are not committed to the organisation because expectations were not met, they are more likely leave the organisation.

A meta-analysis which included nine studies and 1 739 employees, revealed a significant negative relationship between intention to leave and job satisfaction. Managers can potentially enhance employees’ motivation through various attempts to increase job satisfaction and decrease intention to leave (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1994). As explained by (Martin, 2011) the level of job satisfaction predicts an employees’ level of intention to leave.
According to the researcher, a lack of research exists regarding the relationship between the psychological contract (employer obligations and employee obligations), job satisfaction and the intentions to leave in South African companies.

The following is formulated:
Hypothesis 7: Job satisfaction predicts intention to leave

Figure 1: A theoretical model between personal variables, job related variables, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave (Adapted from Guest & Conway, 2004) and (Iverson & Maguire, 2000).

METHOD

Research Design

A survey design (questionnaire) was used to achieve the research objectives. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, by means of which a sample is randomly drawn from the security population at a particular point in time (Shaugnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). A cross-sectional design is used for research that collects data on relevant variables one time only from a variety of people, subjects, or phenomena. The data is collected simultaneously (or within a short time frame).
Cross-sectional designs are appropriate where groups of subjects at various stages of development are studied simultaneously, whereas the survey technique of data collection gathers information from the target population by means of questionnaires (Burns & Grove, 1993).

A cross-sectional design offers a snapshot of the variables included in the study, at one specific point in time. It may disclose how those variables are represented in a cross-section of a population. Cross-sectional designs generally use survey procedures to collect data.

The purpose of research design is to arrange and assemble a research project in such a way that it enhances the definitive validity of the research findings (Mouton & Marais, 1992). Random selection is important if accurate conclusions about the entire group are to be drawn.

**Participants**

The population of 297 employees employed in the security industry was targeted for this research. A response rate of 217 (73%) was obtained. The studied population includes security guards, control room operators, administration employees, technical assistants, cleaners, sales department, fire department, armed response, CCTV operators, supervisors and directors. The biographical characteristics of the study population are detailed in Table 1.
Table 1

Compilation of Study Population (N=217)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of contract</td>
<td>Temporary employee</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>65,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Permanent employee</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing response</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>29,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female (1)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>21,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (2)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>51,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>27,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20 years and younger (1)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21 - 30 years (2)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 - 40 years (3)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>29,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41 – 50 years (4)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51 – and older (5)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Less than 1 year (1)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>28,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 - 5 years (2)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>37,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 5 years (3)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing Responses</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>29,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Grade 9 and below (1)</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>41,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 10 – 12 (2)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>28,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma (3)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree and higher qualification (4)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing response</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicates that 5,1% are temporary employees, while 65,9% are permanent. The majority of the participants (51,6%) are male and only 21,2% are female. The predominant age in this population falls in the age group of 31-40 years, totalling 29,5% of the participants. In terms of qualifications, the majority of the participants (41,9%) have Grade 9 and below; 28,6% have Grade 10 – 12; while 1,4% have diplomas. A further 1,4% have a post-graduate degree.
Furthermore, Table 1 indicates that 28.6% of the participants have got tenure of less than a year at the security organisation, whilst 37.3% of employees have got tenure of between more than 1 year and 5 years.

**Measuring instruments**

The Psychological Contract of Employment Survey (PSYCONES), a questionnaire on the perception of work cross-sectional survey design, was employed as an instrument used in this study. The first part of the questionnaire focuses on various aspects pertaining to the employee's current job and employment contract.

The second and largest part of the PSYCONES questionnaire focuses on employee attitudes towards the job and organisation, health and well-being. Lastly, the third part of the questionnaire summarises the biographical information, such as the participants' age, gender, family status and financial contribution. The questionnaire consists of 36 items, arranged along various frequency scales, including a 3-point, 5-point, 6-point and 7-point frequency scale.

The following questionnaires will be used in the empirical research:

*Biographical questionnaire:* (BIQ) was assembled in order to acquire relevant biographical data about the participants in the research. The biographical information includes age, gender, status and type of contract.

The *Employer Obligations Questionnaire* as developed by Isaksson (2003) was used to gather data on the promises and commitments that employers sometimes make to their employees. The questionnaire consists of 15 items arranged along a 6-point frequency-rating scale with 0 being “No” and 5 being “Yes, and promise fully kept”. Typical questions on this questionnaire range from “Has your organisation promised or committed itself to provide you with interesting work?” to “Has your organisation promised or committed itself to help you deal with problems you encounter outside work?” In the study conducted by Mpotane (2007), a Cronbach alpha
coefficient of $\alpha = 0.93$ was obtained, indicating the internal consistency of this questionnaire. In this study, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.93$ was also obtained.

The Employee Obligations Questionnaire by Isaksson (2003) was utilised to determine some promises and commitments that people sometimes make to their organisation. The questionnaire consists of 16 items arranged along 6-point frequency-rating scale with “0” being “No”, and 5 being “Yes, fully kept promise”. Examples of questions on this questionnaire vary from “Have you promised or committed yourself to go to work even if you don’t feel particularly well?” to “Have you promised or committed yourself to work enthusiastically on jobs you would prefer not to be doing?” In the study conducted by Mpotane (2007), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.88$ was found. In this study a Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.90$ was obtained. These findings confirm the internal consistency of the measuring instrument.

Employability: The scale of De Witte in the PSYCONES project (2005) was used to measure employability. The questionnaire consists out of five-items. The following statements are used: “I am confident that I could quickly get another job”; “I am optimistic that I will find another job, if I look for one”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0.70 and 0.81 was found in the PSYCONES project (2005).

Autonomy: The scales of Rosenthal, Guest and Peccei (1996) was used. The questionnaire consists of four-items. The following statements are used to measure autonomy: “I can plan my own work”; “I can carry out my work in the way I think best”; “I can vary how I do my work”; “I can influence the way my section is organised”. The Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0.74 and 0.82 was found in the PSYCONES project (2005).

Job satisfaction questionnaire: The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ) by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) as cited in Price (1997) was used to measure the perceived job satisfaction of the participants. The original questionnaire consisted of 18 items of which only four will be used for the purpose of this study. The items are rated on a widely used Likert-type scale, varying from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly agree”). The following statements are found on this questionnaire: “I am not happy with my job”; “I am often bored with my job”; “Most days I am
enthusiastic about my job”; and “I find enjoyment in my job”. In the study conducted by Brayfield and Rothe, items on job satisfaction are reported to have had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.87 (Price, 1997).

**Life satisfaction:** Guest and Conway’s (1998) life satisfaction scale was utilised to measure life satisfaction. The scale consists of 6 items. The items are also rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 being “Strongly disagree”; 3 being “Neither agree nor disagree”; and 5 being “Strongly agree”. The type of statements reflected on this questionnaire is “Your life in general”; “Your family life”; “Your leisure time”; and “Your state of health well-being”. A Cronbach alpha coefficient between 0.81 and 0.85 was found in the PSYCONES project (2005).

The *Intention to Leave Questionnaire* (IQQ) (Price, 1997) is a modified version of Isaksson (2003). It was measured by using four items, namely “I would be reluctant to leave this job” and its reverse code (Price, 1997). The Cronbach alpha coefficient in previous studies (Isaksson, 2003; de Cuyper & de Witte, 2006) range from α = 0.79 to 0.82. The IQQ measures the employee’s desire to leave rather than his/her actual intention to leave and that the exact time of departure is set in advance, which possibly influences the intention to leave before the contract expires (De Jong & Geurtz, 1997).

**Statistical analysis**

The statistical analysis was carried out with the PSAW programme (PSAW, 2010), making use of descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis), Cronbach’s alpha and inter-item correlations coefficients, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analyses. The statistical analysis entails the analyst breaking down data into constituent parts to obtain answers from the various research objectives (Kerlinger, 1986).

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse data, including means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis. Cronbach's alpha and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the measuring items and determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires. Also, the multiple regression analysis will be done to determine the percentage of
variance in the dependent variable that is predicted by the independent variables. The square of the correlation coefficient suggest the proportion of variance in any two variables, which is predicted by variance in the other.

RESULTS

A simple principal component analysis that was carried out on 15 items of the employer obligations on security employees in the Vaal Triangle. The scree plot showed that two factors could be extracted. An analysis of the eigenvalues (>1.00) and scree plots indicates that three factors could be extracted, which explains 4.51 % of the total variance. For employee obligations, 17 of the items were carried out, the scree plot showed that two factors could be extracted, and analysis of the eigenvalues (>1.00) and scree plots indicates that three factors could be extracted, which explains 48.51% of the total variance.

Component analysis was carried out on four items for autonomy, four items for employability, four items for job satisfaction, six items for life satisfaction and four items for intention to leave on security employees in the Vaal Triangle.

The scree plot showed the following factor(s) for the following constructs: Autonomy (1) factor; employability (1) factor; job satisfaction (1) factor; life satisfaction (1) factor; and intention to leave (1) factor. Due to the analysis of the eigenvalues (>1.00) and scree plots, it explains total variance for autonomy (48.32%), employability (59.43%), job satisfaction (49.59), life satisfaction (60.16%) and intention to leave (40.92%).
Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics, Alpha coefficients and Pearson correlations between the scales*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test and subscales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Employer obligations</td>
<td>60,43</td>
<td>12,96</td>
<td>0,77</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Employee obligations</td>
<td>13,10</td>
<td>3,47</td>
<td>0,75</td>
<td>0,44**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employability</td>
<td>13,58</td>
<td>3,51</td>
<td>0,73</td>
<td>0,22**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Autonomy</td>
<td>15,17</td>
<td>3,15</td>
<td>0,67</td>
<td>0,29**</td>
<td>0,44**</td>
<td>0,01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Job satisfaction</td>
<td>26,60</td>
<td>7,69</td>
<td>0,86</td>
<td>0,51**</td>
<td>0,47**</td>
<td>0,12</td>
<td>0,35**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Life satisfaction</td>
<td>10,46</td>
<td>3,27</td>
<td>0,83</td>
<td>0,40**</td>
<td>0,23**</td>
<td>0,05</td>
<td>0,37**</td>
<td>0,33**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Intention to leave</td>
<td>0,03</td>
<td>-0,07</td>
<td>0,03</td>
<td>-0,07</td>
<td>0,03</td>
<td>0,09</td>
<td>-0,02</td>
<td>0,04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 2 show acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.67 – 0.86. Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.67 - 0.86 were obtained for scales. The mean inter-item correlations of the most of the scales are acceptable. A Cronbach alpha of 0.70 is considered acceptable in the natural sciences (Nunnally, 1978) but Cronbach alphas of less than 0.60 have been noted in the social sciences (Hatcher, 1994).

Table 2 results indicated that employer obligations show a statistically significant relationship with employability. Employer obligations show a practically significant relationship with a medium effect with employee obligations and life satisfaction. A practically significant relationship with a large effect exists between employer obligations and job satisfaction.

Employee obligations show a statistically significant effect with employability and life satisfaction. A practically significant relationship with a medium effect was found between employee obligations, autonomy and job satisfaction. No relationship exists between employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. Hypotheses 3 is rejected because it stated that employability has a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction and a positive relationship with life satisfaction. Job satisfaction shows a practically significant relationship with life satisfaction. Hypothesis 4 is accepted because a relationship exists between autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction. No relationship exists between autonomy and intention to leave. Life satisfaction shows a practically significant relationship
with job satisfaction. Hypothesis 6 is accepted because a relationship exists between life satisfaction and job satisfaction. No relationships exist between intention to leave and life satisfaction. The results of multiple regression analysis with job satisfaction as dependent variable are given in Table 3. The Psychological contract (employer obligations and employee obligations) were entered in the first step, while employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave in the second step. Table 3 shows that 36% of the variance in job satisfaction could be explained by the psychological contract (step 1). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 stating that the psychological contract predicts job satisfaction is accepted. In the second step, the psychological contract (employer obligations and employee obligations) predict a positive relationship with job satisfaction and employability predicts negative job satisfaction. But autonomy and intention to leave contributed no statistical significance. In this step 42% of the total variance in job satisfaction could be explained.

Table 3

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$*
The results of multiple regression analysis with job satisfaction as dependent variable are given in Table 3. The psychological contract (employer obligations and employee obligations) were entered in the first step, employability, autonomy, life satisfaction and intention to leave in the second step. Table 3 shows that 57.58% of the variance in job satisfaction could be explained by the psychological contract (step one). Step one indicated employer obligations and employee obligations predict positive job satisfaction.

In the step two, employer obligations, employee obligations and employability predict a positive relationship with job satisfaction. However, no statistically relevant relationship exists between job satisfaction, autonomy, life satisfaction and intention to leave. Hypothesis 5 is rejected, which stated that job satisfaction predicts life satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis 7 is also rejected as it states that job satisfaction predicts intention to leave. This can indicate that job satisfaction is not the only factor that plays a role when employees want to leave their employer. There are other factors that need to be taken in consideration. In this step 23.25% of the total variance in life satisfaction could be explained.
The results of multiple regression analysis with life satisfaction as dependent variable are given in Table 4. The psychological contract (employer obligations and employee obligations) were entered in the first step, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave in the second step. Table 4 shows that 25,54% of the variance in life satisfaction could be explained by the psychological contract (step one). Step one indicated that only employer obligations predict positive life satisfaction and therefore, Hypothesis 2 is partially accepted because employee obligations did not predict life satisfaction.

In the step two, employer obligations and autonomy predict a positive relationship with life satisfaction. However employee obligations, employability, job satisfaction and intention to leave as Independent variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>∆R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>B: 13.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SE: 2.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta: 5.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>25.54</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Employer obligations</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee obligations</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>B: 8.25</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SE: 3.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta: 2.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employer obligations</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee obligations</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employability</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intention to leave</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-1.12</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
leave contributed no statistical significance. In this step 12.39\% of the total variance in life satisfaction could be explained.

**DISCUSSION**

The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. No research could be found that examined this phenomenon regarding security employees in South Africa.

The statistics demonstrated where negative and positive relationships exist. This chapter looked at statistical significance between job characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave.

According to Hypothesis 1, no difference was found between permanent and temporary employees regarding employer obligations, employee obligations, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. De Beer (2011) differs and points out that temporary employees experience higher employee obligations than permanent employees.

Hypothesis 2 is supported by Du Plooy (2008), as it is stated that the age of employees has a significant relationship to employer and employee obligations.

No relationship in Hypothesis 3 was found between employer obligations and employability but a statistically significant relationship exists between employee obligations and employability.

With Hypothesis 4, Du Plooy differs in this regard as longer tenure does not play a role in the employability of employees.

Hypothesis 5 which states that employees experience autonomy positively related to satisfaction is rejected. Sloher, Noe, Moeller, and Fitzgerald (1985) does not support this hypothesis result as they state that autonomy is positively related to satisfaction.
In this research, Hypothesis 6 was rejected as no relationship was found between temporary employment and autonomy.

Hypothesis 7 showed that no difference exists between gender and job-related variables.

When a person is employable, it has no effect on job satisfaction, but has an influence on life satisfaction. Employability has shown a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction and a positive relationship with life satisfaction. Furthermore, it was determined that a relationship exists between autonomy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8 was accepted, because employer and employee obligations are practically significant related to job satisfaction.

A significant relationship was found between age and job satisfaction, where older employees experience higher job satisfaction than younger employees. Hypothesis 9 was partially accepted as no relationship exists between type of contract, but a significant relationship was found between age and job satisfaction, where older employees experience higher job satisfaction than younger employees.

Hypotheses 10 and 11 were accepted, as it was stated that there exists a correlation between job satisfaction and autonomy. If employees experience autonomy they also experience job satisfaction. Thus, there exists a relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Hypotheses 12 – 15 are rejected. Hypothesis 12 stated that permanent employees did not have higher job satisfaction or life satisfaction than temporary employees. Hypothesis 13 stated that women do not report higher levels of satisfaction than men. In Hypothesis 14 it was found that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. Hypothesis 15 then concluded that job satisfaction does not have a relationship with the intention to leave.

The results of multiple regression analysis with job satisfaction as dependent variable were analysed and the results showed that the psychological contract predicts job satisfaction. It was
indicated that only employer obligations predict positive life satisfaction and therefore, however employee obligations did not predict life satisfaction.

Job satisfaction does not predict life satisfaction. However, there is a relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction. When an employee has a good non-work life, it might have a positive influence on his/her job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction does not predict intention to leave. This might be due to the high unemployment figures currently experiences in South Africa.

The results of this study place the onus on employers as to how important it is to have a psychological contract in place. Maintaining a good psychological contract with employees has an influence on the overall job satisfaction of an employee.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

A larger sample must be used (more variety in age, sex, education, background etc.). Adequate methods, such as structural equation modeling and equivalence analysis, are recommended in the future. Longitudinal research is recommended to establish the psychological contract over a period of time.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 4
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of Chapter 4 is to provide an analysis and discuss the literature and empirical results of the study. Conclusions are made with regards to the research objectives, which were identified for this study. This chapter answers the research questions put forth in the first chapter. Recommendations for the organisation and future research are made.

4.1 CONCLUSION

Prior research within the security industry centered more on the role of preventing crime than focusing on the individual employee within security companies. It is important to focus on the individual as employee and to investigate employees’ perceptions and experience of their world of work and their everyday life.

The main aim of this research was to determine the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to leave of security employees.

Chapter 1 provided an overview and problem statement for the topic being researched. The chapter consist of the objectives, models, theories, research method, the measuring battery and statistical analysis. The research design consisted of two phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

The literature review in Chapter 2 – Article 1 focused on employees’ individual characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. The first objective was to conceptualise job characteristics, the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave as stated in the literature.

The second objective in Chapter 2 – Article 1 was to determine the relationship between job characteristics (the type of contract, gender, age, tenure) and the personal variables of the
psychological contract (employer’s obligation and employee’s obligations), employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave (Hypothesis 1-15).

It was found that according to Hypothesis 1, no difference exists between permanent and temporary employees regarding employer obligations, employee obligations, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave. Hypothesis 1 was rejected in this study. De Beer (2011) points out that temporary employees experience higher employee obligations than permanent employees.

Hypothesis 2 was accepted because younger employees differ from older employees in their perceptions of employer obligations. This hypothesis is also supported by Du Plooy (2008) which states that the age of employees has a significant relationship to employer and employee obligations.

Hypothesis 3 was partially accepted, because no relationship was found between employer obligations and employability but a statistically significant relationship exists between employee obligations and employability.

With Hypothesis 4, longer tenure did not play a role in the employability of employees, and was thus rejected. Du Plooy (2008) found that a practical significant relationship exists between participants that have less than one-year experience and they also have less employer obligations than those who work longer than 21 years.

Hypothesis 5 which states that employees experience autonomy positively related to satisfaction is rejected. Sloher, Noe, Moeller, and Fitzgerald (1985) do not support this hypothesis result as they state that autonomy is positively related to satisfaction. Kim (n.d) found that autonomy will have a positive impact on job satisfaction. This means that the higher the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion of the worker in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out, the higher the level of the worker’s job satisfaction he or she gets from job.
In a study conducted by De Cuyper and De Witte (2006) there was a difference in the views of temporary and permanent employees to the issues of autonomy. In this research, Hypothesis 6 was rejected as no relationship was found between temporary employment and autonomy.

Hypothesis 7 showed that no difference exists between gender and job related variables.

Hypothesis 8 was accepted, because employer and employee obligations are practically significant related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9 was partially accepted, as there was a positive relationship between employee status (permanent and temporary contract), age and job satisfaction. No relationship exists between type of contract, but a significant relationship was found between age and job satisfaction, where older employees experience higher job satisfaction than younger employees.

Hypotheses 10 and 11 are accepted as a correlation between job satisfaction and autonomy exists. If employees experience autonomy they also experience job satisfaction. Thus, there exists a relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Hypotheses 12 – 15 are rejected. Hypothesis 12 stated that permanent employees did not have higher job satisfaction or life satisfaction than temporary employees. Heller, Judge & Watson (2002) do not support this research finding as they found that permanent employees will have higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction than temporary employees. Hypothesis 13 stated that women do not report higher levels of satisfaction than men. In Hypothesis 14 it was found that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. Light (2004) stated that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. Thus, an employee who experience job satisfaction will have less intention to leave. Pudney and Shields (2000) found no relationship between gender and intention to leave. This research also confirmed that there was no relationship between gender and intention to leave.
Chapter 3 - Article 2: focused on the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave of security employees. The first objective was to investigate the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave of security employees. A literature review was done on the relationship between the psychological contract, employability, autonomy, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intention to leave.

The second objective of Chapter 3 was to determine if job satisfaction predicts life satisfaction (Chapter 3 - Hypothesis 5). In Chapter 1, the researcher touched on the different models of job satisfaction versus life satisfaction. With the spill-over model, job satisfaction spills over into non-work life and vice versa. The segmentation model (compensation model) describes job and life experiences as being separate and having little to do with one another. With the “met expectations model” an individual seeks to compensate for a dissatisfying job by seeking fulfilment and happiness in his/her non-work life and vice versa (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002). In this research, Hypothesis 5 was rejected. When an individual is satisfied in his/her job, it will have no influence on their non-work-life.

The third objective of Chapter 3 was to determine if job satisfaction predicts an employee’s intention to leave the company (Chapter 3 – Hypothesis 7). Hypothesis 7 was also rejected, meaning that if an employee is dissatisfied in their job, they will have no intention to leave. According to the researcher, this finding can be due to high unemployment figures in South Africa. Shields and Ward (2001) disagree with this finding in stating that a primary predictor of intent to leave is due to employees experiencing low levels of job satisfaction.

4.2 LIMITATIONS

Various limitations were identified in this research. The research design used was a cross-sectional one. Therefore no cause-and-effect relationships could be established. The following limitations must be considered to place these results in proper context. First, the data is cross-sectional and represents employee opinions and attitudes at one point in time. To help remedy the problems with cross-sectional data, a longitudinal evaluation of employee attitudes and
opinions, coupled with an experimental design, may provide a better examination of perceived social support, especially from supervisors on employee outcomes such as job satisfaction and turnover intention.

However, results do provide some direction for future research in the field of security organisations. Also, the study population was imbalanced in terms of gender; the study group consisted of males whereas stratified random sampling may have been a more appropriate selection technique so as to ensure equal representation.

Health or physical abilities may impact on employability. An individual with high level skills and abilities, but physical limitations may be seen as less employable by a potential employer than a person with lesser skills but better physical competencies (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005).

Also, this study was conducted in an area where there is existing employment. A limitation of this, according to the researcher, can be that these individuals do not share the same “meaning” as say for instance individuals that do not have an employment or income. The researcher is of the opinion that when one asks the same questions to non-employed individuals, the answers might differ because non-employed individuals might have an idea as to how difficult it is find a new job.

That being said, women are often stereotyped as focusing primarily on family and child-care issues and having only a secondary focus on paid employment (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). They are therefore perceived as less committed to the organisation and their careers, and as a consequence may be denied equal access to the type of career opportunities that would support career development and overall employability (Lobel & St Clair, 1992).

When looking at the scope of work of most of these employees, the reader would note that most of these employees are employed as a guard- an armed response worker. Thus, autonomy in this employment field can be non-existent. The researcher is of opinion that these individuals will not really have a say in the decision-making process of the company (just for the sake of autonomy). If management were to decide that they wanted to include these individuals in decision making,
one would not know who to ask and who to leave out as the company currently has over 200 guards.

Some authors have noted high correlations between autonomy and job satisfaction (e.g. Fried, 1991), and have suggested that modeling autonomy as a predictor of job satisfaction may partial out true variance in job satisfaction.

When linking autonomy to the type of contract and other constructs in this study, the researcher struggled to find previous research done on job autonomy.

Studies comparing job satisfaction across part-time and full-time employees show contradictory findings (Barling & Gallagher, 1996). Part-time employees have been found to be more satisfied (Fields & Thacker, 1991), less satisfied (Hall & Gordon, 1973), and equally satisfied with their jobs as compared to fulltime employees (Krausz, 2000).

The finding that job satisfaction and life satisfaction may not be directly related has important implications for both theory and practice. Thus is especially true given that research indicates that life satisfaction may be related to several outcomes of interest to managers (Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987) beyond the desirability of life satisfaction as an end in and of itself. Overall, the results indicate that paying greater attention to employees’ personal characteristics and non-work lives may yield important benefits, for both managers and organisational behaviour researchers alike, that may not be realised by focusing only on employee job satisfaction (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

Life satisfaction in this study can be a “taboo” construct, as the researcher is of opinion that the living standard in general can be perceived as very unsatisfying. This can be due to the fact that guards for instance, work 12-hour shifts. They need rest during the time that they are not working, which means that sleeping and working are the two main domains in their life. All this being said, the researcher regards this as a limitation to identifying the validity of answers to the life satisfaction questions.
According to the researcher, the intention to leave construct might give inaccurate results as employees might have an intention to leave, but might not admit it to themselves or to other.

**4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

4.3.1 Recommendations for the company

Organisations must understand the psychological contract and the job features that would make the employer-employee relationship beneficial for the worker. Employees need to understand the psychological contract, understand the factors that constitute the psychological contract and be aware of the impact on retention if the psychological contract is negated.

In order to deal with the dynamics of a changing work environment, jobs need to provide opportunity for autonomy and individual responsibility. This is achieved through social support. The fostering of social support from colleagues needs to receive attention. To adapt to change successfully, organisations need to address the well-being and effectiveness of employees and teams and to develop leadership and policies central to this (Kalleburg, Reskin, & Hudson, 2000). A compelling association with job satisfaction is supervisor support and then job autonomy (Kalleburg, Reskin, & Hudson, 2000).

4.3.2 Recommendations for further research

It can be argued that the content of the psychological contract may differ for younger versus older workers (Guest, 2004). It is argued that older workers have a more traditional view of the employment relationship (Peterson & Spiker, 2005). Younger workers may focus mainly on career-related or transactional types of obligations, whereas older workers are focused mainly on protection of the current status and working conditions (Schalk, 2004). From that perspective, older workers may perceive different obligations from their employers than younger workers. Future research is needed to determine whether there is evidence for age-related differences in the content of the psychological contract.
One needs to ensure that the study population is more balanced in terms of gender. For this research, the researcher should have used a larger population and observed the team for a longer period.

In addition, this research is limited to full-time employees who work for pay. Exploring how autonomy relates to nonstandard versus standard work arrangements will be fruitful to explore in future studies, particularly as research shows that women are more likely to be employed in nonstandard work arrangements than men (Kalleburg, Reskin, & Hudson, 2000).

4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

When employer and employee obligations are not met, violation of the psychological contract occurs. As soon as one party is unhappy with the psychological contract, previous studies confirm that it will have a negative influence on job satisfaction, and the employees will be intent on leaving the organisation (Kerstin, 2002).

Job satisfaction exists when the appraisal of one's job or job experience results in a pleasurable or positive emotional state. Job satisfaction can also be defined simply as a positive attitude that an employee has towards his/her job. Research on job satisfaction has clearly shown that more varied, complex and challenging tasks provide higher levels of worker gratification than less skilled, routine jobs. Research proves that the more skilled the vocation, the more its members enjoy their jobs (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

A job is assumed to have important effects on overall life satisfaction in several ways. Work is the source of income that helps people to meet their needs and wants. In addition, work accounts for a large amount of waking hours per day of most people, and there is evidence that work has a substantial influence on people's self-concept and self-esteem (Kahn 1981).

It is conceptualized in literature as an intention by the employee to stop working somewhere in the future. One approach to intention to leave suggests that it is a rational decision, in that the employee has found better alternatives. The reasons why employees leave their jobs can be
divided into two categories, namely repulsion and attraction (Beehr, 1995). Employees can be attracted to better alternatives, and that is a likely set of reasons for the intention to leave. However, employees can also be driven out of the organisation by something unpleasant in the organisation itself (repulsion). Limited opportunities for career advancement may also increase an employee's intention to leave.

In this chapter conclusions regarding the theoretical and empirical objectives were made. The limitations of the research were pointed out and recommendations were made for the company in which the study took place, as well as for future research. All theoretical and empirical objectives formulated for this research have been attained.
REFERENCES


