THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INSECURITY, JOB SATISFACTION, AFFECTIVE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WORK LOCUS OF CONTROL

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REMARK

The reader is reminded of the following:

The reader must note that the publication and reference style used in this mini-dissertation is in accordance with the instructions for publication (5th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA). This is in accordance with the policy of the programme in Industrial Psychology at the North-West University to use APA-style in all scientific documents since 1999.

This mini-dissertation is submitted in the form of a research article.

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DEDICATION

This mini-dissertation is dedicated to my parents Amos Sekhele Ramakau and Sizeka Mampolokeng Ramakau and my late grandparents, Fuyinkomo Dudley Dalasile, Nothobile Nozenzo Dalasile, Lenyora Ramakau and Ruth Ramakau.
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SUMMARY

Title: The relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control.

Key terms: Job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control.

The world that is becoming more advanced and complex, induces acute competitiveness and immense challenges for organisations and employees. This, along with the increased demands from current operating economic conditions around the globe oblige organisations to embark on adaptive strategies such as downsizing, restructuring and temporary employment as a mechanism to sustain their continued existence in a hastened transformation era. Although these impetuses affect the content and structure of work directly, they also have indirect inherent effects as they create pressures of uncertainty and feelings of job insecurity. It is apparent that job insecurity may negatively affect employees’ job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. It is deemed important to identify the negative impacts of these changes on individual employees and devise change management and coping interventions to empower employees in lowering the stress that they may experience due to transformations within their organisations.

Thus, the objectives of this research was to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control and how demographic groups might differ in their experience of job insecurity among employees (N = 286) in a co-operation industry. A cross-sectional survey design was used. The constructs were measured by means of the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ-Affective-subscale), Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) and a demographic questionnaire. The research method consists of a brief literature review and an empirical study. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess the construct validity of the MSQ, OCQ-Affective, and WLCS. Alpha coefficients were also computed to assess the internal consistency of the scales. Descriptive statistics, Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients, MANOVA, and ANOVA were used to analyse the data. Multiple regression
analyses were used to further examine the potential mediating effect of work locus of control in the job insecurity-outcomes relationships.

Simple principal component analyses confirmed appropriate factor structures for the JIS, MSQ, and OCQ. Although Spector proposed that the WLCS is a unidimensional scale, various previous studies have obtained evidence supporting a two-factor structure. In a similar vein, simple principle component analysis delivered a two-factor structure. All scales used demonstrated an adequate level of internal consistency.

Job insecurity indicated a practically significant positive correlation with intrinsic job satisfaction, although the relationship between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction was not statistically significant. A statically significant positive correlation was found between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment. Work locus of control demonstrated a practically significant correlation with job insecurity. Work locus of control demonstrated a practically significant positive correlation with affective organisational commitment, as well as both job satisfaction dimensions. Regression analyses indicated that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction. Work locus of control was also found to be a mediator of the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.

It was established that employees with tertiary qualifications such as degrees and postgraduate degrees experienced lower job insecurity as compared to employees with lower qualifications such as Grade 10 to Grade 12. No further significant differences were established in terms of gender, culture, age and tenure in the experience of job insecurity.

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

**Titel:** Die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid en werk-lokus-van-beheer.

**Sleutelwoorde:** Werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid en werk-lokus-van-beheer.

Die wêreld wat meer gevorderd en kompleks raak lei tot sterk kompetisie en groot uitdagings vir organisasies en werknemers. Dit, tesame met die toenemende eise wat gestel word deur huidig heersende wêreldwyse ekonomiese toestand, noodsaak organisasies om aanpassingstrategieë soos afdanking, herstrukurering, en tydelike indiensneming as meganismes vir hul voortbestaan te verseker in 'n gejaagde era van transformasie. Alhoewel hierdie invloede die inhoud en struktuur van werk direk beïnvloed, het dit ook indirekte, inherente invloede omdat dit werksonsekerheid veroorsaak. Dit is duidelik dat werksonsekerheid werknemers se werkstevredenheid en affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid negatief beïnvloed. Dit word belangrik geag om die negatiewe invloede van hierdie verandering op werknemers te identifiseer. Verdermeer is dit ook belangrik om veranderingsbestuur en hanteringsintervensies te ontwikkel om sodoende werknemers te bemagtig deur die verminder van stresvlakke, wat deur transformasie binne hul organisasies veroorsaak word.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing was dus om die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid en werk-lokus-van-beheer te ondersoek asook hoe verskeie demografiese groepe mag verskil in hul beleving van werksonsekerheid tussen werknemers (N = 286) in 'n koöperasie. 'n Dwarsnee onhverp is gebmik. Konstrukte is gemeet met behulp van die “Job Insecurity Scale (JIS)”, “Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)”, “Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ-Affective-subscale)”, “Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS)” en 'n demografiese vraelys. Die navorsingsmetode bestaan uit 'n literatuurstudie en 'n empiriese studie. Bevestigende faktoranalise is gebruik om konstrukgeldigheid van die “MSQ”, “OCQ-Affective” en die “WLCS” te toets. Alfa-koëffisiënte is bereken om interne konsekwentheid van skale te bepaal. Beskrywende statistiek, Pearson produk-moment korrelasie koëffisiënte, MANOVA en ANOVA is gebruik om die data the analiseer. Meervoudige regressieanalise is
gebruik om die potensiële medierende effek van werk-lokus-van-beheer in die werksonsekerheid-uitkoms verhouding te ondersoek.

Eenvoudige hoofkomponent-faktoranalises het die toepaslike faktorstrukture vir die "JIS", "MSQ", en "OCQ" bevestig. Alhoewel Spector voorgestel het dat die "WLCS" 'n eendimensionele skaal is, het verskeie studies al tweefaktorstrukture gevind. Eenvoudige hoofkomponent-faktoranalise het 'n tweefaktorstruktuur gevind. Alle skale het genoegsame interne konsekwentheid getoone.

Werksonsekerheid het 'n prakties beduidende positiewe korrelasie met intrinsieke werkstevredenheid getoon, alhoewel die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid en ekstrinsieke werkstevredenheid nie statisties beduidend was nie. 'n Statisties beduidende positiewe korrelasie is gevind tussen werksonsekerheid en affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid. Werk-lokus-van-beheer het 'n prakties beduidende korrelasie met werksonsekerheid getoont. Werk-lokus-van-beheer het 'n prakties beduidende positiewe korrelasie met affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid, sowel as albei werkstevredenheid dimensies getoont. Regressieanalises het aangedui dat werk-lokus-van-beheer die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid en intrinsieke werkstevredenheid medieer. Werk-lokus-van-beheer het ook 'n medierende invloed op die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid en affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid getoont.

Daar is vasgestel dat werknemers met tersiere kwalifikasies soos grade en nagraadse kwalifikasies laer vlakke van werksonsekerheid ervaar in vergelyking met werknemers met laer kwalifikasies soos Graad 10 tot Graad 12. Geen verdere betekenisvolle verskille is gevind met betrekking tot geslag, kultuur, ouderdom en ampstermyn nie.

Gevolgtrekkings is gemaak, terkortkominge van die huidige studie is bespreek en voorstelle vir die organisasie en toekomstige navorsing is gemaak.
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This mini-dissertation is concerned with job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control in a co-operation.

In this chapter, the problem statement is discussed, and an outline is provided of the research objectives, research method and chapter division.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the latest research of Botha and Pienaar (2006), workplace stress has been recognised as a major problem in South Africa with regard to employee wellness. Many reviews can be found relating a variety of stressful job conditions or job stressors to a variety of employee health-related outcomes or job strain, both physical and psychological (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).

Technological changes, rising international trade and investment, and increased competition are changing the organisation, and distribution and nature of work in industrialised countries (Polanyi & Tompa, 2004). As a result of these evolutions in the economic and social environment in which organisations operate, the ordinary nature of work is undergoing fundamental changes that have implications for organisations and their employees (Roehling, Gavanaugh, Moynihan, & Boswell, 2000).

To enhance productivity, employers are striving to increase innovation while minimising costs. This is leading to an intensification of work demands on core employees and the outsourcing or casualisation of more marginal tasks, often to contingent workers (Polanyi & Tompa, 2004). In this regard, Burke and Nelson (1998) also state that more organisations are forced to undertake adaptive strategies in order to remain competitive in an increasingly flexible labour market. Such organisational responses are realised in actions such as outsourceings, privatisations, mergers and acquisitions, and often occur in combination with personnel reductions through layoffs and offers of early retirement. For many employees, these intense changes in working life cause feelings of insecurity caused by the threat of
overall job loss, loss of any dimension of one's job, or the erosion of any employment condition (Lee, Bobko, & Chen, 2006).

Previous research conducted by Ashford, Lee, and Bobko, (1989), as well as Rosenblatt, Talmud, and Ruvio (1999), suggest that perceptions of job insecurity might have unfavourable consequences for incumbents' attitudes and lead to amplified job dissatisfaction (Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997). Researchers (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Mohren, Swaen, Van Amelsvoort, Borm, & Galama, 2003) stated in literature, that job insecurity as a stressor can give rise to negative health outcomes and lead to higher reports of psychological distress (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Probst, 2000). In addition, employees with perceptions of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour (O’Quin, 1998) and report lower organisational commitment (Preuss & Lautsch, 2003).

South African organisations are not resistant to these global transformations, as they form part of the global village (Selepe, 2004). Based on the above international changes, organisations all over the world engage in various adaptive strategies to warrant their continued existence in the information era. Although these strategies can vary from organisation to another, they have one theme acquainted with them, being that they expose employees to feelings of uncertainty and insecurity regarding the future existence of their jobs.

Job insecurity

Job insecurity reflects the discrepancy between preferred and experienced levels of job security (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Heaney, Israel, & House, 1994). According to Mauno and Kinnunen (2000), literature usually conceptualises job insecurity from three general points of view, as being (i) a global or (ii) multidimensional concept or (iii) a job stressor. In most instances, job insecurity has been defined according to the global viewpoint: job insecurity relates to people in their work context, who fear they might lose their jobs and become unemployed (De Witte, 1999). Job insecurity can thus be defined as the concern felt by a person for continued existence of his/her job (De Witte, 1997). De Witte (1999) and Van Vuuren (1990) also emphasised that job insecurity has the following components: firstly, it is a subjective experience or perception, as different employees might perceive the same situation differently. Secondly, job insecurity implies uncertainty regarding the future; and finally,
doubts about the continuation of the job as such, are central to job insecurity. Also, job insecurity can be described as perceived powerlessness to maintain continuity in a threatened job situation and the severity of such a threat will depend on the scope and importance of the potential loss and the subjective probability of its occurrence (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). For the employee to feel insecure there must be powerlessness experienced in counteracting these potential threats to the entire job (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

Researchers (Ferrie, 1997; Joelson & Wahlquist, 1987; Van Vuuren, 1990) who have adopted the multidimensional definition of job insecurity, contest that job insecurity refers not only to the degree of uncertainty, but also to the continuity of certain job dimensions, such as opportunities for promotion and chances to do a variety of tasks. Ruivo and Rosenblatt (1998) conclude that job insecurity is not merely a question of keeping one’s job, but it encompasses various features and aspects of the entire job.

The Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) (Ashford et al., 1989) summarises the multidimensional dimensions of job insecurity as: firstly, the severity of the threat concerning job continuity or aspects of the job. Secondly, the importance of job features, meaning that the fear of losing an important job feature is a cause of greater job insecurity than the threat of losing a minor job feature. Thirdly, the perceived threat of the occurrence that is expected to negatively affect the employee’s total job situation, for example, being laid off. Fourthly, the total importance of the changes mentioned above and the powerlessness experienced by the employee due to job insecurity. Lastly, an employee’s inability to control the threats described in the previous four components. For the purpose of this study the multidimensional view to job insecurity will be adopted together with the following definition: job insecurity reflects the degree to which employees perceive their jobs to be threatened and feel powerless to do anything about it (Ashford et al., 1989).

The phenomenon of job insecurity is also identified as a form of work-related stressor that is potentially detrimental to the individual’s job attitudes and behaviours (Lim, 1996). In an Australian study, Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) found that job insecurity resulted in deterioration of well-being among employees. Barling and Kelloway (1996) have found similar results. For the purpose of this research, job insecurity is also viewed as a stressor that may have negative influences on the individual.
Given the accumulative empirical support that job insecurity is a stressor, then an integrated model based on person-environment fit theories of stress will be assessed when researching the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. Two concepts are central to any psychological stress theory: *appraisal*, i.e., individuals’ evaluation of the significance of what is happening for their well-being, and *coping*, i.e., individuals’ effort in thought and action to manage specific demands (Lazarus, 1993). Stress is as a rational concept, i.e., stress is not defined as a specific kind of external stimulation nor a specific pattern of physiological, behavioural, or subjective reactions. Instead, stress is viewed as a relationship between individuals and their environment (Krohne, 1996).

Person-Environment Fit Theory assumes that the stress occurs because of a misfit between the individual and the environment, thus it is neither the person nor the situation alone which cause stress experiences and strains (Edwards, 1998; Harrison, 1978). There are two types of misfit between an individual and the environment. The first type refers to the fit between the demands of the environment and the abilities and competencies of the persons. The second type refers to the fit between the needs of the person and supplies from the environment.

As organisations continue to downsize, merge with other organisations, and otherwise restructure, the feelings of job security of employees is highly challenged, and that will be the first misfit where the employees must have compatible antidote to buffer the demands made from the environment. The second misfit occurs when other dimensions of the job are threatened, like developmental opportunities (promotion) as this is what the individual employee would demand from the environment.

Roberts and Robins (2004) propound that if there is a perceived imbalance between the environmental demands and the employee’s ability to cope with those demands, based on the aspects such as dispositions and available resources, stress such as job insecurity will inevitably result. Furthermore, Probst (2002) adds that the stress value depends on the perceived imbalance between an individual’s perceptions of the demands made by the environment and the individuals’ perceived ability and motivation to cope with those demands. Probst (2002) concludes that when stress exists, work attitudes of employees are expected to be negative.
Mak and Mueller (2000), as well as Sverke and Hellgren (2002) mention that it should be noted that environmental demands (e.g. restructuring) may have varying impacts on different work groups and individuals, depending on which particular divisions, sections, and classifications within the organisation are targeted for amalgamation, downsizing, outsourcing or other types of restructuring. The mentioned authors further indicate that perceived job insecurity concerning the continuity of employment and important features of one's current job can be highly subjective. Mak and Mueller (2000) and Sverke and Hellgren (2002) concluded in their research that there may be substantial variations in the level of perceived job insecurity and its subsequent effect on the stress experienced by employees within the same organisation.

According to Heider (1958); Kelley (1973) and Weiner, (1980) the attribution theory could be considered and assessed when studying the different reactions of individuals to environmental interactions like the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. Interactional explanations of job insecurity are generally accepted, but the weight attachment to dispositional aspects varies. Dispositionists (e.g. House, Shane, & Harold, 1996) contend that work attitudes and behaviour are determined by, or at least directly linked to, individual attributes. This notion is supported by the research of Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) as well as Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans and Van Vuuren (1991), who concur that job insecurity is a subjective phenomenon: i.e., it is based on the individual's perceptions and interpretations of the immediate work environment. Kelley (1973) defined attribution as an explanation for an event, outcome, behaviour, or traits. He further states that it is about how people make causal explanations, about how they answer questions beginning with "why". The theory attempts to describe the information people use in perceiving others and the environment around them. Kelley (1973) further explains that when people offer explanations about why things happened, they can give one of the two basic types of attributions: (i) situational attribution - they can make an external attribution (assigning causality to an outside agent or force), or (ii) dispositional attribution - they can make an internal attribution (assigning causality to factors within the person). Employees who make dispositional attributions tend to be more satisfied with their jobs and take ownership of circumstances in their jobs. In contrast, employees with situational attribution might experience job dissatisfaction and stress, as they do not take responsibility for their working situations; instead, they censure the employer and other environment factors.
From the literature review of job insecurity, a pertinent theme can be identified and that is the remarkable influences demographic variables such as gender, culture, age, qualifications and tenure has on job insecurity with regards to an individual’s ability to perceive and cope with stressors. In South African studies (Buitendach, 2004; Manski & Straub, 2000; Orpen, 1993; Viljoen, 2004) found that job insecurity levels vary significantly according to a variety of demographic characteristics. Buitendach (2004) found that practically significant differences exist between job insecurity and different age groups were employees in the age group of 45 years and older experienced the highest levels of job insecurity compared to younger employees. This finding is confirmed by the research of Mohr (2000). A number of reasons might exists as to why younger workers experience less job insecurity, e.g. they have better prospects of finding alternative employment as many companies value energetic youth and their responsibilities are much less compared to the older employees. Regarding qualifications and job insecurity, Buitendach (2004) also found that employees with only a Grade 12 qualification experienced significantly higher levels of job insecurity than employees with higher qualifications. This finding is confirmed by research conducted by Rajan (1997) and Sverke et al. (2004). These findings suggest that employees with higher qualifications have better resources to buffer for changes in the labour market (De Witte, 1999). Sverke et al. (2004) found that females (in comparison with males) experience higher levels of job insecurity. Elbert (2002), Rannona (2003) and Buitendach (2004) reported contradictory findings with regards to gender in a South African perspective. Furthermore, literature demonstrated that culture (race) influence the way in which participants experience job insecurity (Viljoen, 2004). Orpen (1993) found in his study that black employees experienced higher levels of job insecurity compared to the white employees; his findings are supported by the research of Manski and Straub (2000). In the South African context it is very important to note the impact of race as the country is undergoing transformations broadly striving to balance the boarder between races.

Available literature shows that job insecurity like any other stressor, has a detrimental impact on crucial organisational variables such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (De Witte, 1997). Ashford et al. (1989) indicated that employees who feel insecure about the future employment and continuity of other job features are more dissatisfied with their jobs compared to those who perceived their future job situation as more secure.
According to Stanley (2001), job satisfaction is a person’s attitude towards his/her job. Employees continuously appraise and evaluate the quality of their jobs and they possess beliefs about their jobs and employing organisations. Satisfaction is a complex construct and is often measured as global attitude of an employee towards his/her work (Lopopolo, 2002). In this regard, there is no commonly agreed upon theoretical generalisation that explains job satisfaction. Rothmann and Agathagelou (2000) explain job satisfaction as a complex variable that is influenced by situational factors of the job environment. Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent to which an employee feels positively or negatively towards his/her job (Yousef, 2000). According to Stanley (2001), high job satisfaction can bring out the creative spark that resides in all employees, lower rates of absenteeism, reduce turnover and increase productivity.

Hirschfeld (2000) explained that job satisfaction relates to the extent to which people like their jobs. It can also be described as an affective or emotional reaction to the job, resulting from the incumbent’s comparison of actual outcomes with required outcomes (Hirschfeld, 2000; Locke, 1976). A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negatives attitudes about the job. Dissatisfaction can be expressed in a number of ways. It can be expressed through behaviour directed toward leaving the organisation within which the individual is working (Robbins, 1998). It can also be expressed through active and constructive attempts to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and some forms of union activity. Other ways of expressing dissatisfaction are allowing conditions to worsen (including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate), as well as passively waiting for conditions to improve and trusting the organisation and its management to "do the right thing" (Robbins, 1998).

Hirschfeld (2000) distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction is how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, while extrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks. Adkins and Naumann (2002) defined intrinsic job satisfaction as that part of satisfaction that involves the work process itself, such as the extent to which employees derive growth and security from their jobs. These researchers further defined extrinsic job satisfaction as the part which is concerned with aspects of the job that are contingent on the job occupancy, but are not
an essential part of the work process, such as pay satisfaction, recognition and supervisory satisfaction.

Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) stated that employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. Correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of the individual fulfilling the requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual. This means that employees will experience job satisfaction if they feel that their individual capacities, experience and values can be utilised in their work environment and that their work environment offers them opportunities and rewards (Dawis, 1992).

Employees also develop affective and attitudinal attachments towards their workplace over time, which show up as high levels of affective organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and trust (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979). Job satisfaction was found to have a positive correlation with organisational commitment (Fletcher & Williams, 1996), and job performance (Babin & Boles, 1996). Other researchers (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) found that organisational stress (job insecurity) is related to low organisational commitment, high turnover rates and — under specific conditions — to increased levels of absenteeism.

Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is a psychological state characterising the employee’s relationship with the organisation and affecting his/her decision to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organisational commitment is a combination of both attitudinal and behavioural approaches; it is defined as employees’ acceptance, involvement and dedication towards achieving the organisation’s goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is the willingness to accept organisational values and goals, and to work towards achieving these; to be fully involved, and participate, in all the activities, both work and non-work related, of the organisation; and to dedicate time, and effort towards the betterment of the organisation (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005).

The conceptualisation and measurement of organisational commitment has undergone significant refinement. Whereas early research on organisational commitment described it as a
unidimensional construct reflecting an internalisation of the values of the organisation, Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that organisational commitment had three distinguishable components. Affective commitment refers to a psychological attachment to the organisation (i.e., employees stay with the organisation because they want to). Continuance commitment refers to costs associated with leaving the organisation and the perceived lack of alternatives (i.e., employees stay with the organisation because they need to). Normative commitment refers to a perceived obligation to remain with the organisation (i.e., employees stay with the organisation because they feel they should).

Although organisational commitment has been conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct, research however demonstrated that one of the three dimensions is more relevant than the other two (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Primarily, the measurement of affective organisational commitment is more reliable than the measurement of the other two components. Even more essential is the finding that affective organisational commitment is the most important explanatory variable of the three components: the affective component consistently explains more variance in outcome variables than the two other components (Allen & Meyer, 1996). This finding resulted in many researchers restricting the measurement of organisational commitment to affective the component, disregarding the other two dimensions (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). For the purpose of this research, as suggested by the above findings, only the affective organisational subscale will be utilised.

Affective organisational commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation (based on positive feelings, or emotions towards the organisation) (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The antecedents for affective organisational commitment include perceived job characteristics (task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety and supervisory feedback), organisational dependability (extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after their interests), and perceived participatory management (extent to which employees feel they can influence decisions on the work environment and other issues of concern to them) (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005).

Affective organisational commitment holds profitable outcomes for organisations and hence managers are trying to foster affective commitment in their employees (Coleman, Irving, & Cooper, 1999). Because affective organisational commitment has disparate effects on
organisational functioning, anything that improves our understanding of antecedent variables can be useful for organisations. Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) stated that individual differences may play some role in the development of affective commitment. Indeed several studies have found that work locus of control has some influence on the development of organisational commitment (Coleman et al., 1999). Employees with internal locus of control are more likely to be (affectively) committed to their organisations (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987).

Luthans et al. (1987) provide three potential explanations for the relationship between work locus of control and affective organisational commitment. Firstly, those employees with an internal work locus of control (internals) are likely to report higher levels of commitment because they perceive that they have control over their work environment. In order to maintain cognitive consistency, internals are likely to be committed to organisations that allow them to control that environment. Secondly, because internals are likely to perceive more alternatives than those with external work locus of control (externals) and because choice is related to commitment, internals will feel more likely to take action when dissatisfied with a situation (particularly by leaving the organisation), only committed internals are expected to remain with an organisation.

*Work locus of control*

Work locus of control refers to the perception that one can personally affect particular outcomes (Spector, Sanchez, Ling Siu, Salgado, & Ma, 2004). According to Spector (1988) work locus of control is unidimensional, where internal and external work locus of control lie at opposite sides of a continuum. Those with an internal work locus of control (internals) believe that work outcomes are based on their own effort and ability (Spector, 1988). Spector (1988) further illustrates that employees with an external work locus of control (externals), believe that work outcomes depend on external factors, such as luck, or knowing the right people.

Work locus of control is described as an employee’s perception of the relationship between their own behaviour and the results of reward and punishment (Bosman & Buitendach, 2005). Employees with an internal locus of control believe that they can influence the results of their
actions, whereas employees with an external locus of control believe that external forces control the results of their actions (Pretorius & Rothmann, 2001).

According to Robbins (2001), a large number of research comparing internals with externals has consistently shown that employees who lean more towards externality are less satisfied with their job, experience less affective organisational commitment and are less involved in their jobs than are internals. Spector (1988) propounded that workers with an internal work locus of control will perform better in their jobs since they have more trust in their own abilities as well as the possible rewards.

Regarding job insecurity and work locus of control, Salter (1999) found a positive correlation between job security and internal locus of control, where internal control was associated with higher levels of job security (lower job insecurity). Intriguingly enough, dissimilar from Rotter’s (1966) view that locus of control is a personality variable (trait), situationists and many social learning theorists assume that behaviour is determined by situational or external factors (Endler & Edwards, 1978). This suggests that work locus of control is not stable rather it is affected by the situational or environmental influences. However, Endler (1976) argued that the conflict whether individual factors or environmental factors are the major source of behaviour variance is a pseudo issue. Based on the complexity of human personality Endler (1976) suggested that locus of control should be viewed in the paradigm of interactionism rather than trait or situational one. In terms of the interactionist perspective, notions of stability (generality) in personality and variability (specificity) are a matter of degree not kind, much like a continuum. Such an understanding of locus of control construct opposes the unidimensionality and stability in locus of control beliefs (Rotter, 1981). For this reason, it is expected that job insecurity will be associated with an external locus of control (given the feelings of lack of control over one’s employment future). This, in turn, will be associated with a decreased level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, given that previous research, has linked increased job insecurity with decreased job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The co-operation in which this research will be conducted is experiencing amplified increase in absenteeism rates, and management is in a predicament of coming up with two rabbits in a hat to curb for this mammoth loss in production time. The biggest concern for management is establishing whether this is an organisational or group or rather an individual problem before
commencing with any action plans. One of the early diagnoses from the trade union is that, employees might be engaging in this defiant behaviour because of the uncomforting demographics of the organisation with the countries legislation (Employment Equity Act of South Africa, 1998). However management suggested utilising the privilege of this research as platform to attain some of the contributing factors to their organisational crisis.

In light of the above-mentioned facts, it is evident that the current situation will cause some discomfort to some, if not most employees and the organisation as a whole. Based on the exposition of the problem statement above, this study will attempt to answer the following questions:

- How are job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control and the relationship between these constructs conceptualised in literature?
- What is the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and work locus of control of employees in a co-operation?
- Do demographic groups differ in their experience of job insecurity?
- Does job insecurity predict job satisfaction in a co-operation?
- Does job insecurity predict affective organisational commitment in a co-operation?
- Does work locus of control mediate the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction in a co-operation?
- Does work locus of control mediate the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment in a co-operation?

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 General objectives

The objective of this research is to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control among employees in a co-operation and how the demographic groups differ in their experience of job insecurity.
1.2.2 Specific objectives

The specific research objectives are to:

- Conceptualise job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control and the relationship between these constructs from the literature;
- Determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control among employees in a co-operation;
- Determine whether the demographic groups differ in their experience of job insecurity;
- Determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value for job satisfaction in a co-operation;
- Determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value for affective organisational commitment in a co-operation and:
- Determine whether work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction in a co-operation;
- Determine whether work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment in a co-operation.

1.3 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method will consist of a literature review and an empirical study. The article option will be followed in this study.

1.3.1 Research design

A cross-sectional survey design will be used to reach the objectives of the research. According to Burns and Grove (1993), this design is ideally suited when the aim of the study is predictive and descriptive in nature.

1.3.2 Study population

Total population consists of employees working in the co-operation in the North-West Province (N = 500) and is dependent on the availability of the respondents. The sample will be
representative of different gender groups, age groups, racial groups, as well as the different levels, ranging from semi-skilled employees to professional-level employees.

1.3.3 Measuring instruments

Four questionnaires will be used, namely, the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) (Ashford et al., 1989), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire-Affective (OCQ) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) and Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) (Spector, 1988). Biographical information regarding gender, age, culture, qualifications and tenure will also be gathered.

The Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) (Ashford et al., 1989)

The Job Insecurity Scale will be used as the measure of job insecurity. The 57 items are divided into three subscales, namely Job Features (importance of job features X perceived threat to job features), Total Job (importance of possible changes to job X perceived threat to total job), and Powerlessness. The 34 items of the Job Features subscale are divided into two parts. The first part captures the importance of job features along a five-point scale, varying from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important). An example of a question to be rated relating to the importance of job features is: "In your work-life, how important is having promotion opportunities to you personally?" The second part captures the perceived threat to job features according to a five-point scale with 1 (negative change very unlikely) to 5 (negative change very likely). An example of a question to be rated according to perceived job feature is: "Looking to the future, what is the probability that changes could occur - changes you don't want or might disagree with - that would negatively affect your potential to get ahead in the organisation?" The 20 items of the subscale Total Job are also divided into two parts. The first part relates to capturing the importance of possible changes to a total job along a five-point scale, varying from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important). An example of a question to be asked regarding the importance of possible changes to a total job is: "Assume for a moment that the following event could happen to you; how important to you personally that you may lose your job and be moved to a lower level within the organisation?" The second part captures the perceived threat to total job along a five-point scale with 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). An example of a question to be asked in accordance with the perceived threat to a total job is: "Thinking about your future, how likely
is it that this event might actually occur to you in your current job – be moved to a higher position within your current location?" The three items of the Powerlessness subscale are arranged along a five-point scale, varying from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example of a question to be asked relating to powerlessness is: "I have enough power in this organisation to control events that might affect my job". The JIS is shown to be reliable with the three subscales attaining alpha coefficients of the Job Features subscale (0.85), the Total Job subscale (0.75), and the Powerlessness subscale (0.83) (Lee, Bobko, & Chen, 2006). This is the third South African research project in which the JIS will be used. Makhobotloane (2006) obtained exceptional Cronbach's alphas, Job Features subscale (0.88), the Total Job subscale (0.93), and the Powerlessness subscale (0.91).

*The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)* (Weiss et al., 1967)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (shortened version) indicates how satisfied or dissatisfied respondents are with their jobs by asking respondents to rate themselves on 20 questions, using a five-point scale (1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied). The MSQ short form measures intrinsic job satisfaction, using items such as: "The chance to do things that don’t go against my conscience" and extrinsic job satisfaction using items such as: "The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community". Hirschfeld (2000) found that a two-factor model (intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction) is superior to a one-factor model (total job satisfaction). Alpha coefficients were found to range from 0.87 to 0.95, which supports the internal consistency of the scale (Lam, Baum, & Pine, 1998; Hirschfeld, 2000). Selepe (2004) obtained a reliability coefficient of 0.86 for extrinsic job satisfaction and 0.92 for intrinsic job satisfaction.

*The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)* (Meyer et al., 1993)

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire-Affective (OCQ) will be used to measure the affective organisational commitment of the participants, using items such as: "I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own". This measure consists of 8 items. Inter-correlations between populations were found to be consistently above 0.90 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The internal consistency for this subscale of the questionnaire has been confirmed at the 0.80 level (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Laage (2003) obtained alpha coefficient of 0.81 for affective organisational commitment.
The Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) (Spector, 1988)

The Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) will be used to measure the participants' work locus of control and consists of 16 items with a six point-scale (1 = totally disagree) to 6 = totally agree). The Work Locus of Control Scale measures internal work locus of control, using items such as: "A job is what you make of it" and external work locus of control using items such as: "Making money is primarily a matter of fortune". Bothma (2006) found that a two-factor model (internal and external work locus of control) is superior to a one-factor model (work locus of control). According to the findings obtained by Spector (1988), Cronbach alpha coefficients for this scale vary between 0,75 and 0,85, while evidence exists for the construct validity of the WLCS (Spector, 1988). The research of Botha and Pienaar (2006) delivered a Cronbach alpha of 0,73 for external work locus of control and 0,73 for internal work locus of control.

1.3.4 Statistical analysis

The SPSS programme (SPSS Inc, 2005) will be used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability and validity of the measuring instruments, factor analysis, descriptive statistics, correlations coefficients, MANOVA, ANOVA and multiple regression analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients, and inter-item correlation coefficient will be computed to assess the validity and reliability of the various measuring instruments employed in this research. Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis together with inferential statistics will be used to analyse the data. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient will be used to specify the relationship between the variables. A cut off point of 0,30, which represents a medium effect (Cohen, 1988), is set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients. MANOVA and ANOVA will be used to examine differences in the job insecurity levels of various demographic groups such as gender, culture, age, qualifications and tenure. Regression analyses will be conducted to determine whether work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction and the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.
1.4 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 deals with the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control. Chapter 3 provides conclusions regarding research objectives; presents a discussion of the limitations of this research, and offers recommendations for the organisation as well as for future research.

1.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1 provided a discussion of the problem statement and various research objectives. An explanation regarding the measuring instruments and research method was given, followed by a brief overview of the chapters to follow.
CHAPTER REFERENCES


CHAPTER 2

ARTICLE 1
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INSECURITY, JOB SATISFACTION, AFFECTIVE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WORK LOCUS OF CONTROL

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this research was to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control among employees (N = 286) in a co-operation and to determine if the demographic groups differ in their experience of job insecurity. A cross-sectional survey design was utilised to reach the outcomes of the research. Constructs were measured by means of the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS), the revised/short version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire-Affective (OCQ), the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) and a demographic questionnaire. The scales demonstrated acceptable levels of internal consistency. Results indicated practically and statistically significant relationships between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction, job insecurity and affective organisational commitment, job insecurity and work locus of control, work locus of control and both job satisfaction dimensions, and work locus of control and affective organisational commitment. Regression analyses confirmed that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction and also the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.

OPSOMMING

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie navorsing was om die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid en werk lokus van beheer van werknemers te ondersoek in 'n koöperasie werksonsekerheid. 'n Dwarsneêroptnameontwerp is gebruik om die navorsingsdoelstellings te bereik. Konstrukte is (N = 286) en om te bepaal of demografiese groepe verskil in hul belewing van gemeet met behulp van die "Job Insecurity Scale" (JIS), die verkorte weergawe van die "Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire" (MSQ), die "Organisational Commitment Questionnaire-Affective" (OCQ), die "Work Locus of Control Scale" (WLCS) en 'n demografiese vraelys. Die skale het aanvaarbare vlakke van interne konsekwentheid gelewer. Resultate het praktiese en statistiese beduidende verhoudinge tussen werksonsekerheid en intrinsieke werkstevredenheid, werksonsekerheid en affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid, werksonsekerheid en werk lokus van beheer, werk lokus van beheer en albei werkstevredenheid dimensies, en werk lokus van beheer en affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid gelewer. Regressie-analyses het bevestig dat werk lokus van beheer die verhoudings tussen werksonsekerheid en werkstevredenheid, sowel as werksonsekerheid en organisasieverbondenheid medieer.

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A vast amount of recent research has focused extensively on labour market restructuring, organisational re-engineering and downsizing and the impact of new technology on employees' well-being and work-related attitudes and behaviours, as aspects like these are a strong reality in the South African labour market. For this reason a lot of research on antecedents and consequences relating to phenomena such as job insecurity and unemployment has been conducted. Previous research conducted both nationally and internationally, has shown that job insecurity has a negative impact on employees' job satisfaction (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997; Probst, 2000; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002), and organisational commitment (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1997; Laba, Bosman, & Buitendach, 2005; Lord & Hartley, 1998) amongst others.

The changing employment relationship in the emerging “new economy” has social and psychological dimensions entrenched for both employers and employees (Beylerian & Kleiner, 2003; Devine, Reay, Stainton, & Collins-Nakai, 2003; Hellgren, Näswall, & Sverke, 2005). For employers it implies striving to create a conducive working environment in which employees will work well and enrich their lives, in return of productivity, trust and commitment. However, this is not viable because of economic constraints on resources in the labour market and the fact that employers have a prerogative to maintain efficiency and competitiveness.

Employees, on the other hand, based on the changing employment relationship, have the need of a healthy and supportive work environment as this is a crucial factor in creating a robust employment relationship; this includes physical, social, psychological aspects of the workplace (Lowe & Schellenberg, 2001). Employees seek a strong employment relationship that provides sufficient resources (training, equipment and information) needed to do the job well and still maintain work-life balance. Furthermore, they seek to have adequate support and have manageable work loads and above all, job security.

In the changing employment relationship, organisational change is regarded as an important influence for both employers and employees. Change is the only constant in organisations around the world, and South African organisations are no exception. Even if South Africa's economy is strong and growing at a respectable rate, its trading partners (countries around the globe) are cutting back to survive, and South Africa has to do likewise, making the prospect
of unemployment a potential reality. In addition, South Africa had an artificial economy for many decades prior democracy (1994) and now those protective layers have been stripped away, and consequently companies are being forced to cut back on their labour supply (Rowles, 2002).

On top of the economic implications presented by globalisation, the South African labour market is also faced with labour legislation such as Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment and the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998). These acts are set to redress the imbalances of the past by affirming the previously disadvantaged (Blacks: white females, Indians, coloureds and the disabled) in positions of power. This progression brings along the reality of job insecurity among the previously advantaged (white males), who might be uncertain about their development (promotion) to senior positions in their current organisations and their future employability due to equity reasons.

Over the past few decades, the subject of job insecurity has been explored under microscopic scrutiny by social researchers (e.g., Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans, & Van Vuuren, 1991; Klandermans & Van Vuuren. 1999; Sverke, Hellgren, Näswall, Chirumbolo, De Witte, & Goslinga, 2004) who focused on the antecedents to and consequences of job insecurity. Research documented that job insecurity refers to employees’ negative reactions to the changes concerning their jobs (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Changes such as mergers, downsizing, or the implementation of new technologies are stressful for employees.

Job insecurity has been defined as an individual’s expectations about continuity in a job situation (Davy et al., 1997), overall concern about the future existence of the job (Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996), perception of a potential threat to continuity in his or her current job (Heaney, Israel, & House, 1994), and powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

According to Mauno and Kinnunen (2000), literature usually conceptualises job insecurity from three general points of view, namely as being (i) a global or (ii) multidimensional concept or (iii) a job stressor. From a global viewpoint job insecurity is viewed as the threat of job loss or job discontinuity (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1980). De Witte (1997), for example defined job insecurity as the concern felt by a person for continued
existence of his/her job. De Witte (2000) conceptualised job insecurity from a global, two-dimensional perspective, which entails cognitive and affective job insecurity. The cognitive dimension of job insecurity entails the perceived probability of job loss, whereas the affective dimension of job insecurity entails the fear of job loss. Van Vuuren (1990) emphasises that job insecurity has the following components: firstly, it is a subjective experience or perception, as different employees might perceive the same situation differently. Secondly, job insecurity implies uncertainty regarding the future and finally, doubts about the continuation of the job as such, are central to job insecurity (Ruvio & Rosenblatt, 1999).

In terms of the multidimensional definition of job insecurity, job insecurity is thought not only to refer to the degree of uncertainty about possible job loss, but also the continuity of certain job dimensions, such as opportunities for promotion (Ashford et al., 1989; Borg & Elizur, 1992; Ferrie, 1997; Joelson & Wahlquist, 1987; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996).

Hellgren, Sverke, and Isaksson (1999) categorise two types of job insecurity, being qualitative and quantitative. Both these terms serve to explain the above dimensions of job insecurity: qualitative relates to perceived threats of weakened value in the employment relationship i.e. demotions, change in contract of employment for lower conditions and lack of career progression opportunities; whereas quantitative job insecurity relates to the concern for the future existence of the current job.

Ashford et al. (1989) describe five components of job insecurity that affect the employee within the organisation. Firstly, the severity of the threat concerning job continuity or aspects of the job. Secondly, the importance of job features, meaning that the fear of losing an important job feature is a cause of greater job insecurity than the threat of losing a minor job feature. Thirdly, the perceived threat of the occurrence which is expected to negatively affect the employee’s total job situation, for example, being laid off. Fourthly, the total importance of the changes mentioned above and the powerlessness experienced by the employee due to job insecurity play a role. Lastly, an employee’s inability to control the threats described in the previous four components.

As noted, job insecurity is also viewed as a stressor (De Witte, 1999; Van Vuuren, 1990). Working individuals experience stress in situations where they perceive that the demands in the environment exceed their capacity to cope with them. According to Van Vuuren (1990)
stress reaction refers to the outcomes of the stressor whereas coping entails the manner in which the person deals with stress. The stress process can lead to different kinds of strains affecting, for example individuals’ psychological well-being and their experience of job satisfaction (Kirkcaldy, Shephard, & Furnham, 2002; Lu, Kao, Cooper, & Spector, 2000).

Job insecurity has long been associated with a range of negative emotional and behavioural outcomes, including lowered morale, job dissatisfaction, increased stress, unproductive behaviour (Bruckman & Peters, 1987; Cartwright, 2005; Hall & Norburn, 1987; Marks & Mirvis, 2001; Sinetar, 1981), an increase in negative health outcomes (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Mohren, Swaen, Van Amelsvoort, Borm, & Galama, 2003) and higher reports of psychological distress (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Probst, 2000). Employees with perceptions of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour (Probst, 1999) and job insecurity is often reported to result in reduced psychological well-being, characterised by symptoms such as anxiety, depression, irritation or strain-related psychosomatic complains (Dooley & Catalano, 1986; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Ferrie, Shipley, Marmot, Stansfield, & Smith, 1998; Joelson & Wahlquist, 1987; Kuhnert, Sims, & Lahey, 1989).

According to Probst (2002), the person-environment fit theory of stress may be useful in an attempt to research the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. The person-environment fit literature usually presumes that fit perceptions are based on the assessment of the congruence between two relatively stable entities: the work environment and the individual (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004). Researchers found that higher levels of the person-environment fit are generally considered positive for both the organisation (Kristof, 1996) and the individual (Schneider, 1987). For instance, research has found that fit between individuals and their jobs, as well as the match between their values and those of their organisation, has significant effects on job satisfaction, stress and organisational commitment (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof, Jansen, & Colbert, 2002; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Furthermore Caldwell et al. (2004) point out that change can result in shifts in either the environment or the individual. Although many characteristics of individuals are presumed to be relatively stable, the same cannot be said for work environments. Probst (2002) states that the stress value depends on the perceived imbalance between the individual’s perceptions of the demands made by the environment and the individual’s perceived ability and motivation.
to cope with those demands. Following Probst (2002), job insecurity is viewed as changes from the environment that demand adaptation; which may be difficult to meet and to cope with. The powerlessness to adapt to the new trends of employment and uncertainty resulting from job insecurity can have momentous consequences to the alignment of the person-environment fit (Probst, 2002).

According to the research conducted by Roberts and Robins (2004), the perceived imbalance between environmental demands and the employees' ability to cope with those demands, based on the aspects such as dispositions and available resources, will inevitably result in stress. However, an individual's reactions towards job insecurity will depend on a number of factors, such as labour market characteristics, employability, individual characteristics, family responsibility, age, gender, and so forth (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). This implies both that the feeling of job insecurity may differ between individuals - even if they are exposed to the same objective situation - and that individuals may differ in their reactions to perceptions of jobs at risk (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). Sverke and Hellgren (2002) indicate that different individuals might have different intensity levels of job insecurity even if they are exposed to the same kind of threat.

This raises the question as to why some individuals are more prone to worries about job loss and others are not. Considering the factors presumed to give rise to this experience, it is possible to differentiate between those factors that relate mainly to the environment and those relating to the individual (Mauno & Kinnunen, 2000; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

Environmental factors comprise of organisational and social characteristics, such as the organisation's way of dealing with changes and cutbacks, social support outside of work and support obtained through union membership (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991; Kinnunen, Mauno, Nätti, & Happonen, 2000; Näswall & De Witte, 2003; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990;). Individual factors include personal background, position in the organisation and professional role, as well as attitudes and personalities (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991; Kinnunen et al., 2000; Näswall & De Witte, 2003; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990).

Human beings have a need to explain the world, both to themselves and to other people, especially with regard to the attributing causes of the events around them. This gives them a
greater sense of control. The Attribution Theory is a theory about how people explain things, and as Kelley (1973) defines it, it relates to how people make causal explanations about how they answer questions beginning with "why". The theory attempts to describe the information people use in making causal inferences and how they use that information.

Attribution theory deals only with the processes by which attributions are derived from information input (Kelley, 1973). It encompasses the cognitive sequence from stimulus manipulation to attribution: but strictly speaking, does not treat the consequences of the attribution. Kelley (1973) further explains that when people offer explanations about why things happened, they can give one of the two types of attributions. On the one hand, they can make an external attribution (situational attribution). On the other, they can make an internal attribution (dispositional attribution). An external attribution assigns causality to an outside agent or force "external attribution claims that some outside thing motivated the event" (Kelley, 1973). By contrast, an internal attribution assigns causality to factors within the person: "an internal attribution claims that the person was directly responsible for the event" (Kelley, 1973).

From the literature review of the attribution theory, a pertinent theme can be identified, namely that environmental factors and individual factors could have an influence on an individual's ability to perceive and cope with stressors, i.e., job insecurity. For the purpose of this study the researcher will focus on the individual factors, with specific reference to demographic variables such as gender, culture, age, qualifications and tenure and their relation to job insecurity, as well as the role of work locus of control in the job insecurity-outcome relationship.

Various South African studies (Buitendach, 2004; Manski & Straub, 2000; Orpen, 1993) report a relationship between job insecurity and demographic variables. Regarding the relationship between job insecurity and race, Orpen (1993) found that higher levels of job insecurity exists among black employees, which corresponds with the findings of Manski and Straub (2000), who found that job loss concern among black employees was almost double that of the white employees. Research conducted by Buitendach (2004) in selected organisations (parastatal, packaging, mining and chemical industry) reported contradictory results indicating that white employees experienced statistically significantly higher levels of job insecurity than black employees. A possible explanation for this is the implementation of the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998) that has created
more employment opportunities for blacks while minimising employment opportunities for whites, especially white males. Bosman (2005) also found that white participants in a government organisation experienced higher levels of job insecurity.

Research conducted by Probst (2002) found that job insecurity holds important negative consequences at individual and organisational levels, leading to increased organisational withdrawal, increased reported health conditions, increased psychological distress and lowered organisational commitment. As noted numerous studies have established the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction (Abraham & Taylor, 1996; Ashford et al., 1989; Deavers, 1997; Perry, 1997; Sharpe, 1997).

Job satisfaction among employees is an indicator of organisational effectiveness, and is influenced by organisational and dispositional factors. Most employers do realise that the optimal functioning of their organisations depend in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees. Employees' full potential is needed on all levels in organisations, a notion that stresses the importance of employees being satisfied (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998).

Employees' job satisfaction is a central concern for an organisation as it is linked to the amount of effort an employee would be willing to exert toward organisational goals (Robbins 2000). Research conducted by Johnson (1996) showed that a significant positive relationship exists between employees' experience of job satisfaction and positive performance. Employee job satisfaction has been shown to increase profits and lower grievances, absenteeism, and decrease safety incident rates (Rossouw & Bews, 2002). According to Stanley (2001), high levels of job satisfaction can bring out the creative spark that resides in all employees, lower rates of absenteeism, reduce turnover and increase productivity.

Job satisfaction has been found to have a positive correlation with life satisfaction (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994), organisational commitment (Fletcher & Williams, 1996), and job performance (Babin & Boles, 1996). Researchers (Machr, 1989; Rosenholtz, 1989) suggest that the personal investment of employees at all levels is necessary for any effective organisation. Recent research on organisational effectiveness emphasises the importance of personal investment and commitment of employees (Rosenholtz, 1989). Other researchers such as Csikzentmihalyi and McCormack (1986) along with Rosenholtz (1989) indicated that if employees are dissatisfied with their work lives and lack commitment to the organisations, not
only will employees suffer, but the attainment of the organisational goals and objectives will also be adversely affected.

According to Robbins (2003), job satisfaction refers: "to an individual's general attitude toward his or her job". Employees continuously appraise and evaluate the quality of their jobs and they possess beliefs about their jobs and organisations (Robbins, 2003). Satisfaction is a complex construct and is often measured as global attitude of an employee towards his/her work (Lopopolo, 2002). In this regard there is no commonly agreed upon theoretical generalisation which explains job satisfaction. Rothmann and Agathagelou (2000) describe job satisfaction as a complex variable that is influenced by situational factors of the job environment. Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent to which an employee feels positively or negatively towards his/her job (Yousef, 2000).

Hirschfeld (2000) explains that job satisfaction relates to the extent to which people like their jobs. It can also be described as an affective or emotional reaction to the job, resulting from the incumbent’s comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes (Locke, 1976; Hirschfeld, 2000). Dissatisfaction can be expressed in a number of ways. It can be expressed through behaviour directed toward leaving the organisation within which the individual is working (Robbins, 1998). It can also be expressed through active and constructive attempts to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and some forms of union activity. Other ways of expressing dissatisfaction are allowing conditions to worsen (including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort and increased error rate), as well as passively waiting for conditions to improve and trusting the organisation and its management to "do the right thing" (Robbins, 1998).

Research (Hirschfeld, 2000; Spector 1997) has shown that the different aspects of job satisfaction can be arranged according to two dimensions, namely intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about the nature of the tasks themselves, whereas extrinsic job satisfaction is concerned with how people feel about the aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself (Spector, 1997). It has been found that intrinsic job satisfaction is more strongly related to job involvement than extrinsic job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The study of Moorman, Niehoff and Organ (1993) also found that intrinsic job satisfaction has an affective basis, whereas extrinsic job
satisfaction does not. This particular research will be examining job satisfaction with regard to both these two components.

Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) state that employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. Correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of the individual fulfilling the requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual. This means that employees will experience job satisfaction if they feel that their individual capacities, experience and values can be utilised in their work environment and that their environment offers them advancement opportunities, improved working conditions, better job features and long-term career opportunities (Dawis, 1992).

According to Oshagbemi (2000) there ought to be a link between the level of organisational commitment and job satisfaction. He states that employees who are more satisfied with their jobs are more likely to be committed to their organisations. Furthermore, Agho, Price, and Mueller (1992) added that employees who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to be better ambassadors for the organisation, and will show more organisational commitment. However, there are also researchers such as Camilleri (2002), Oshagbemi (2003) and Brierley (1997), who are of the opinion that although organisational commitment and job satisfaction are similar constructs, they are not identical and should therefore be measured separately.

Organisational commitment is one of the most popularly researched concepts in the field of behavioural sciences (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). The concept has been researched as a consequence, antecedent, and a correlate of other organisational variables including job insecurity, job satisfaction and work locus of control (Khunou, 2001). Previous research of Currivan (1999) has highlighted the importance of the interaction of a person with the environment (person-environment fit theory) in determining organisational commitment. This does not apply to organisational commitment only, but also to job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1999). Person-environment fit theory represents a central theoretical framework for understanding different vocational behaviours. One such model is by Holland (1985) who postulates that people making successful choices gravitate towards work environments that fit their personal orientations. When there is no congruence between the individual (in terms of needs and abilities) and the work environment (in terms of requirements and reinforcements systems) there will be detachment from the job and the organisation (Khunou, 2001).
Organisational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Michaels, 1994; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979; Russ & McNeilly, 1993). Meyer and Allen (1997) view organisational commitment as a psychological state characterising the employee’s relationship with the organisation and affecting his/her decision to remain with the organisation.

Although organisational commitment has been conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct, research however shows that one of the three dimensions is more relevant than the other two others (Allen & Meyer, 1996). First of all, the affective organisational commitment subscale is more reliable than other two subscales. Even more important is the finding that affective organisational commitment is the most important explanatory variable of the three components: the affective dimension consistently explains more variance in outcome variables that the two other components (Allen & Meyer, 1996). As a consequence, many researchers restrict the measurement of organisational commitment to affective commitment, leaving the two other components aside. For the purpose of this research, the focus will also be on affective commitment as a core concept of organisational commitment.

Employees with strong organisational commitment are more valuable to the organisation: however, when this commitment is based primarily upon financial aspects or cost associated with leaving, then the organisation may experience a higher employee retention rate at the expense of reduced job satisfaction, reduced self-esteem and higher employee stress (Camilleri, 2002). Because affective commitment has profitable effects on organisational functioning, anything that improves our understanding of antecedent variables can be useful for organisations.

Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) state that individual difference variables might play some role in the development of affective commitment. Indeed, several studies have found that employees with internal work locus of control are more likely to be (affectively) committed to their organisations (Furnham, 1994; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Luthans & Thomas, 1989). Luthans, Baack, and Tailor (1987) provided three potential explanations for the relationship between internal work locus of control and levels of commitment, because such employees perceive that they have control over their work environment. In order to maintain cognitive consistency, internals are likely to be committed to organisations that allow them to control
that environment. Secondly, because internals are likely to perceive more alternatives than those with an external work locus of control (externals) and because choice is related to commitment, internals will feel more committed to the organisation that they decide to join. Thirdly, because internals are more likely to take action when they are dissatisfied with a situation (particularly by leaving the organisation), only committed internals are expected to remain with an organisation.

It has been assumed by many control theorists that humans have a universal motive to exert control or mastery over their environments (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995; Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996). Indeed, much behaviour is directed toward acquiring or maintaining control across all domains of life, including work. According to Spector (1986), control at work buffers the impact of job stressors such as job insecurity on well-being.

Work locus of control is defined as a generalised expectancy that rewards, reinforcements or outcomes in life are controlled either by one’s own actions (internality) or by other forces (externality) (Spector, 1988). In organisational settings, rewards or outcomes include promotions, favourable circumstance, salary increases and general career advancement (Labuschagne, 2005). Literature indicates that the concept of locus of control stems from the attribution theory. It is important to understand both concepts and how they may interplay with one another (Weiner, 1974). Work locus of control represents the way an employee understands who or what controls his/her environment. Work locus of control involves the way that employees explain how things happen to them, and whether or not they have control over their choices or if they are controlled by their environment (Rotter, 1971; Spector, 1988). In accordance with Rotter (1971) internalisers have an internal work locus of control and attribute their successes and failures to their own abilities. Internalisers are more prone to take credit for successful behaviours and responsibility for failures. They are less likely to attribute such credit and responsibility to others or to environmental factors. They also believe that people tend to get what they have worked for and can have an influence over their environment. Externalisers, on the other hand, have an external work locus of control and tend to attribute their successes and failures to others and to environmental factors. They tend to hold the belief that they have no control over their life, and are rather controlled by their environment. Externalisers hold the belief that they have little to no influence on others. They are more likely to attribute their successes and failures to luck or other external factors.
Such employees would attest to the view that they are a product of their environment with no choice or say of their own (Rotter, 1971).

 Researchers (Nowicki & Duke, 1983) have examined differences between internalisers and externalisers. Such research indicates that internalisers are more likely to succeed, accept themselves, do well in their work, and deal directly with insecurities (Findley & Cooper, 1983; Miller, Lefcourt, Holmes, Ware, & Saley, 1986; Nowicki & Duke, 1983). Internalisers are also associated with being leaders and in general are more self-disclosing, altruistic, reflective, persistent, popular and assertive. Furthermore, they are negatively related with experiencing debilitating anxiety, stress and depression (Nowicki & Duke, 1983). Overall, internalisers are related to adaptive functioning. Externalisers, on the other hand, have been shown to be less likely to succeed, have lower achievement levels, lower social interest, and less success in maintaining physical health. They are less likely to delay gratification to attain a reward, will experience a larger discrepancy in self-ideal, and have higher incidences of anxiety, stress and depression (Nowicki & Duke, 1983). In contrast to internalisers, externalisers tend to be associated with maladjustment.

 Work locus of control is a construct that has become important in improving understanding of humans in the work environment and understanding individual responsiveness towards challenges posed by the job (Spector, 1988). Spector (1986) found that high levels of perceived work locus control were associated with high levels of job satisfaction, commitment and involvement, and low levels of stress, absenteeism and turnover. Furthermore, Spector (1982) found that work locus of control is related to effort, performance, motivation, compliance with authority, and also acts as a moderator in the relationship between incentives and motivation, satisfaction and turnover.

 According to Rotter (1966) human behaviour is determined by individual factors (traits) rather than environmental factors (situations). This suggests that work locus of control is a stable personality attribute. However situationist and social learning theorists held opposing views. Endler and Edwards (1978) argued that human behaviour is determined to a greater extent by situations rather than genetic factors. This implies that work locus of control is a state determined by the environmental influences surrounding the individual at a particular space and time. Progressively, Endler (1976) suggested that locus of control should be viewed in the paradigm of interactionism rather than trait or situational one. In terms of the
interactionist perspective, notions of stability (generality) in personality and variability (specificity) are a matter of degree not kind, much like a continuum. Such an understanding of locus of control construct opposes the unidimensionality and stability in locus of control beliefs (Rotter, 1981). Work locus of control is therefore not static, but has the potential to change as a result of environmental aspects. A basis for this argument is demonstrated in the research of Furnham (1998) who found that labour market discrimination can have a strong impact on locus of control. For this reason, it is expected that job insecurity will be associated with an external locus of control (given the feelings of lack of control over one’s employment future). This, in turn, will be associated with a decreased level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, given that previous research, has linked increased job insecurity with decreased job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The organisation in which this research was conducted is currently experiencing increased absenteeism rates. Absence where a large number of employees do not turn up for work at all can sometimes be most difficult type of absenteeism to handle- simply because there could be a host of reasons for this. Management utilised the platform of this research project to sift some of the causalities from the employees before deciding what actions to take. The trade union on the other hand proposed to management that according to their members, the absenteeism is a tactic to provoke management to look at their current company demographics (majority white). They proposed that management needs to re-look and revise their transformational policies and set in strategies to rectify the situation.

Based upon the above problem statement, the following hypotheses are proposed for this research:

H1: Work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction.

H2: Work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.

H3: Employees of different demographic groups vary in terms of their experience of job insecurity.
AIMS OF RESEARCH

The general objectives of this research was to determine the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment and work locus of control, and to determine how demographic groups differ in experience of job insecurity.

METHOD

The research was undertaken through two phases: a literature review and an empirical investigation.

Research design

A cross-sectional survey design was used to reach the research objectives, whereby a sample is drawn from a population at one time (Shaughnessy & 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).

Study population

The total population of 500 co-operation workers in the North-West Province was targeted, although a response rate of only 286 participants was obtained resulting in a response rate of 57.2%. The population includes workers from different levels, i.e. ranging from semi-skilled employees to professional employees. The lowest skilled level employees have a level of literacy adequate to allow for valid completion of the questionnaires. The demographic characteristics of the study population are detailed in Table 1.
Table 1

Compilation of the Study Population (N = 286)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male (1)</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>65.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female (2)</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Black (1)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White (2)</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>88.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (3)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>24 years and younger (1)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25-35 years (2)</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-45 years (3)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-55 years (4)</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56 years and older (5)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>0 to Grade 7 (1)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 8 to Grade 10 (2)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 10 to Grade 12 (3)</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>58.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma (4)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree (5)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post graduate degree (6)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Less than 1 year (1)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-5 years (2)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10 years (3)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-20 years (4)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Longer than 20 years (5)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, it can be said that the majority of the participants were male (65.4%) when compared to females (34.6%). In terms of culture, white participants (88.5%) dominated the study population. The age group 25-35 years was the highest representing 30.4%, with age group 24 years and younger, the smallest (5.2%). The majority of the study population regarding qualifications ranges between Grade 10 to Grade 12 (58.7%), while 13% have at least a diploma. The tenure of the participants was rather equally spread with people working for 2-5 years to 11-20 years in the majority (25.2%).
Measuring instruments

The following standardised measuring instruments were used in the empirical study: The Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) (Ashford et al., 1989), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire-Affective (OCQ) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) and Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) (Spector, 1988). Demographic information regarding race, age, qualification, tenure and gender was also gathered.

The Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) (Ashford et al., 1989)

The Job Insecurity Scale was used as the measure of job insecurity. The 57 items are divided into three subscales, namely Job Features (importance of job features X perceived threat to job features), Total Job (importance of possible changes to job X perceived threat to total job) and Powerlessness. The 34 items of the Job Features subscale are divided into two parts. The first part captures the importance of job features along a five-point scale, varying from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important). An example of a question relating to the importance of job features is: "In your work-life, how important is having promotion opportunities to you personally?" The second part captures the perceived threat to job features according to a five-point scale from 1 (negative change very unlikely) to 5 (negative change very likely). An example of a question to be rated according to perceived job feature is: "Looking to the future, what is the probability that changes could occur – changes you don’t want or might disagree with – that would negatively affect your potential to get ahead in the organisation?"

The 20 items of the subscale Total Job are also divided into two parts. The first part relates to capturing the importance of possible changes to a total job along a five-point scale, varying from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important). An example of a question to be rated regarding the importance of possible changes to a total job is: "Assume for a moment that the following event could happen to you; how important to you personally that you may lose your job and be moved to a lower level within the organisation?" The second part captures the perceived threat to total job along a five-point scale from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). An example of a question to be asked in accordance with the perceived threat to a total job is: "Thinking about your future, how likely is it that this event might actually occur to you in your current job – be moved to a higher position within your current location?" The three items of the Powerlessness subscale are arranged along a five-point scale, varying from...
1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example of a question to be asked relating to powerlessness is: "I have enough power in this organisation to control events that might affect my job". The JIS has been shown to be reliable with the three subscales attaining alpha coefficients of the Job Features subscale (0.85), the Total Job subscale (0.75), and the Powerlessness subscale (0.83) (Ashford et al., 1989). It must be noted that this is the third South African research project in which the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) is being used. Leach (2006) obtained the following alpha coefficients: Job Features subscale (0.91), the Job Features Threats (0.96) and Powerlessness (0.77).

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (shortened version) was used to indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied respondents are with their jobs by asking respondents to rate themselves on 20 questions, using a five-point scale (1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied). The MSQ short form measures intrinsic job satisfaction, using items such as: "The chance to do things that don’t go against my conscience" and extrinsic job satisfaction using items such as: "The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community". Hirschfeld (2000) found that a two-factor model (intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction) is superior to a one-factor model (total job satisfaction). Alpha coefficients were found to range from 0.87 to 0.95, which supports the internal consistency of the scale (Lam, Baum, & Pine, 1998; Hirschfeld, 2000). Selepe (2004) obtained a reliability coefficient of 0.86 for extrinsic job satisfaction and 0.92 for intrinsic job satisfaction.

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire-Affective (OCQ) (Meyer et al., 1993)

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to measure the affective organisational commitment of the participants using items such as: "I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own". This measure consists of 8 items. Inter-correlations between populations were found to be consistently above 0.90 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The internal consistency for this subscale of the questionnaire has been confirmed at the 0.80 level (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Laage (2003) obtained Alpha coefficients of 0.81 for affective organisational commitment. The research of Laba, Bosman and Buitendach (2005) also obtained an internal consistency of 0.87 for affective organisational commitment.
The Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) (Spector, 1988)

The Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) was used to measure the participants’ work locus of control and consists of 16 items with a six-point scale (1 = totally disagree to 6 = totally agree). The Work Locus of Control Scale measures internal and external work locus of control using items like, "Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck" for external work locus of control, whereas an item relating to an internal work locus of control would for example be, "If employees are unhappy with decision made by their boss, they should do something about it". According to the findings obtained by Spector (1988), Cronbach alpha coefficients for this questionnaire, vary between 0.75 and 0.85, while evidence exists for the construct validity of the WLCS (Spector, 1988). The research of Bosman and Buitendach (2005) delivered an alpha coefficient of 0.82.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The SPSS programme (SPSS Inc, 2005) was used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability and validity of the measuring instruments, descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, MANOVA, ANOVA and multiple regression analyses.

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out to assess the construct validity of all the measuring instruments employed in this study. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, and skewness and kurtosis were used to analyse the data. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were also used to specify the relationship between the variables. A cut-off point of 0.30, which represents a medium effect (Cohen, 1988), was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients. MANOVA and ANOVA were computed to determine the differences between job insecurity and various demographic groups (gender, culture, age, qualifications and tenure). Regression analyses were computed so as to test for mediation.
RESULTS

Confirmatory factor analysis of the measuring instruments

Principal component analysis could not be conducted on the JIS due to insufficiency of the population size in comparison to the number of items contained in the scale.

A principal component analysis was conducted on the 20 items of the MSQ. The analysis of eigenvalues for the MSQ (larger than 1) and the scree-plot confirmed the two-factor structure of the questionnaire and these factors together explain 52% of the total variance within the questionnaire. A simple principal component analysis was conducted on the 6 items of the affective OCQ. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and scree plot indicated that one factor could be extracted, explaining 43% of the total variance. A principle component analysis was conducted on the 16 items of the WLCS. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and the scree-plot indicated a two-factor structure and that these factors cumulatively explain 48% of the total variance within the questionnaire.

The descriptive statistics, alpha coefficients, skewness, kurtosis and inter-item correlations of the JIS, MSQ, OCQ- Affective and WLCS are given in Table 2.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-item Correlation Coefficients of the Measuring Instruments (JIS, MSQ, OCQ-Affective and WLCS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Inter-item r</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Feature Importance (JFI)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Feature Likelihood (JFL)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Features (JFI x JFL)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>200.14</td>
<td>72.46</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Job Importance (TJI)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-1.29</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Job Likelihood (TJL)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Job (TJI x TJL)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>112.15</td>
<td>43.78</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity 1 (JF + TJ)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>312.29</td>
<td>95.86</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity 2 (JFL + TJL)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerlessness (P)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Features * Power</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>584.41</td>
<td>301.43</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Job * Power</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>324.12</td>
<td>165.25</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully Composite Job Insecurity</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>908.54</td>
<td>418.34</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSQ (Intrinsic)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSQ (Extrinsic)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLCS</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ (Affective)</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 demonstrated that acceptable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were obtained for most measuring instruments with exception of the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS), which demonstrated a Cronbach’s alpha slightly below the norm of $\alpha > 0.70$ as set by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Most of the inter-item correlation coefficients were acceptable, although values falling very slightly beyond the $0.15 < r < 0.50$ guidelines as suggested by Clark and Watson (1995) were obtained for the Job Features likelihood and Powerlessness subscales (albeit still within acceptable parameters). Scores on most of the dimensions seemed to be distributed normally as skewness and kurtosis values were close to zero. It is sometimes found that a distribution is not normal. A distribution is said to be skewed when scores are massed at one or other end of the score scale (distributions that are not symmetrical). The term kurtosis refers to the peakness or flatness of a frequency distribution (Swanepoel, Swanepoel, Van Graan, Allison, Weideman, & Santana, 2006).

Pearson correlation coefficients between JIS, MSQ, OCQ-Affective and WLCS are reported in Table 3.
Table 3

Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the JIS, MSQ, OCQ-Affective and WLCS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Job Feature Importance (JFI)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Feature Likelihood (JFL)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Job Features (JFI x JFL)</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Total Job Importance (TJI)</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Total Job Likelihood (TJL)</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Total Job (TJI x TJL)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Job Insecurity 1 (JF + TJ)</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Job Insecurity 2 (JFL + TJL)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Powerlessness (P)</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Job Features * Power</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Total Job * Power</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Fully Composite JI</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. MSQ Intrinsic</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. MSQ Extrinsic</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. WLCS</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. OCQ Affective</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistically significant $p \leq 0.01$

†Correlations is practically significant $r \geq 0.30$ (medium effect)

‡‡Correlations is practically significant $r \geq 0.50$ (large effect)
For interpretation purposes it should be noted that a higher score on the fully composite job insecurity scale is indicative of security, whereas a lower score suggests higher levels of job insecurity. Table 3 demonstrated a statistically significant positive correlation between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction, although the correlation between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction was not statistically significant. This suggests that as job security increases, so does intrinsic job satisfaction. A statically significant positive correlation was found between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment, implying that as job security increases so does affective organisational commitment. Work locus of control demonstrated a statistically and practically significant (medium effect) correlation with fully composite job insecurity. Hence, job security increases commensurate with internal work locus of control and as job insecurity increases commensurate with external locus of control. Work locus of control demonstrated a practically significant positive relationship of medium effect with affective organisational commitment, suggesting that internal work locus of control is associated with higher levels of affective organisational commitment. Work locus of control demonstrated a practically significant positive correlation with intrinsic job satisfaction (large effect) and extrinsic job satisfaction (medium effect), suggests that higher levels of job satisfaction are associated with internal work locus of control.

Job insecurity and demographic characteristics

Next, MANOVA and ANOVA analyses follows in order to determine the differences in the job insecurity scores of various demographic groups such as gender, age, culture, qualifications and tenure, the results of which are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistically significant difference: p < 0.01
In an analysis of Wilk's Lambda values ($p < 0.01$), statistically significant differences were obtained for qualifications, but not for gender, culture, age and tenure. The relationship between job insecurity and qualifications was further analysed to determine practical significance using ANOVA, followed by Tukey HSD test. The results of the differences between job insecurity and qualifications are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5
ANOVA of Job Insecurity and Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 0 to 7</th>
<th>Grade 8 to 10</th>
<th>Grade 10 to 12</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Post-graduate degree</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>Root MSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>851.08</td>
<td>965.39</td>
<td>984.12</td>
<td>863.57</td>
<td>670.80*</td>
<td>751.52*</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Statistically significant difference: $p < 0.01$

Practically significant differences from type (in row) where a (medium effect, $d \geq 0.5$) or c (large effect, $d \geq 0.8$) are indicated.

It is evident from Table 5 that a practical and statistically significant difference of medium effect was found between employees with Grade 10 to Grade 12 and those employees with a degree. These results indicate that employees with higher qualifications might experience lower job insecurity compared to employees with less qualifications. A possible explanation for the findings can be that employees with higher qualifications feel that their employability rate is high as they have more skills than employees who are less qualified, whose skills might be limited. This finding is confirmed by the research conducted by Buitendach (2004) who also found that participants with higher educational levels (Grade 12 and tertiary) experienced less job insecurity than participants with qualifications lower than Grade 12. The same could be said with the practical and statistically significant difference of medium effect found between employees with Grade 10 to Grade 12 and employees with postgraduate qualifications.

Next, a series of multiple regression analyses were performed to test whether job insecurity predicted intrinsic job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, and to test whether work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and the dependent variables. Baron and Kenny (1986) recommended three steps in order to test for mediation. According to these authors, beta coefficients of different regression equations must be compared. Firstly the mediator should be predicted by the independent variable. Secondly, the dependent variable should be predicted by the mediator and the independent variable and lastly, the dependent variable should be regressed on the independent variable,
controlling for the mediator. If all steps prove significant, perfect mediation holds when, controlling for the mediator, the independent variable does not predict the dependent variable.

The possible mediating role of work locus of control in the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction was tested (Refer to Table 6). Firstly, regression analyses with job insecurity as independent variable (controlling for the influence of demographic variables) and work locus of control as dependent variable (not shown in Table 6) showed statistically significant F-values ($F = 5.384, p < 0.0001$). These results lend support to the first criterion set by Baron and Kenny (1986). Secondly, a regression analysis with job insecurity as independent variable (controlling for the influence of demographic variables) and intrinsic job satisfaction as dependent variable resulted in a statistically significant F-value ($F = 2.621, p < 0.05$). Regression analyses with intrinsic job satisfaction as dependent variable and work locus of control as predictor, also showed statistically significant results ($F = 23.140, p < 0.0001$). These results provide support for the second criterion of Baron and Kenny (1986) and lastly, in order to test adherence to the third criterion, intrinsic job satisfaction was regressed on job insecurity, controlling for the work locus of control, the results of which are provided in Table 6.
Table 6

Regression Analysis -Job Insecurity and Work Locus of Control: Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>95.21</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>F = 4.34</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>p = 0.003</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Model 2: job insecurity and work locus of control**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.83</td>
<td>14.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>67.86</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>F = 59.06</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>p = 0.000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDEPENDENT VARIABLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job insecurity</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job insecurity</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work locus of control</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>10.58</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistically significant: p ≤ 0.05

From Table 6, it is evident that the regression coefficient of job insecurity became statistically insignificant upon inclusion of work locus of control, and that standardised regression coefficient (beta) of job insecurity decreased from 0.12 to -0.05 upon controlling for work locus of control. Based upon Baron and Kenny’s (1986) third criterion, which states that perfect mediation would be applicable when the independent variable does not predict the dependent variable when controlling for the mediator, work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction.

The possible mediating role of work locus of control in the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment was tested (Refer to Table 7). Firstly, regression analyses with job insecurity as independent variable (controlling for the influence of demographic variables) and work locus of control as dependent variable (not shown in Table 6) showed statistically significant F-values (F = 5.384, p < 0.0001). These results concur with the first criterion set by Baron and Kenny (1986). Secondly, a regression analysis with job insecurity as independent variable (controlling for the influence of demographic
variables) and affective organisational commitment as dependent variable resulted in a statistically significant F-value ($F = 5.956$, $p < 0.0001$). Regression analysis with affective organisational commitment as dependent variable and work locus of control as predictor, also showed statistically significant results ($F = 14.862$, $p < 0.0001$). These results provide support for the second criterion of Baron and Kenny (1986) and lastly, in order to test adherence to the third criterion, affective organisational commitment was regressed on job insecurity, controlling for the work locus of control, the results of which are provided in Table 7.

Table 7

Regression Analysis – Job Insecurity and Work Locus of Control: Affective Organisational Commitment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE</th>
<th>Model 1: job insecurity</th>
<th>Model 2: job insecurity and work locus of control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R$: 0.14</td>
<td>Source of variation</td>
<td>$df$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$: 0.19</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$: 0.16</td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F = 5.60$</td>
<td>$p = 0.019$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R$: 0.39</td>
<td>Source of variation</td>
<td>$df$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$: 0.15</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$: 0.16</td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F = 25.77$</td>
<td>$p = 0.000$</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDEPENDENT VARIABLES</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job insecurity</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job insecurity</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work locus of control</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>6.71</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistically significant: $p \leq 0.05$

The regression analysis reflected in Table 7 indicates that the regression coefficient of job insecurity became statistically insignificant upon inclusion of work locus of control, as well as that the standardised regression coefficient (beta) of job insecurity decreased when controlling for work locus of control. Based upon Baron and Kenny's (1986) third criterion, which states that perfect mediation would be applicable when the independent variable does
not predict the dependent variable when controlling for the mediator, perfect mediation is evident in this regard. Work locus of control thus mediates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control of employees in a co-operation and how demographic groups differ in their experience of job insecurity.

All the measuring instruments used in this study were found to have adequate levels of internal consistency. The MSQ and OCQ presented with appropriate factor structures. Factor analysis of the WLCS demonstrated two factors. Spector (1988) however proposed that the WLCS is a unidimensional scale, where internal and external locus of control lie at opposite ends on a continuum. Nevertheless, numerous studies (e.g. Botha & Pienaar, 2006; Bothma, 2006; Daniels & Guppy, 1994; Labuschagne, 2005; Macan, Trusty, & Trimble, 1996) have found support for a two-factor structure.

The results obtained in this study, confirmed a relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction. There was no statistically significant relationship found between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction. This finding is in contrast with the research of Buitendach and De Witte (2005), who suggested that job insecurity is associated with both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Thinane (2005), however, obtained similar results in her study of job insecurity and job satisfaction in a tertiary institution. The results furthermore indicated that higher levels of job insecurity are associated with lower levels of affective organisational commitment. Findings by Laba (2005), Probst (1999) and Van Vuuren (1990) confirmed the findings that suggested that organisational commitment will decrease when job insecurity prevails.

It was found that higher levels of job insecurity are associated with external work locus of control, and lower levels of job insecurity are associated with internal work locus of control. This finding concurs with the empirical findings of Labuschagne (2005), who conducted research in a government organisation. Internal work locus of control also demonstrated an association with higher levels of affective organisational commitment and intrinsic and
extrinsic job satisfaction. Pretorius and Rothmann (2001), as well as Labuschagne (2005) also found an association between work locus of control and job satisfaction, as well as Coleman, Irving, and Cooper (1999) and Luthans et al. (1987). Earlier research of Spector (1982) found that high levels of internal work locus control were associated with high levels of organisational commitment than externals.

Regression analyses demonstrated that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction. The relationship between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction was however not significant. These results thus lend partial support to hypothesis 1, which states that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction. Regression analyses furthermore confirmed that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment. Hypothesis 2 is thus accepted.

It was found that individuals with higher qualifications (degrees and postgraduate degrees) experienced lower levels of job insecurity compared to employees with lower qualifications i.e. Grade 10 to Grade 12. This finding corresponds with the findings of previous South African researchers, e.g. Buitendach (2004) and Bosman (2005). Hypothesis 3 can thus be partially accepted. No differences in the job insecurity levels of the various other demographic groups were found (e.g. tenure, gender, culture, and age). However, in a study conducted by Näswall, Sverke, and Hellgren (2005) concerning the relationship between gender and levels of job insecurity indicated that men experience a stronger relation between the experience of job insecurity and its negative consequences compared to women. This has been supported by earlier research of Rosenblatt, Talmud, and Ruvio (1999). Rannona’s (2003) empirical findings in his study conducted in the mining industry suggested that black employees experienced higher levels of job insecurity than their white colleagues. This finding is supported by prior research conducted by Elbert (2002) in a parastatal. Mohr (2000) documented a correlation between age and job insecurity, which is taken as evidence that older employees are experiencing higher levels of job insecurity compared to younger employees. Concerning tenure, the research of Rannona (2003) reported no significant relationship between job insecurity and tenure. This finding is supported by the research Bosman (2005) in a government organisation.
LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study had several limitations. Firstly, the sample was not representative of culture (race): 253 participants were white compared to only 25 black participants, making it impossible to test for cultural equivalence of measuring instruments, which is important in a South African context. Stratified random sampling could ensure better representation of the different groups and the usage questionnaires in various vernacular languages could add an advantage.

Research is also needed on other occupations and professions to establish norms for job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and work locus of control. Larger sample sizes might provide increased confidence that research findings would be consistent across other similar groups.

The limitations of this research were that the results were obtained from one sample of employees in a co-operation with specific paper and pencil, self-report measures, which could limit the objectivity of results. In the future research, use of qualitative, as well as objective measures could be combined with the self-report questionnaires. Cross-sectional design, as was used in this study, is not ideal for making causal interpretations and longitudinal studies will be ideal for future research.

Regarding the measuring instruments used in this study, the JIS is a new instrument and has not been used in South Africa to a great extent. More research is needed concerning the reliability and validity of the JIS in a South African context regarding its subscales.

According to the primary results, job insecurity was associated with decreased intrinsic job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, and it also found to be mediated by work locus of control. According to this finding it will then be pivotal to have in place interventions that reduce the levels of job insecurity and stimulate a more internal work locus of control among employees. Feelings of job insecurity or uncertainty during change periods are typically associated with poor communicated mission and objectives of the change itself. According to Buono and Bowditch (1989) the aim of change, process and expected outcomes of the change process, as well as the perceived implications that change holds for both the organisation and individual employees must be crystal clear from the initial phase. Appelbaum and Donia (2000) emphasised that communication is essential in building trust,
loyalty and empowerment within employees. Better communication structures minimize the grapevine in work place that provokes feelings of uncertainty and job insecurity. Coleman et al. (1999) opined that communication is a useful tool for enhancing job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Two important resources at work are control at work and competencies/skills. Resources in the sense of control or participation in decision making assist individual employees to have an influence on how to do their work and it also stimulates them to be more accountable and responsible for their actions. Jackson (1983) deduced that effects of enhanced participation (increase of group meetings) in decision making increased power, information, and social support and conversely decreased emotional stress, absence frequency, and turnover intentions. According to the environment fit theory, individuals can increase their fit by developing their competence to deal with environmental demands. Increasing individual competence and skills is also an aspect of resources, without the necessary skills it is not possible to use control (Frese, 1989). Two arguments speak for the importance of competence as a resource in reducing job insecurity and stress. First, “working smarter, not harder” is a good description of what super-workers, i.e. excellent performers do (Frese & Zapf, 1994; Sonnentag, 2000); since working smart implies using efficient rather than inefficient action strategies, this means that there is less stress when working smart. Secondly, self-efficacy is intimately related to competence. Bandura (1997) has argued for the strain reducing function of self-efficacy in various domains and has shown that self-efficacy (e.g., via mastery experiences that increase the competence to deal with difficult situations) plays an important role in the strain reduction process.

An additional resource is education, training and development. The empirical results of this study indicated that employees on lower levels of qualifications experience higher levels of job insecurity compared to those employees with higher education levels. The skills development strategy can be adopted to empower individual employees with all the necessary education and training for them to do their jobs well and survive in the current trends of employment. To retain talented workers, Hiltrop (1996) suggested organisations can no longer rely solely on traditional methods (careers, status and promotion). He suggested current trends like personal reputation, challenging assignments and cross training to be implemented by organisation to maintain their high performers.
In summary, the research process was stated in depth, the results were reported and the aims were discussed. Limitations and recommendations were indicated and the hypotheses were analysed and confirmed.
CHAPTER REFERENCES


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CHAPTER 3

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 3 presents a discussion on the results of the research. In this chapter, conclusions regarding the literature study and the results of the empirical research will also be made. Shortcomings of the research will be discussed, and recommendations for the organisation and future research will be provided.

3.1 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical objectives and the results of the empirical research will be made.

3.1.1 Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical objectives

With regard to the first specific objective highlighted in chapter 1, job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control, were conceptualised from literature.

Job insecurity was conceptualised as an individual's expectations about continuity in a job situation, raising concern about the future existence of the job. For the purpose of this study, the multidimensional perspective of job insecurity was adopted. This view, argued that job insecurity refers not only to the degree of uncertainty about a possible job loss, but also the continuity of certain job dimensions, such as opportunities for promotion (Ferrie, 1997; Joelion & Wahlquist, 1987). In addition, the multidimensional framework emphasised that job insecurity has the following components: firstly, it is a subjective experience or perception, as different employees might perceive the same situation differently. Secondly, job insecurity implies doubts about the continuation of the job and uncertainty regarding the future: this is central to job insecurity (Lee, Bobko, & Chen, 2006). In this research, job insecurity was also viewed as a stressor. Working individuals experience stress in situations where they perceive that the demands in the environment exceed their capacity to deal with them. The stress process can lead to dividend strain affecting employee well-being, leading to
lowered job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kirkcaldy, Shephard, & Furnham, 2002).

**Job satisfaction** was conceptualised as an individual's general attitude towards his or her job. A person with high levels of job satisfaction has a positive attitude about the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job has a negative attitude about the job. It is also described as an emotional reaction to the job, resulting from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes. Employees will experience job satisfaction if they feel their individual capabilities and values are utilised in their work environment and that their environment offers them opportunities and rewards them accordingly (Weiss & Cronpanzano, 1996). Job satisfaction has two distinct components, namely intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. **Intrinsic job satisfaction** refers to how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves while the **extrinsic job satisfaction** refers to how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself (Hirschfeld, 2000).

**Organisational Commitment** has been conceptualised as a multidimensional construct, but research, however, illustrated that one of the three dimensions is more relevant than the other two subscales (continuance and normative commitment) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The focus of this research was therefore on affective organisational commitment as a core concept of organisational commitment. **Affective organisational commitment** was conceptualised in literature as an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Meyer, Stanley, Hersovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Affective organisational commitment is also related to a strong belief in the organisation's goals, values, and a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and also a strong desire to remain a member of that particular organisation (Siu, 2002).

Because affective commitment has profitable effects on organisational functioning, anything that improves our understanding of how employees acquire this type of commitment is useful for organisations. Several studies have found that employees with internal work locus of control are more likely to be affectively committed to the organisation.
Work locus of control refers to the perception that one can personally affect particular work outcomes. Those with an internal work locus of control (internals) believe that work outcomes are based on their own effort and ability. Conversely, those with an external work locus of control (externals) believe that work outcomes depend on external factors such as luck, or knowing the right people (Spector, 1988).

Work locus of control is a construct that has become important in improving understanding of humans in the work environment and understanding individual responsiveness towards challenges posed by the job (Spector, 1988). Spector (1986) found that high levels of perceived work locus control were associated with high levels of job satisfaction, commitment and involvement, and low levels of stress, absenteeism and turnover.

According to Endler (1976) work locus of control is not only viewed as a trait or a state but as an interaction between both the individual and environmental factors. The person-environment-fit theory states that when individuals are competent and in control to meet the demands made by their work environments then the better the fit but when they loose control completely, strain will result. This suggests that having a sense of control is a critical element in successful psychological adjustment to not only to work but also other dimensions of life (Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982; Skinner, 1996).

3.1.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical objectives

In line with the second specific objective, the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and work locus of control among employees in a co-operation was determined.

Empirical results suggested that job insecurity was significantly related to intrinsic job satisfaction, but not with extrinsic job satisfaction. These results correspond with the empirical findings of Thinane (2005) carried out in a tertiary educational institutions and earlier research of Ashford, Lee, and Bobko (1989). However, this finding is in contradiction with the study of Buitendach and De Witte (2005), who suggest that job insecurity is associated with both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Furthermore, the results indicated that job insecurity also lowers affective organisational commitment. This finding is in contrast with the findings of Heymans (2002), who found that there is no statistically
significant relationship between job insecurity and organisational commitment. Laba (2005), however, obtained similar results in her study of job insecurity, burnout and organisational commitment in a financial institution confirming that when job insecurity increases then affective organisational commitment will decrease.

Job insecurity was found to be associated with external work locus of control and conversely, lower levels of job insecurity were found to be associated with internal work locus of control. The empirical results of Labuschagne (2005), who conducted her research in a government organisation, demonstrated similar results. Furthermore, internal work locus of control demonstrated an association with higher levels of affective organisational commitment and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Coleman, Irving, and Cooper (1999) along with Labuschagne (2005) established the relation between work locus of control and job satisfaction. Finding of Spector (1982) established an association between work locus of control and affective organisational commitment.

The second specific empirical objective was to determine whether the demographic groups differ with regard to their experience of job insecurity. A practically significant difference was found to exist between employees with higher levels of qualifications (degrees and postgraduate degrees) and employees with lower levels of qualifications (Grade 10 to Grade 12). This suggests, therefore, that employees with lower levels of qualifications might experience more job insecurity as compared to those employees with higher qualifications. This finding concurs with research by Sverke et al. (2004). Their research indicated that the highest levels of job insecurity were reported by those with lower levels of education. In the changing nature of work, the era of unskilled labour economy belongs to ancient times. Organisations need to embark in skills development programmes and adopt a learning organisational approach as a business strategy to stay competitive in the new economy.

No further differences were obtained with regard to gender, age, culture and tenure. These findings are inconsistent with various South African studies (Manski & Straub, 2000; Orpen, 1993) who reported differences regarding job insecurity and culture (race). Regarding culture, some researchers (Manski & Straub, 2000; Orpen, 1993) found that black employees experience heightened job insecurity as compared to white employees, whereas other, more recent research (e.g. Bosman, 2005; Buitendach, 2004) found that white employees are more insecure than black employees with the possible explanation of Employment Equity Act No.
55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998). Regarding age and job insecurity, De Witte's (1999) found that potential unemployment is most distressing for respondents between the ages of approximately 30 to 50 years. Yousef (2000) found that satisfaction with job security tended to increase commensurate with tenure. Bosman (2005) did not find any differences in the job insecurity levels of participants with different qualifications, different levels of tenure and of different ages.

The third specific empirical objective was to determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value for job satisfaction. Regression analysis indicated that job insecurity held 12% predictive value with regard to intrinsic job satisfaction, which corresponds with the findings of Labuschagne (2005), who found that job insecurity holds 14% predictive value for job satisfaction. No significant relationship was found between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction.

The fourth specific empirical objective was to determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value for affective organisational commitment. The results indicated that job insecurity holds 16% predictive value with regard affective organisational commitment. This finding concurs with the findings of Laba (2005), who found that job insecurity holds 32% predictive value for organisational commitment.

The fifth specific empirical objective was to determine whether work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction in a co-operation. Regression analyses demonstrated that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction. Labuschagne (2005) found that work locus of control partially mediates the relationship between cognitive job insecurity and job satisfaction.

The sixth specific empirical objective was to determine whether work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment in a co-operation. Regression analyses indicated that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.
3.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The following limitations can be identified in this study.

The targeted population in this study was 500, but only 286 questionnaires were received.

Another limitation of this study is the distribution of cultural groups and the sampling method. 253 White participants compared to only 25 black participants made it impossible to test for cultural equivalence of measuring instruments, which is essential in the South African context. Future studies could benefit by making use of random, stratified sampling with the proportionate inclusion of all cultural groups. The lack of diversity among the respondents could therefore have influenced the results.

One of the limitations is that self-report measures (questionnaires) were exclusively relied upon. Interviews with selective employees could have enhanced this study.

Only one company was used in this research, which raises the possibility of a specific organisational culture influencing responses. The use of a cross-sectional study design also represents a limitation. In respect of research design, future studies should focus on longitudinal designs where inferences in terms of cause and effect could be made.

3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations are made with regard to the applicable organisation, as well as with regard to future research.

3.3.1 Recommendations for the organisation

It was established from the empirical results that work locus of control mediates the relationship between job insecurity and intrinsic job satisfaction, as well as job insecurity and affective organisational commitment. According to Spector’s (1998) control model of stress, control helps filter perceptions of situations, affecting their appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) as being benign or threatening. A person who perceives low control is more inclined to appraise situations as job stressors, which is likely to lead to job strains and job insecurity. To
reinforce internal work locus control the organisation can conduct assessment centres that will use vigorous and thorough assessment tools to measure this dimension and incorporate workshops that will promote self-awareness and self-growth. Stimulation of an internal work locus of control can navigate the impact of job insecurity and increase job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Unclear and ambiguous intentions/objectives for change tend to instil feelings of uncertainty and insecurity among employees. It is recommended to organisations to improve their communication structures to lower this negative impact mostly caused by the grape-vine phenomena. Appelbaum and Donia (2000) stress the importance of communication in developing trust and empowerment within employees. Better communication structures that clearly indicate the transformation process and expectations of management can minimize rumours and misconceptions that might bring up feelings of job insecurity and strain to employees. Communication can be seen as a useful tool in building trust and enhancing job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment for organisations (Coleman et al., 1999).

Higher job insecurity levels were demonstrated by those participants with lower qualifications (as compared to those with tertiary qualifications). Management must practice the traditional principles of learning organisations, such as skills development to buffer for job insecurity. Training and development can be empowering and value-adding for both the organisation and to those employees with lower levels of qualifications, with interventions like adult basic education and training (ABET), skills programmes and on the job cross-training.

For employees to experience intrinsic job satisfaction, they want their individual capabilities and values to be utilised to the maximum in their work. According Caldwell, Herold, and Fedor (2004) the idea of person-environment fit suggest the need for policy to support the matching of workers to jobs. This can be done by creating opportunities for workers to acquire skills, knowledge, power and providing them with the capacity to freely choose the type of work and the arrangements of work that best fit with their individual attributions and life situations.
Lastly, to improve satisfaction and affective commitment management can make use of
career counsellors as a mechanism for assisting employees who feel insecure (Holm &
Hovland, 1999). The counsellors must provide career development programs that focus on
developing individual strengths and competencies rather than trying to change employees’
weaknesses. Management can also customise the job content of incumbents to be as
challenging as possible, and offer them benchmarks and competitive incentives.

As affective organisational commitment has disparate effects on organisational functioning, it
is then essential that this type of commitment be instilled on all employees. High levels of
affective organisational commitment can enhance an employee’s level of motivation and
produce the required behaviour and it has a positive impact on employees’ readiness to
innovation and change (Dessler, 1999). Managers in the organisation must make sure that
employees are suited in the right positions (person-job-fit) and also provide sufficient support
(continued performance appraisal and have employee assistance programmes in place to
ensure employee well-ness initiatives like work-life-balance).

3.3.2 Recommendations for future research

Regarding the measuring instruments used in this research, the JIS is a relatively new
instrument and has not been used in South African context to a large extent. More research is
needed regarding the reliability and validity of the JIS subscales in a South African context.
The relationship between job insecurity as measured by JIS and other variables, as well as
work-related outcomes across different organisations and professions in South Africa can be
valuable.

By conducting research regarding the validity and reliability of the JIS, MSQ, OCQ-Affective
and WLCS in a variety of occupational groups, professions, organisations and industries,
norm groups can be developed. These groups can then be compared with one another to
identify occupations that are most at risk.

It is recommended that more powerful sampling methods be used and that longitudinal design
be employed, in order to enable causal inferences. Making use of stratified random sampling
rather than a cross sectional design, will eliminate inequalities as found in this research.
Supplementary longitudinal research is required into methods of minimising job insecurity in organisations. Structures and models based on positive psychology needs to be developed as interventions to effectively manage job insecurity, and this needs to be carried over a continued period as the world of work is not static.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

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 organisation in which the study was conducted, as well as for future research. All theoretical and empirical objectives formulated for this research, have been deduced.
CHAPTER REFERENCES


