CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES

1.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 presents a broad overview of the study. More specifically, the following areas will be outlined: background of the problem, motivation for the study, problem statement, introducing a predictive model, the primary research question, the theoretical and empirical objective and an outline of the remaining chapters.

1.2 Background of the Problem

South African nursing is in a crisis as scores of professionals seek alternative employment or opt to leave the country in search of lucrative work overseas. This exodus will have a catastrophic effect on the delivery of health care over the next decade (“A profession in crisis”; Brits, 2003; Derby, 2003; Thom, 2003). Figures of the South African Nursing Council (SANC) show that at least 300 professional nurses leave the country per month and that there are currently 31,000 vacant nursing posts in South Africa (Liebenberg, 2003; Pienaar, 2003, Van Eeden, 2003). According to the Human Sciences Research Council it is estimated that South Africa will have a shortage of 19,000 nurses within 8 years (Brits, 2003; Olivier, 2003). To make this scenario even worse, the Faculty of Health Sciences at the University of Cape Town, estimated that the numbers of nurses leaving the country are in excess of the number of potential graduating students (Thom, 2003).

South Africa’s well trained health professionals are a sought-after resource in high-paying industrial countries (“Doors to close”, 2003). Over the last five years, a total amount of 6739 nurses worked in Britain alone. The shortage of professional nurses in Britain also negatively impact on the retention figures in South Africa. In 1997 a turnover rate of 14% was reported in Britain and only 68% of registered nurses were actually working in the profession (Shields & Ward, 2001). Newman, Maylor and Chansarkar
(2002) reported that the nursing workforce in Britain is being sustained by overseas recruitment. From 1990 to 2002 the number of South African professional nurses working in other countries increased by 500% (Smit, 2003c). According to the SANC there are approximately 93 000 registered professional nurses in South Africa, of whom only about 3800 have an intensive care qualification. Of this pool, 20% are either non-practicing or in non-related employment. A private hospital group reports 20% to 30% of positions as vacant, and that their specialized units are only 50% filled (Smit, 2003b). There is also, the bleak projection that 21% of registered nurses will be HIV – positive by the year 2015 in South Africa (“A profession in crisis”, 2003). Excessive changes in turnover result in a waste of human power and needless loss in production and profit (Okpara, 2004). Over and above the financial implications, the shortages of staff due to the brain drain and turnover problems in hospitals are also creating various other problems for employees. They are the following:

(1) The shortage of personnel leads to enormous pressure on existing employees (Jewkes, Abrahams & Mvo, 1998; Newman et al., 2002; Ramadikela, 2003; Smit, 2003b). Seo, Ko & Price (2004) reported that nurses regard heavy workloads assigned by supervisors as an important antecedent of job stress and job dissatisfaction.

(2) Jewkes et al. (1998), in a large-scale study has shown that contrary to popular nursing beliefs on the caring profession, nurse–patient relationships in parts of the South African public health services are at times characterised by conflict, clinical neglect, verbal and physical abuse. The Medical Research Council of South Africa and the Institute of Criminology at the University of Cape Town research findings show that 40% of nurses are regularly victims of foul language and 6% are mildly or seriously physically abused (Smit, 2003c). In some instances, it is reported that doctors and nurses alike work under appalling conditions and as many as 70 percent intend to leave South Africa (Ramadikela, 2003). A contributing factor to this problem is that hospitals are overcrowded and staff shortages persist (Jewkes et al., 1998).
(3) Professional nurses experience mental and physical fatigue. Agencies, employing part-time nurses, provide nurses for hospitals who are also permanently employed there. A prominent part-time agency reported that they provided more than a million temporary staff placements annually (Smit, 2003b). In most instances, these agencies utilize the permanent pool of nurses. This situation creates enormous problems of mental and physical fatigue as some nurses work 18 to 22 hours per day (Smit, 2003b; Smit, 2003c).

(4) The shortage of personnel, as well as the mental and physical fatigue experienced by professional nurses, leads to incorrect decision-making and the SANC confirmed that there has been a substantial increase in medico-legal incidents (Smit, 2003b).

(5) The above mentioned problems have a significant affect on patient care in South Africa. Large scale studies have shown that nursing care accounts for 45% of variance in overall quality care ratings, far more than any other service such as doctors, housekeeping and food services (Leiter, Harvie & Frizzell, 1998). Nursing is at the heart of providing patient care and staff shortages threaten service capability and the quality of patient care (Essop, 2003; Newman et al, 2002; Smetherham & Laurance, 2003). The “poor” distribution of nurses between public and private sectors in South Africa, as well as between the urban and rural areas, also affect patient care (“Doors to close”, 2003).

According to the Faculty of Health Sciences at the University of Cape Town, the causes of the crisis are not easy to identify, but driving forces include poor working conditions in hospitals, increased pressure on the remaining staff caused by critical staff shortages, low and inequitable salaries, little scope for further training and lack of respect and acknowledgement from other medical professions (Thom, 2003). This may be a world-wide phenomenon as nurses in Britain reported working long hours, heavy workloads, staff shortages, an inability to finish shifts on time, overtime and unpaid overtime, vacancies left unfilled, lack of funds for training and development and a culture of nurses
using their own time and money to undertake training as reasons for their unhappiness (Newman et al., 2002). While the lack of growth opportunities are often mentioned as underlying reasons for dissatisfaction, it seems that high turnover further discourages investments in training. The high turnover rate makes companies profoundly uneasy about the cost-effectiveness of their investment in training. If the length of service of an employee in the company is uncertain, the employee can move to, or be bought by a competitor at any moment, even before the training investment has been recovered (Forrier & Sels, 2003).

Taking the current scenario into perspective, it is clear that employers in the health and hospital sector must ask serious questions about the retention of their professional nurses. Employers must seriously embark on strategies to retain and utilize their talent.

1.3 Motivation and Rationale for the Study

There are three important factors that make the retention of professional nurses almost uncontrollable for nursing employers in South Africa. Firstly, due to financial constraints, it is very often not possible to adapt to external forces like remuneration offerings from national and international competitors to retain talent. This sentiment is supported by Yin and Yang (2002) that nursing and hospital administrators have limited influence on external environmental factors. Figures show that professional nurses can earn double (in some cases 4 to 5 times) their salaries abroad while enjoying unrivalled benefits and attractive allowances (Pather, 2003; “Lure of the Pound”, 2003). Better compensation is one of the most important attractions to work overseas (Essop, 2003; Green, 2003; Liebenberg, 2003; Ramadikela, 2003; Smit 2003a). Two further factors related to compensation make it even worse for South African nursing employers. First of all, the current exchange rates make it very attractive for professional nurses to earn foreign money and retire in comfort, and secondly, tax-free salaries in the Middle-East are making it very hard for South African companies to compete (Kockott 2003a; Kockott 2003b; “Lure of the Pound”, 2003).
A second factor that makes the retention of professional nurses almost uncontrollable for nursing employers in South Africa, is the impact of job opportunity. Seo et al. (2004) referred to the degree of job availability outside the organisation as job opportunity and found that the greater the number of alternative jobs existing outside the organisation, the less likely nurses will be satisfied with their jobs. The impact of job opportunity on satisfaction is based on the assumption that an employee is free to seek employment elsewhere. It is assumed that employees will become dissatisfied if they know that similar employees elsewhere are getting more rewards. Unfortunately, this is the case due to the shortage of nurses. Job availability is extremely high and to worsen matters professional nurses are being actively sought and recruited by national and overseas agencies (Smetherham & Laurance, 2003).

The third factor that makes the retention of professional nurses uncontrollable for nursing employers, is the influence of globalisation and the tendency that a person’s career is enriched with overseas experience. The South African Medical Research Council is of the opinion that many health professionals leave the developing world not only for financial reasons, but to gain experience (Kockott, 2003b). Although this seems to be a positive trend, it is widely accepted that the migration is from the developing countries to the developed world, and not vice versa. Some figures released from the World Health Organisation in Geneva, Switzerland, indicate that Canada, the United Kingdom and the USA are increasingly relying on nurses from the developing countries to fill vacancies. For example, of the approximately 16 000 new registrations in the United Kingdom in 2002, over 50% were from abroad. South Africa is one of the five most prominent suppliers of these registrations (Vujicic, Zurn, Diallo, Adams & Dal Poz, 2004). Britain’s continued looting of the poorest nations of the world’s skilled medical staff is acknowledged by the newspaper “The Independent” in London on 12 May 2003 (Smetherham & Laurance, 2003).

It is therefore clear that nursing employers, even if they try their utmost, will find it difficult to control external forces, as well as the influence thereof on their employees. It can be assumed that a strategy to compete with external and especially overseas
competitors to retain professional nurses, will possibly yield limited success. The question may therefore be asked whether employers should not rather focus their retention strategies on things they can control internally to retain their employees (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998). An alternative approach, to build strategies around the needs and work circumstances of professional nurses, is therefore proposed.

One possible strategy on retaining professional nurses, as will be suggested in this study, is to re-explore and build talent retention strategies around the fulfillment of higher psychological needs of employees. Self-esteem and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1943), as well as growth needs (Alderfer, 1972) reflects individuals desire to grow and develop to their fullest potential. According to Jordaan and Jordaan (1998, p. 624) Maslow (1954) made provision in his hierarchy of needs for the cognitive needs of people. This means that every human being has the need to know, to understand, to utilize knowledge, to be curious and to live an exploratory life. The need for knowledge is not only a specific corpus of facts and things you know about, but also determine your access to and control of the generation, distribution and application of knowledge.

The above strategy is supported by the following assumptions:

1. It is clear from different reports that professional nurses feel that their professional status is not recognized (Smit, 2003a; Smit, 2003c; Thom, 2003). Seo et al. (2004) suggested that the level of job autonomy and job growth of hospital nurses is further restricted by physicians who have the power to decide the scope of nurses' work. Experience in the USA showed that nurses, who receive more recognition and autonomy, were more inclined to stay with their employers (Liebenberg, 2003). As stated, the lack of respect for nurses also creates enormous problems (“A profession in crisis”; Thom, 2003).

2. Lewis and Thomas (cited in Janssen, De Jonge & Bakker, 1999) reported that growth-related career needs were the most frequently mentioned underlying reasons for occupational change. These findings are theoretically plausible since
job insecurity, low opportunities to obtain a better position, or low opportunities to improve knowledge and skills, for example, frustrate important growth needs. Nursing employers are often unwilling to give staff time off for training due to the severe shortages (Smetherham & Laurance, 2003).

Dissatisfaction with promotion and training opportunities had a stronger impact on nurses satisfaction than workload or pay (Shields & Ward, 2001). Retention policies, which focus heavily on improving the pay for nurses, will only have limited success unless they are accompanied by improved promotion and training opportunities. They support the notion that focusing internally may be more important than the attraction of outside labour in the determination of quitting outcomes. Thus, some factors, like salary might not be as modifiable as the other job characteristics (Tzeng, 2002a). In general, lack of growth opportunities is therefore thought of as a plausible reason to leave the organisation.

(3) It is also apparent from various reports that nurses working conditions are appalling (Ramadikela, 2003; Smit, 2003a). The most prominent union of South African nurses, The Democratic Nursing Organisation of South Africa (DENOSA), is of the opinion that working conditions should be improved drastically as money cannot compensate for bad working conditions (Smit, 2003a). According to Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) working conditions are a major determinant of job satisfaction.

In order for nursing employers to build strategies regarding the needs of their professional nurses, they should be able to understand the antecedents leading to turnover. However, the understanding of broad concepts will not be sufficient. Employers should be able to build strategies around specific organisational processes to satisfy the needs of professional nurses, as will be suggested in this study.
1.4 Problem Statement

Lum et al. (1998) suggested that individuals do not become committed to an organisation by virtue of some unique configuration of personal characteristics. Rather, individuals enter an organisation with certain needs, desires and skills, and expect to find a work environment in which they can utilize their abilities and satisfy many of their needs. The emphasis is on what the organisation is providing for the employee, referring to various processes within that specific organisation that differentiates it from others that makes it the employer of choice.

To date, most of the studies concentrated on job satisfaction (Brewer & Nauenberg, 2003; Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Dole & Shroeder, 2001; Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet, 2004; Gaertner, 1999; Ghiselli, La Lopa & Bai, 2001; Iverson, 1999; Lu, While & Barriball, 2004; Lui, Ngo & Tsang, 2001; Poon, 2004; Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Yin & Yang, 2002) and organisational commitment (Brewer & Nauenberg, 2003; Chen, Hui & Sego; 1998; Cohen, 1998; Cohen, 1993; DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Gaertner, 1999; Firth et al., 2004; Iverson, 1999; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Schwepker, 2001; Vallabh & Donald, 2001; Yin & Yang, 2002) as antecedents for turnover intentions and indicated significant relationships (DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004). These concepts are very important and need further investigation, specifically with the current scenario of professional nurses in South Africa as described.

However, it is widely reported, although not empirically yet determined, that organisational culture in hospitals can contribute towards lower turnover (Anonymous, 2004; Coile, 2001; Waldman, Smith & Hood, 2003). While the study of organisational culture, is controversial due to competing definitions and research paradigms, it clearly plays a meaningful role in its contribution to organisational performance, affecting employees and organisational operations throughout a firm (Erwee, Lynch, Millett, Smith & Roodt, 2001).
Petkoon and Roodt (2004) were of the opinion that South Africa’s success in the global economy will be positively or negatively affected by the ability of individual companies and industries to adapt their cultures to fit the global challenges. One of these challenges is certainly the retention of professional people in a global economy. While culture is not the only determinant of business success or failure, a positive culture can be a significant competitive advantage in the retention of top-quality staff (Sadri & Lees, 2002). It is therefore important to study turnover intentions from an organisational culture perspective.

It is also suggested in this study, that two other organisational processes need investigation. They are knowledge sharing behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviours. Both of these were selected as it was assumed that they will fulfil professional nurses higher order needs as described by Maslow (1954).

It is therefore proposed that knowledge sharing opportunities will fulfil professional nurses higher order needs and this in turn, will lead to lower intentions to quit. Knowledge sharing occurs when an individual is willing to assist as well as learn from others in the development of new competencies (Rowley, 2003). To support this notion, the question may be asked whether professors at universities can earn higher salaries in the private sector. However, many choose to stay. Why? Some would go as far as to argue that the inherent culture and values in universities are in direct conflict with the culture that is necessary for effective knowledge sharing, but many academic staff consider knowledge to be proprietary and as a source of differentiation, reputation building and academic prowess and power (Wind & Main cited in Rowley, 2003). Significantly higher retention rates were reported in a scientific consultancy firm where workers proactively share their knowledge through various knowledge sharing activities (Hislop, 2003).

Hislop (2003), who reviewed a significant number of qualitative studies in knowledge sharing, reported that these studies have a limited empirical basis and the majority can typically be described as "exploratory studies", which illustrates the lack of depth in
contemporary understanding of how human and social factors affect knowledge management and sharing initiatives.

According to Marr, Gupta, Pike and Roos (2003), three potential problems may occur if organisations neglect the importance of knowledge sharing. Firstly, there is the possibility of losing the employees' knowledge. People may not share what they know before they leave. Secondly, in the worst case scenario, if these employees did not pass on important knowledge before they left their organisations, knowledge creation and retention processes, such as orientation/induction and training programs, might be ineffective. Moreover, these departing employees might take their knowledge to a competing company. Thirdly, the shared knowledge needs to be stored; otherwise the knowledge could be lost when employees leave the job.

Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB's) are employee work behaviours such as helping others, and being actively involved in company affairs (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). It is proposed in this study that professional nurses who have the opportunity to help others and voice their opinion on organisational matters, will satisfy their social, esteem and self-actualisation needs.

Organisational citizenship behaviours are also clearly important theoretically and managerially and are worthy of further research (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2003). Organisational citizenship behaviour has focused primarily on individual level predictors and has focused less on contextual factors (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). They therefore also suggest that organisational citizenship behaviours should be studied from the work context, such as organisational culture as proposed in this study.

As far as could be determined, no evidence could be found that organisational culture, knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, OCB’s, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a linear relationship had been investigated. Furthermore, it is also important to determine the influence of various demographic variables in this proposed linear relationship. The tendency is to select some demographic or background variables and
correlate it with the selected concepts in a study. However, the inclusion of the demographic variables in a linear equation may influence the proposed predictive model of turnover intentions. A more holistic approach is therefore needed when trying to establish the factors that influence turnover intentions.

It is therefore postulated in this study that organisational culture will facilitate a positive attitude towards knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB’s) and job satisfaction, and that the opportunities and challenges to fulfill the needs associated with these activities, will be so rewarding that people will be inclined to stay with the organisation. Even when employees perceived their organisation’s culture as less favourable, are dissatisfied because of things such as compensation, supervision and the work environment, yet still had the opportunity for knowledge sharing, displaying organisational commitment, helping others and voicing their opinion (OCB’s), their higher order social, self-esteem and self-actualisation needs will be fulfilled and therefore they will be inclined to stay.

If this is true, employers will know which aspects of organisational culture predict lower intentions to quit and can embark on strategies around knowledge sharing activities, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction to retain their human resources.

1.5 **Introducing a Predictive Model**

No integrated model is currently available for health care organisations to embark on internal strategies (as stated in the primary research question) to prevent turnover of professional nurses. It is therefore essential to develop such a model so that it can be used as a management tool. This model must be tested empirically to provide a tool for nursing and hospital employers to retain their skilled employees and ultimately ensure a qualified, efficient and productive workforce.
Turnover models normally follow different theoretical frameworks (e.g. Gaertner, 1999; Sager, Griffeth & Hom, 1998; Iverson, 1999). According to Iverson (1999), present models of turnover draw from a number of theoretical perspectives, with the emphasis on social exchange and interdependence perspectives. According to Houkes, Janssen, De Jonge and Bakker (2003), turnover intentions might be seen as a psychological outcome and to Elangovan (2001), intention to quit represents an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioural decision to quit. Organisational culture [seen by Van der Post, de Coning & Smit (1997) as a system of beliefs and values that ultimately shape organisational behaviour], the opportunity to gain and share knowledge [categorized for the purpose of this study by theorist like Maslow (1943) as self-actualisation needs and Alderfer (1972) as growth needs], organisational commitment [defined by Roodt (1997) as a cognitive predisposition that the organisation has the ability to satisfy salient needs in the work context], helping others and voicing opinions as organisational citizenship behaviours (seen as discretionary behaviour and categorized for the purpose of this study by Maslow as social and self-esteem needs), job satisfaction [seen by Weiss et al. (1967) as the need to achieve and maintain correspondence with the work environment], and turnover intentions (to leave or stay), (psychological outcomes), might be seen as a social exchange model where employees have an appreciation of what the employer is providing and what they can give in return.

Social exchange in an employment relationship may be initiated by an organisation’s fair treatment of its employees (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002). The organisation cares about the well-being of the individual in a social exchange relationship by developing organisational practices. These practices entail socially constructed and historically determined cognitions to create an organisational culture that shapes the thinking and behavioural patterns of individuals. Organisational culture therefore constitutes the context in which individuals perceive justice (Erdogan, 2002).

Social-exchange theory has shown that an employee’s commitment to the organisation derives from perceptions of the employer’s commitment and support of them (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986; Whitener, 2001). According to Hall
knowledge sharing must be investigated from assumptions of social-exchange theory. Although empirical evidence is lacking, it is clear that a person will only share knowledge in an exchange process. Knowledge is shared if the individuals have an expectation that such behaviour will be compensated by the employer. To entice people to share their knowledge, in terms of a social exchange transaction, these actors need to be persuaded it is worth entering into a transaction in exchange for some kind of resource.

According to Erdogan (2002) employee perceptions are also shaped by developmental experiences provided to the individual and job conditions. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour out of gratitude to the organisation from a desire to reciprocate the feeling of satisfaction they experience (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001; Yoon & Suh, 2003).

Organ (cited in Van Dyne and Lepine, 1998) has argued that social exchange is a prerequisite for organisational citizenship behaviour, and there is indirect evidence that organisational citizenship is frequently displayed in the context of social exchange (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Employees reward an organisation's efforts to provide opportunities for learning and growth by engaging in citizenship behaviours (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2003).

Citizenship in organisations ultimately benefits employees by making organisations a more attractive place to work (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Turnover is an option for employees if they perceive an inequity what they give to the organisation and what they receive in return (Geurts, Schaufeli & Rutte, 1999).

The predictive model of turnover intentions is illustrated in Figure 1.1.
Figure 1.1: Predictive Model of Turnover Intentions
[Adapted from Ackfeldt and Coote (2003); Alderfer (1972); Aryee et al. (2002); Eisenberger et al. (1986); Elangovan (2001); Erdogan (2002); Geurts et al. (1999); Homan (1961); Houkes et al. (2003); Kanovsky and Pugh (1994); Maslow (1943); Organ (1988); Podsakoff et al. (2000); Roodt (1997); Stamper and Van Dyne (2001); Van der Post et al. (1997); Van Dyne and Lepine (1998); Weiss et al. (1967); Whitener (2001); and Yoon and Suh (2003)]

1.6 Primary Research Question

Based on the above discussion, the primary research question of the study can be stated as follows:
“Is organisational culture, as well as various demographic variables, (sub-cultures, tenure, age, level of education, gender, race, home language, level of seniority, marital status, number of dependents) related to turnover intentions, and is it possible that opportunities to gain and share knowledge; to be organisationally committed; to help others and voice ones opinions (organisational citizenship behaviours); as well as to be job satisfied; - that these factors mediate this relationship so that professional nurses can psychologically feel inclined to stay with the organisation?”

This research question can be sub-divided into a literature (theoretical) and an empirical objective.

1.6.1 **Theoretical Objective**

The theoretical objective, derived from the primary research question, is to provide an overview of the current level of research evidence for the sets key relationships of concepts in a predictive model of turnover intentions.

1.6.2 **Empirical Objective**

Following from the theoretical model, the primary objective of the empirical research is to determine the relationships between sets of key variables in the predictive model.

1.7 **An Outline of the Remaining Chapters**

Based on the objectives of the study, the rest of the study will have the following structure. In chapter two, the key concepts of the study that predict turnover intentions, namely organisational culture, knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction are defined and discussed. Special emphasis is placed on the relationship between concepts. The empirical research objectives, based on the primary research question and derived from the literature overview, are outlined. The focus of chapter 3 will be on the research design
and methodology employed. In chapter 4, the results of the study are reported. In chapter 5 the focus will be on a discussion and interpretation of the results. Finally, in chapter 6, a summary of the research will be provided, which include the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.8 Conclusion

It seems eminent, from figures obtained through various resources, that the loss of professional nurses to overseas countries, as well as the concurrent effects such as severe shortages, enormous work pressure, the appalling work circumstances and the emotional abuse of nurses, lead to major challenges for nursing and hospital employers to retain their talent. It is also apparent that due to exchange rates, tax free salaries, the globalisation of the health profession and the lost of professional nurses from the developing to the developed world, that South African nursing employers will find it very difficult to build retention strategies only on compensation factors.

It was therefore suggested in this chapter, that nursing employers should rather focus on internal strategies, such as fulfilling nurses higher order psychological needs. A predictive model of turnover intentions was therefore proposed, consisting of different sets of variables. The primary research question was formulated, as well the primary theoretical and empirical objective.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE OVERVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 presents a literature overview of the study. The theoretical objectives are outlined. Thereafter the chapter follows the sequence of the theoretical objectives. The key concepts are defined and a theoretical overview of each is provided, as well as its relationship to turnover intentions. The current status of research of the concept in the nursing profession and in South African hospitals is also provided. An integrative model of the dimensions of organisational culture in relation to knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions is presented.

Consequently, a summary of the current status of research regarding the relationships between key concepts in the predictive model, are provided. The theoretical limitations of the literature overview are outlined to support the formulation of the empirical objectives of the study. The chapter is concluded with the empirical research objectives and a summary.

Next, the theoretical objectives of the study are outlined.

2.2 Theoretical Objectives

2.2.1 Define the key concepts of the study, namely organisational culture, turnover intentions, knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction.

2.2.2 Describe organisational culture by providing a theoretical framework with the emphasis on typologies, dimensions, multiple levels, an integrative model of the
concept, its relationship to turnover intentions and an overview of the concept in the nursing profession and South African hospitals.

2.2.3 Describe turnover intentions with the emphasis on generic turnover models, theoretical approaches to turnover studies, turnover intentions as planned behaviour, types of turnover cognitions and an overview of the concept in the nursing profession and South African hospitals.

2.2.4 Describe knowledge sharing as theoretical concept, pre-requisites to share, methods, expected outcomes, its relationship to turnover intentions and an overview of the concept in the nursing profession and South African hospitals.

2.2.5 Describe organisational commitment with the emphasis on a theoretical framework of the concept, approaches to study organisational commitment, commitment foci, a baseline motivational model of organisational commitment, its relationship to turnover intentions and an overview of the concept in the nursing profession and South African hospitals.

2.2.6 Describe organisational citizenship behaviours by providing a theoretical framework of the concept, antecedents, types and methods of OCB’s, helping and voice as OCB’s, its relation to turnover intentions and an overview of the concept in the nursing profession and South African hospitals.

2.2.7 Describe job satisfaction with the emphasis on a theoretical framework of the concept, approaches, the dimensions of job satisfaction, the relationship to turnover intentions, the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions and an overview of the concept in the nursing profession and South African hospitals.

2.2.8 Outline an integrative model of organisational culture dimensions and the relationships with knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational
citizenship behaviours, job satisfaction and turnover intentions indicating the status of empirical research between sets of key variables.

In the following section a brief conceptual clarification of each concept used in this study will be provided.

2.3 Defining the Key Concepts

2.3.1 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture has been defined in many ways by various authors and researchers. However, many would agree that organisational culture can be referred to as a set of values, beliefs and behaviour patterns that form the core identity of organisations, and help in shaping the employees’ behaviour (Deshpande & Farley, 1999; Erwee et al., 2001; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Luthans, 1992; Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari, 2004; Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002; Van der Post et al., 1997; Van der Post, De Coning & Smit, 1998). Culture is a hidden but unifying force that provides meaning and direction (Van der Post et al., 1998).

Schein (1985, p. 9) as one the earlier pioneers in this field, defined organisational culture as:

“A pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those processes.”

According to Van der Post et al. (1997) the study of organisational culture can be approached by identifying certain dimensions that shape behaviour and eventually can be regarded as the culture of the organisation. This falls firmly within the classical positivist approach of culture that researchers have identified (Denison, 1996). This
approach is supported in this study, therefore the findings of Van der Post et al. (1997, p. 147) are applicable and organisational culture is defined as:

"…a system of shared meaning, the prevailing background fabric of prescriptions and proscriptions for behaviour, the system of beliefs and values that ultimately shape organisational behaviour."

2.3.2 Turnover Intentions

Many studies conceptualise turnover to be a psychological response and rest on the belief that turnover is an individual choice behavioural pattern (Lum et al., 1998). Intention to leave has a behavioural implication as it entails one’s attachment to the organisation (Iverson & Roy, 1994). Intention to leave can be regarded as the degree of likelihood of an employee forfeiting membership in an organisation (Currivan, 1999). Intention to quit is the strength of an individual’s view to stay or to leave his/her current employer (Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole & Owen, 2002). Sager et al. (1998) referred to turnover cognitions as mental decisions intervening between an individual’s attitude regarding the job and the stay, or leave, decision. According to Houkes et al. (2003), turnover intentions might be seen as a psychological outcome and to Elangovan (2001), intention to quit represents an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioural decision to quit.

For the purpose of this study turnover intentions are defined as:

“…a mental decision intervening between an individual’s attitude regarding a job and the stay or leave decision” (Sager et al., 1998, p. 255) “…and that can be regarded as an immediate antecedent or precursor to stay, or leave…” (Fox & Fallon, 2003, p. 3; Mobley, 1977, p. 238; Sager et al., 1998, p. 255).
2.3.3 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge is a multi-faceted concept and is embedded within many entities in an organisation’s culture, policies, documents and members themselves. Sveiby (in Wagner, Cassimjee & Nel, 2002, p.50) defined knowledge management as the art of creating value from an organisation’s intangible assets. Therefore, knowledge sharing is about business processes and the related knowledge to make these processes work (Jones, Cline & Ryan, 2004). Davenport and Prusak (1998, p. 52) defined knowledge creation as the initiative and activities firms undertake to increase their stock of corporate knowledge.

Knowledge sharing occurs when an individual is willing to assist as well as learn from others in the development of new competencies (Rowley, 2003). To "learn" means to "digest", to "absorb", and to "apply" (Salopek & Dixon, 2002). Knowledge is described by Bartol and Srivastava (2002) as relevant information, ideas, suggestions, and expertise. Ryu, Hee Ho and Han (2003) emphasised that knowledge sharing is a people-to-people process. It can therefore be regarded as a human activity and individuals who are willing to share, is the first step to successful knowledge sharing activities.

For the purpose of this study knowledge sharing is defined as:

“…a willingness…” (Chua, 2003, p. 117; Hislop, 2003, p. 184) “…on the part of those workers who possess knowledge to share and communicate it…” (Hislop, 2003, p.184), “…to teach others, to develop new competencies and participating in any organisational activity like training or any other programme to enhance knowledge…” (Yang & Wan, 2004, p. 62)”… to ultimately create value…” (Sveiby in Wagner et al., 2002, p.50).

2.3.4 Organisational Commitment

Mowday (1999) describes organisational commitment as the attachment that is formed between employees and their employing organisation. More precisely, organisational commitment can be defined as one’s identification with, and loyalty to, an organisation
(Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). The concept is based on three factors: the acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values (identification), the willingness to invest on behalf of the organisation (involvement), and the importance attached to keeping up the membership in the organisation (loyalty). These characteristics imply that the members wish to be active role players in the organisation, have an impact on what is taking place in the organisation, feel that they have a high status within the organisation and thereby contribute beyond what is expected of them (Bogler & Somech, 2004).

Roodt (1997) proposed measuring commitment by distinguishing between different commitment foci. An understanding of the different foci can probably explain the dynamics of employee commitment in the work context. According to Roodt (2004a) a golden thread running through all the definitions of commitment is the potential of a particular focus to satisfy salient needs. Roodt (2004a) therefore proposes a motivational approach to define and measure commitment.

Roodt (2004a, p. 85) defines organisational commitment as:

“…a cognitive predisposition towards a particular focus, insofar this focus has the potential to satisfy needs, realise values and achieve goals.”

2.3.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB’s) are employee work behaviours such as helping others, staying late, or working weekends, performing at levels that exceed enforceable standards, tolerating impositions or inconveniences on the job, and being actively involved in company affairs (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Note should be taken that this definition describes a range of behaviours – thus the definition is a collective term.

Organ (1988, p. 4) defined organisational citizenship behaviour as:
“…individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.”

According to Bolino, Turnley and Niehoff (2004) researchers often expressed concern about this definition. The term discretionary, was questioned, as many believed employees can display organisational citizenship for self-serving motives or to compensate for transgressions (Bolino et al., 2004). It has been suggested that OCB’s are actually rewarded through subjectivity as supervisors do consider OCB’s when conducting performance appraisals (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

While there were many different types of organisational citizenship behaviours, the emphasis of this study is on helping (affiliative-promotive behaviour) and voice (challenging-promotive behaviour) (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). Both are extra-role behaviours, thereby implying conformity to the definition of Organ (1998). Promotive behaviour is pro-active; it causes things to happen. It is affiliative, interpersonal and cooperative. An example is helping others with their work or with work-related activities, even when it is not explicitly required by the job (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). It is a form of altruism that is described by Organ (in Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001) as discretionary behaviour which helps other persons in respect of organisationally relevant tasks or problems (e.g. “voluntarily helping less skilled or new employees and assisting co-workers who are overloaded or absent”).

Challenging-promotive behaviour (voice) emphasizes ideas that are change–orientated. An example is making your voice heard thereby making recommendations for change and innovation (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001).
2.3.6 **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction refers to a worker's general attitude towards his or her job. According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experiences. Schneider and Snyder (1975) defined job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in a job, or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job. Job satisfaction thus, has to do with an individual’s perception and evaluation of his job, and this perception is influenced by the person’s unique circumstances such as needs, values and expectations. People will therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors, which they regard as being of importance to them. Stemming from related theories (Herzberg & Mausner, 1959; Maslow, 1943) and focuses on cognitive processes (Spector, 1997), job satisfaction can also be described as the affective orientation that an employee has towards his or her work (Price, 2002); the feelings that an individual has about his job (Gruneberg, 1976); and a match between what individuals perceive they need and what rewards they perceive they receive from their jobs (Conrad, Conrad & Parker, 1985).

Weiss et al. (1967) assumed that each person seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with his or her work environment (satisfaction). Correspondence with the environment at work can be described in terms of the individual fulfilling the requirements of this environment (satisfactoriness), and the work environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual (satisfaction) (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981). 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, in exchange, the work environment offers them opportunities and rewards. Weiss et al. (1967) identified various extrinsic factors (e.g. supervision, compensation, company policies and practices) and intrinsic factors (e.g. activity, variety, responsibility) as potential sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The intrinsic factors are thought to measure satisfaction with intrinsic reinforcement factors. The extrinsic factors are external to the job. Job satisfaction is therefore, for the purpose of this study, defined as:
“…The degree people achieve and maintain correspondence with the environment satisfying both extrinsic and intrinsic needs (Weiss et al., 1967 cited in Cook et al., 1981, p. 21).”

From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.1 was achieved. In the next section a more in depth discussion on the concepts that were introduced above, will be provided.

2.4 Organisational Culture

2.4.1 Theoretical Framework of Organisational Culture

Organisational culture has received much attention in the last two decades as to its effects, such as the potential impact on organisational success and strategic competitive advantages (Bagraim, 2003; Martins & Martins, 2002; Rashid et al., 2004). Research has been conducted in an endeavour to identify the nature and type of culture in organisations (Denison, 1990; Erwee et al., 2001; Martins & Martins, 2002; Van der Post et al., 1997).

The purpose was to elicit the key values, beliefs and norms in an organisation that has given much impetus to the success and superior performance of the organisation. Kotter and Heskett (1992), for example, believe that organisational culture has a long term impact on the performance of the organisation. Denison (1990) found that certain types of culture could enhance organisational performance, while Van der Post et al. (1998) found significant relationships between organisational culture and performance. According to previous research, it seems that the study of organisational culture basically utilizes two different theoretical frameworks. That is, typologies, or dimensions of organisational culture.
2.4.1.1 **Typologies**

A typology is a study of types, or a specific system, to classify individuals and therefore their unique characteristics in types (Plug, Louw, Gouws & Meyer, 1997). The same definition probably applies to types within organisations. According to Deshpande and Farley (1999; 2004), for example, four types of corporate culture prevail in organisations, namely: a competitive, an entrepreneurial, a bureaucratic and a consensual culture. In the **competitive culture**, values relate to demanding goals, competitive advantage, marketing seniority and profits. In the **entrepreneurial culture**, the emphasis is on innovation, risk taking, high levels of dynamism and creativity. In the **bureaucratic culture** values are formalization, rules and standard operating procedures. In the **consensual culture** values are elements of tradition, loyalty, personal commitment, extensive socialization, teamwork, self-management and social influence.

On a basis of empirical studies and established organisational models, Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) have classified organisational cultures according to two basic dimensions (internal/external orientation, and flexibility/control orientation), and develop a typology identifying four organisational cultures (group, developmental, hierarchical and rational). **Group cultures** are described as internal and flexible in their orientation, with a tendency to people orientation within the organisation. The principle values are loyalty and the protection of the existing group. **Developmental cultures** are described as external and flexible in their orientation, with an emphasis on dynamic creativity and adaptability, and recognition of the importance of external clients. **Hierarchical cultures** are characterised as internal and control-orientated, and inclined to promote values such as formality, rules, clear roles and tasks, and documentation. Finally, **rational cultures** are described as external and control-orientated, focusing on production and emphasising values for example goals and task accomplishment. Normally organisations are likely to have attributes and values reflecting all four types, but one type may dominate.
Martin (2002) analysed organisational culture by describing three perspectives thereof. The integrationist perspective tends to look for consistent, repetitive cultural characteristics throughout an enterprise. The differentiationist perspective supported the concept of sub-cultures, meaning that different behavioural and cognitive patterns pertain across distinguishable workplace groups. The fragmentationist perspective presupposes that culture is less certain and more inconsistent, irregular and random. Braithwaite, Westbrook, Iedema, Mallock, Forsyth and Zhang (2004) tested Martin’s typology in hospitals and suggested that it is a useful device for examining attributes of organisations.

2.4.1.2 Dimensions

Organisational culture can also be studied from dimensions rather than a cultural typology. This approach falls firmly within the classical positivist approach of culture that researchers have identified (Denison, 1996). The advantage of this approach is that the model provides an organisational analysis that perceives culture as a feature of the organisation that can be studied and manipulated in isolation (Erwee et al., 2001). An example of this approach is the 15 dimensions used to measure organisational culture developed by Van der Post et al. (1997), namely conflict resolution, culture management, customer orientation, disposition towards change, employee participation, goal clarity, human resource orientation, identification with the organisation, locus of authority, management style, organisational focus, organisational integration, performance orientation, reward orientation and task structure.

A comprehensive multi-dimensional model of organisational culture, after all the concepts were theoretically described in the subsequent sections, in relation to knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions is outlined in figure 2.8 and described in section 2.9. The above-mentioned dimensions are also then described. The motivation to use the dimensional approach for this study is explained in Chapter 3.
Multiple Levels of Organisational Culture

Schein (1985) defined corporate culture as the pattern of basic assumptions in the organisation that develop from the process of resolving internal and external problems. The process of handling problems gives rise to values regarding what is good and this provides a general guideline as to how individuals should act under different circumstances. According to Schein (cited by Bagraim, 2001) it is unclear whether the developed basic assumptions represent the personal and work assumptions of each individual, or only the assumptions of the individual at work.

Schein (1985) identified three levels of culture, namely artefacts, values and basic assumptions.

Artefacts (level one):

At level one, culture represents observable behaviours within the organisation that are visible and easy to access (artefacts). Artefacts are conscious, obvious expressions of culture. Artefacts range from physical aspects such as architecture to forms of language and rituals. Organisational members could be less aware of the organisational culture, but it is observable to the outsider (Schein, 1985).

Values (level two):

At level two, corporate culture is a representation of values that help explain observed behaviours (assumptions taken for granted). Values represent the principles and standards valued by organisational members. Values are the foundation as to what is acceptable and what is not acceptable. Values, though not obvious, operate uppermost in members’ minds. Organisational members are able to recognise their values when challenged by others.
Norms are related to values. Norms provide the unwritten rules that indicate expectations in terms of actions applicable in a number of situations. Values indicate what is important to organisational members and norms help to indicate what the expectations are among organisational members. The relationship between norms and values is that which is considered acceptable and can be traced to what is valued in a particular culture. Therefore, organisational members share values and conform to norms because the foundational assumptions support the norms and values. Norms and values support the manifestation of more obvious observable behaviours (Schein, 1985).

**Assumptions (level three):**

At the deepest and most important level (level) three, are underlying assumptions in the corporate culture that are often not recognised by those holding them, not readily discernable by outsiders, or easy to change. Where solutions to a problem work continuously, the solution is used unconsciously and becomes the way things are done by the group. The beliefs and assumptions are the foundation of an organisation’s culture. Assumptions are the basis for the manner in which organisational members think and feel. Assumptions are unconscious and are taken for granted. Assumptions are complex in the variety of assumptions that apply in a culture at a time (Schein, 1985). There is no suggestion that managers can change corporate culture, only that they should endeavour to do so in order to realise organisational goals. Schein (1985) recognised the complexity of culture and the difficulty of fundamentally changing it. This may be contradictory to views held by Van der Post et al. (1997) and Erwee et al. (2001) that organisational culture can be viewed from various dimensions which are more manageable.

2.4.3 **Integrative Model of Organisational Culture**

The discussion of various organisational culture models is beyond this study as the main focus is on the relationship between various concepts. It is, however, necessary to
provide an integrative process model of organisational culture, drawn from different theoretical perspectives supported in the context of this study (Figure 2.1). The composition of this model is therefore derived from the following theories and assumptions of organisational culture:

(1) The external environment will influence organisational culture in the sense that people will bring into the organisation their values, beliefs and experience. (Hofstede, 1980). The national culture uses a system approach where those who belong to a particular group share a value system. The norms of the grouping or society have resulted in the development of institutions with particular functions. The society is a social entity that has specific values, rituals, heroes and symbols peculiar to a group. Similar influences act on the culture of an organisation (Smith & Roodt, 2003). This is consistent with the view of Philip and McKeown (2004) that in most countries organisations are often structured along similar lines in society. It is therefore not surprising that cultural concepts have their roots in social anthropology. Furthermore, dispositional characteristics such as personality characteristics, needs, attitudes, preferences and motives will be brought into the organisation and will ultimately play a role in explaining organisational outcomes (Rothman & Coetzet, 2002).

(2) Values, beliefs, behaviour patterns, norms, perceptions, thoughts, feelings and basic assumptions determine the core identity of an organisation (Deshpande & Farley, 1999; Erwee et al., 2001; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Luthans, 1992; Rashid et al., 2004; Schein, 1992; Sempane et al., 2002; Van der Post et al., 1997; 1998).

(3) According to Bagraim (2001), the above phenomena could be divided into different levels from non-observable behaviour (such as basic assumptions), beliefs and values to more observable behaviour such as patterns of behaviour and artifacts. An extended historical process is required for values to develop into
basic assumptions, which become both stable and effective in their control of organisational values and actions.

(4) Organisational culture can be viewed from several dimensions that will ultimately influence behaviour and determine the outcomes of the organisation (Denison, 1996; Erwee et al., 2001; Van der Post et al., 1997).

(5) Organisational culture could also be described according to various typologies which influence organisational behaviour (Braithwaite et al., 2004, Deshpande & Farley, 1999; Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999).

(6) Some of the outcomes of organisational culture in the context of this study could be seen (from more observable behaviour to less observable behaviour) as turnover (Anonymous, 2004; Coile, 2001; Waldman et al., 2003), OCB’s (Maignan & Ferell, 1999), performance (Van der Post et al., 1998); competitive advantages (Bagraim, 2001; Martins & Martins, 2002; Rashid et al., 2004), knowledge sharing behaviour (Gupta, Lyer & Aronson, 2002; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Husted & Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O’Dell, 2001; Ryu et al., 2003; Shin, 2004; Yang & Wan, 2004), job satisfaction (Sempane et al., 2002; Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999) and organisational commitment (Cohen, 2000; Rashid et al., 2004).

(7) The successes and failures of the organisation (outcomes) will in turn influence the behaviour of individuals and their perception towards the organisation (Blau, 1964).

From the above it is clear that organisational culture is the result of multiple levels of behaviour and complex antecedents.

An integrative model of organisational culture is portrayed in Figure 2.1.
Figure 2.1: Integrative Model of Organisational Culture
[Adapted from Anonymous (2004); Bagraim (2001); Blau (1964); Braithwaite et al. (2004); Cohen (2000); Coile (2001), Denison (1996); Deshpande and Farley (1999; 2004); Erwee et al. (2001); Haldin-Herrgard (2000); Husted and Michailova (2002); Kotter and Heskett (1992); Luthans (1992); Maignan and Ferell (1999); Martins and Martins (2002); McDermott and O’Dell (2001); Rashid et al. (2004); Rothmann and Coetzer (2002); Ryu et al. (2003); Schein (1992); Shin (2004); Sempane et al. (2002); Skogstad and Einarsen (1999); Van der Post et al. (1998); Van der Post et al. (1997); Waldman et al. (2003); and Yang and Wan (2004)]
2.4.4 Relationship between Organisational Culture and Turnover Intentions

Coile (2001) reported that hospitals with lower turnover clearly indicated a more positive organisational culture than the others. Culture within these hospitals had a strong mission, empowerment of leaders, participative management, patient focus, reward orientation (for improvement), visible/accessible leaders and supported education. Although not empirically tested, the importance of organisational culture to retain employees is noted (Anonymous, 2004; Coile, 2001; Waldman et al., 2003). Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) found that the perceived culture explained 39% of the variance in intent to quit in a sample of 182 hospitality students.

2.4.5 Organisational Culture in the Nursing Profession and in South African Hospitals

An extensive research yielded no results of the concept of organisational culture in South African hospitals. Related concepts to organisational culture such as lack of staff support and absence of proper incentives were reported (Hall, 2004). Both these concepts are seen by Van der Post et al. (1997) as dimensions of organisational culture, namely the management style and reward orientation.

Jewkes et al. (1998) found that the caring profession in parts of the South African public health services are characterised by conflict, clinical neglect, verbal and physical abuse. Van der Post et al. (1997) see conflict resolution as an important dimension of organisational culture. Furthermore, the severe staff shortages threaten service capability and the quality of patient care (Essop, 2003; Newman et al., 2002; Smetherham & Laurance, 2003). Once again, Van der Post et al. (1997) regarded customer orientation an important dimension of organisational culture. It is therefore clear that various related aspects of organisational culture were reported in South African hospitals, but that the concept was not theoretically and empirically well investigated and reported.
From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.2 was achieved. An in depth discussion of turnover intentions is covered next.

2.5 Turnover Intentions

2.5.1 Generic Turnover Models

Theoretically, there are two divergent types of generic turnover models. Micro-level models focusing on behavioral processes and outcomes, and macro-sociological models describing labour market conditions and processes. The former emphasize the cognitive processes leading to a job search and the intention to leave, whereas the latter stress the structural factors linking turnover rates to the existence and search for alternative external occupational opportunities (Mano-Negrin & Tzafrir, 2004). The degree of job satisfaction might be an example of a behavioural or cognitive process, while the amount of job opportunities fit into a macro-sociological model.

Generic turnover models have either directly or indirectly emphasised job opportunities as part of the link between job search, turnover intentions and actual turnover behaviour (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Lee, Mitchell, Holton, McDaniel & Hill, 1999). While the impact of job search on actual turnover remains a controversial issue (Mobley, 1977), actual moves are more likely to occur when an employees' abilities and skills match available opportunities (Mano-Negrin & Tzafrir, 2004). A major underlying assumption explaining differences in turnover is that a job search, as a catalyst for turnover, can be expressed in various modes and intensities (Mano-Negrin & Tzafrir, 2004; Werbel, 2000). Search modes, for example, can be random or systematic. Such differences should affect the destination in a turnover decision and actual quitting. Job search direction indicates whether the search is internal (within the organisation) or external (outside the organisation), while job search intensity is the seriousness of the employees' efforts regarding an alternative position (Mano-Negrin & Tzafrir, 2004). According to Werbel (2002), self-exploration and environmental exploration are important pre-requisites to start the job search process.
A theoretical framework of intentions to quit is provided in Figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2: Theoretical Framework of Turnover Intentions**

[Adapted from Ajzen (1991); Arnold and Feldman (1982); Chiu and Francesco (2003); Fox and Fallon (2003); Hofstede (1980); Iverson (1999); Lee et al. (1999); Lee, Mitchell, Wise and Fireman (1996); Mano-Negrin and Tzafrir (2004); Mobley (1982); Sager et al. (1998); Shields and Ward (2001); and Werbel (2000)]
2.5.2 Theoretical Approaches of Turnover Studies

As introduced in chapter one, turnover models are drawn from a number of theoretical perspectives, with the emphasis on social exchange and interdependence perspectives (Blau, 1964; Iverson, 1999). According to Blau (1964), two types of exchange relationships exist between employers and employees, namely economic and social relationships. Economic exchange is contractual in nature. Obligations of the parties involved are clearly defined and highly specific and exchange occurs on a transactional basis. Social exchange, however, refers to relationships that entail unspecified future obligations. Similar to economic exchange, social exchange generates an expectation for some future return in respect of contributions, but the exact nature and timing of that return is unspecified.

Iverson (1999) provided a comprehensive summary of various theoretical frameworks of turnover studies. March and Simon (in Iverson, 1999), in one of the earliest approaches, proposed the theory of organisational equilibrium in specifying that employees’ decisions to quit are influenced by their perceived ease and desirability movement. Work attitudes such as job satisfaction and perceived alternative opportunities were key concepts. More recent theoretical approaches, such as that by Lee and Mitchell (1994), propose an unfolding model. Employees’ decision to leave may not be rational and may result from organisational “shocks” such as being passed over regarding promotion. The common thread running through all models is the complexity and difficulty in predicting who stays and who leaves (Iverson, 1999).

Turnover models can therefore also be viewed from a structural perspective. The structural determinants of turnover, for example, referred to were pay, promotional changes, distributive justice, peer support, supervisory support, workload, role conflict, role ambiguity, autonomy and routinization (Iverson, 1999). In a meta-analysis of nursing turnover, Yin and Yang (2002) reported that twelve variables in Taiwan hospitals were investigated. Nine of these were organisational factors: pay (salary, fringe benefits and night-shift benefits), stress, recognition, scheduling (inflexible night shift work), individual
growth opportunity (continuing education and promotion opportunities), interpersonal aspects (supervision by nurses’ direct superior and peer group relationships), sense of achievement, organisational attributes (work environment, administrative policies, organisational commitment and organisational cohesion) and work itself (challenge and job satisfaction, and autonomy). Kinship responsibilities, geographical location (distance from home) and other job opportunities were also investigated. The most frequently reported reasons for leaving were poor promotion opportunities, work stress due to overload, lack of continuing education, as well as dissatisfaction with salary, fringe benefits and direct supervision. The above serves as an example of a structural approach, determining turnover intentions. A comprehensive outline of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions will be provided in section 2.8.4.

2.5.3 **Turnover Intentions as Planned Behaviour**

The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), suggests that behavioural intention is a good predictor of actual behaviour. It has been successfully demonstrated in previous studies that behavioural intention to leave is consistently correlated with turnover (Fox & Fallon, 2003; Mobley, 1982). There is considerable support for the notion that intention to quit is probably the most important and immediate antecedent of turnover decisions (Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Fox & Fallon, 2003; Mobley, 1982; Slate & Vogel, 1997; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Shields and Ward (2001) reported that quitting intentions were the strongest predictor of actual turnover, with 79% of nurses in a longitudinal study reporting an intention to quit and did so within one year. Steel and Ovalle (1984) reported in a large number of studies between 1965 and 1983, a correlation coefficient of 0.50 between quitting intentions and actual turnover. An added benefit cited for using turnover intentions as opposed to actual turnover is that intentions are more individually controllable than turnover (Shore & Martin, 1989). Furthermore, reliance on current organisational records of actual employee turnover for research purposes is viewed as highly suspect due to the questionable accuracy and depth of such records (Campion, 1991).
Some commentators would postulate that the notion of commitment to either job or profession is a more useful concept than turnover cognitions. However, research indicates that turnover cognitions have a distinct conceptual base and significant explanatory power (Carbery, Garavan, O'Brien & McDonnell, 2003). Lambert, Hogan and Barton (2001) suggest that more attention should be given to the direct and indirect influences of variables on intention to quit as opposed to the actual act of turnover. From the employer’s point of view, intention to quit may be a more important variable then the actual act of turnover. If the precursors of intention to quit are better understood, the employer could possibly institute changes to affect this intention. However, once an employee has quitted, there is little the employer can do except assume the expense of hiring and training another employee.

### 2.5.4 Types of Turnover Cognitions

From a theoretical perspective, turnover cognitions represent mental decisions intervening between an individual’s attitude regarding the job and the stay or leave decision (Sager et al., 1998). Three different turnover cognitions are often referred to in research. They are thinking of quitting (an employee considers leaving the organisation), intention to search (an employee decides to go about looking for a job outside of the organisation) and intention to quit (the employee decides to leave the organisation at some unspecified point in the future). The ultimate goal of intention to search is to attain a job that matches one’s personal and financial expectations (Werbel, 2000).

Mobley’s (1977) suggested that turnover cognitions follow a sequence (Figure 2.3).

![Sequence of Turnover Cognitions (Mobley, 1977)](image-url)

**Figure 2.3:** Sequence of Turnover Cognitions (Mobley, 1977)
He suggested that the intention to search is the primary precursor of turnover. Variations of this model were suggested by Arnold and Feldman (1982) who suggested that intention to search and intention to quit jointly influence turnover, while Griffeth and Hom (in Sager et al., 1998) found that intention to quit influences turnover both directly and indirectly through intention to search. Sager et al. (1998) suggested, after testing the various models, a direct relationship between thinking of quitting and intention to leave. They also suggested that employees may intend to quit a job before intending to search for another job. This is especially relevant for certain occupations which are mainly determined by the demand for scarce labour.

Job opportunity refers to the degree of job availability outside the organisation (Seo et al., 2004). Lee et al. (1996) reported that 45% of departing nurses abandon their present employment without a job offer in hand. This notion is also supported by Mano-Negrin and Tzafrir (2004) that turnover intention for hospital personnel is not preceded by a job search and does not significantly impact on turnover behaviour. On the contrary, they found that positive work attitudes and satisfaction with organisational policy and salary significantly diminished the odds of leaving. Intention to leave directly affects the chances of leaving. Possible linkages between job search modes and turnover is probably mediated by intentions to leave. Job search activities do not precede an actualization of turnover unless the employee has elaborated concrete intentions to leave.

Nurses may, therefore, think they can get a new job elsewhere with ease, and will resign before searching for a new position. This of course, is not an ideal situation for employers in the professional nursing field. Much of the differential in satisfaction amongst nurses is due to individual’s comparison of their present salary with benchmark opportunities open to them (Shields & Ward, 2001). Job search therefore does not predict turnover, but opportunities and intention to leave do. Job searching is more an attitudinal variable involved in developing a cognition favouring a job change rather than a behavioural predictor of turnover (Mano-Negrin & Tzafrir, 2004).
2.5.5 **Turnover Intentions in the Nursing Profession and in South African Hospitals**

There seems to be a lack of turnover models in South African hospitals. The concept of turnover intentions did not receive much attention in the theoretical literature. It seems, however, that turnover amongst professional nurses in South Africa, and the possible consequences such as service delivery, is a popular feature in newspaper articles and magazines alike.

From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.3 was achieved. Knowledge sharing as possible mediating variable between organisational culture and turnover intentions will be introduced next.

2.6 **Knowledge Sharing**

2.6.1 **Knowledge Sharing as Theoretical Concept**

Hislop (2003), who reviewed a significant number of studies in knowledge management, reported that these studies have a limited empirical basis and the majority can typically be described as "exploratory studies", which illustrates the lack of depth in contemporary understanding of how human and social factors affect knowledge management and sharing initiatives. To date, much of the research of knowledge sharing focused on economic benefits such as being competitive (Gupta et al., 2000; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Husted & Michailova, 2002; Samaddar & Kadiyala, 2003; Shin, 2004; Van Gils & Zwart, 2004). Very little research focused on knowledge sharing as a psychological need of people.

A common classification of organisational knowledge (Nonaka, 1991) comprises explicit knowledge, which can be documented and shared, and implicit or tacit knowledge, which resides in the minds, cultures, and experiences within the organisation (Rowley, 2003).
Explicit knowledge deals with more objective, rational, and technical knowledge (data, policies, procedures, software, and documents). Explicit knowledge is typically both well-documented and accessible (Gupta et al. 2000). Implicit or tacit knowledge includes the competence, experience and skills of employees. The management of tacit knowledge is primarily concerned with the management of the process of deriving value from knowledge. This is tightly coupled with processes such as training, learning, culture creation, and knowledge sharing (Rowley, 2003; Tippens, 2003). Tacit knowledge is usually in the domain of subjective, cognitive and experiential learning (Gupta et al., 2000). There has been a growing acknowledgement that much organisational knowledge is tacit in nature and for employers to benefit from their training and development programmes, there should be a willingness on the part of those workers who possess it to share and communicate it (Hislop, 2003; Katsirikou, 2003). Thus, sharing knowledge, whether explicit or tacit, requires effort on the part of the individual doing the sharing (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). Wagner et al. (2002) found that respondents of a software company in a process of implementing a knowledge management programme, had consensus that people drive the process.

It is also important to distinguish between information and knowledge. Information is validated and endowed with meaning through experiences, beliefs, values and insights. Information is usually person-independent whereas knowledge is context-sensitive. This means that information can be easily detached and transferred from its source without losing its meaning, but knowledge has to be shared within a specific context for its essence to be grasped. Since knowledge is enriched with insights and is socially embedded in organisational practices, it is not easily imitated, traded or substituted (Chua, 2003). The definition of knowledge as a process is inseparable from those who created it (Wagner et al., 2002).

In one of only a few quantitative empirical knowledge sharing studies reported in the literature, Ryu et al. (2003) investigated knowledge sharing attitudes for physicians within hospitals. This study is of particular relevance as they operate in the same environment as professional nurses. They came to the conclusion that a physician’s career is knowledge-intensive and of vital theoretical and practical value for the care of
patients. Knowledge sharing is very important for physicians in tertiary hospitals, because they are required to be research-oriented, creative in medical care, and ready to take new medical knowledge opportunities that can be acquired through various organisational learning mechanisms.

The ultimate objective of physicians' knowledge sharing is to elevate the quality and efficiency of care in hospitals (Ryu et al., 2003). These objectives would probably be more or less the same for professional nurses. Professional nurses routinely use highly developed domain knowledge in combination with experiential knowledge to deliver quality care (Curran, 2004). It is important to realise that most models and theories of knowledge management is described from an economic perspective (Shin, 2004). To a large extent the focus is on economic benefits (e.g. when companies collaborate in acquisitions and mergers), costs relating to sharing, resource characteristics, structures, the flow of information, etc. As this study focuses on knowledge sharing as a human need to fulfill higher goals, it is important to describe knowledge sharing as an organisational process with the emphasis on people.

Since knowledge sharing is not well developed as an empirical construct, and is investigated in this study within a social-exchange model, it is important to describe the pre-requisites, methods and consequences for sharing. Figure 2.4 provides an outline of knowledge sharing as theoretical process. If certain pre-requisites such as reciprocity, trust, reward systems, career development, group affiliation, organisational strategy and values, management support, sufficient time and distance are met, proper knowledge sharing methods institutionalised (e.g. training, social events, meetings), and there is a willingness on the part of people to share knowledge, the organisation will benefit by being more competitive, innovative and effective. It must be noted that many of the pre-requisites are also related to organisational culture. This supports the views of various authors that organisational culture is an essential pre-requisite for knowledge sharing (e.g. Gupta et al., 2002; Yang & Wan, 2004). It is apparent from this proposed model that knowledge sharing entails specific steps, where each is a pre-requisite to continue to the next step.
Figure 2.4: Theoretical Framework of Knowledge Sharing
[Adapted from Bartol and Srivastava (2002); Chua (2003); Gupta et al. (2000); Haldin-Herrgard (2000); Katsirikou (2003); Lemon and Sahota (2004); Husted & Michailova (2002); McDermott and O'Dell (2001); Nonaka (1991); Rowley (2003); Shin (2004); Tippens (2003); and Yang and Wan (2004)]
2.6.2 Pre-requisites for Knowledge Sharing

(1) Organisational Culture

Since an individual’s knowledge sharing tendency is driven by a set of contextualised concerns (Chua, 2003), it is also important to evaluate knowledge sharing behaviour in the context of the organisational culture. A supportive organisational culture is regarded by various researchers as a pre-requisite for knowledge sharing behaviours (Gupta et al., 2002; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Husted & Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O’Dell, 2001; Ryu et al., 2003; Shin, 2004; Yang & Wan, 2004). However, empirical evidence is lacking as to how organisational culture contributes to knowledge sharing behaviour. Ryu et al. (2003), in their study of physicians’ knowledge sharing behaviour, suggested that hospitals should pay more attention to create an environment where physicians can have a number of “cultural” factors such as professional autonomy and effective communication structures. Unfortunately, this was only one of a very limited number of empirical studies investigating antecedents and consequences regarding knowledge sharing behaviour.

A study done on some 40 companies that exemplify desirable knowledge sharing practices revealed that these companies not only integrate knowledge sharing into their business strategy, they develop approaches and styles that match their prevailing organisational culture to minimise resistance (McDermott and O’Dell, 2001).

In a qualitative study, Jones et al. (2004) used eight dimensions as theoretical framework to identify behaviours related to cultural values that facilitate or impede knowledge sharing during enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems. They are orientation to change (stability vs. change), control, coordination and responsibility (concentrated vs. autonomous decision making), orientation to collaboration (isolation vs. collaboration), basis of truth and rationality (hard data vs. personal experience), motivation (external vs. internal), orientation to work (process vs. results), orientation and focus (internal vs. external) and time horizons (short term vs. long term). Their most important findings suggested that two dimensions, orientation to change and the basis of
truth and rationality differentiate the most between knowledge sharing behaviour. Companies that maintain the status quo of stability showed less willingness to participate in knowledge sharing than those that were change orientated. The most prominent barrier preventing knowledge sharing is how superiors and subordinates interact. Possible strategies on how to address this problem could be having regular informal team building exercises. This is also regarded by various researchers as a method of knowledge sharing (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002; Jones et al., 2004; Gupta et al., 2000).

Often, organisational culture itself prevents people from sharing and disseminating their know-how in an effort to hold onto their individual powerbase and viability. Organisational culture is a critically important aspect for facilitating sharing, learning, and knowledge creation. An open culture with incentives built around integrating individual skills and experiences into organisational knowledge will be more successful (Gupta et al., 2000).

(2) Reciprocity

An individual’s knowledge sharing tendency is driven by a set of contextualised concerns and interests (Chua, 2003). Since social factors are precipitated by a bilateral relationship between the one who shares and the one who receives knowledge, knowledge sharing behaviour can only be sustained through reciprocity. An individual shares knowledge in reciprocation because it is both a socially expected behaviour, as well as a means of obtaining desired resources for mutual benefits. Knowledge sharing within a social exchange context refers to reciprocal acts in which individuals offer help or information to one another, without negotiation of terms and without knowledge of whether or when the other will reciprocate (Chua, 2003).

Conversely, when knowledge sharing is not reciprocated, knowledge sharing behaviour is impeded. This is consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Thus, such exchanges are marked with risk as to what and when the returns of one’s contributions
will be. Furthermore, the decision to share or withhold knowledge depends on which would yield a higher payoff (Chua, 2003). Knowledge (expertise) is a source of power, the disclosure of which might lead to erosion of individual power, thereby partly explaining an individual's reluctance to share it with others (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). Pérez-Bustamante (1999) is also of the opinion that some individuals may perceive that the possession of information grants them a special power and communicating this knowledge could provoke a loss of their competitive advantage, which lead to feelings of disempowerment.

(3) **Trust**

The key for employers and employees alike to internalize knowledge sharing behaviour, is to build and maintain trust across the organisation, due to the fact that it depends entirely on people (Husted & Michailova, 2002). Trust is critical before knowledge sharing will take place (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002; Husted & Michailova, 2002; Lemon & Sahota, 2004; Panteli & Sockalingam, 2004; Wagner et al., 2002; Yang & Wan, 2004).

Romans (in Bartol & Srivastava, 2002) argued that trust, defined as an expectation that an exchange partner will behave the same, plays a more important role in reciprocal transactions than in economic exchange where terms and conditions are known in advance and may even be guaranteed by the organisation.

On the other hand, in the case of social exchange where people make contributions beyond what is included in their job descriptions, it is important that people trust that the organisation will reciprocate in some form or other in the long run (Romans in Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). Knowledge sharing is therefore also influenced by the expectations of employees that their behaviour will be rewarded. Trust is also a mediator between various domains such as leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour (Kanovsky & Pugh, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000).
(4) **Reward Systems**

In order to increase the prospects of knowledge sharing by employees, organisations would benefit by knowing how incentives could be effective, for example a reward system (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). Reward, recognition and incentive systems must support knowledge sharing (Chua, 2003; Husted & Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001; Yang & Wan, 2004). However, McDermott and O'Dell (2001) suggested that none of the best practice companies they investigated thought reward and recognition systems could effectively motivate people to share knowledge. But reward and recognition is another way to make the importance of sharing knowledge visible. It highlights the things the company feels are important and demonstrates that the time and energy people spend sharing knowledge "counts" in their performance and career.

According to Wagner et al. (2002) effective leadership and communication from management enhance psychological variables such as motivation, attitude and interest. Respondents in a software company emphasised that in order to enjoy the advantages of a knowledge management system, employees should be rewarded for their efforts from the start. They recommend the development of a reward or incentive platform to facilitate the processes necessary for implementation. This includes a reward system that was tangible (financial benefit) and a reward system that was intangible (being acknowledged for having and sharing the knowledge).

(5) **Career Development**

It is also important that employees do not fear that their career development is in danger if knowledge sharing leads to mistakes and failures. An individual's market value and bargaining power is related to the quality and value of the knowledge he or she possesses. For example, one's incentive for spending years on educating oneself is justified through a belief that this will result in a higher market value compared with others without high level of education. Much of this value is usually "hard won," sometimes through failures and frustration. It is therefore important that organisations
guarantee that sharing knowledge will not impede on career development (Husted & Michailova, 2002).

The willingness to share knowledge, on the other hand, can be very beneficial for career development. An individual can create, or reinforce an expert image among peers (Jarvenpaa & Staples in Chua, 2003), promoting one’s visibility in the organisation, fulfilling an organisational obligation, establishing future relationships and altruistically wanting to help others (Davenport & Prusak, 1999).

(6) **Group Affiliation**

Strong group affiliation and teamwork is critical for knowledge sharing (Husted & Michailova, 2002). Knowledge sharing is subject to the desire of others wanting to do likewise (Chua, 2003). The networking of people in an organisation is vital to the success of effective knowledge exchange (Wiig, 1998). When there is an absence of a strong personal tie that warrants listening to or helping each other, knowledge sharing is hampered. Helping behaviour is also classified in this study as an organisational citizenship behaviour and may be closely related to the willingness to share knowledge.

(7) **Organisational Strategy and Values**

The impact of globalisation, technology, diversity and other environmental trends calls for a paradigm shift in management thinking (Wagner et al., 2002). It is therefore important that knowledge sharing must be integrated into a business strategy to reach goals such as competitiveness, effectiveness and innovation (Chua, 2003; McDermott & O’Dell, 2001). Effective innovation that improves the ability of an organisation to remain competitive within an uncertain environment requires the creation, capture, harvest, sharing and application of knowledge and expertise (Lemon & Sahota, 2004). According to Wagner et al. (2002) is it vital for the organisation to innovate and build environments that will enable the creation of new knowledge. They found that respondents in a software company, the idea of efficiency in knowledge sharing means
that information has to be shared regularly “for the right people, the right information, and at the right time”. The process encapsulated a strategic management system of intellectual capital that is derived from the organisation’s “collective knowledge reservoir.”

Sharing knowledge is also tightly linked to a pre-existing core value of the organisation (McDermott & O’Dell, 2001). This means that employers must openly declare knowledge sharing as a core instrumental value of the organisation. Thereafter, it is important for managers to support knowledge sharing initiatives, activities and behaviour.

(8) **Management Support**

Support from direct managers is an important enabler of knowledge sharing (McDermott & O’Dell, 2001). As management plays an important role in the social exchange relationship (Chua, 2003), and is directly involved in the compensation for knowledge sharing behaviour (Chua, 2003; Husted & Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O’Dell 2001; Yang & Wan, 2004), it surely is very important that they openly support knowledge sharing on all levels. To reach this objective they should communicate openly about knowledge sharing practices.

Communication from top management is therefore the driving force to the effective implementation of a knowledge management system (Wagner et al., 2002). There should at all times be a pro-active approach to communication (Pérez-Bustamante, 1999). Knowledge exchange in an organisation is fundamentally driven by structural communication processes. Communication serves as the means of control and co-ordination of both people and resources (Shin, 2004).

(9) **Sufficient Time and Distance**

One of the problems many organisations experience is time constraints. This makes it very difficult for employers to create knowledge sharing activities. Sufficient time is a
pre-requisite for knowledge sharing (Husted & Michailova, 2002; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Yang & Wan, 2004). Staff shortages will lead to work overload that makes it difficult to have time to share knowledge.

Knowledge is mainly tacit in nature and should be shared face-to-face (Rowley, 2003). Distance between people will restrict face-to-face interaction and hinder knowledge sharing (Haldin-Herrgard, 2000). According to Wagner et al. (2002), it would appear that employees recognize that the main obstacles to implementation of a knowledge management strategy is not confined to an individual level such as willingness to share knowledge, but are more on an organisational level, such as ineffective communication systems that makes it difficult to share knowledge.

2.6.3 Methods of Knowledge Sharing

The following are examples of how knowledge sharing can take place: workshops, seminars, conferences, teambuilding exercises (Gupta et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2004); written reports (Gupta et al., 2000); through face-to-face interactions (Dixon in Chua, 2003); informal gatherings, dialogues, social events, collective reflections (Yang & Wan, 2004); training (Husted & Michailova, 2002; Yang & Wan, 2004); conventional employee suggestion programs (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002); periodic meetings across teams/work units (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002); best practices (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001); performance appraisal, merit pay, promotions (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002, McDermott & O'Dell, 2001); and mentoring programs (Gupta et al., 2000; Yang & Wan, 2004). All of these methods have merit, but it is suggested that a holistic approach must be followed by using a combination of them.

2.6.4 Expected Outcomes of Knowledge Sharing

Some of the expected outcomes of knowledge sharing are described as improving the competencies of the organisation (Chua, 2003), increased business performance (Shin, 2004), to become innovative (Gupta et al., 2000; Lemon & Sahota, 2004) and gain
financial benefits (Samaddar & Kadiyala, 2003). The expected outcomes are very much interrelated as it can probably be assumed that the improvement of competencies will lead to increased business performance, financial benefits, innovation, etc.

The ultimate goal to date, in many of the knowledge management initiatives (where the sharing of information is of vital importance) is to stay competitive (Chua, 2003; Gupta et al., 2000; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Husted & Michailova, 2002; Samaddar & Kadiyala, 2003; Shin, 2004; Van Gils & Zwart, 2004). However, the link between knowledge sharing and the above benefits, remain tenuous (Shin, 2004).

McEvily and Chakravartly (2002), in only a few studies about the relationship between knowledge sharing and competitive advantage, investigated empirically the circumstances under which the creation and sharing of knowledge could contribute to improved organisational competitive advantages. They found that when a company creates and shares knowledge internally, particularly technological and scientific knowledge, it brings about greatly improved performance, innovation and competitive advantage.

Other benefits of knowledge sharing may include more effective problem solving, dynamic learning, better strategic planning and improved decision making (Gupta et al., 2000).

2.6.5 **Knowledge Sharing and Turnover Intentions**

There is little empirical evidence of the relationship between knowledge sharing and turnover intentions. The reason for this is mainly because knowledge sharing as empirical construct is not well developed (Hislop, 2003).
2.6.6 Knowledge Sharing in the Nursing Profession and in South African hospitals

An extensive literature research did not yield any results of the concept of knowledge sharing in the nursing profession or in South African hospitals alike.

From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.4 was achieved. Organisational commitment as mediating variable, is introduced next.

2.7 Organisational Commitment

2.7.1 Theoretical Framework of Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has a long history, and has been given a great deal of research attention (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The psychological bond between employee and employer is an important predictor of work-related attitudes and behaviours (Cohen, 1998; Matthieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Riketta & Van Dick, 2004), as well as organisational performance (Cohen, 1998; Jernigan, Beggs & Kohut, 2002; Reilly & Orsak, 1991) and even the performance of national economies (Roodt, 2004a).

Morrow (1983) indicated that several, but different theoretical foundations, have been used to define commitment related concepts, resulting in a number of measuring instruments. Despite the lack of consensus on the conceptual and theoretical development of this construct, the concept of organisational commitment has attracted considerable interest in an attempt to understand and clarify the intensity and stability of an employee’s dedication to the organisation (Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003).

The strength of an individual’s work commitment consists of at least four elements, namely job involvement, organisational commitment, career commitment, and work values/involvement (Morrow, 1983). Employee commitment evolved as a wide range of “types” (e.g. engagement, attachment, commitment, involvement) within a wide
spectrum of foci (e.g. work, job, career, profession/occupation, organisation, union), while approaches towards studying commitment varied between behavioural, attitudinal and motivational within three broad research streams, namely sociological, industrial/organisational psychology and health psychology (Roodt, 2004a). According to Roodt, Bester and Boshoff (1994a) employee commitment can be described as a continuum, ranging from alienation to commitment.

According to Roodt (2004a) research in the commitment field is characterised by concept redundancy and concept contamination. Concept redundancy in this context refers to the use of related variables that largely overlap in meaning, e.g. work involvement and work commitment. Concept contamination occurs when a variable contains a large proportion of shared or common content with other “unrelated” variables, e.g. morale and work involvement. This results in poor theory building and development with regard to employee commitment.

It is therefore necessary to outline the concept of commitment for the purpose of this study. To do this, a short overview on the different approaches to study commitment must first be described.

2.7.2 Approaches to Study Commitment

Researchers have distinguished between three approaches to study commitment, namely from a behavioural, an attitudinal, and a motivational perspective.

2.7.2.1 Behavioural Approach

The behavioural approach to commitment (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) identified a number of commitment behaviours in the work context. Terms such as, “investments” and “side bets”, were used to describe some commitment behaviours. This approach did not distinguish between the antecedents, the state of commitment itself and the consequences. According to Roodt (2004a), the behavioural approach is particularly
problematic, because behaviour is multi-deterministic; i.e. predictors related to a particular behaviour can also predict other behaviours. Antecedent and consequential behaviours of commitment can also be related to other determinant or consequential conditions such as job satisfaction, morale or intention to leave. The state of commitment is therefore not precisely defined.

2.7.2.2 Attitudinal Approach

An example of the attitudinal approach is the work of Allen and Meyer (1990) who refer to three components of commitment, namely normative, affective and continuance commitment. The affective component of organisational commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation. Finally, the normative component refers to the employee’s feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation.

The three components of commitment are considered to be psychological states which employees experience to differing degrees. Each individual is assumed to experience the components of commitment in varying strengths. Subsequent research suggests that continuance commitment consists of two related sub-dimensions, namely personal sacrifice and perceived lack of employment alternatives (Dunham, Grube & Castañeda, 1994). Both personal sacrifice and the perceived lack of employment alternatives increase the costs associated with leaving the organisation. The three components correspond with some attitude theories and contain a cognitive (normative), an affective (emotional), and a conative (continuance) element.

According to Roodt (2004a), the attitudinal approach to commitment currently dominates the research literature, but has some limitations. Firstly, the commitment construct is conceptualised as being multi-dimensional which poses problems in predictive models and from a conceptual perspective does not meet the criteria for parsimony, clarity and precision; and secondly, it includes an affective as well as conative component which
creates a conceptual overlap with job attitudes such as job satisfaction and job intentions (such as intention to leave) respectively or moral/or normative commitment such as work values.

2.7.2.3 The Motivational Approach

The motivational approach emerged recently in an attempt to integrate the diverse perspectives and also to overcome the most important limitations of the other two approaches. The motivational approach was proposed by Kanungo (1982) and variations thereof were used by Roodt (1997) and Roodt et al. (1994a; 1994b).

This approach only focuses on the state of commitment in a particular focus. The state of commitment is not only separated from its antecedent and consequential conditions and behaviours, but also from its related affective and conative components that are also present in other widely used constructs, such as job satisfaction and intention to leave respectively. The measurement of different commitment foci can therefore be seen as a motivational approach. This is also seen by Roodt (1997; 2004a) and Storm and Roodt (2002) as a cognitive predisposition towards a particular focus. As this approach is of particular relevance in this study, a discussion of the different commitment foci is important. Thereafter, the discussion of commitment as a cognitive predisposition, will be outlined in a baseline motivational model as suggested by Roodt (2004a).

2.7.3 Commitment Foci

Shore, Newton and Martin (1990) suggested that attitudes should be studied with different foci in mind. According to Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1977), attitudes are directed at entities that may be defined by four different elements including attitudes toward targets, actions, contexts and times, or toward any combination of elements. This, according to Shore et al. (1990), suggests that attitudes with different targets are distinct, and therefore distinction between different foci is also necessary. They, for example,
suggested that a distinction must be made between organisation and job foci. Organisational attitudes may reflect more general employment policies and practices, especially compared with other potential employers. In contrast, job attitudes may reflect the type of work, tasks, and immediate supervision experienced by the employee on the job. Thus, an employee may feel quite positively about the job because of the immediate experience of the job, but feel negatively toward the organisation due to policies regarding pay scales or promotion.

These positive or negative feelings about jobs and organisations should then contribute to more specific attitudes such as job satisfaction or organisational commitment. That is, feelings of liking or disliking your job (satisfaction) can be distinguished from feelings of attachment to the job (commitment), though these attitudes should be related since they have the same focus (Shore et al., 1990).

Research suggests that employees experience several different commitments to the goals and values of multiple groups, and that where two individuals may be committed to “the organisation”, the focus of the two commitments may be entirely different (Mester et al., 2003; Roodt, 1997, 2004a; Storm & Roodt, 2002). Individuals may thus be committed in varying degrees to top management, immediate supervisors, peers, customers, unions, their career, occupation or profession (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Roodt, 2004a). The distinction between different commitment foci may therefore only be of theoretical interest if the same theoretical base is used in operationalising the different foci (Roodt, 1997; 2004a; Storm & Roodt, 2002).

Roodt (1997) found that when six foci (work, job, career, profession, organisation and union), were operationalised on the same theoretical basis, (as a cognitive predisposition), only the focus “union” emerged as a separate focus after scores were factor analysed. Roodt (1997; 2004a) therefore seriously posed the question as to whether it served a purpose to distinguish between the different work-related foci, except maybe to obtain a better understanding of the dynamics of organisational commitment or the relative importance of each foci. This supports the suggestion of
Shore et al. (1990) that distinguished between organisation and job foci. There is a difference between “organisation” and “job” foci, similarly there is a difference between “work” and “union” foci. This is consistent with the views of Morrow, Eastman and Elroy (1991), who also raised concerns as to whether raters were able to distinguish between the different foci.

In research (Allen & Ortlepp, 2002; Morrow & McElroy, 1986) where different commitment foci operationalised on different bases were used, results frequently indicated that the different foci are correlated and thus share some common variance. Allen and Ortlepp (2002) also argued a case for distinguishing between work and career salience.

According to Roodt (2004a), it seems that researchers, who have reported construct and discriminant validity in the instruments used, capitalised on the effect of using different theoretical foundations and measures. It can therefore be argued that a more parsimonious approach in the use of work-related commitment foci is needed.

2.7.4 A Baseline Motivational Model

It seems as if the golden thread running through all the definitions of commitment is the potential for a particular focus to satisfy salient needs. A motivational approach, which also includes the realisation of salient values and the achievement of salient goals, as suggested by Roodt (1991), seems to be more appropriate to study commitment.

The psychological activities of human beings are often divided into four categories, namely cognition (beliefs), affect (attitudes/emotions), conation (intentions) and manifest behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These psychological activities are distinguishable, but related components (Figure 2.5). Affect has a cognitive origin and is related to a range of possible behavioural intentions. There is a direct link between the three components and manifest behaviour.
According to Roodt (2004a), this theoretical model provides a basis for distinguishing between related concepts such as work commitment and work satisfaction. Based on this widely accepted distinction, commitment is defined as a cognitive predisposition (a belief state), based on the subjective assessment of the potential to satisfy salient needs (Brown in Roodt, 2004a). Job satisfaction on the other hand is defined as a combination of emotions (affect) towards job-related objects or facets (Coster, 1992). Intention to leave can again be defined as conation, based on the content of cognition and affect.

According to Roodt (2004a), the state of commitment not only needs to be clearly differentiated from its antecedent and consequential conditions or behaviours, but also in terms of its psychological state. i.e. whether it is cognition, affect, conation, or all three. In the latter case it would alleviate problems in differentiating the state of commitment, from job satisfaction (affect), or intentions to leave (conation). The only logical way it seems, would be to attempt a theoretical integration on a meta-theoretical level (Roodt, 2004a).

Kanungo (1982) proposed a model based on a motivational approach where socialisation processes result in salient needs (in work and non-work spheres) which are followed by instrumental behaviours and attitudes. The potential of these behaviours and attitudes to satisfy salient needs are then evaluated which result in commitment and
alienation and their resulting behaviours. The limitation of this model is that the conflict potential between different life roles and the resulting struggle for establishing equilibrium between these roles are not fully reflected in this model. The role of defence mechanisms (as an important motivational mechanism) in the aforementioned process is also not mentioned. The inclusion of salient values and needs are also not addressed in Kanungo’s (1982) model (Roodt, 2004a).

Locke and Henne (1986) developed a motivational model based on a meta-theoretical analysis of existing work motivation theories that addresses most of these mentioned concerns. According to this model, which evolves from generic to specific, behaviour (action) is triggered by salient needs, followed by salient values and then by salient goals (Roodt et al., 1994b). All the concepts are moderated by cognitive processes (including the self-concept, defence mechanisms and instrumental perceptions), while goals specifically are also influenced by emotional content (Roodt, 2004a). This model is illustrated in Figure 2.6.

![Figure 2.6: A Basic Motivational Approach](image)

(Adapted from Locke & Henne, 1986, p.2)

Roodt (2004a) therefore suggested a baseline motivational model for explaining the state of commitment (the alienation – commitment continuum) (Figure 2.7). Specific instrumental actions would lead to salient need satisfaction and if successful, also to a
positive emotional state. Positive emotions act as feedback to assess future values and goals for their need satisfaction potential. The model can be applied in different contexts, i.e. work, family and leisure, or can be directed to different foci in the work context. The model suggests that the commitment process remains the same regardless of the context or the focus in question.

The model clearly distinguishes between the antecedents, the consequences of commitment and the state of commitment itself. It also high-lights the influences of instrumental perceptions (expectancy) and emotions and also distinguishes resulting (consequential) behaviours on the alienation – commitment continuum. In terms of this continuum, the inability of a particular focus to satisfy salient needs will result in low commitment (alienation). In the case of excessive commitment salient needs will revolve around avoiding irrational fears of boredom or fears of failure. Commitment can therefore be conceptualised as different levels on a continuum, ranging from alienation to extreme commitment (Roodt et al., 1994a), thereby integrating the three streams of research by using a motivational approach. It seems as if the motivational approach overcomes most of the mentioned limitations of the two other approaches to commitment (Roodt, 2004a).

From the model it can also be depicted that both dispositional and situational factors influence the level of commitment. High levels of commitment will result in positive outcomes like organisational citizenship behaviour and lower turnover as suggested in this study. A golden thread running through the discussion of other concepts in this study (e.g. organisational culture and job satisfaction), is that both dispositional and situational factors influence the process, also consequential behaviours influence the levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours in return. One of the antecedents (e.g. a situational factor) may be compensation or other related incentives provided by the organisation. It therefore seems that the baseline motivational model to explain work commitment by Roodt (2004a), also provides some qualities to explain commitment in a social exchange relationship.
2.7.5 Relationship between Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intentions

Research overwhelmingly indicated that commitment predicts turnover intentions. Higher commitment levels predict lower turnover intentions (Boshoff et al., 2002; Chen et al., 1998; Cohen, 1998; Cohen, 1993; Firth et al., 2004; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002; Iverson, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982; Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Schwepker, 2001; Shore et al., 1990; Vallabh & Donald, 2001; Williams & Hazer, 1986).
2.7.6 Organisational Commitment in the Nursing Profession and in South African Hospitals

A review of the literature yielded limited empirical evidence of the concept of organisational commitment in the nursing profession. A positive relationship were found by Blegen (1993) between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, while Knoop (1995) found that organisational commitment was related to overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with work, promotion opportunity, supervision, co-workers and pay among Canadian nurses. No empirical evidence could be found of the concept of organisational commitment in South African hospitals.

From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.5 was achieved. The next mediating variable to be introduced is Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB’s).

2.8 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB’s)

2.8.1 Theoretical Framework of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Studies focusing on the implications on what organisational citizenship behaviour holds out for the workplace, illustrates that there is a distinct relationship between these behaviours and positive organisational outcomes (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997). Evidence further indicates, that organisations that have employees who exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours, outperform those that do not (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Organisational citizenship behaviour on the whole promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation, lubricates the social machinery of the organisation, and provides the flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies (Tang & Abrahim, 1998).

According to Joubert, Crafford and Schepers (2004) organisational citizenship is more than an extension of one’s belief in moral principles from the privacy of one’s home and
family life. Organisational citizenship implies *identification with*, and *belief in* the principles, morals, and values of the organisation within which one works (whereas organisation commitment implies *adherence* to the same). This, however, indicates a lack of conceptual clarity. As described in the previous section, Roodt (2004a), clearly stated that commitment not only needs to be clearly differentiated from its antecedent and consequential conditions or behaviours, but also in terms of its psychological state, i.e. whether it is cognition, affect, conation, or all three.

Joubert et al. (2004) continues by stating that organisational citizenship serves as a guide for organisational performance, and through these behaviours, quality, social responsibility, and ethical behaviour can combine into good results. They view organisational commitment as behaviours in accordance with formal role descriptions, and as behaviours that can reasonably be expected from an employee, and can thus be enforced by the employer (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Table 2.1 compares organisational commitment with organisational citizenship behaviour (Joubert et al., 2004).

Joubert et al. (2004) suggested that one way to differentiate between the two concepts is to focus on the enforceability of the behaviour. It is proposed that organisational commitment behaviours are primarily “in-role” and can reasonably be enforced by the employer, whereas organisational citizenship behaviour is primarily “extra-role” and tends to be far less enforceable by the employer. An employer cannot easily punish an employee for not exhibiting organisational citizenship behaviour.

Again, the distinction made by Joubert et al. (2004) is based on poor conceptual clarity and without a proper understanding of the research literature. Commitment is a condition and results in a range of behaviours as opposed to OCB’s that is a collection of behaviours. According to Roodt (2004a) OCB’s can be seen as a consequence of organisational commitment. This view is consistent with the view of Organ (1988) and Podsakoff et al. (2000) that OCB’s stem from positive or non-self-serving motives (such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, or conscientiousness). The distinction between organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational commitment by
Joubert et al. (2004) are therefore not theoretically sound. The same argument was supported by Bolino et al. (2004) that seen OCB’s as a group of behaviours, lacking conceptual clarity.

**TABLE 2.1**  
**COMPARING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT WITH ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**  
(JOUBERT, CRAFFORD & SCHEPERS, 2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational Commitment</th>
<th>Organisational citizenship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arriving on time and not leaving early</td>
<td>Arriving earlier and leaving later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating machinery correctly</td>
<td>Operating machinery efficiently and productively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting management’s expectations</td>
<td>Exceeding management expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest at the workplace</td>
<td>Encouraging honesty and reporting dishonesty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not bringing the company into disrepute</td>
<td>Actively promoting the company</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since its original connection with a desirable job attitude (i.e. job satisfaction), OCB’s has always been depicted in a positive manner in subsequent research (Bolino et al., 2004). As a result three basic assumptions have generally guided the research on OCB’s to date: (1) that OCB’s stem from positive or non-self-serving motives (such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, or conscientiousness); (2) that OCB’s facilitate the effective functioning of organisations (by “lubricating” its social machinery); and (3) that citizenship in organisations ultimately benefits employees by making organisations a more attractive place to work (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Given the proliferation of OCB-like constructs, some authors have sought to develop empirical or conceptual frameworks that integrate these different constructs or clarify their similarities and differences (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Dyne, Cummings & McLean Parks, 1995). According to Bolino et al. (2004) these constructs describe and measure employee behaviours that are extremely similar to citizenship. That is, all of these constructs are essentially concerned with the same type of employee behaviours.
According to Van Dyne et al. (1994), each conceptualisation is useful and researchers should focus on specific types of citizenship behaviours based on relevance to a particular research question (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001).

2.8.2 Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Van Dyne et al. (1995) indicated that prior studies offer three categories of antecedents of OCB’s:

1. **Affective states** thought to contribute to OCB’s include overall job satisfaction, affective commitment, job involvement, perceptions that justified expectations have been met, perceptions that one’s psychological contract has been maintained, and low alienation.

2. **Individual differences** that may account for OCB’s include conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive affectivity, propensity to trust, organisation-based self-esteem, need for affiliation, relationship orientation, empathetic concern, and field dependence. Tang and Abraham (1998), for example, found that a positive self image is the best predictor for organisational citizenship behaviour.

3. **Situational factors**, such as a stable environment, leader supportiveness, and group or work-unit cohesiveness, are also discussed as likely antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour.

According to Padsokoff et al. (2000) empirical research has focused on four major categories of antecedents: individual (or employee) characteristics, tasks characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours.

1. Individual characteristics include employee attitudes (satisfaction, fairness, organisational commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment, trust in leader), dispositional variables (conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive
affectivity, negative affectivity), employee role perceptions (role ambiguity, role conflict), demographic variables (tenure, gender), employee abilities and individual differences (ability, experience, training, knowledge, professional orientation, need for independence, indifference to rewards).

(2) Task characteristics include task feedback, task routinization and intrinsically satisfying task.

(3) Organisational characteristics include organisational formalisation, organisational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, cohesive group, rewards outside leader’s control, spatial distance from leader and perceived organisational support.

(4) Leadership behaviours include aspects of vision, group goals, transformation, high performance expectations, reward and punishment behaviour, role clarification and leader-member exchange. Many of these variables, especially employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceptions of fairness, perceptions of leadership effectiveness and task characteristics, directly or indirectly, showed significant relationships with organisational citizenship behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This may give an indication that citizenship behaviours are displayed in a social exchange context. Generally speaking, demographic variables or employee characteristics have not been found to be related to OCB’s.

Although various aspects mentioned by Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Van Dyne et al. (1995) are similar, it can be assumed that many of them are associated with the culture of the organisation. This is especially relevant if a dimensional approach is followed to analyze organisational culture.
2.8.3 Types of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

To date, researchers have proposed a variety of specific dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue (Organ, 1988), obedience, loyalty, advocacy participation, social participation, functional participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994) and helping and voice (Van Dyne et al., 1995; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998).

Podsakoff et al. (2000) suggest seven common themes or dimensions: (1) Helping Behaviour; (2) Sportmanship; (3) Organisational Loyalty; (4) Organisational Compliance; (5) Individual initiative; (6) Civic virtue; and (7) Self development. A short description of the themes and the various dimensions appear in Table 2.2. From Table 2.2 it could be depicted that some of the themes and dimensions are similar and to an extent have common concepts; i.e. altruism as helping behaviour (helping a person in a face-to-face situation) is more or less similar to helping co-workers as sportsmanship behaviour (voluntary forms of assistance to reach goals).

This, as was mentioned, was also the concern of Bolino et al. (2004), that OCB constructs are essentially concerned with the same type of employee behaviours. It is however clear, regardless of the type of organisational citizenship behaviour, that all these behaviours are desired behavioural traits, that will benefit the employer and organisational members alike.

2.8.4 Helping and Voice as OCB’s

Researchers have overwhelmingly focused on examining the antecedents of OCB’s that are consistent with the assumption that citizenship behaviours are motivated by a desire to help others or reciprocate the positive treatment received from the organisation (Bolino et al., 2004).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Citizenship Behaviour Theme</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helping behaviour</td>
<td>Altruisim</td>
<td>Helping a person in a face-to-face situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>Help somebody to prevent a problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peacemaking</td>
<td>Actions to prevent, resolve of mitigate conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cheerleading</td>
<td>Gestures of encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal Helping</td>
<td>Helping coworkers in jobs when it is needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>Tolerating inconveniences without whining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OCB-I</td>
<td>Benefit others through own contribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Helping coworkers</td>
<td>Voluntary forms of assistance to reach goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Helping and Cooperating</td>
<td>Assisting/helping coworkers or customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal facilitation</td>
<td>Deliberate acts to improve morale, co-operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Loyalty</td>
<td>Loyalty boosterism</td>
<td>Promotion of organisational image to outsiders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational Loyalty</td>
<td>Identification with leaders, individuals, work groups and defending organisation against threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Compliance</td>
<td>Generalised compliance</td>
<td>Conscientious indirectly benefit others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational Obedience</td>
<td>Respect for rules, policies, structure, tasks etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spreading Goodwill</td>
<td>Represent organisations to wider communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Endorsing, supporting,</td>
<td>Stay with organisation through hard times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>defending objectives</td>
<td>Benefit organisation in general –gives advance notice when unable to come to work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OCB-O</td>
<td>Follow rules in respect for authority, meeting deadlines, following orders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Following organisational</td>
<td>Self-disciplined behaviours such as following orders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rules and procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job dedication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual initiative</td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Behaviour beyond minimum requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Industry</td>
<td>Performance above the call of duty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual initiative</td>
<td>Communications to others to improve performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic virtue</td>
<td>Civic virtue</td>
<td>Constructive involvement in broader processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational Participation</td>
<td>Interest in organisational affairs, attend non-required meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constructive suggestions</td>
<td>Voluntary acts of creativity and innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job dedication</td>
<td>Initiative to solve problems at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Protecting the organisation</td>
<td>Voluntary acts to save life and property</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self development</td>
<td>Developing oneself</td>
<td>Voluntary improvement of skills and abilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Helping behaviour has therefore been identified as an important form of citizenship behaviour by virtually everyone who has worked in this area (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Dyne et al, 1995; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998). Conceptually, helping behaviour involves voluntary helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of work related problems (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Helping behaviour is also referred to as altruism (helping a person in a face-to-face situation), courtesy (help somebody in preventing a problem), peacemaking (actions to prevent or resolve conflict), cheerleading (gestures of encouragement), and interpersonal helping (helping coworkers in jobs when needed).

As stated, Van Dyne et al. (1995) describe OCB’s as affiliative and promotive behaviours and conceptualize extra-role behaviours as activities that an employee engages in to “benefit something other than him/herself.” These labels themselves seem to reinforce the notion that OCB’s represent an expression of other-orientated behaviour on the part of employees (Bolino et al., 2004). Helping behaviour was significantly related to every indicator of performance, including sales performance (Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1994), production, product quality, team sales (Podsakoff et al., 1997), waste, revenue, operating efficiency, customer satisfaction and quality of performance (Walz & Niehoff in Podsakoff et al., 2000). Helping was not significantly related to customer complaints (Walz & Niehoff in Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Voice can be described as behaviour that is challenging and promotive in nature. Employees are willing to speak up and make recommendations for change and innovation (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). The emphasis is on ideas that are change-orientated.

2.8.4 Relationship between OCB’s and Turnover Intentions

A review of the literature indicated that although organisational citizenship behaviour has not been integrated as an important component of turnover (Chen et al., 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2000), a few studies yielded a negative relation (Aryee & Chay, 2001;
Chen et al., 1998; Cropanzano, Byrne & Rupp, 2003). However, no sufficient evidence could be found as to whether OCB’s predict turnover intentions.

2.8.5 OCB’s in the Nursing Profession and in South African Hospitals

Bolon (1997), in a study of 202 hospital employees (78% nurses and 22% laboratory personnel), found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB’s directed towards co-workers or supervisors. OCB’s are defined in this context as behaviour that benefits specific individuals (e.g. helping a specific person with an organisationally relevant task or problem). The focus of this type of behaviour is on the individual (OCBI), in contrast to behaviour that is directed to the organisation (OCBO). This finding is consistent with overwhelming research that indicated that satisfaction with co-workers is a prominent factor in determining nurses’ satisfaction (Adams & Bond, 2000; Blegan, 1993; Lu et al., 2004; Nolan, Nolan & Grant, 1995; Price, 2002; Tovey & Adams, 1999) and turnover intentions (Lee, Song, Cho, Lee & Daly, 2003; Stolte & Myers, 1995; Yin & Yang, 2002).

Bolon (1997) also found a significant positive relationship between OCBI and affective commitment (employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation). According to Bolon it may be that individuals becomes so emotionally attached and involved with an organisation that the individual willingly assists other individuals with organisationally relevant tasks or problems because that action is perceived as contributing to or advancing organisation goals and values. Co-workers and supervisors are “part” of the organisation, and by performing actions that immediately benefit these specific individuals, the employee perceives that he or she is also benefiting the organisation. Bolon (1997) suggests that hospital administrators must communicate the hospital’s mission, goals and objectives in order to facilitate OCB’s.

A review of the literature yielded no results regarding the concept of OCB’s in South African hospitals.
From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.6 was achieved. Job satisfaction as a mediating variable is the next concept to be introduced.

2.9 Job Satisfaction

2.9.1 Theoretical Framework of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the most frequently studied variable in organisational behaviour research, and also a central variable in both research and theory of organisational phenomena. The traditional model of job satisfaction focuses on all the feelings that an individual has about his/her job. However, what makes a job satisfying or dissatisfying does not depend only on the nature of the job, but also on the expectations that individuals have of what their job should provide (Lu et al., 2004).

Most employers realise that the optimal functioning of their organisations depends in part on the level of job satisfaction of employees (Rothman & Coetzer, 2002). Employees’ full potential is needed on all levels in organisations, which stresses the importance of being satisfied. Motivational and job satisfaction theories provided a strong basis in understanding human behaviour in organisations. Leading theorist like Maslow (1943; 1954) and Herzberg and Mausner (1957) emphasised the importance on the fulfillment of various needs of employees that will determine their behaviour in organisations.

Maslow (1943) developed a sound motivational theory assuming that people are continuously in a motivational state, but the nature of the motivation is fluctuating and complex. Human beings rarely reach a state of complete satisfaction, except for a short time. As one desire becomes satisfied, another arises to take its place, and as this desire becomes satisfied, another replaces it. Maslow therefore postulated a hierarchy ranging from lower to higher order needs. The physiological needs refer to basic needs (e.g. to eat), the safety needs to be protected (e.g. against danger and deprivation), the social needs to belong and be accepted by others, the ego needs to self-esteem and
status (e.g. recognition, competence), and the self-fulfilling needs to realize one’s full potential for continual self-development.

People experience a greater sense of wholeness and fullness when they are able to satisfy their higher order growth need. Survival needs are often referred to as extrinsic needs (e.g. compensation and working conditions), while higher order needs are referred to as intrinsic needs (e.g. recognition and achievement). Maslow’s (1943) theory is of particular importance as it is postulated in this study that the satisfaction of needs will lead to lower turnover intentions. To satisfy social and self-fulfilling needs (e.g. through organisational citizenship behaviour and knowledge sharing), may lead to higher commitment, job satisfaction and ultimately lower turnover intentions.

Herzberg and Mausner (1959) formulated the two-factor theory of job satisfaction and postulated that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were two separate and sometimes unrelated phenomena. Extrinsic factors were named ‘hygiene’ factors. They were found to be ‘dissatisfiers’ and included: salary, supervision, company policies, administration, interpersonal relations and working conditions. Intrinsic factors named ‘motivators’ were found to be job ‘satisfiers’ and included: advancement, responsibility, recognition, work itself and achievement. Herzberg and Mausner (1959) concluded that only the fulfillment of the motivators could lead to positive satisfaction on the job, and that the fulfillment of the hygiene factors can prevent dissatisfaction, but cannot contribute to positive satisfaction. Once again, although the satisfaction of hygiene factors are also of importance to retain talent, it is postulated in this study that the need satisfaction of motivators may lead to job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions of professional nurses.

Various other theories and motivational models also contribute to the understanding of human behaviour in the workplace such as the valence-instrumentality-expectancy (VIE) theory of Vroom (1964); achievement theory of McClelland (1961) and job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1975). A full explanation of each theory is beyond this study as it is assumed that the fulfillment of needs (described by Maslow
and Herzberg) in the context of this study is probably sufficient. It should, however, be noted that autonomy, as a job characteristic (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), is also similar to what Van der Post et al. (1997) described as a dimension of organisational culture, namely locus of authority. Locus of authority is defined by Van der Post et al. (1997) as the degree of authority, freedom and independence that individual employees have in their jobs.

2.9.2 Approaches to Job Satisfaction

A constant debate in the job satisfaction literature is the effect of situational and dispositional mechanisms on attitude formation. According to Rothman and Coetzer (2002) the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by dispositional and situational aspects. Dispositionists have contended that work attitudes and behaviour are determined by, or at least directly linked to, individual attributes. Dispositional variables can be described as personality characteristics, needs, attitudes, preferences and motives that result in a tendency to react to situations in a predetermined (predisposed) manner.

Situationists, on the other hand, have argued that the world or work, job characteristics, organisational situations and economic conditions affect people much more strongly than do individual differences. Steel and Rentsch (1997) found support for both situational and dispositional mechanisms, concluding that one could “view job satisfaction as the product of both person-based tendencies and situation-based experiences”. Arvey, Carter and Buerkley (1991) suggested that dispositional factors account for 10-30% of the variance in job satisfaction, that 40-60% of the variance is associated with situational factors, and that interactive elements account for 10-20%.

It can be assumed that both dispositional (e.g. needs) and situational factors (e.g. job opportunity) independently and interactively contribute to turnover intentions and eventually turnover. This interactionist perspective is sometimes referred to as the P-O
(Person-Organisation) fit and is regarded as a predictor of job satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

2.9.3 **Job Satisfaction Dimensions**

Locke (1976) explains that for researchers to understand job attitudes, they need to understand job dimensions, which are complex and interrelated in nature. He mentioned that the common dimensions of job satisfaction include: work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management. The evaluation of the different aspects of the job by employees is of a subjective nature, and people will reflect different levels of satisfaction around the same factors. A wide range of dimensions were used previously to measure job satisfaction. Based on the review of the most popular job satisfaction instruments, Spector (1997) summarized the following aspects of job satisfaction as most frequently referred to: appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, the nature of the organisation itself, and organisation’s policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision.

As stated, the definition of job satisfaction used by Weiss et al. (1967) is of particular relevance in this study. They identified the following factors: activity, independence, variety, social status, supervision - human relations, supervision – technical, moral values, security, social services, authority, ability utilization, company policies and practices, compensation, advancement, responsibility, creativity, working conditions, co-workers, recognition and achievement.

The literature regarding levels of job satisfaction among nurses reveal that the sources of satisfaction are relatively similar, e.g. physical working conditions, relationships with fellow workers and managers, pay, promotion, job security, responsibility, the recognition from managers and hours of work (Lu et al., 2004). More specifically, the following findings contributed significantly to understand the satisfaction of nurses:
(1) Price (2002) found that 141 nurses in a large teaching hospital felt that their highest satisfaction was related to co-workers and extrinsic rewards, and the highest source of dissatisfaction was with the amount of control and responsibility they had regarding professional opportunities. They were also satisfied with their annual leave and the hours they worked, but were dissatisfied with compensation over weekends, childcare facilities and working conditions.

(2) Tovey and Adams (1999) found that 265 nurses in England felt their key sources of dissatisfaction were working relationships, lack of staff, professional concerns about poor standards of care and external work pressure.

(3) Nurses entering the nursing profession for reasons of helping others (e.g. patients), indicate significantly higher levels of job satisfaction (Shields & Ward, 2001). They also emphasise that promotion and training opportunities influence nurses' satisfaction.

(4) Tzeng (2002b) reported that 786 nurses in Taiwan felt their indirect environment, salary and promotion were very important, but strongly dissatisfying. Tzeng (2002a,b) also found that the hospital's policies, benefits, housing, parking and leisure activities were frequently mentioned as sources of importance that were dissatisfying.

(5) Wang (in Lu et al., 2004) found that 191 nurses in China were more dissatisfied than satisfied and mostly dissatisfied with pay and job promotion.

(6) Adams and Bond (2000) reported that 834 nurses in England regarded the degree of cohesion and staff organisation as the most important contributors to job satisfaction. Nurses were specifically satisfied with aspects of ward services, facilities and layout, professional standards and collaboration with other medical staff.
(7) Nolan, Nolan and Grant (1995) found that two factors dominate nurses understanding of satisfaction and morale, namely the perceived ability to deliver good patient care and good collegiate relationships with co-workers. Together, these accounted for more than 50% of all the positive comments received. They also mentioned the importance of job security, autonomy, responsibility, promotion and recognition as factors that determined job satisfaction.

(8) Nolan, Brown and Nolan (1998) found that the vast majority of nurses found the work itself interesting, and this was one of the most significant factors influencing job satisfaction.

(9) Similarly, Lundh’s (1999) study showed that over 90% of respondents saw their work as interesting and most respondents also thought that they received respect from their supervisors (68%). They also felt they have the opportunity to make decisions on their own. Conversely, however, 55% of respondents reported that leadership within the organisation was not seen as particularly democratic with limited opportunities available to influence the decisions of managers. Recognition, stress, pay and working conditions were also mentioned as negative factors that they experienced that led to dissatisfaction. Respondents also indicated that staffing levels were inadequate and too much administrative work had reduced direct patient care.

(10) Lee (1998) reported that nurses were most satisfied with their professional status, and least satisfied with their task requirements.

(11) Blegan (1993) reported that the following seven variables of job satisfaction were the most prominent for nurses: communication with supervisor, autonomy, recognition, routinization, communication with peers, fairness and locus of control (authority). Blegan also found a significant negative relation between job satisfaction and stress.
(12) Seo et al. (2004) reported that heavy workloads are a main deterrent to job satisfaction for nurses.

(13) Newman et al. (2002) found that nurses in Britain perceive long working hours, heavy workloads, staff shortages, inability to finish shifts on time, unpaid overtime, vacancies left unfilled and a lack of funds for training and development as reasons for their dissatisfaction.

(14) Mottaz (1988) in a sample of 312 nurses found that task autonomy explained the most variance in job satisfaction. Other significant determinants were supervisory assistance, task significance, task involvement (participation) and salary. This is more or less consistent with the job characteristics model proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) that emphasise the importance of task significance and autonomy as major factors in determining intrinsic job satisfaction.

(15) The scenario in South Africa is described in Chapter one. The most important determinants of dissatisfaction are nurse – patient relationships, appalling work conditions and staff shortages (Jewkes et al., 1998). Other factors include increased pressure on the remaining staff caused by critical staff shortages, low and inequitable salaries, little scope for further training (advancement) and lack of respect and acknowledgement from other medical professions (Thom, 2003).

Table 2.3 provides a summary of the most important findings regarding factors of job satisfaction and those related to turnover for nurses. The dimensions of job satisfaction of Weiss et al. (1967) are used as a baseline and additional factors were added according to previous research findings. However, it should be born in mind that factors in some instances are closely interdependent and therefore probably measured more or less the same concept.

It is clear from Table 2.3 that the following factors, also seen by Weiss et al. (1967) as important contributors to the degree of satisfaction, were most frequently mentioned by
nurses: Compensation (salary, pay, benefits), advancement (promotion opportunities), responsibility, working conditions, co-workers, recognition and independence (autonomy). To a lesser extent social status, supervision, security and company policies and practices were also referred to. Additional factors [excluding what Weiss et al. (1967) originally suggested measuring job satisfaction] were also added to the list. From Table 2.3 it is depicted that staff shortages, work overload, patient care and the work itself seems to influence the satisfaction of nurses the most. One can probably assume that staff shortages and work overload are related, as well as patient care and the work itself.

2.9.4 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

Studies have consistently shown that job satisfaction is significantly related to turnover – i.e. the greater the job satisfaction, the less the likelihood that the individual will leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Dissatisfaction seems to cause turnover for two reasons: (1) it causes people to search for more attractive alternatives and (2) it influences the degree to which people feel their jobs will provide rewards they desire in the future (Lee, Carswell & Adams, 2000). The satisfaction – turnover relationship, although consistent, usually accounts for less than 16% of the variance in turnover (Porter & Steers in Lee et al., 2000). The small variance has two implications. First, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover may be more than just a simple direct relationship. Second, turnover may involve more variables than just job satisfaction as the primary explanatory variable.

Many studies have analyzed the relationship among turnover and job satisfaction (e.g. Brewer & Nauenberg, 2003; Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Dole & Shroeder, 2001; Firth et al., 2004; Gaertner, 1999; Gauci Borda & Norman, 1997; Ghiselli et al., 2001; Iverson, 1999; Lu et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2003; Lui et al., 2001; Poon, 2004; Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Yin & Yang, 2002).
### Table 2.3

**SUMMARY OF JOB SATISFACTION FACTORS AND ITS RELATION TO TURNOVER OF NURSES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors of job satisfaction</th>
<th>Satisfaction factors (positively or negatively related) most often mentioned by nurses</th>
<th>Satisfaction factors (positively or negatively related) most often mentioned by nurses related to turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Blegen (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence (‘autonomy’)</td>
<td>Blegen (1993); Lundh (1999); Mottaz (1988); Nolan et al. (1995); Price (2002)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>Blegen (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>Lee (1998)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision – human relations</td>
<td>Blegen (1993); Lundh (1999)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision – technical</td>
<td>Mottaz (1988)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral values (‘fairness’)</td>
<td>Blegen (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Lu et al. (2004); Nolan et al. (1995)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority</td>
<td>Blegen (1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability utilization</td>
<td>Price (2002); Tzeng (2000a,b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation (‘salary / pay’)</td>
<td>Lu et al. (2004); Lundh (1999); Mottaz (1988); Newman et al. (2002); Price (2002); Thom (2003); Tzeng (2002b); Wang in Lu et al. (2004)</td>
<td>Cavanagh (1990); Stolte &amp; Myers (1995); Yin &amp; Yang (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Lu et al. (2004); Nolan et al. (1995); Price (2002)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>Adams &amp; Bond (2000); Jewkes et al. (1998); Lu et al. (2004); Lundh (1999); Price (2002); Tzeng (2002a,b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>Adams &amp; Bond (2000); Blegen (1993); Lu et al. (2004); Nolan et al. (1995); Price (2002); Tovey &amp; Adams (1999)</td>
<td>Lee et al. (2003); Stolte &amp; Myers (1995); Yin &amp; Yang (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Blegen (1993); Lu et al. (2004); Lundh (1999); Nolan et al. (1995)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td>Stolte &amp; Myers (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours of work</td>
<td>Lu et al. (2004); Newman et al. (2002); Price (2002)</td>
<td>Stolte &amp; Myers (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff shortages (vacancies)</td>
<td>Jewkes et al. (1998); Lundh (1999); Newman et al. (2002); Tovey &amp; Adams (1999)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standards of service</td>
<td>Adams &amp; Bond (2000); Tovey &amp; Adams (1999)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(External) Pressure</td>
<td>Thom (2003); Tovey &amp; Adams (1999)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cavanagh (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration medical staff</td>
<td>Adams &amp; Bond (2000); Thom (2003)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work itself</td>
<td>Lee (1998); Lundh (1999); Mottaz (1988); Nolan et al. (1998)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of training</td>
<td>Newman et al. (2002); Shields &amp; Ward (2001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Lu et al. (2004) recruitment and retention of nurses are persistent problems associated with job satisfaction. While numerous factors have been linked to nurses’ turnover, job satisfaction is the most frequently cited (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Irvine & Evans, 1995; Lu et al., 2004). More specifically, the following findings contributed significantly to understanding the factors of job satisfaction related to nurses’ turnover:

(1) Lee et al.’s (2003) South Korean study on 181 nurses showed that the most frequently mentioned reasons for nurses’ intending to leave their jobs were work overload, rotating shifts (staff organisation) and conflict in interpersonal relationships.

(2) Cavanagh (1990) found that 232 US hospital nurses’ turnover could be predicted by promotion, salary and communication.

(3) Cavanagh and Coffin (1992) reported that job satisfaction and participation at work to be important variables in the turnover process. They found that three variables significantly related to intent to stay, namely job satisfaction, pay and opportunity (‘advancement’). An additional demographic factor, kinship responsibilities, also predicts nurses’ turnover.

(4) Yin and Yang’s (2002) meta-analysis (129 studies relating to turnover from 1978-1998) also found that the strongest individual and organisational factors related to nurse turnover were job satisfaction, autonomy, advancement opportunity, job stress, pay, group cohesion (‘co-workers’) marital status and educational level.

(5) Lu, Lin, Wu, Hsieh and Chang (2002) found in a huge sample of 21,971 Taiwanese nurses, that 38.4% of the nurses could be classified as having the intention to leave the profession because of lack of job satisfaction.
(6) Stolte and Myers (1995) reported that salary/benefits, working hours, personal achievement, staff relationships and patient contact were amongst the most frequently mentioned reasons for female maternity nurses to leave.

(7) Iverson (1999) found that autonomy significantly explained nurses’ decisions to quit. Various other job related variables such as role conflict, co-workers, supervisory support did not significantly explain the variance in turnover intentions. This result is consistent with various other findings that autonomy of nurses is one of the most important determinants of job satisfaction and ultimately turnover intentions (Atencio, Cohen & Gorenberg, 2003; Currivan, 1999; Finn, 2001; Jernigan et al., 2002; Mottaz, 1988; Yin & Yang, 2002).

Although the list is by no means comprehensive of all the previous research, it is clear from Table 2.3 that compensation (salary, pay and fringe benefits), advancement (promotion opportunities), autonomy and relationships with co-workers were mostly mentioned as factors that influence nurses to stay or leave. Promotion opportunities go hand in hand with the level of compensation and it therefore seems that compensation is the most prominent factor that is determining nurses’ turnover. As the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is empirically thoroughly tested, it can be assumed that all the factors mentioned in Table 2.3 contribute to a greater or lesser degree to turnover of nurses. Subsequently, it is also important to distinguish between the contribution of two important antecedents to turnover intentions, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

2.9.5 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intentions

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are commonly viewed as intervening variables in the turnover process (e.g. Hom & Griffeth, 1995, Mowday et al., 1982; Shore et al., 1990). Those two variables are viewed as an essential component of turnover models because their empirical relationship with voluntary turnover has been
established through numerous meta-analyses (e.g. Cohen, 1993; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Turnover models differ in how they view the relationship between the structural determinants of turnover (defined as characteristics of the work setting and patterns of social interaction within the work setting) with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Gaertner, 1999). The structural determinants referred to, for example, is pay, promotional chances, distributive justice, peer support, workload, role conflict, role ambiguity, autonomy and routinization (Kim, Price, Mueller & Watson, 1996).

Three alternative versions exist. First, all structural determinants are related to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This model was supported by Kim et al. (1996). Second, all determinants are related to job satisfaction only (Price & Mueller in Gaertner, 1999; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Third, different structural determinants have different effects on job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). They argued that some structural determinants have an impact on organisational commitment only while others have an impact on job satisfaction only. Gaertner (1999) found that all factors, with the exception of pay, were significantly related to job satisfaction, while only promotional changes, distributive justice and supervisory support were related to organisational commitment. It is therefore clear that although there is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the results do not unambiguously confirm any of these patterns, i.e., each of those patterns seems to be both correct and incorrect in varying degrees. The proposition of Kim et al. (1996), that all structural determinants are related to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment, appears to be the pattern that obtained the least support in Gaertner’s (1999) study. The suggestion by Price and Mueller (in Gaertner, 1999) and Williams and Hazer (1986) received more support. Thus the suggestion of Price and Mueller in Gaertner (1999) that structural determinants are directly related to job satisfaction only, appears to provide a parsimonious, yet accurate representation of the real relationships. On the other hand, the support for this pattern of relationships is not unequivocal. Some structural determinants have in fact direct links with organisational
commitment over and above job satisfaction which is consistent with the general idea put forward by Hom and Griffeth (1995).

Therefore, the idea indicated by Hom and Griffeth (1995) also received some support in this study since different structural determinants have different effects on job satisfaction and commitment; i.e., most structural determinants are directly related to job satisfaction alone, while other are related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to Gaertner (1999) one should bear in mind that only the concept that different structural determinants have different effects on job satisfaction and organisational commitment should be supported, as various other antecedents (as will be tested in this study) are omitted. In their meta-analysis of the relationship among job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions and turnover, Tett and Meyer (1993) reported that job satisfaction correlated slightly more strongly with turnover intentions than did organisational commitment. This finding was supported by Iverson (1999). Tett and Meyer (1993) found that organisational commitment does not completely mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Blegen (1993), in a meta-analysis of related variables in nurses' job satisfaction, found a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Knoop (1995) found that organisational commitment was related to overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with work, promotion opportunity, supervision, co-workers and pay among Canadian nurses. A regression analysis revealed that organisational commitment explained 41% of the variance in job satisfaction. Regarding the causal structuring of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in relation with turnover, various models were proposed in the past. The dominant view in the literature assumes satisfaction causes commitment, although to a lesser extent few argued that commitment causes job satisfaction and others suggested a reciprocal relationship (Currivan, 1999). Currivan (1999) found no causal effects between satisfaction and commitment. The finding suggests that common determinants may partially account for the strong positive correlation between the two employee orientations.
2.9.6 Job satisfaction in the Nursing Profession and in South African Hospitals

The role of job satisfaction was already thoroughly described in the previous section. Although many articles in newspapers, reports and magazines refer to the importance of job satisfaction of professional nurses, the concept was theoretically and empirically not extensively researched in South African hospitals.

From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.7 was achieved. Next, an integrative multi-dimensional model of the key concepts of the study will be presented.

2.10 Integrative Multi-dimensional Model of Organisational Culture in relation to Knowledge Sharing, Organisational Commitment, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

The theoretical relationships between the various concepts in this study were already described in the literature overview, while the empirical relationships were described in Chapter one. The approach to study organisational culture in this study is through investigating the various dimensions as opposed to an approach of typologies. It therefore is necessary to describe organisational culture by describing the different dimensions thereof in relation to knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. As stated, Van der Post et al. (1997), view organisational culture according to a set of dimensions.

Erwee et al. (2001) suggested that within this framework the organisation is analyzed into clearly identifiable components that can then be dealt with separately rather than holistically. It is therefore important not only to discuss organisational culture holistically or as a single concept, but to describe the different dimensions and its relationships with knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.
Figure 2.8: Integrative Multi-dimensional Model of Organisational Culture in relation to Knowledge Sharing, Organisational Commitment, OCB’s, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

2.10.1 Conflict Resolution
Describing the dimension:

Conflict resolution is the degree to which the organisation encourages employees to air their views regarding conflicts and criticisms openly. Subordinates must perceive willingness by supervisors to hear different opinions and get problems out into the open (Van der Post et al., 1997). As organisations become more complex and diverse, organisational conflicts occur more frequently and managers spend an increasing portion of their time and efforts in handling such conflicts. Effectiveness in managing organisational conflicts is based on how well such conflicts are understood by organisational members (Kwahk & Kim, 1998).

Conflict is a disagreement regarding interests or ideas (Esquivel & Kleiner, 1996), or different goals, values and priorities between individuals or groups (Banner, 1995). Conflict, when well managed, is seen as an opportunity for growth and change. It is important for employees to openly share their criticisms. Kwahk and Kim (1998), are of the opinion that once conflicts arise and remain unresolved, it reduces corporate synergy seriously, leading to organisational ineffectiveness. According to them, conflict resolution is necessary when conflicting goals arise between two parties. In order to solve the conflict, parties should make a concession to give up their goals, or they should compromise, or an intervention might be necessary to resolve the conflict. It therefore seems that a culture of openly sharing feelings about conflict is necessary (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Relationship with other concepts:

Chuang, Church and Zikic (2004) found that organisational culture intensity and content directly impact on intra-group conflict. Lewis, French and Steane (1997) suggested that the effects of culture on the performance of an organisation depend, not on the strength of the overall culture, but on the mix and weight of the components of that culture. An example is the component of conflict, which may be a healthy incentive for action and
completion when in some form and degree, but can be damaging when it becomes the culture’s dominant feature and its existence is not acknowledged. According to Young (2000), the approach of management to resolve conflict will be important for an organisation’s culture. An Australian sample of 17,000 nurses from 113 healthcare organisations indicated that a culture of blame, and therefore interpersonal conflict, lead to staff turnover (Anonymous, 2004). If conflict is well-managed, it will build relationships and strengthens interdependence, that in turn leads to increased potential for knowledge sharing (Pateli & Sockalingam, 2004).

A negative relationship exists between conflict and job satisfaction, which is one of the most important predictors of turnover intentions (Ghiselli et al., 2001). Packard and Motowidlo (1987) reported that negative job satisfaction of nurses is significantly associated with feelings of hostility, subjective stress, frequency of stressful events and intensity of stressful events. Turnover is a behavioural expression of conflict (Analoui & Kakabadse, 1993). Shafer, Park and Liao (2002) reported on a sample of accountants that individuals who perceived higher levels of organisational – professional conflict were less committed to the organisation, had lower levels of job satisfaction and also higher turnover intentions.

2.10.2 Culture Management

Describing the dimension:

Culture management is the extent to which the organisation actively and deliberately engages in shaping the organisation’s culture. Events, ceremonies or rituals should be designed specifically to reinforce the organisation’s values and philosophies. Employees must understand and share a vision which unites the energies of the organisation’s membership (Van der Post et al., 1997). Philip and McKeown (2004) suggested that employers can influence the organisational culture by actively changing structures, processes and above all, people’s attitudes, beliefs and behaviours.
Lau and Ngo (2004) found that organisational culture leads to innovation and organisational performance. They suggested that various human resource practices can help to shape the organisational culture, namely a focus on training, performance-based rewards and team development.

Relationship with other concepts:

According to Yilmaz, Alpkan and Ergun (2004) managers can actively facilitate their workplace socialization processes and thereby generate customer values as a dimension of organisational culture. Effective socialisation processes lead to strong organisational cultures where all members share, coherently and intensely, a common set of beliefs and values. Values are pre-requisites for knowledge sharing behaviour (McDermott & O’Dell, 2001). An organisational culture in which free and full knowledge is actively pursued will facilitate knowledge sharing (Rangarajan, Chonko, Jones & Roberts, 2004).

2.10.3 Customer Orientation

Describing the dimension:

A customer orientation is the extent to which the organisation takes the views of customers seriously and actively responds to such views. Employees must perceive that emphasis is placed on the quality, service and reliability of products and services by everyone. There must also be a willingness to listen to customers to identify limitations in service delivery (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Dienhart, Gregoire, Downey and Knight (1992) define customer focus as the ability of the employee to enjoy their jobs when interacting with the customer, achieving customer satisfaction, and receiving respect from them. A customer orientation is manifested as the organisation and its members focus their efforts in understanding and satisfying customers (Yilmaz et al., 2004).
Martins and Martins (2002) are of the opinion that to understand the needs of internal and external customers, improving customer service and flexibility in customer relations, and fostering creativity and innovation are essential. Hampton and Hampton (2004) use the concept of market orientation and defined it as either a set of organisational values or continuous processes vital to the creation of goods and services of superior value offered to customers.

Relationship with other concepts:

A positive correlation exists between a market orientation and both customer satisfaction and service quality in hospitals (Hampton & Hampton, 2004). Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) found in a study of 182 hospitality students, apart from a kind of super-factor termed ideal ‘work setting’, that a customer orientation explained the most variance in the concept of organisational culture.

Huff and Kelley (2002) suggested that the culture of the organisation influences customer orientation. Tzeng, Ketefian and Redman (2002) found that strength of organisational culture predicted nurses’ job satisfaction while job satisfaction predicted the level of in-patient satisfaction with care. These findings make a significant contribution by way of providing empirical evidence that organisational factors can be linked with patient (customer) processes and outcomes. In the above-mentioned study, job satisfaction was measured by four dimensions also used in this study (pay, promotion, supervision and co-workers).

Ugboro and Obeng (2000) also found that job satisfaction is related to customer satisfaction. This is consistent with the findings of Kim, Leong and Lee (2004) that satisfied employees in the hospitality industry render a higher quality of service to the guests. This in turn leads to lower intentions to leave. Schneider and Bowen (1985) supported the above findings by showing that relationships between customer satisfaction and employee’ perceptions of an organisational culture or climate, contributes to the quality of customer satisfaction.
The level of job satisfaction among the medical profession also has a positive relationship with patient satisfaction (Seo et al., 2004). This notion is also consistent with findings in samples of nurses in hospital settings (Field, 1987; Weisman & Nathanson, 1985). Miller (1999) reported a correlation coefficient of 0.89 between highly satisfied patients and highly satisfied staff.

Stamper and Van Dyne (2001) supported the notion that employees who are the closest to the client may be in the best position to generate ideas that can have direct consequences for quality and customer satisfaction. Helping as OCB may therefore be of particular importance to create customer satisfaction. Leiter et al. (1998) reported that patients, who stayed on wards where nurses frequently expressed their intention to quit, were less satisfied with their medical care.

According to Van Gils and Zwart (2004), knowledge sharing is a pre-requisite for customer satisfaction. They argue that knowledge sharing leads to innovation, product improvement and ultimately quality relationships with customers. Coile (2001) found in 41 USA hospitals with a strong emphasis on a culture of patient care, lower turnover rates (less than half their counterparts).

2.10.4 **Disposition towards Change**

*Describing the dimension:*

Disposition towards change is the degree to which employees are encouraged to be creative and innovative and to constantly search for better ways of getting the job done. Employees should be encouraged to experiment and take practical risks. Mistakes should be viewed as a natural occurrence in an innovative environment and should not be punished (Van der Post et al., 1997).
**Relationship with other concepts:**

According to Rangarajan et al. (2004) members’ readiness and willingness to change will mainly depend on the culture of the organisation. Martins and Martins (2002) emphasise that there is a definite need to understand how organisational culture should be dealt with in order to promote creativity and innovation as part of constant change. One of the main determinants is the extent to which organisational policies and practices are supportive of change. This in turn will influence the readiness to learn. The domain of learning includes any activity that might shape an organisation’s future due to sharing unique knowledge and information.

As stated, creativity and innovation are key determinants in bringing about change. Innovation is holistic in nature and is inseparable from the culture that facilitates or constrains the ability to “add value” (Lemon & Sahota, 2004). Martins and Martins (2002) are of the opinion that knowledge-based organisations and their success depends on creativity, innovation, discovery and inventiveness.

Creativity as dimension of job satisfaction should also be continuously addressed. Lee et al. (2000) suggested that routine work for professional people will probably lead to higher turnover intentions. Weiss et al. (1967) emphasised the importance of variety and creativity as intrinsic dimensions in determining job satisfaction. Although Lee’s et al. (2000) suggestion that routine work should be outsourced is probably not practical for the nursing profession, it certainly indicates the importance of activities like training to enhance the nature of work. Finn (2001) reported that nurses, given the opportunity to be creative and autonomous in caring for cancer patients, enhance their job satisfaction.

As stated, voice as OCB emphasizes ideas that are change–orientated, for example making recommendations for change and innovation (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). It is therefore important to realize that organisational culture will facilitate or hinder organisational change. The importance of organisational culture in determining knowledge sharing behaviour (Gupta et al., 2002; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Husted &
Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O’Dell, 2001; Ryu et al., 2003; Yang & Wan, 2004) and extra-role behaviours like helping and voicing opinion, is therefore emphasised.

According to Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) a changed-centred leadership style leads to job satisfaction. Employees that understand the necessity for change, may feel committed and satisfied because a change-centred leadership style can secure their future career and employment. Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) also found that a changed-centred leadership style is associated with organisational commitment.

2.10.5 Employee Participation

Describing the dimension:

Employee participation is the extent to which employees perceive themselves as participating in the decision-making process in the organisation. Employees should be involved in decisions which directly influence their work, as well as in broader policy matters (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Relationship with other concepts:

Participation in decision making is consistently related to perceived organisational support which also significantly correlates with organisational commitment (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003). It also probably affects knowledge sharing behaviours. Acquired information, meaning how knowledge is used within an organisational context, is essential for decision making and problem solving (Lemon & Sahota, 2004). Samaddar and Kadiyala (2003) reported that the participative rate of leaders in a knowledge collaboration endeavor is an indicator of how much the employees are willing to participate themselves and share their knowledge. It therefore seems that employees must experience a culture of participation before they exchange their own contribution.
Agho and Price (1992) reported that several studies have indicated that employees are more likely to experience job satisfaction when the organisation adopts a participative approach to decision making. This is consistent with findings from Finn (2001), who reported that participative decision making, self-direction and trust enhanced job satisfaction of nurses.

Trott and Windsor (1999) also provided findings that indicated that staff nurses’ level of satisfaction increases as the leader uses a more participative style. Laschinger, Finegan and Shamian (2001) found that nurse empowerment and involvement in hospitals’ affairs impacts on trust in management and ultimately influences affective commitment and job satisfaction.

Van Yperen and Van den Berg (1999) found that when employees feel that they are able to participate in decisions made, they tend to feel supported by their supervisors and consequently exhibit more organisational citizenship behaviours. Stashevsky and Elizur (2000) found in a sample of 208 employees in industrial settings in Israel, that employee participation leads to improved effort and consequently individual performance.

This is consistent with various other studies (Sagie 1994; Wagner, Leana, Locke & Schweiger, 1997), although some contradictory findings were also reported (Stashevsky & Elizur, 2000). In more conservative societies, the culture may be of such a nature that people are more inclined to accept decisions and prefer to follow instructions.

Stohr, Lovrich, Menke and Zupan (1994) found that personnel in five jails involved in a participative management programme were more motivated, satisfied, committed and less stressed. Slate and Vogel (1997) found in seven correctional institutions that thoughts of quitting the job were closely associated with a perceived negative atmosphere for participation in workplace decision making. Coile (2001) found that hospitals with a participative management style reported lower turnover (less than half their counterparts).
Goal Clarity

Describing the dimension:

Goal clarity is the degree to which the organisation creates clear objectives and performance expectations. Employees should clearly be informed as to the mission, plans and objectives of the organisation (Van der Post et al., 1997). Parhizgari and Gilbert (2004) emphasised the importance of clear objectives and performance expectations suggesting that successful organisations will be distinct from unsuccessful ones by four components: resource acquisitions, efficiency, goal attainment, and client satisfaction. Ignoring any of these dimensions is to possess an incomplete understanding of the organisation’s performance. Without clear goals, or uncertainty among members of what is expected of them, an organisation can not survive or prosper. It is also important to realise that the actualisation of personal goals and objectives in pursuing organisational goals and objectives seems to be related to creativity and innovation, which in turn determines an organisation’s ability to change (Martins & Martins, 2002).

Relationship with other concepts:

Chu, Hsu, Price and Lee (2003) found that role ambiguity is regarded as a dominant factor for job dissatisfaction amongst Taiwanese nurses. This is consistent with findings in a sample of teachers that role ambiguity significantly predicts job dissatisfaction (Koustelios, Theodorakis & Goulimaris, 2004). It is generally held that empowered employees have higher levels of job satisfaction and performance, the primary reason being their involvement in goal setting and in making decisions that affect their work (Ugboro & Obeng, 2000).

Role ambiguity is the predictable outcome, or response to one’s behaviour and the existence or clarity of behavioural requirements, often in terms of inputs from the
environment, which would serve to guide behaviour and provide knowledge that the behaviour is appropriate (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970).

Goal setting can also affect organisational citizenship behaviours, as seen in a study by Wright, George, Farnsworth and McMahan (1993), in which employees who were highly committed to specific and difficult goals were least likely to demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviour towards their colleagues. In pursuing their goals, they had less time to display citizenship behaviours.

Sorrentino, Nalli and Schriesheim (1992) found that the Path-Goal Leadership Theory (House, 1971) in nursing settings with regard to role clarity was supported. Nurses with high role clarity responded negatively to directive leadership, but positively to a supportive leadership style. This clearly indicates that role clarity, and probably goal clarity as well, will influence nurses’ satisfaction. It is therefore important that leaders take cognisance of their responsibility to set clear goals for employees.

2.10.7 Human Resource Orientation

Describing the dimension:

A human resource orientation is the extent to which the organisation is perceived as having a high regard for its human resources. Employees should be seen as a valued resource and an important contributor to success. Employees should receive systematic training and development interventions aimed at assisting them to develop to their full potential (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Relationship with other concepts:

An organisational culture is typically termed “strong” if it is distinctive and characterised by significant consensus between organisational members regarding their beliefs, values, norms and ideals (Robbins, 1996). Organisations with “strong” cultures are often
noted for their commitment to developing their “human resources” (Bagraim, 2001). This commitment is evidenced in their intense selection procedures, training programmes, socialisation processes and performance appraisal systems.

One can argue that a high regard for human resources is probably linked to perceived organisational support in a social exchange setting (Chen, Aryee & Lee, 2004). Perceived organisational support is described as “global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger et al., 1986). A steady stream of research has since provided evidence that perceived organisational support leads to work outcomes such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction, reduced turnover, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Chen et al., 2004; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) reported in their meta-analysis of commitment that organisational support is the single strongest predictor thereof, and that this is consistent with Eisenberger et al. (2001) argument that organisations wanting committed employees, must demonstrate their own commitment by providing a supportive work environment.

Allen et al. (2003) reported that perceived organisational support leads to lower turnover intentions. This relationship, however, was mediated by commitment and satisfaction, with the path through commitment accounting for most of the relationship. Thus, perceived organisational support (as a dimension of organisational culture of this study), may be a more distal determinant of turnover that affects turnover as a critical antecedent to commitment. Allen et al. (2003) suggested that managers need to be aware that human resource practices may not directly affect turnover. Rather, they serve as signals to employees about the extent to which the organisation values and cares about them as individuals, which then contributes to the withdrawal process. The acquisition of new knowledge and for continuing education is also an important source of satisfaction for nurses (Seo et al., 2004). Employers can show their regard for the contribution of employees by creating opportunities for knowledge acquisition.
It is also important that employers put company policies and practices in place, as one of the extrinsic determinants of job satisfaction, to show their high regard for employees. Shields and Ward (2001) suggested that policies aimed at improving working conditions for nurses would be extremely influential in promoting job satisfaction in the profession.

Iverson (1999) suggested that employees who have access to flexible scheduling, parental leave, and child care assistance displayed greater organisational commitment and significantly lower turnover intentions. The quality of the working environment for nurses is extremely important in explaining variations in job satisfaction (Shields & Ward, 2001). Agho and Price (1992) reported that several studies have indicated that employees are more likely to experience job satisfaction when supervisors act considerately, and instil the values and principles held by employees.

2.10.8 Identification with the Organisation

Describing the dimension:

Identification with the organisation is the degree to which employees are encouraged to identify with the organisation. Opportunities should be created for employees to socialize and to extend business friendships away from their work. Employees should cultivate an emotional involvement in their jobs and in the organisation. Employees should share a high degree of commitment to make the organisation’s vision a reality (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Relationship with other concepts:

As already stated previously, Mowday et al. (1979) define commitment as one’s identification with, and loyalty to, an organisation. Identification could be seen as the acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values. As stated, there exists a positive relationship between commitment and job satisfaction (e.g. Blegen, 1993; Curivan,
1999; Knoop, 1995), but a negative relationship for both these concepts with turnover intentions.

Bolon (1997) found that affective commitment ("an employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation") as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991), is significantly correlated with helping as organisational citizenship behaviour. According to Bolon (1997) it may be that an individual becomes so emotionally attached to and involved with an organisation, that the individual willingly assists other individuals with organisationally relevant tasks or problems. The reason for this behaviour is that their action is perceived as contributing to, or advancing organisational goals and values. This may also lead to helping behaviour and civic virtue as OCB’s. Podsakoff et al. (2000) describe civic virtue as constructive involvement in the broader processes of the organisation.

2.10.9 **Locus of Authority**

*Describing the dimension:*

Locus of authority is the degree of authority, freedom and independence that individual employees have in their jobs (Van der Post et al., 1997). Authority, freedom and independence can probably also be referred to as autonomy in the workplace. Jernigan et al. (2002) describe autonomy as the ‘perceived independence.’ Cummings and Worley (2001) refer to autonomy as the discretion on how to decide, schedule and perform tasks. Responsibility, together with autonomy and authority, is regarded as a precondition for accountability and professionalism in nursing (Finn, 2001). The importance of having autonomy is well-described by theorist such as Hackman and Oldham (1975). According to Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) job characteristics model, autonomy and freedom in the workplace will lead to positive employee psychological states (e.g. perceived responsibility for work outcomes, experience meaningfulness of work) and job satisfaction.
Relationship with other concepts:

Ghiselli et al. (2001) suggested that job characteristics are a key to understanding turnover intention. They argued that management may be able to enrich jobs which will lead to higher job satisfaction and less turnover intentions. Growth needs strength (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) therefore plays a significant role in turnover intentions (Lee et al., 2000). This provides an understanding of turnover intentions in the sense that professional people want opportunities for achievement, creativity and recognition (all dimensions of job satisfaction according to Weiss et al., 1967). If these opportunities are not provided, they will seek alternative options. This also clearly demonstrate that generally people can be satisfied with their jobs, but will still demonstrates high turnover intentions.

Finn (2001) reported that registered nurses felt that their activities were programmed, giving them too much responsibility and not enough authority. Half of them did things in their jobs against their better professional judgement. Yin and Yang (2002) reported that autonomy is the second strongest organisational factor after job satisfaction, especially salary and fringe benefits, that predicts nurse turnover intention in Taiwanese hospitals. This is supported by Iverson (1999) who found that autonomy is the only job-related variable that predicts turnover. Variables like co-worker support, supervisory support and emotional exhaustion were statistically insignificant. This argument is supported by Finn (2001), in suggesting that authority can be regarded as a precondition of nurses to become accountable and develop professionally. Mottaz (1988) found that autonomy explained the most variance in nurses’ job satisfaction. Jernigan et al. (2002) also found that nurses’ dissatisfaction with autonomy is the one of the main determinants of commitment. Atencio et al. (2003) further support this notion by indicating that autonomy and control over practice, increased job satisfaction.

Van der Post et al. (1997) emphasise empowerment as a component of locus of control. Employees should be empowered to make appropriate decisions to get on with the job. In practice, employee empowerment centers on strategies or interventions that
strengthen employees’ self-efficacy or confidence in accomplishing task objectives (Ugboro & Obeng, 2000). The importance of autonomy as a key determinant of job satisfaction, was also confirmed by Currivan (1999).

According to Wagner et al. (2002), autonomy of employees should be encouraged so that they feel free to express their opinions and share their knowledge. Independence, as one of the intrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction in this study (Weiss et al., 1967), is related to autonomy and freedom permitted or required in daily activities (Finn, 2001). Finn reported that an opportunity arose to test the effects of increased autonomy on nurses’ job satisfaction during a physicians’ strike in Israel. Nurses were forced into a full autonomous practice to provide primary care. Thirty-one percent of nurses reported a significant increase in job satisfaction due to increased autonomy. Finn (2001) also reported that social status, as another intrinsic dimension of job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967), affect the satisfaction of nurses.

Job satisfaction is known to have an affect on organisational citizenship behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000). One can therefore probably assume that employees, who also have autonomy in their work, as well as feeling empowered to make decisions, may more likely display organisational citizenship behaviours. Joubert et al. (2004) further suggested that a person who shows a great deal of autonomy, very likely has an internal locus of control, and his/her organisational citizenship behaviour tends to be governed by his/her disposition.

However, Schnake and Dumler (in Mester et al., 2003) found that traditional leadership (characterised by the limitation of employee discretion) contributes more to the prediction of organisational citizenship behaviour than super leadership (characterised by employee autonomy and control). Although these results were unexpected, Schnake and Dumler believed that a possible reason for these results could be that the jobs in the study were all relatively low task scopes. In a study on a sample of a major Building, Engineering, Mining and Supplier Company’s leaders, Mester et al. (2003) consequently supports their initial expectation that jobs higher in task scope leaders yielded a
significant relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour.

2.10.10 Management Style

Describing the dimension:

The management style in organisations is the degree to which managers provide clear communication, assistance and support to their subordinates. Employees must perceive that managers are helpful and supportive. They should have confidence and trust in their supervisors. Communication should flow freely, accurately and undisturbed upwards, downwards and laterally throughout the organisation. Employees should be well informed in order to do their jobs well (Van der Post et al., 1997). Open communication between employers, management and different departments as a determinant of organisational culture will lead to advantages such as creativity and innovation (Martins & Martins, 2002). Although there are many factors affecting employee attitudes and behaviour, research to date implies that these are influenced to some extent by leadership style (Mester et al., 2003).

Relationship with other concepts:

Coile (2001) found that nurses in hospitals indicated clearly a more positive organisational culture due to visible and accessible leaders. This in turn, leads to lower turnover. Mester et al. (2003) suggested that managers with leadership styles who seek and value contributions from staff members, promote a climate in which information is shared effectively. This leads to improved decision making and can provide a working environment that maintains a stable nursing workforce. An organisation’s ability to innovate and learn will be affected by the different management styles that are adopted (Lemon & Sahota, 2004). Positive reinforcement and encouragement may also be very important in promoting nurses’ overall job satisfaction (Shields & Ward, 2001).
Sorrentino et al. (1992) found in a medium-capacity metropolitan general hospital that supervisor support affects job satisfaction of nurses.

Employees who received personal support from their leaders may wish to reciprocate by extending extra effort in the form of citizenship behaviours to help the leader (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Tang and Abraham (1998) found that supervisor behaviour influences subordinate’s organisational citizenship behaviours. Direct interactions with supervisors, including the extent to which supervisors observed and listened to their employees, lead to increase organisational citizenship behaviour by subordinates (Findley, Giles & Mossholder, 2000). Extensive qualitative research in Britain yielded that nurses regarded poor supervision as one of the dimensions of job satisfaction in this study, as the second most important reason for their dissatisfaction (Newman et al., 2002).

A study on a major Building, Engineering, Mining and Supplier Company’s leaders yielded positive correlations between both transformational leadership (motivating employees beyond ordinary expectations) and transactional leadership (traditional and bureaucratic authority based on clear role exchanges) styles with affective commitment (emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the company), as well as between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours (Mester et al., 2003).

Chu et al. (2003) found that supervisor support is regarded as a prominent factor of Taiwanese nurses to determine job satisfaction. Yin and Yang (2002) reported that leadership style found to be significantly related to turnover. According to Gupta et al. (2000) effective knowledge-sharing and learning require a cultural change within the organisation accompanied by senior management commitment.

Lesser and Prusak (in Shin, 2004) were of the opinion that knowledge must be managed appropriately. They suggested that while too little knowledge sharing activities might result in an organisation’s knowledge drain (e.g. departure of knowledgeable employees), while too many activities might lead to increased uncertainty.
Organisation Focus

Describing the dimension:

Organisational focus is the extent to which the organisation is perceived to be concentrating on those activities which form part of the fundamentals of the business (Van der Post et al., 1997). In order to focus on these activities, organisations should strategically plan by defining their mission, prioritising their long and short term goals, assign accountability and allocate the financial resources (Schwartz & Cohn, 2002). This will provide the organisation with the opportunity to assess core strengths and will provide them with the necessary direction and a unified approach from all staff members to focus on the core functions.

Relationship with other concepts:

Philip and McKeown (2004) suggested that the key for business success is the development of the culture of the organisation. The best organisational culture typology for success and survival is a willingness to focus on fundamental changes in management and working practices. These changes should be market orientated and focus on achieving organisational goals. Schwartz and Cohn (2002) suggested that the involvement of physicians in the strategic planning process resulted in knowledge sharing.

Organisation Integration

Describing the dimension:

Organisation integration is the degree to which various sub-units within the organisation are actively encouraged to operate in a co-ordinated way by co-operating effectively towards the achievement of overall organisational objectives. Employees should be encouraged to work in interdisciplinary teams across departmental boundaries to
provide input into the design and delivery of the product or service to the customer. There should be a spirit among employees which causes them to share information and support across departmental and work group boundaries (Van der Post et al., 1997).

*Relationship with other concepts:*

Yilmaz et al. (2004) distinguished between an individualistic culture (with the emphasis on independence and competition), and collectivist cultures (encourage the subordination of personal interests to the goals of the larger and put more emphasis on sharing and co-operation). Collectivist cultures give priority to supportive organisational practices, interpersonal connectedness and joint responsibility (Yilmaz et al., 2004). The benefits by achieving this are of importance to this study as it probably leads to exchange information and ideas (knowledge sharing), supporting and assisting each other (helping as OCB) (Yilmaz et al., 2004); discussing problems openly and constructively (voice as OCB and conflict resolution as dimension of organisational culture) (Chen et al., 1998), as well as commitment to the organisation (Wasti, 2002).

Chu et al. (2003) found that co-worker support is regarded as a prominent factor of Taiwanese nurses to determine job satisfaction. Shields and Ward (2001) found that workplace relations with staff and patients are important in explaining variations in quitting intentions.

It, therefore, seems important that one’s co-workers, as a dimension of job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967), play a meaningful role in determining overall satisfaction. Adams and Bond (2000) support this notion as they found that hospital nurses’ interpersonal relationship (cohesive working relationships and relations with medical staff) were influential factors regarding nurses’ job satisfaction.

Bolon (1997) found that satisfaction with co-workers in a hospital significantly explain organisational citizenship behaviour. Group cohesiveness was also found to be significantly and positively related to various organisational citizenship behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Tang & Abrahim, 1998). Cultural group norms may encourage
employees to help each other whenever necessary. Or the norm may be to look out for oneself. The nature of the work itself may nurture reciprocal relationships if employees must co-operate with each other to accomplish their objectives (Paine & Organ, 2000).

One could reason that organisational integration as a dimension of organisational culture, is also very important in sharing knowledge. According to Shin (2004), communication serves as a means of control and coordination of both people and resources. Through it individuals are able to adjust and react to the dynamic flow of knowledge. Communication may be viewed as the social glue that ties members, subunits and the organisation together. The ultimate reason why various subunits should co-operate, may therefore be nothing else but to share knowledge. In an Australian sample of 17000 nurses from 113 healthcare organisations, poor social cohesion has been indicated as a major cause of staff turnover (Anonymous, 2004).

2.10.13 Performance Orientation

Describing the dimension:

Performance orientation is the extent to which emphasis is placed on individual accountability for clearly defined results and a high level of performance. Employees should have clear goals and performance standards. There should be demanding individual and collective goals. Employees should perceive a clear organisational norm to maintain progress and strive towards excellence (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Relationship with other concepts:

Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) found in a study of 182 hospitality students that results orientation, as a performance dimension, is one of the most prominent factors explaining organisational culture. If performance is rewarded, one can expect OCB’s to increase (Podsakoff et al., 2000). A stronger relationship between job satisfaction and performance exists only when job satisfaction results in employee organisational

2.10.14 Reward Orientation

Describing the dimension:

Reward orientation is the degree to which reward allocations are based on employee performance in contrast to seniority, favouritism or any other non-performance criterion. Employees should perceive a linkage between reward and performance. Employees should perceive that the organisation places emphasis on positively reinforcing behaviour which supports objectives. Contrary to that, employees should not perceive that the organisation focuses on punishing negative behaviour. The organisation’s reward system should be perceived by employees as reinforcing the notion that most employees are good performers (Van der Post et al., 1997).

Relationship with other concepts:

Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) found in a study of 182 hospitality students that fair compensation explained the variance in the concept of organisational culture. According to Whitener (2001) performance appraisal and compensation processes have a regular and powerful effect on employees. Poorly designed, or conducted, appraisal systems can fail to accurately evaluate the quality and quantity of performance. Compensation systems, especially those linked to performance assessments can miss providing salient rewards to the right people. These flaws have the potential to under-reward deserving individuals and over-reward undeserving individuals. Being recognised and rewarded fairly would seem to signal that an organisation cares about the well-being of the employee and is willing to invest in them (Allen et al., 2003).
Advancement, as one of the dimensions in determining job satisfaction in this study (Weiss et al., 1967), predicts turnover intentions (Tzeng, 2002a). Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979) emphasize the importance of future rewards as a determinant of organisational behaviour and that these future rewards are captured by promotional chances. Increases in promotional chances produce greater satisfaction (Seo et al., 2004). Shields and Ward (2001) reported that nurses who were dissatisfied with career advance opportunities was the most important factor explaining variations in job satisfaction.

Fairness of rewards and recognition are positively and consistently related to organisational commitment (Allen et al., 2003; Whitener, 2001). Leadership behaviours, such as contingent reward behaviour, may have a direct impact on citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Perceived fairness of the compensation system predicts organisational citizenship (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). When employees encounter fair procedures they perceive that the organisation values them and their work (Norris-Watts & Levy, 2004). Employees can then reciprocate this fair treatment either with more supportive employee attitudes, such as increased organisational commitment, or behaviours, such as organisational citizenship (Organ, 1988).

Tang and Abraham (1998) found that employees experience intrinsic reward or satisfaction immediately after completion of organisational citizenship behaviour. According to them, employees do not need immediate compensation in the form of extrinsic rewards if they experience a sense of trust and gratification in the organisation. Human Resource managers can play a critical role in encouraging organisational citizenship behaviour by designing effective appraisal systems that are perceived as equitable, by carefully drafting management development programmes, by establishing fair compensation systems, and by designing jobs geared toward increased employee satisfaction and commitment (Paine & Organ, 2000).
Satisfaction with rewards was in past research frequently associated with turnover intention of nurses (Cavanagh, 1990; Yin & Yang, 2002). Coile (2001) found that nurses regarded the hospitals’ reward orientation as an important determinant for turnover.

2.10.15 Task Structure

Describing the dimension:

Task structure is the degree to which rules, regulations and direct supervision are applied to manage employee behaviour. Employees should not perceive the execution of their duties to be governed by rules, regulations, policies, procedures and working through channels all the time. They should rather perceive an informal atmosphere which allows them to be creative and innovative in pursuing the achievement of organisational objectives (Van der Post et al., 1997). The innovation and organisational theory literature argue that implementing radical innovation can be facilitated or hindered by the organisation’s structural design (Nahm, Vonderembse & Koufteros, 2003).

Relationship with other concepts:

Innovation is holistic in nature and is inseparable from the culture that facilitates or constrains the ability to “add value” (Lemon & Sahota, 2004). A rigid, mechanistic structure may constrain spontaneous, extra-role behaviours, while the more open, organic structures may actually foster initiative beyond job descriptions (Paine & Organ, 2000). Jernigan et al. (2002) reported that nurses view organisational policies as a significant predictor of alienative commitment.

Nahm et al. (2003) found that the nature of formalization, the number of layers in the hierarchy, and the level of horizontal integration have significant effects on the flow of communication and locus of decision-making. Organisational structure is the way responsibility and power are allocated, and work procedures are carried out, amongst organisational members. It is therefore clear if employees find themselves in a
formalised structure, flow of communication would be impaired and innovation restricted. To encourage creative, autonomous work and teaching employees should not be directed by policies and procedures (Nahm et al., 2003).

Next, a final overview of the relationships between the key variables as proposed in the predictive model (Figure 1.1) will be provided.

2.11 Summary of Relationships between Key Concepts

2.11.1 Relationship between Organisational Culture and Turnover Intentions

There is a limitation in research regarding the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions. Most of the research is driven by assumptions that organisational culture is related to turnover intentions (Anonymous, 2004; Coile, 2001; Waldman et al., 2003). These relationships are, however, not empirically tested. No theoretical evidence could be found of the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions in hospitals.

2.11.2 Relationships between Organisational Culture and the Mediating Variables

2.11.2.1 Organisational Culture and Knowledge Sharing

Although the relationship between organisational culture and knowledge sharing was not previously empirically tested, a supported organisational culture is regarded by various researchers as a pre-requisite for knowledge sharing behaviours (Gupta et al., 2002; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Hislop, 2003; Husted & Michailova, 2002; Jones et al., 2004; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001; Ryu et al., 2003; Yang & Wan, 2004). Studies of organisational culture recognize knowledge as important, but have not given it sufficient attention (Balogun & Jenkins, 2003; Marr et al., 2003; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001).
Various other pre-requisites or sharing knowledge are related to organisational culture and could possibly be seen within a social-exchange context (Chua, 2003). Examples thereof are rewards systems (Chua, 2003; Husted & Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001; Yang & Wan, 2004), organisational strategy and values (Chua, 2003; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001) and management support (Chua, 2003; Husted & Michailova, 2002; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001; Wagner et al., 2002; Yang & Wan, 2004). Often, organisational culture itself prevents people from sharing and disseminating their know-how in an effort to hold onto their individual powerbase and viability. Organisational culture is therefore of critical importance for facilitating sharing, learning, and knowledge creation (Gupta et al., 2000).

2.11.2.2 Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment

Research regarding the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment is inconclusive. Lok and Crawford (1999) reported that hospital culture dimensions showed generally low correlations with organisational commitment, while Rashid et al. (2004) contradict this by reporting that organisational culture dimensions were significant predictors of commitment.

In proposing a baseline model for illustrating work commitment-alienation (Figure 2.6), Roodt (2004a) suggests that contextual factors and/or antecedent conditions will affect salient needs of individuals which will ultimately determine the level of commitment. Although it is not specifically mentioned by Roodt (2004a), it seems that organisational culture dimensions, theoretically stated, will affect organisational commitment. Roodt (2004a), mentioned the importance of the cultural socialisation process influencing salient needs of individuals.

2.11.2.3 Organisational Culture and OCB’s

There is a lack of research regarding the relationship between organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviours (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). According to
Podsakoff et al. (2000), organisational characteristics and leadership behaviour will influence organisational citizenship behaviour. To date most of research only primarily focused on individual level predictors of organisational citizenship behaviours. Organisational citizenship behaviour was not investigated within a contextual setting (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

2.11.2.4 Organisational Culture and Job Satisfaction

Sempane et al. (2002) suggested a positive relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. Lund (2003) is of the opinion that job satisfaction levels vary across organisational culture typologies. Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) found that a change orientation (as a cultural typology) is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) found in a study of 182 hospitality students that the perceived culture explained a substantial 49% of the variance in job satisfaction.

2.11.3 Relationships between the Mediating Variables and Turnover Intentions

As the relationships between the mediating variables and turnover intentions were already discussed, only a short summary will be provided.

2.11.3.1 Knowledge Sharing and Turnover Intentions

There is also no empirical evidence of the relationship between knowledge sharing and turnover intentions. The reason for this is mainly because knowledge sharing as empirical construct is not well developed (Hislop, 2003).

2.11.3.2 Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intentions

The theoretical relationship between higher commitment levels and lower turnover intentions is well established (Boshoff et al., 2002; Chen et al., 1998; Cohen, 1998;
Cohen, 1993; Firth et al., 2004; Meyer et al., 2002; Iverson, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982; Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Schwepker, 2001; Shore et al., 1990; Vallabh & Donald, 2001; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

2.11.3.3 OCB’s and Turnover Intentions

Although organisational citizenship behaviour has not been integrated as an important component of turnover (Chen et al., 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2000), a few studies yielded a negative relation (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Chen et al., 1998; Cropanzano et al., 2003).

2.11.3.4 Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

High job satisfaction predicts lower turnover intentions (Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Day et al., 1998; Dole & Shroeder, 2001; Firth et al., 2004; Iverson, 1999; Lui et al., 2001; Poon, 2004; Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Shields & Ward, 2001; Shore et al., 1990; Tzeng, 2002a; Yin & Yang, 2002)

From the above discussion it is clear that the theoretical objective 2.2.8 was achieved. Next, the key theoretical limitations, as a result of the literature overview, are outlined.

2.12 Key Theoretical Limitations – Leading to the Empirical Objectives

Drawing on the literature overview and the proposed predictive model in this study, the following theoretical limitations regarding the relationships between key concepts can be outlined to support the formulation of the empirical objectives:

- Although the importance of organisational culture to retain employees is noted (Anonymous, 2004; Coile, 2001, Waldman et al., 2003), theoretical evidence is lacking, regarding the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions.
• Knowledge sharing studies have a limited empirical basis which illustrates the lack of depth in contemporary understanding of how human and social factors affect sharing initiatives (Hislop, 2003). The relationship of knowledge sharing with all the other concepts is this study, is therefore, not theoretically established.

• There is a lack of research regarding the relationship between organisational culture and knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

• There is a lack of research regarding the relationship between knowledge sharing, organisational citizenship behaviour and turnover intentions. In contrast, overwhelming research evidence exist that organisational commitment and job satisfaction predicts turnover intentions.

• There seems to be a lack of empirical evidence on turnover models in South African hospitals.

The above theoretical limitations clearly indicated that the relationships between the concepts of organisational culture, knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, OCB's, job satisfaction and turnover intentions did not receive much attention in the theoretical literature. An understanding of the relationships between these concepts in the proposed model should offer insight regarding the turnover intentions, and ultimately turnover, of professional nurses working in South African hospitals.

Next, the empirical objectives of the study are outlined.

2.13 **Empirical Research Objectives**

Following from the primary research question and the literature overview, the following empirical research objectives can be formulated: The primary objective is to determine
the relationships between sets of key variables in developing the predictive model. The secondary empirical objectives are therefore to:

2.13.1 Determine whether there is a relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions.

2.13.2 Determine whether any demographic variables [sub-cultures (type of hospital, unit), tenure (profession, unit, hospital), age, level of education, gender, race, home language, level of seniority, marital status, number of dependents (under the age of 18, above the age of 18)] independently (individually in a bivariate model) and/or interactively (combined in a multivariate model) predict organisational culture.

2.13.3 Determine whether any of the demographic variables [sub-cultures (type of hospital, unit), tenure (profession, unit, hospital), age, level of education, gender, race, home language, level of seniority, marital status, number of dependents (under the age of 18, above the age of 18)] independently (individually) and/or interactively (combined) predict turnover intentions.

2.13.4 Determine whether the independent variable ( organisational culture) and the mediating variables (knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, OCB’s, job satisfaction) independently or interactively predicts turnover intentions.

2.13.5 Determine whether the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions is mediated by knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, OCB’s and job satisfaction.

2.13.6 Determine the most parsimonious model of predicting turnover intentions by entering the independent, mediating and demographic variables simultaneously into the equation.
2.14 Summary

The emphasis of this chapter was to provide a literature overview of the concepts of this study. The key concepts, namely organisational culture, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions were defined. Thereafter a theoretical framework for each concept was provided, followed by an integrative model of the dimensions of organisational culture in relation to knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

It is evident that organisational culture, although a variety of definitions and approaches to study the concept exists, can play a meaningful role in predicting and facilitating knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and ultimately turnover intentions.

The relationship between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions is theoretically and empirically well established. The relationships between knowledge sharing, and to a lesser extent organisational citizenship behaviour, with the concepts of organisational culture and turnover intentions, are not well established. It is also clear from the theoretical overview, that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are regarded as important predictors of organisational outcomes, such as turnover intentions. While there is reasonable consensus about the domain of job satisfaction, the study of organisational commitment is characterised by concept redundancy and contamination. It also seems that the different dimensions of organisational culture, as discussed in the integrative model, is to a large extent related to knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The chapter was concluded by formulated the empirical research objectives derived from the primary research question and the literature overview.

The next chapter will outline the design of the empirical part of the study.
3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 deals with the research design of the study in an attempt to answer the research questions of the study as stated in Chapter 1. More specifically, the following areas will be outlined: research approach and research methodology (referring to participants/location of data, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analysis). Figure 3.1 outlines the steps in the research approach and methodology.

Figure 3.1: Steps in the Research Approach and Methodology

3.2 Research Approach

Research designs are invented to enable researchers to answer research questions as validly, objectively, accurately, and economically as possible. The first step in the research design process is therefore to address the question: “What type of study will be undertaken in order to provide acceptable answers to the research problem or questions?”
The research question will be investigated (tested) by making use of a **field survey** to obtain primary data. A survey can be described as a study that is usually quantitative in nature and which aims to provide a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population (Mouton, 2001). According to Kerlinger (1986) sample surveys attempt to determine the incidence, distribution, and interrelations among sociological and psychological variables, and, in doing so, usually focus on people, the vital facts of people, their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations and behaviour.

The study can be described as *ex-post facto research*, meaning that a researcher does not have full control over the variables (as the problem already occurred), but at least medium control can be obtained through applying inferential statistics (De la Rey, 1978; Mouton, 2001). The conceptualisation or mode for reasoning to choose a **correlational design** is first to test hypotheses and secondly to analyse variables to propose a theoretical model. Research problems can be and are stated in the form of hypotheses (Kerlinger, 1986). The study is therefore correlational and predictive in nature. According to Smit (1995) the correlational design can be seen as the best controlled and precise non-experimental design. Individuals will form the target dimension. The population is literate and will therefore have the ability to complete the questionnaires.

The strengths of this design are that the potential exists to generalize to large populations if appropriate sampling design has been implemented; high measurement reliability if proper questionnaire construction was implemented and high construct validity if proper controls have been implemented (Mouton, 2001). Researchers using this design should be careful of sampling error, questionnaire error, high refusal and non-response, data capturing error, and inappropriate selection of statistical techniques (Mouton, 2001). These issues were addressed as will be discussed in the following sections.

Next, the research methodology will be discussed.
3.3 Research Methodology

3.3.1 Participants/location of data

Sampling is described by Mouton (1996) as a research strategy to study objects or phenomena as representative examples of a larger population of similar objects or phenomena. According to Mouton it is important to distinguish between the target population and the sampling frame. The target population refers to the population to which one wishes to generalise, while the sampling frame (unit of analysis) refers to the set of cases from which the sample will actually be selected.

3.3.1.1 Target Population

The target population can be described as all professional nurses working in the Free State, Northern Cape and North West Provinces of South Africa. The requirements were that these nurses should be regarded as professional and registered as such. Staff – or assistant nurses were not included in the target population. Professional nurses were selected to investigate the research problem for the following reasons: The severe shortages in hospitals and loss of staff to overseas labour markets (Green, 2003; Liebenberg, 2003; Thom, 2003); nurses are regarded as well-qualified (Smetherham, 2004); nursing is regarded at the heart of providing patient care and is the backbone of the South African health system (Essop, 2003; Leiter et al. 1998; Newman et al., 2002; Smetherham & Laurance, 2003); the perceived diversity of the sample with the assumption of the existence of multiple cultures (Kotter & Heskett, 1992) or subcultures (Schein, 1992); and the interpersonal, progressive nature of work and direct client contact (Leiter et al., 1998).

Various important challenges and problems had to be addressed to determine the sampling frame and unit of analysis. According to figures by the South African Nursing Council, there are approximately 93 000 registered professional nurses in South Africa. (This figure must not be confused with the estimated 155 400 if staff nurses are also...
taken in consideration). Professional nurses are employed in different sectors (e.g. hospitals, municipalities, academic institutions and other industries). However, hospitals are the most important employers of professional nurses (Green, 2003; Liebenberg, 2003; Thom, 2003). It was therefore decided to only include hospital nurses.

The next step was to select which hospitals to include in the sampling frame. As it was obviously impossible to include all hospitals in the country, the first objective was to at least address the issue whether professional nurses work in the private or public (provincial) sector and whether the hospital is situated in an urban or rural surroundings (with the objective to include all of these criteria). The assumption was made that different hospitals, different types of hospitals and hospitals in different surroundings (urban and rural) will probably have different organisational cultures that will yield a sample with diverse characteristics.

It was therefore decided to include five private hospitals and four provincial hospitals in the sampling frame. Some of the hospitals selected are in large developed cities, while others are in smaller developing surroundings. The hospitals also covered three of the nine provinces in South Africa. The motivation for choosing this sample strategy, was the expectation that the sample is very much diverse in nature (different hospitals, sectors, units, geographical areas), which may affect the variance of the variables, and therefore a large sample was required (Welman & Kruger, 1999).

3.3.1.2 Unit of Analysis

The next step was to decide on the actual composition of the unit of analysis (more or less 1100 professional nurses work in the selected hospitals). Although the target population was determined to the set criteria as explained, it was decided to make use of a non-probability (convenience) sample at each of the selected hospitals. A non-probability sample in this sense could be described as involving respondents (professional nurses) who were available to complete the questionnaire at a specific point of time (normally a 2 day period) in the hospital. The respondents were not
randomly selected, but all who met the criteria and where available were included. Such
an approach is regarded as unscientific (De la Rey, 1978). The limitations compared to
systematic of stratified sampling methods are acknowledged. However, Kerlinger (1986)
defends the use of non-probability samples by noting that it may lack the virtues of
random sampling, but are often necessary and unavoidable. Their weakness can to
some extent be mitigated by using knowledge, expertise, and care in selecting samples
as was the case in this study. The following motivated this specific sampling method:

(1) Due to the severe shortages of professional nurses at hospitals, employers were
reluctant to allow time off for professional nurses to complete the questionnaires.
Obtaining permission to do the research was problematic. An uncomplicated
sampling method therefore seemed more appropriate.

(2) Due to the complex shift system that determine working hours for professional
nurses, as well as the research procedure to personally visit hospitals to ensure a
high response rate of questionnaires, it seemed practically and ethically correct to
utilize a convenience sample. For instance, if a staff member is absent on the last
day of a shift, it may take 3 to 4 days before the person works again. Since
questionnaires were handled personally, it was just not feasible to draw a
systematic sample as people would have been to a large extent not available. This
would have posed serious questions about the systematic nature of the sampling
method.

(3) Although a convenience sample was used, it was representative of the whole
hospital as all the sections (units) of a hospital operates 24 hours a day to a greater
or lesser extent, and samples were drawn from more than one shift, including day-
and night shift personnel. Each member working on that shift had basically the
same chance of being included as it was drawn from all the units at a specific point
of time.
(4) As stated, geographically the nine hospitals include three provinces. As questionnaires were personally administered by the researcher it was impossible (e.g. time, cost) to spend unlimited time at each hospital to obtain questionnaires from randomly selected respondents.

(5) The final sample consists of almost 50% of the target population (professional nurses in the selected hospitals).

(6) The final sample consists of 530 respondents. According to Huysamen (in Welman & Kruger, 1999) it is not necessary to draw a sample size bigger than 500 because it has little effect in decreasing the standard error of measurement.

Next, the measuring instruments will be discussed.

3.3.2 Measuring Instruments

Respondents completed the following sections: Demographic details; the Organisational Culture Survey (Van der Post, De Coning & Smit, 1997); Knowledge Sharing Questionnaire (instrument constructed by the author); Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Roodt, 1997); Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (helping - Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Voice - Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994); Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ20) (Weiss, Davis, England & Lofquist, 1967); and Turnover Intentions Questionnaire (unpublished questionnaire by Roodt, 2004).

3.3.2.1 Demographic Section

The demographic questionnaire was constructed in order to obtain relevant data about the respondents (e.g. type of hospital, tenure, age, level of education, gender, race, home language, level of seniority, marital status, number of dependents). Participant anonymity was maintained throughout the questionnaire. The anonymity was intended
to enhance the honesty of the responses given. See Annexure A for the biographical questionnaire applied in this study.

3.3.2.2  **The Organisational Culture Survey (OCS) (Van der Post, De Coning & Smit, 1997)**

(1)  **Background/rationale for inclusion**: The Organisational Culture Survey (Van der Post et al., 1997) was applied in this study to measure organisational culture (Annexure B). Van der Post et al. (1997) proceed from the premise that organisational culture has a number of fundamental dimensions or set of uniform characteristics. This model is based on systems theory and this approach falls firmly within the classical positivist approach of organisational culture to construct and validate the surveys (Denison, 1996; Perry, Riege & Brown cited in Erwee et al., 2001).

Within this perspective the central aim is the development of a set of dimensions across which culture could be compared (Denison, 1996), and measured (Van der Post et al., 1997) and hence more effectively managed (Van der Post et al., 1998). The Organisational Culture Survey is based on a model of organisational analysis that perceives culture as a feature of the organisation that can be studied and manipulated in isolation (Erwee et al., 2001).

This questionnaire was selected because it seems to contain the dimensions that can influence the nurse’s perception of the organisation. It was developed in South Africa and with the high reliability it seems to be the appropriate instrument for this study and such other instruments were not easily found. By including this questionnaire, the individual work unit’s culture, the individual hospital’s culture and the overall organisational culture can be determined in this study.

(2)  **Composition of the instrument**: Van der Post et al. (1997) reviewed literature by various American researchers (e.g. Denison, 1990; Robbins, 1993) to identify
organisational culture dimensions and extracted one hundred and fourteen dimensions of organisational culture. A panel of South African human resource experts followed a two-step process to group the dimensions that overlap into logical categories. This resulted in 97 items and fifteen dimensions of organisational culture. They are the following: conflict resolution, culture management, customer orientation, disposition towards change, employee participation, goal clarity, human resource orientation, identification with the organisation, locus of authority, management style, organisational focus, organisational integration, performance orientation, reward orientation and task structure.

A deviation from the original questionnaire was followed as each item was measured on a seven-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles. The items were changed from statements to questions. An example is: “How aware are employees of the objectives in this organisation?” (“Not aware at all” 1-low intensity, to “Always aware” 7-high intensity).

(3) **Reliability of the instrument:** The 15 dimensions consist, as stated, of ninety-seven items (57%) of the original 169 items. They remained after the best items were selected through determining the reliability of the instrument (Cronbach Alpha varied from 0,788 to 0,932) (Van der Post et al., 1998).

After applying the Organisational Culture Survey (OCS) on an Australian sample consisting of 326 respondents of the Australian Institute of Management, Erwee et al. (2001) reported a high Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,991 (Internal consistency) and yielded the opinion that the OCS is based on sound psychometric principles due to its high reliability and only limited amount of error variance in the measurement of the construct “organisational culture”.

Sempane et al. (2002) reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,987 of a sample of 121 black employees working for a Government Welfare Organisation in South
Africa. The results of this study supported the reliability measures of the Organisational Culture Questionnaire in a cross-cultural setting. This also supported the study of Erwee et al. (2001) on the Australian sample of workers and Van der Post et al. (1997) study on mainly white South Africans. These studies were conducted in populations significantly different (White South African and White Australian) from the black South African sample used by Sempane et al. (2002). This is of particular importance for this study as the sample for this sample is very much diverse in nature to race, as well as various other aspects such as geographical location, urban and rural residence, different hospitals and subunits.

(4) Validity of the instrument: Van der Post et al. (1997) factor analysed the data relating to the 97 items and factor loadings of between 0.8408 and 0.3916 on each of the factors were obtained, suggesting an acceptable level of construct validity. Van der Post et al. (1998) using the 15 dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey, examined the relationship between organisational culture and financial performance of organisations in South Africa. The results showed that organisational culture has a positive relationship to the financial performance of the firms thereby confirming the criterion-prediction validity of the instrument. The results of the study also showed that firms that are financially more effective differ from those firms that are not effective with respect to the organisational culture dimensions used in the study. This informs the differential validity of the instrument.

3.3.2.3 Knowledge Sharing Questionnaire (Unpublished Document)

(1) Background/rationale for developing own measure: As discussed, the concept of knowledge sharing is not known for its sound empirical base (Hislop, 2003). Gupta et al. (2002) suggested that there is an urgent need to develop measures for knowledge sharing. As far as could be determined, only one empirical study measuring attitudes towards knowledge sharing could be found in the literature. Ryu et al. (2003) investigated knowledge sharing attitudes for physicians within
hospitals. They used a 19-item questionnaire reflecting components theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour (e.g. intention to share knowledge). A limitation of this questionnaire is that only measured physicians own readiness to share knowledge.

Attitudes to attend new sharing opportunities (e.g. training courses), the overall contribution of knowledge sharing towards the organisation’s successes (e.g. competitiveness), important pre-requisites to share knowledge (e.g. organisational culture) and expected personal outcomes of sharing behaviour (e.g. rewards), were not included. Due to the little development of knowledge sharing as theoretical construct, it was therefore decided to construct a questionnaire.

(2) Composition of the instrument: A literature study was conducted to determine the concepts and activities linked to knowledge sharing (Table 3.1). A literature study is important when compiling new questionnaires. Babbie (1998) warns compilers of questionnaires not to measure fictitious constructs or attitudes of which people have no knowledge. The questionnaire consists of 23 items, each with a five-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles ranging from “to no extent” or “disagree” (low intensity) to “to a large extent” or “agree” (high intensity).

The questionnaire consists of six sections representing different domains of knowledge sharing, namely why knowledge is shared in the organisation (e.g. to get recognition – 5 questions), opportunities for knowledge sharing (e.g. to attend training courses – 3 questions), the contribution of knowledge sharing to the organisation (e.g. competitiveness – 3 questions), why others readily share knowledge (e.g. that trust exists – 6 questions), why one would not readily share knowledge [e.g. career would be in danger – 3 questions (-)], and why others do not readily share knowledge [e.g. colleagues don’t want to do likewise – 3 questions(-)] (See Annexure C).
### Table 3.1
**Literature Overview for Compiling the Knowledge Sharing Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selected conditions, methods, outcomes and importance</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>■ Trust (questions 12, 19, 22)</td>
<td>Bartol &amp; Srivastava (2002); Husted &amp; Michailova, (2002); Yang &amp; Wan (2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ Reward, recognition and incentive systems (questions 1, 2)</td>
<td>Bartol &amp; Srivastava (2002); Chua (2003); Husted &amp; Michailova (2002); McDermott &amp; O'Dell (2001); Yang &amp; Wan (2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ Supportive organisational culture (question 15)</td>
<td>Gupta et al. (2002); Haldin-Herrgard (2000); Husted &amp; Michailova (2002); McDermott &amp; O'Dell (2001); Ryu et al. (2003); Yang &amp; Wan (2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ Support from and to managers (questions 4, 14)</td>
<td>McDermott &amp; O'Dell (2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ No fear that career development is in danger if admitting mistakes and failures (questions 5, 18, 21)</td>
<td>Husted &amp; Michailova (2002).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ Informal gatherings and social events (questions 7, 8)</td>
<td>Yang &amp; Wan (2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ Training, workshops, seminars conferences (questions 3, 6)</td>
<td>Gupta et al. (2000); Husted &amp; Michailova (2002); Yang &amp; Wan (2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ Improve business performance and successes (question 9)</td>
<td>Gupta et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ To stay competitive and become innovative (questions 10, 11)</td>
<td>Chua (2003); Gupta et al. (2000); Fernie et al. (2003); Husted &amp; Michailova (2002); Haldin-Herrgard (2000).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.2.4 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Roodt, 1997)

(1) **Background/rationale for inclusion:** The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Roodt (1997) was used to measure commitment (Annexure D). The questionnaire is especially suitable for this investigation as it can be regarded as a motivational approach to study commitment. This entails needs, values and goals that can all be regarded as motivational constructs (Roodt, 2004a). The
Organisational Commitment Questionnaire is furthermore selected, because the predictive model on turnover intentions in this study is based on the assumption that professional nurses who satisfy their higher order needs, will be inclined to stay.

(2) **Composition of the instrument:** The questionnaire consists of 38 items, each with a five-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles. The foci of the questionnaire consist of work, job, career, occupation and organisation. As discussed fully in chapter 2, Roodt (1997; 2004a) argued that no distinction between these different foci could be made and concluded that this distinction may only be of theoretical value. Roodt (1997) reported, on a sample of 279 teachers, that organisational-related commitment and union commitment are two fairly independent foci.

This clearly shows that foci like work, occupation and career are related to work organisations and not to unions. A clear distinction could also be made if workers are obsessed with, or alienated from work. The 38 items that will be used in this study can be regarded as organisational-related commitment. An example of an item is: “How much time and energy do you willingly devote to work?” (“no time” 1-low intensity to “all of my time” 5-high intensity).

(3) **Reliability of the instrument:** The questionnaire yielded an acceptable Cronbach Alpha of 0,914 (Roodt, 1997); 0,94 (Storm & Roodt, 2001); 0,91 (Pretorius & Roodt, 2004) and 0,88 on a shortened version (Janse van Rensburg, 2004).

(4) **Validity of the instrument:** As explained, the organisational commitment questionnaire was compiled through a process of factor analysis resulting in a clear distinction between work related and union foci (Roodt, 1997). This is a clear indication of the construct validity of the instrument. Other aspects of validity still need to be developed.
3.3.2.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (Helping Behaviours - Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Voice behaviours - Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994)

(1) Background/rationale for inclusion: Organisational citizenship behaviours will be assessed by the Van Dyne and LePine (1998) seven-item "helping" scale (Annexure E). The items were originally adapted from Organ and Konovsky (1989). Four additional items of the original altruism scales from the work of Smith et al. (1983) will also be included in the questionnaire. Three items of the original altruism scales were not included as they are similar to Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) "helping" scale. The motivation to include some of the original items is that Motowidlo (in Lepine, Erez & Johnson, 2002) is of the opinion that OCB’s is not really a construct, but only a useful label for sets of behaviours that conceptually belong together. Helping is important to organisations when roles are interdependent and employee cooperation facilitates overall performance.

Voice will be measured by a 6–item scale as used by Van Dyne and LePine (1998), developed and validated by Van Dyne et al. (1994). Voice is important when an organisation’s environment like hospitals is dynamic and new ideas facilitate continuous improvement. A factor-analysis simultaneously performed on helping and voice will indicate which items belong together and will also address the concern of Motowidlo (in Lepine et al., 2002) that OCB’s is not really a construct.

It is noted that helping and voice are not always extra-role behaviours. Some would argue that care-giving jobs (such as nursing) require helping (Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998). This research, however, focuses on the fulfillment of needs, a feeling that someone is doing more than is expected by helping colleagues (that is not required as part of a job). Barksdale and Werner (2001) found that in-role behaviours and two dimensions of OCB’s (altruism and conscientiousness) were empirically distinct. In-role behaviours can also be seen as task behaviours and should be the key in measuring performance. In their study in-role behaviours had a stronger
influence on overall ratings that did altruism or conscientiousness. This is clearly an indication that helping (altruism) can be regarded as extra-role behaviour. Another significant finding was that in-role behaviour and altruism explained the variance in performance ratings, while conscientiousness was insignificant. This is an indication that conscientiousness (e.g. regular attendance, following rules and regulations) are among the in-role requirements of most jobs. Barksdale and Werner (2001), in determining the discriminant validity of organisational citizenship behaviour and in-role behaviours, came to the conclusion that these constructs are distinguishable from each other. It therefore seems valid to include helping as extra-role behaviour for professional nurses.

(2) **Composition of the instruments:** A deviation from the original helping questionnaire was followed as each item was measured on a seven-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles (“never” 1-low intensity, to “always” 7-high intensity). An example of this 11-item questionnaire is: “How often do you volunteer to do things for this work group?”

Voice behaviours consists of 6 items (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). A deviation from the original voice questionnaire was followed as each item was measured on a seven-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles (“never” 1-low intensity, to “always” 7-high intensity). An example of an item is: "How frequent do you make recommendations concerning issues that affect your work group?"

(3) **Reliability of the instruments:** Van Dyne and LePine’s (1998) "helping" scale was developed and validated with data from individuals working in a wide variety of organisational settings. A study on collectivism in a non-work setting where the wording was slightly changed yielded a Cronbach alpha of 0.87 (Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham & Cummings, 2002).

The Voice-scale yielded acceptable Cronbach alphas. In two pilot studies conducted by van Dyne and Lepine (1998) amongst MBA students (pilot study 1 -
self ratings), Cronbach's alpha was 0.85 for helping and 0.82 for voice; test-retest reliability was 0.81 and 0.78. In pilot study 2 (supervisor ratings of 321 subordinates from 36 organisations), Cronbach's alphas for helping and voice were both 0.89.

(4) **Validity of the instruments**: Several factors regarding the nature of organisational citizenship behaviours complicated the validity of ratings (Allen, Barnard, Rush & Russell, 2004). They are the following:

- OCB’s consist of behaviour that is neither described nor prescribed by the organisation, therefore a common set of performance standards for rating these behaviours does not exist.

- OCB’s may frequently escape the attention of the supervisor.

- Individuals construct their own private meanings and explanations regarding both their performance and personality.

- Employees may make purposeful efforts to be noticed by their supervisor in an attempt to gain more favourable impressions from those who determine rewards and punishments. Hence, subordinates may observe fewer instances of OCB’s than do superiors. This may have the effect that supervisors may view more OCB’s, although some of it may be to impress them.

- Individuals may purposely inflate ratings in an effort to enhance their self-image to self or others. Additionally, the self–serving bias suggests that individuals tend to credit themselves for success and blame others for failure. This leads to higher self-ratings due to a focus on positive outcomes and a discounting of failures. Previous research has shown that employees carefully try to influence managerial impressions (Wayne & Ferris, 1990).
• OCB’s may only be known to the self as the behaviour may not have been noticed or observed by others. OCB’s consist of non-prescribed behaviour, therefore the occurrence of such behaviour may not bring public recognition to the same extent as would task performance.

Allen et al. (2004) found a relationship between superior and subordinate ratings of overall OCB’s. By contrast, there was very little consistency in the ratings between self and others. Allen et al. (2004) suggested a multiple approach in rating OCB’s if possible and applicable. This recommendation rested on a small and organisationally diverse sample and may not hold for a single organisation. While there are many arguments regarding who should be responsible for organisational citizenship behaviour ratings, and the advantages and disadvantages of each is acknowledged, it’s been decided to only use self ratings in this study for the following reasons:

• It is important to keep in mind that professional nurses are working shifts in hospitals. Since care must be given for 24 hours a day, supervisors, colleagues and subordinates change shifts all the time. Some professional nurses will work day- and night shift, others only day and others only night shift. Shifts are most of the time three days with two days off. As stated already, many have to work overtime on new shifts due the staff shortages. In conclusion, assumptions of normal routine and the traditional 8 to 5 workday are not applicable. It may therefore happen that OCB’s displayed by nurses may pass without noticing it. Organisational citizenship behaviours are typically measured on scales measuring frequency of occurrence or the extent to which the behaviours described are characteristic of the ratee. Allen et al. (2004) emphasise that consistent observance of behaviour over time is necessary to determine frequency.

• It might be, because of work pressure due to staff shortages, that professional nurses have less time to impress their supervisors by displaying OCB’s for selfish reasons.
• Supervisors (chief professional nurses or unit managers) may, due to lack of enough staff, also perform hands-on operational duties and do not have the luxury to closely observe citizenship behaviours continuously. Behaviour of subordinates may therefore be unnoticed. Administrative duties of supervisors, like attending hospital meetings, may further contribute to the same problem.

• One can probably assume that professional nurses regard themselves as professional and would behave accordingly. Evidence is clear that nurses are more professionally orientated than organisationally committed (Lu et al., 2002; Lum et al., 1998). The question can be raised for what reasons would they unnecessarily try to impress their supervisors. It is admitted that this does not mean that nurses will always just behave positively. They might also experience personal and emotional problems, lack of work ethics and low morality.

• Another reason for using self-ratings is that Paine and Organ (2000) are of the opinion that in most national cultures (global perspective), OCB’s are directed towards colleagues and not towards the supervisor. Many would view OCB’s directed at the supervisor as verging on traitorous behaviour. It seems, therefore, that supervisors will be more unaware of their subordinate’s organisational citizenship behaviours.

• The length of the questionnaire was also longer than prescribed. It was therefore decided that self ratings would be less time consuming and therefore ethically correct, taking the severe pressure and staff shortages in consideration. Mouton (2001) also warns that research has shown that the length of the questionnaire has a direct and often negative impact on the quality of responses.

• Due to the composition of the sample, and taking the severe pressure of work into consideration, it was just not feasible for supervisors, colleagues or subordinates to do the ratings on OCB’s. A serious threat to lose respondents would have existed. It might have happened that due to the complex shift system and limited time,
ratings of others could not possibly be obtained. A multiple approach in rating OCB’s as suggested by Allen et al. (2004), is therefore not feasible in this study.

- Lastly, it is clear that differences between various sources of ratings are not substantially significant. Organ and Konovsky (1989) reported Cronbach’s alphas (self, peer, and supervisor), as 0.95, 0.94, and 0.94 at time 1, and 0.88, 0.95, and 0.95 at time 2 for helping behaviour. Van Dyne et al. (1994) reported Cronbach’s alphas (self, peer, and supervisor) as 0.88, 0.95, and 0.94 at time 1 and 0.89, 0.96, and 0.94 at time 2. It is however, admitted that self ratings are generally slightly lower (less valid) than peer and supervisory ratings.

3.3.2.6 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ20) (Weiss, Davis, England & Lofquist, 1967).

(1) Background/rationale for inclusion: Job satisfaction will be assessed by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967) (Annexure F). The questionnaire is constructed around the theory that each person seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with his or her environment. Correspondence with the environment at work can be described in terms of the individual fulfilling the requirements of the environment (satisfactoriness), and the work environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual (satisfaction).

The goal of the MSQ20 is to measure work related needs. The purpose of the MSQ20 is to determine the degree of job satisfaction in characteristics associated with the task itself (intrinsic satisfaction), in non-task characteristics of the job (extrinsic satisfaction) and in overall job satisfaction (total satisfaction) (Weiss et al., 1967). Robbins (1993) argued that job satisfaction is multi-dimensional and should be measured in terms of individual dimensions instead of a global construct. The advantage of the MSQ20 is that it can measure dimensions as well as provide a total score for job satisfaction. This instrument is widely used and because of the properties to measure intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction, it was
selected for the purpose of this study. The shorter length of the MSQ20 also makes it appropriate for the purpose of this study.

(2) **Composition of the instrument:** The MSQ20 measures 20 different items and can be categorized into extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. The questionnaire measures the following satisfaction domains: activity, independence, variety, social status, moral values, security, social service, authority, ability utilisation, responsibility, creativity, achievement (intrinsic), supervision-human relations, supervision-technical, company policies and practices, compensation, advancement, working conditions, co-workers and recognition (extrinsic). Questions are measured on a five-point scale and will make use of an intensity scale with 1-low intensity (e.g. never) and 5-high intensity (e.g. always). An example is: “What are the chances for advancement in your present job? (1-no chance; 5-high chance).

(3) **Reliability of the instrument:** The questionnaire is widely used and Sempane et al. (2002) reports an acceptable alpha coefficient of 0.9169 on a sample of Government Welfare employees in South Africa. Ivancevich (in Cook et al., 1981) reported coefficients alpha of 0.80 and 0.84 for the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction sub-scales in a study of machinists and technicians. Pierce, Dunham and Blackburn (in Cook et al., 1981) recorded an intercorrelation of 0.67, alpha coefficients of 0.88 and 0.84 for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction respectively. The test and retest reliability over a one-week period is 0.89, and it is 0.70 over a year (Cook et al., 1981).

(4) **Validity of the instrument:** The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire appears to yield a sound measure of overall job satisfaction (Cook et al., 1981).

3.3.2.7 **Turnover Intentions (Unpublished Questionnaire, Roodt, 2004b)**

(1) **Background/rationale for inclusion:** Turnover intentions in this study will be measured by an unpublished questionnaire (Annexure G) developed by Roodt
The turnover literature lacks formally validated scales to represent turnover cognitions (Sager et al., 1998). The motivation to use this questionnaire is that most instruments in the literature measure turnover intentions on only a relatively small number of items. Various researchers have used only one item (Guimaraes, 1997; Lambert et al., 2001). The approach to use single-item indicators to measure turnover cognitions is criticized as construct validity in unknown (Lee et al., 2000; Sager et al., 1998). Only a few studies could be found where more than three items per instrument were used (Fox & Fallon, 2003; Lum et al., 1998).

Instruments used in prior research to measure turnover intentions are also problematical in two areas. First, they either do not provide a time frame for exercising intentions or they use an infinite time frame. Intentions are more likely to lead to behaviour if they are measured within a reasonable time frame (Lee et al., 2000). The shorter the time frame, the more accurate the prediction of behaviour linked to the intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). This may be a limitation in this questionnaire.

Composition of the instrument: The questionnaire consists of 14 items that will be measured on a seven-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles (e.g. “never” 1-low intensity, to “always” 7-high intensity). Examples of items included in this questionnaire (Roodt, 2004b) are: “How often have you recently considered leaving your job?” and “How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?”

Validity and reliability of the instrument: The construct validity and reliability is unknown for this instrument. A factor – analysis will show if different turnover cognitions are measured in this instrument. As described in Chapter 2, various researchers make a distinction between intention to search and intention to quit (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Sager et al., 1998). A question such as “How often have you recently considered leaving your job?” probably measure intention to
quit or leave, while a question such as “How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?” probably measure intention to search.

3.4.3 Research Procedure

3.4.3.1 Obtaining Permission

Permission to do the research was obtained from the Regional Director of the private hospitals and the Director: Knowledge Management of the provincial hospitals. A short application and proposal was initially submitted in order to inform them about the possible value of the study and the procedure to be followed.

Some difficulty was experienced when the hospitals were approached for the research. Permission to do research in the private hospitals was initially directed to their national headquarters. Conflicting correspondence were received where it was first approved, then restricted to only a local hospital and then ultimately declined. Their reasons were, due to the shortages of staff, not wanting to create additional pressure on their staff, lack of previous researchers’ feedback and conflicting views about the necessity of the topic. It seemed that lack of communication between role players and the continuous delegation of the request by electronic mail caused the problem. However, the Regional Director and all the hospital managers involved were adamant they needed the results of the research and gave permission to continue. An ethical decision was taken to continue with the research as assurance was given that they fully have the authority to decide on this issue at regional and hospital level. A guarantee was also given to provide feedback after completion of the study.

The Director: Knowledge Management was approached to do the research in the provincial hospitals. They requested the final research proposal, letter of content (ethical issues) and final questionnaire. A letter of content was provided by the Ethics Research Committee of the Faculty Ethics Committee of the university. A panel of three experts,
including a person situated at a university, evaluated the application. They provided advice about the research process and finally permission.

3.4.3.2 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in two rounds. In the first round the questionnaire was completed by three professional nurses in a private hospital to receive general feedback and to eliminate errors. No problems were reported, except that the questionnaire might be too long and is therefore time consuming. It took respondents between 25-45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Only a few errors were reported and rectified. These questionnaires were not included in the final sample.

The questionnaire was then evaluated by Statistical Consultation Service of the University of Johannesburg and a few changes to the layout and items were suggested. It was therefore necessary to conduct a second pilot study. Ten respondents in a private hospital completed the questionnaire. It took respondents again between 25-45 minutes to complete. No problems were reported and the opinion was generally that the questions were applicable to the hospital situation. Since no problems were reported, and the conditions were the same as for the final data-gathering process, the 10 pilot questionnaires were included in the final sample. The final questionnaires were compiled in a booklet by a printing company for easy control and handling.

3.4.3.3 Field Survey

The proposed method to gather the data was aimed at achieving the highest possible response rate, as well as adhering to ethical research standards and preventing any misunderstanding or unnecessary delay in the process.

The completion of the questionnaires was personally administered. The main reason for this approach was to ensure that all items were completed and that there were no missing responses. Administering the questionnaires personally saved time for
employees and ensured accuracy. It also improved confidentiality and promoted a quick response. A further advantage was that any unclear items or questions could be solved if necessary. This happened only on a very few occasions. Questionnaires were completed in settings outside the units, such as training centres, to prevent too many interruptions. All questionnaires were handled anonymously. No one was required to write their names or identify him or herself in any way in order to ensure anonymity. On a few occasions night personnel assisted in administering questionnaires. Questionnaires were only available in English. Although many respondents indicated that their home language is Afrikaans or an African language, no problems were reported as everyone was proficient in English.

Dates and times to gather data were well planned and organised. The private hospitals managers were approached, which delegated the authority without exception to the nursing services managers. In the case of the provincial hospitals, the Director: Knowledge Management made arrangements with the hospital managers to avail staff for the research. This approach was followed since some of these hospitals are in rural areas and it was reasoned that they will better co-operate when it was supported from a senior management level in their Health Department. Every appointment was then telephonically and by electronic mail confirmed by the researcher, explaining the importance of the research, as well as a request to avail professional nurses during set times (which normally were two working days and at least one night shift). The dates and times were also scheduled to involve as many shifts as possible. The Director: Knowledge Management provided each hospital manager with a research proposal, the permission to the research, the letter of ethical conduct and an estimated time schedule of the availability of the research report. The decision when to release professional nurses from their duties to complete the questionnaire by hospital managers or Nursing Service managers was totally flexible and to their own jurisdiction, with the goal not to intervene in any work activities.

The availability of professional nurses to complete questionnaires created problems from the onset at both groups of hospitals, but especially at the provincial hospitals.
According to the nursing service managers this was mainly due to lack of staff, enormous pressure on existing staff, complex shift systems and maybe also reluctance to do additional “work.” This specific problem was mainly evident in the group of provincial hospitals, which was just three months earlier involved in strikes regarding compensation issues. It was therefore necessary to visit most of these hospitals (private and provincial) on more than one occasion. However, the data-capturing strategy of personally gathering information yielded desirable results and is highly recommended in research efforts on professional medical personnel in South Africa.

3.4.3.4   Editing the Data

After completion of the questionnaires a thorough procedure to clean the data was followed. A questionnaire was discarded if there were missing responses. As discussed, the questionnaires were administered personally in the various hospitals and there was an opportunity to quickly check everyone after completion. A number of 570 questionnaires were distributed. A final number of 530 questionnaires were usable and 40 rejected. A number of 40 questionnaires seem to be high if the opportunity existed to asked respondents immediately after completion to fill in missing responses. However, in some occasions respondents were interrupted due to emergencies. Some questionnaires were also rejected due to missing responses or wrongly completed by non-professional nurses (staff nurses). Due to miscommunication between nursing managers and staff it happened, only in a very few occasions, that staff nurses also completed the questionnaire. The problem could only be detected after the completion of the questionnaires by checking the biographical information. It was impossible for staff nurses to complete all the questions and therefore a reliable measure to exclude them in the final sample.

After this, the data was captured and processed by STATCON (Statistical Consultation Services at the University of Johannesburg).
3.5 Statistical Analysis

The SPSS version 11 (Klecka, Nie & Hull, 1975) was used by STATCON for the statistical analysis. The statistical analysis was conducted in two phases. The first phase consists of the descriptive statistical analysis, factor analysis and item statistics. This was followed by a test for normality of data, coefficients of association and correlations between all the variables. Phase two consists of inferential statistics. An overview of the inferential statistics process will next be described with reference to how the hypotheses were tested.

3.5.1 Inferential Statistics

Statistics that are used to infer the truth or falsity a hypothesis are called inferential statistics, in contrast to descriptive statistics, which do not seek to make an inference but merely provide a description of the sample data. The general inference to be tested is that some phenomenon that is true for a sample is also true for the population from which the sample was drawn (Bailey, 1994). The inferential statistics used in this study followed first a bivariate and thereafter a multivariate approach.

3.5.1.1 Bivariate Approach

The first set of hypotheses was tested by making use of a bivariate approach. Hypotheses 1, the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions, was tested by the Pearson product-moment correlation (this hypothesis was further analysed by introducing General Linear Modelling). Thereafter, the differences between demographic variables and organisational culture (hypotheses 2: 1-10) and turnover intentions (hypotheses 3:1-10) were also tested on a bivariate level. To test these hypotheses, t-tests and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted with each variable and the sum of squares, mean square and statistical significance between and within groups. The purpose of t-tests is to test the statistical significance between two groups while ANOVA is applied to test for statistical significance between three or more
independent groups. According to Kerlinger (1986) analysis of variance is a method of identifying, breaking down, and testing for statistical significance variances that come from different sources of variation. The following process was followed:

The descriptives of different groups for each demographic variable were presented. This was followed by Levene’s test for equality of variances. If the error variance was equal across the different groups the Scheffé test was used to compare the differences. If the error variance was unequal across the different groups the Dunnett test was used to compare the variance.

3.5.1.2 **Multivariate Approach**

According to Kerlinger (1986) it is unrealistic, even wrong, to study and learn only an approach that is basically bivariate in conception. Multivariate methods are like the behavioural reality they try to reflect: complex and difficult to understand. Kerlinger continues by arguing that from all methods of analysis, multivariate methods are the most powerful and appropriate for scientific behavioural research. His argument basically rests on the idea that behavioural problems are almost all multivariate in nature and cannot be solved with a bivariate (two-variable) approach – that is, an approach that considers only one independent and one dependent variable at a time.

Hypothesis 1 (besides the Pearson-product moment correlation), hypotheses 2-3 [integrative hypotheses of demographic variables for organisational culture and turnover intentions (excluding those on a bivariate level)], hypothesis 4 (independent and interactive role of the independent, mediating and dependent variables in turnover intentions), and hypothesis 5 (mediating role of variables between organisational culture and turnover intentions) were tested by making use of General Linear Modelling. A final parsimonious model was presented by also following the same approach with General Linear Modelling.
General Linear Modelling

(1) Background

Broadly stated, the theory driving General Linear Modelling (GLM) seeks to identify those quantities in systems of equations which remain unchanged under linear transformations of the variables in the system. More imaginatively stated, the theory searches for the eternal and unchanging amongst data sets.

The General Linear Model differs from the multiple regression model in terms of the number of dependent variables that can be analysed. The General Linear Model goes a step beyond the multivariate regression model by allowing for linear transformations or linear combinations of multiple dependent variables. This extension gives the General Linear Model important advantages over the multivariate regression models, which are inherently univariate (single dependent variables) methods. One advantage is that multivariate tests of significance can be employed when responses on multiple dependent variables are correlated. Multivariate tests of significance of independent linear combinations of multiple dependent variables can also give insight into which dimensions of the response variables are, and are not, related to the predictor variables. Independent variables can be continuous (e.g. dimensions of organisational culture) or categorized (e.g. demographic variables). Through the ability of General Linear Modelling methods to analyse effects of repeated measure factors, mediation can be determined. Through GLM moderating effects of variables can also be identified (Statsoft, 2004).

General Linear Modelling is also useful to compile predictive models and develop theories (a focus of this study). A theory is a group of logical, related statements that are presented as an explanation of a phenomenon. A theory thus encompasses one or more hypotheses (Welman & Kruger, 1999). According to Bailey (1994) explanations and predictions are provided by theories, usually stated in causal terms.
GLM procedure to determine the integrative role of demographic variables in predicting Organisational Culture and Turnover Intentions

The same procedure was separately followed for determining the independent and/or interactive role of demographic variables, firstly for organisational culture and secondly for turnover intentions. A multi factor (two or more factors) analysis of variance (ANOVA) as referred to by Hand and Taylor (1987), was followed in order to identify which of the demographic variables either independently and/or jointly best predict the outcome variables.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to uncover the main and interaction effects of categorical independent variables (called “factors”) on an interval dependent variable. A “main effect” is the direct effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable. An “interaction effect” is the joint effect of two or more independent variables on the dependent variable. The key statistic in ANOVA is the F-test of difference of group means, testing if the means of the groups formed by values of the independent variable (or combinations of values for multiple independent variables) are different enough not to have occurred by chance. If the group means do not differ significantly, then it is inferred that the independent variable(s) did not have an effect on the dependent variable (Wildt & Olli, 1978).

The following model modification process was followed: First, all demographic variables were initially included in a multi factor ANOVA without any interactions. The univariate analysis of variance (no interactions) provided initial significant demographic variables to be retained in the General Linear Model. A univariate analysis is considered as a general linear model. The GLM univariate procedure provides regression analysis and analysis of variance for one dependent variable by one or more factors and/or variables. The factor variables divide the population into groups. Using this General Linear Model procedure, the null hypotheses could be tested about the effects of other variables on the means of various groupings of a single dependent variable. Interactions can be investigated between factors as well as the effects of individual factors, some of which
may be random. In addition, the effects of covariates and covariate interactions with factors can be included. For regression analysis, the independent (predictor) variables are specified as covariates [personal communication STATCON; SPSS version 11 (Klecka et al., 1975)].

Thereafter, a linear regression analysis multivariate approach (with interactions) was followed to determine the independent and interactive role of demographic variables in explaining the variance in the outcome variables. A model summary of the linear regression was provided with the adjusted R square (R²) and the Coefficients with the B-values. R square (R²) is the proportion of variance in y (organisational culture; turnover intentions) explained by the regression equation [predictors (demographic variables)], i.e. the sum of squares explained by the model divided by the total sum of squares (Horton, 1978).

Finally, the most parsimonious model (final indicators) was determined by including only those demographic variables that either independently or jointly predict the outcome variables through a multivariate analysis of variance.

(3) GLM procedure for all variables in determining the most parsimonious model for Turnover Intentions

The first step in the General Linear Model in building a predictive model of turnover intentions was to enter the independent variable (organisational culture) together with all the mediating variables (knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction) stepwise into the equation to attain residuals. This presented an initial model of variables explaining turnover intentions. A model summary will be provided with the adjusted R square (R²) and the coefficients with the B-values. R square (R²) is the proportion of variance in y (turnover intentions) explained by the regression equation (predictors).
The second step in building a predictive model of turnover intentions was to enter the independent variable (organisational culture) together with all the mediating variables (knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction) and demographic variables in an initial regression with no interactions. This provided a more parsimonious, but not final, model than step 1.

Finally (step 3), in using General Linear Modelling (GLM), the most parsimonious model was determined by entering the independent, mediating variables and all the demographic variables into the equation with interactions. This will give a clear indication of the final predictors and most parsimonious model of turnover intentions. From this model it would be possible to determine the independent and interactive role of the independent variable (organisational culture) and the mediating variables (knowledge sharing, organisational commitment, OCB’s and job satisfaction) in determining turnover intentions (hypothesis 4). This model will indicate which variables emerged as independent predictors and/or as interactions to predict turnover intentions.

**Testing for Mediation**

In general, a given variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion. The results of the mediation test can be derived from either the procedure of Baron and Kenny (1986) or examining the final General Linear Model for mediating variables (hypothesis 5). Baron and Kenny’s procedure can be regarded as a trivariate approach while the General Linear Model provided a more holistic picture when all the different variables are entered into the equation.

To test for mediation according to the procedure proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), one should estimate the following regression equations: first, regressing the mediator on the independent variable; second, regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable; and third, regressing the dependent variable on both the
independent variable and on the mediator. Separate coefficients for each equation should be estimated and tested.

These three regression equations provide the tests of the linkages of the mediation model. To establish mediation, the following conditions must hold: First, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation. If these conditions all hold in the prediction direction, then the effect of the independent on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second. Perfect mediation holds if the dependent variable has no effect when the mediator is controlled.

Because the independent variable is assumed to cause the mediator, these two variables should be correlated. The presence of such a correlation results in multicollinearity when the effects of the independent variable and mediator on the dependent variable are estimated. This results in reduced power in the test of the coefficients in the third equation. It is then, according to Baron and Kenny (1986), critical not only to examine the significance of the coefficients but also their absolute size. It was therefore decided to use an univariate approach rather than a regression in order to see effect sizes. The results of Baron and Kenny’s (1986) procedure was compared by examining the final most parsimonious General Linear Model for mediating effects of variables.

3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research design was outlined. The research approach, research methodology, research procedure and statistical analysis were discussed. The research approach can be described as a field survey of data collection, and an ex-post facto and correlation design of data analysis. The research methodology referred to the target population, unit of analysis and measuring instruments used in this study. The research procedure described how permission was obtained, the pilot study, the field study and
how the data was edited. Lastly, the statistical procedure to analyse the data was described.

In the next chapter, the results of the study will be presented.