

JOB SATISFACTION IN SELECTED FIVE-STAR HOTELS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

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Declaration of Independent Work

I, **LISA-MARI COUGHLAN**, with identity number [REDACTED] and student number **207 006 521**, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the degree **MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE: TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT** is my own independent work, and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before by any person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT

DATE

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Abstract

One of the 2011 National Tourism Sector Strategy objectives is to "provide excellent people development and decent work within the tourism sector". The hospitality industry is, however, not regarded as a provider of decent work, a factor that has a direct bearing on the job satisfaction level of employees. It is for this reason that it was decided to investigate the job satisfaction level of employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape Province. The instrument used to gather the quantitative data was a newly developed index based on the literature review conducted. The review was not restricted to the hospitality industry, but included all industries, as the existing knowledge on job satisfaction in the hospitality industry is limited.

A pilot study was conducted on one five-star hotel in Bloemfontein, and the empirical study was conducted in February 2012 among 124 employees of four five-star hotels in the Western Cape. The only biographic variable, for which a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction was calculated, was having a hospitality-related qualification. A significant correlation with overall job satisfaction was calculated for 38 of the 74 job satisfaction variables. The 38 job satisfaction variables were distributed among six internal, 18 external and 14 individual job satisfaction variables. The internal job satisfaction dimension predicted 39.97% of overall job satisfaction; the external job satisfaction dimension predicted 66.88%, and the individual job satisfaction dimension predicted 79.82%. In total, 79% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their current jobs. Recommendations were made to improve job satisfaction in the selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

α :	Alpha
BFI:	Big Five Inventory
BFI-10:	Big Five Inventory – 10
BUSA:	Business Unity South Africa
CL:	Comparison Level
CL _{alt} :	Comparison Level for Alternatives
CSE:	Core Self-Evaluation
DEAT:	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
EI:	Emotional Intelligence
FEDHASA:	Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa
GNS:	Growth Need Strength
ILO:	International Labour Organization
IQR:	Interquartile Range
JCM:	Job Characteristics Model
JDI:	Job Descriptive Index
MSQ:	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
NDT:	National Department of Tourism
NTSS:	National Tourism Sector Strategy
p:	Threshold for Statistically Significant Results
r :	Spearman Correlation Coefficient
R ² :	Coefficient Determination
TGCSA:	Tourism Grading Council of South Africa
THETA:	Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority
CATHSSETA:	Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority
UIF:	Unemployment Insurance Fund
VIE:	Valence, Instrumentality and Expectancy
%:	Percentage

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Chapter 1: Scope of the research

1.1 Introduction and background

"My favorite thing is to go where I have never gone."

Diane Arbus (2010)

Tourism is one of the largest industries in the world (NDT, 2011:4). The South African tourism industry has developed significantly since the country's first democratic election in 1994 (January-Mclean, 2010:1). Between 1993 and 2008 the number of foreign arrivals into the country more than tripled (NDT, 2011:1). The 2012 Tourism Satellite Account for South Africa points out that tourism directly contributed R80.3 billion or 3% of the gross domestic product of South Africa in 2010 (Statistics South Africa, 2012b:3). The Minister of Tourism wants to ensure that the investments made into the country for the 2010 Soccer World Cup will be used to the optimum in the years to come, and it is therefore a priority of the National Department of Tourism to inspire and accelerate responsible growth within the tourism industry from 2010 to 2015 (NDT, 2011:3).

Tourism in South Africa is divided into five sectors, namely hospitality; travel and tourism; conservation and tourism guiding; gaming and lotteries; and sport, recreation and fitness (THETA & DEAT, 2007:9). Hospitality is the largest of these sectors and also employs the largest number of employees in the tourism industry. Hospitality is divided into hotels, motels, botels and inns, guest houses and guest farms, bed-and-breakfasts, management and operation of game lodges, caravan parks and camping sites, restaurants and tearooms, fast-food establishments, take-away restaurants, caterers and catering services, timesharing and bioscope cafés (THETA, 2010:28).

In 2005, hotels generated 63.98% of the total income generated by accommodation establishments in South Africa, with the remaining 36.02% generated by caravan and camp sites, guest houses, guest farms and vacation homes (Stats SA, 2009:73-74). In 2009 hotels,

motels, and inns were the largest employer, employing 61% of the total number of people employed in accommodation establishments (Stats SA, 2012a:4). Accommodation establishments are assessed by the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA).

The TGCSA is responsible for the independent assessment of accommodation establishments and conferencing venues in South Africa. Establishments are graded from one to five stars. Hotels with a five-star rating are considered to match international standards and denote exceptional quality, while one-star hotels provide only basic facilities (TGCSA, 2011). Five-star hotels are therefore supposed to provide, in line with objective five of the 2011 National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS), "a world-class visitor experience" to its guests (NDT, 2011:19). The province with the most five-star hotels in South Africa is the Western Cape (TGCSA, 2011).

The Western Cape was named the best destination in Africa in 2008 (De Jager, 2012), while in 2011 Cape Town was named the world's top destination at the annual TripAdvisor Travellers' Choice Awards (South African Tourism, 2011). Between January and March 2011, 50.5% of visitors to the Western Cape were from abroad, while 47.3% were domestic visitors and 0.6% were from other African countries. Popular visitor attractions in the Western Cape are the Kirstenbosch National Botanical Gardens, the Table Mountain National Park, the Victoria and Alfred Waterfront Shopping Centre and Robben Island. The majority of visitors travelled for holiday purposes (Cape Town Routes Unlimited, 2011:10-12, 26, 29).

These visitors to the Western Cape are attended to by the ethnically, culturally and regionally diverse workforce of South Africa (April & April, 2009:224). Employees are an important resource in the hospitality sector (Hai-yan & Baum, 2006:509; Lee & Way, 2010:344), and therefore also for accommodation establishments. One of the 2011 NTSS objectives is to "provide excellent people development and decent work within the tourism sector" (NDT, 2011:16). The tourism industry's profile as a career of choice is, however, poor. Students who are unable to qualify for professions such as engineering, medicine and law are often encouraged to enter the tourism industry, which fosters poor morale (Els, 2010). The industry has been characterised in terms of a part-time and casual workforce,

high turnover rates, low job security, low wages, low skills levels and poor promotional opportunities and career development (Chikwe, 2009:46).

As decent work is one of government's priorities it is also important that the tourism industry demonstrates to government that it is a provider of decent work (NDT, 2011:53). The term decent work was coined by Juan Somavia, the International Labour Organization's (ILO) Director General in 1999 when he stated that the ILO's primary goal was "to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity". The decent work agenda (initiated by Juan Somavia in 1999) promotes a development strategy that recognises the dominant role of work in every person's life. Support is provided in the form of integrated decent work programmes developed at country level (ILO, 2012). These programmes set targets and priorities within national development frameworks and aim to deal with decent work shortcomings through effective programmes that meet each of ILO's four strategic objectives:

1. Guaranteeing rights at work: Obtaining respect and recognition for the rights of all workers.
2. Creating jobs: Enhancing the opportunities to obtain decent employment and wages in the economy.
3. Expanding social protection: Promote safe working conditions, adequate free time and access to adequate healthcare.
4. Promoting social dialogue: Involving independent and strong employers' and workers' organisations (ILO, 2013).

In his report to the 87th Session of the International Labour Conference, the Director-General (Juan Somavia) recollected the issues intrinsic in the concept of decent work, "The goal is not just the creation of jobs, but the creation of jobs of acceptable quality. The quantity of employment cannot be divorced from its quality. All societies have a notion of decent work, but the quality of employment can mean many things. It could relate to different forms of work, and also to different conditions of work, as well as feelings of value and satisfaction" (ILO, 2012). Decent work includes opportunities for work that delivers a

fair income, provides security in the workplace, gives people the freedom to express their concerns and to organise and participate in decisions that affect their lives, and guarantees equal treatment for all (Global Unions, 2008:7).

The African National Congress (2009:7) stated in its national election manifesto that decent work is the foundation of the fight against poverty and inequality and that the promotion of decent work should be at the cornerstone of all their efforts. Some of the South African government's targets regarding decent work include engaging with stakeholders to develop a clear plan to move from the current to the ideal scenario, communicating roles and responsibilities to stakeholders, investigating the incentives for decent work and excellent people development in the tourism sector and increasing the number of tourism establishments that comply with the codes of decent work, thereby increasing the number of people employed in decent jobs (NDT, 2011:16-17). Being employed in a decent job, results in feelings of value and job satisfaction (Eurofound, 2012), which in turn might enable five-star employees in South Africa to deliver a world-class visitor experience to its guests.

1.2 Problem statement

Five-star hotels in South Africa are considered to match international standards and to denote exceptional quality (TGCSA, 2011). These hotels are therefore supposed to provide, in line with objective five of the 2011 NTSS (NDT, 2011:19), "a world-class visitor experience" to its guests. The South African tourism industry is, however, not regarded as a provider of decent work (NDT, 2011:53), and this could negatively impact on five-star hotel employees' satisfaction and therefore the visitor experience. Between January and March 2011, 50.5% of the visitors to the Western Cape were from abroad (Cape Town Routes Unlimited, 2011:26). The Western Cape is also the province with the most five-star hotels in South Africa (TGCSA, 2011), warranting a study in this province, as the biggest opportunity to deliver a world-class visitor experience lies with five-star hotels.

Although an extensive number of studies have been conducted on job satisfaction in general, limited research has been conducted on job satisfaction in the hospitality sector (Tian & Pu, 2008:469) and more specifically five-star hotels. The researcher was unable to

locate any studies conducted in South Africa on job satisfaction in hotels. A study into job satisfaction in five-star hotels in the Western Cape was necessary, to enable five-star hotels to reap the benefits associated with job satisfaction (as listed in section 7.3), to deliver a world-class visitor experience, and to become a provider of decent work.

1.3 Expected outcomes

The main goal of this study was to investigate job satisfaction in five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

To achieve this goal, the following objectives were formulated:

1. To develop a conceptual framework of job satisfaction by means of a literature review;
2. To determine the level of overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;
3. To determine which of the biographic variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;
4. To determine which of the internal job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;
5. To determine the degree to which the internal job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;
6. To determine which of the external job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;
7. To determine the degree to which the external job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;

8. To determine which of the individual job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape;
9. To determine the degree to which the individual job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape; and
10. To make recommendations to improve job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

1.4 Research hypotheses

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:4) defined a research hypothesis as "a logical supposition, a reasonable guess, an educated conjecture". The following research hypotheses were formulated on the basis of the research objectives:

Hypothesis 1:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between biographic aspects (race, educational level, hospitality qualification, number of dependents, marital status, gender, age, language, work hours, employment relationship, tenure, seniority, department of employment, status level and hotel of employment) and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 2:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between any of the internal job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 3:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

The internal job satisfaction dimension does not predict overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 4:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between any of the external job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 5:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

The external job satisfaction dimension does not predict overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 6:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between any of the individual job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 7:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

The individual job satisfaction dimension does not predict overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

1.5 Outline of chapters

In addition to the introductory chapter, this dissertation includes another six chapters, which will guide the reader through the research project. Brief details of the contents of each chapter are given to act as a route map of how the research unfolds. Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 provide the literature review, Chapter 4 the research methodology followed, and Chapter 5 the results obtained from the research effort. Chapter 6 discusses the results and makes some recommendations, while Chapter 7 concludes the research report.

1.5.1 Chapter 2: Hospitality industry

This chapter delves into the details of the hospitality industry. The work environment in hospitality organisations is studied in an international context. The focus then shifts to the South African hospitality industry and the challenges faced regarding human resources. Important role players of the South African hospitality industry are also discussed. The chapter concludes with the grading of hotels, specifically five-star hotels.

1.5.2 Chapter 3: Job satisfaction

This chapter investigates job satisfaction and all the different elements thereof. Job satisfaction has been defined by many individuals and these definitions are considered. The motivational theories and their link to job satisfaction are investigated. Job satisfaction models have been proposed by different authors and form an integral part in understanding job satisfaction, and they are therefore included in this chapter. Many job satisfaction questionnaires have been designed, three of which are discussed. As a result of the literature review, a long list of job satisfaction variables came to light and these are listed under three separate job satisfaction dimension headings, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction.

1.5.3 Chapter 4: Research methodology

The study design implemented is the starting point of this chapter. The design of the measuring instrument follows. The pilot study, which is necessary to test the measuring instrument, is discussed. The data-gathering techniques include how the sample of hotels was obtained, and an appropriate method of reliability testing is deliberated on. Validity

can be proven using different methods, and three types of validity are used to prove validity of the measuring instrument, namely face validity, construct validity and content validity. The chapter concludes with the ethical aspects addressed, as well as the statistical tests applied.

1.5.4 Chapter 5: Results

This chapter commences with a look at the response rate obtained. The reliability of the measuring instrument is tested and reported on. The biographic composition of the sample is discussed, along with the correlation of the biographic variables with overall job satisfaction. The three job satisfaction dimensions are considered with hypothesis testing for each dimension. The chapter concludes with the degree to which each dimension predicts job satisfaction.

1.5.5 Chapter 6: Discussion and recommendations

This chapter offers a comparison of the research findings with previous findings by other authors. The possible causes of certain findings are listed to offer additional understanding. Recommendations are made to managers of selected five-star hotels in South Africa in order to improve overall job satisfaction.

1.5.6 Chapter 7: Conclusion

The research report concludes with a revisiting of the research objectives. The limitations of the study are also discussed, as they should not be overlooked. Recommendations are made for future research projects, and a final conclusion on the project is drawn.

1.6 Summary

In the effort to inform the reader about the central issues of this research, the introductory chapter served to provide the background to the hospitality industry, as well as job satisfaction. The reader was informed about the problem statement, objectives and research hypotheses of this research. A route map to guide the reader through the dissertation was provided in the outline of the chapters. The next chapter deals with the hospitality industry at large.

Chapter 2: Hospitality industry

2.1 Introduction

"There is no hospitality like understanding."

Vanna Bonta (2012)

Human resources in the hospitality industry have been compared to the weather: Everyone talks about it, but no-one does anything about it (Rutherford & O'Fallon, 2007:415). It is important to contextualise the study, due to the uniqueness and influence of the hospitality industry on job satisfaction. The hospitality work environment, international and local, will be examined in this chapter. The norms of the industry, as well as important role players, will be discussed. Understanding the distinctive environment of the hospitality industry is essential, before one can commence with a general job satisfaction literature study.

2.2 Hospitality work environment: International context

It has been said that hospitality employees live to work, while employees in other industries work to live (Tesone, 2010:360). The hospitality industry has been characterised in terms of a part-time and casual workforce, high turnover rates, low job security, low wages, low skills levels and poor promotional opportunities and career development (Chikwe, 2009:46). Financial concerns are experienced by hospitality employees, as job advancement commonly requires relocation. Long and irregular hours cut into family time, and success in the industry requires problem solving and crisis management on a day-to-day basis (Berger & Brownell, 2009:165). Those employed in the hospitality industry may experience a lack of control, uncertainty in the work situation and increased ambiguity. These factors all affect exposure to stressors, which in turn influences job satisfaction (Fogaratnam & Buchanan, 2004:239).

Many experts define the hospitality industry culture as a stress-breeding one, causing employees to resign (Chikwe, 2009:47). Murray-Gibbons and Gibbons (2007:32) stated that over the past 15 to 20 years the hospitality industry has experienced a greater increase in stress when compared to other industries. Uncertainty creates job stress – for example, twenty more guests attend a function than expected, or a guest slips and falls. Due to this reactive nature of service delivery and the uncertainty attached to it, hospitality work is not a nine-to-five occupation (Berger & Brownell, 2009:165). Service positions have two unique aspects that make them particularly stressful. The first unique aspect, termed emotional labour by Hochschild (1983, cited in Berger & Brownell, 2009), occurs when the employee's emotions are a part of the work itself. The employee's psychological and emotional reactions become involved in the work, as a consequence of some aspects of the job. For example, dealing with discerning guests all day cannot be good for one's psyche. The other unique aspect of service work is contact overload syndrome. An employee experiences this when the job requires one-on-one contact with many people on a recurring basis. This can leave one stressed, overloaded and tired (Berger & Brownell, 2009:12-13).

The decision to work in the hospitality industry is influenced by the type of life one wants to lead. Workweeks of 50 to 60 hours are common, as is holiday and weekend work. The work is physically demanding, as one is mostly on one's feet, under pressure, and rushed for most of the working day. On top of the demands of the hospitality industry, organisations have the responsibility to ensure that their employees provide excellent service for the sake of their guests (Berger & Brownell, 2009:11). In service organisations, employee morale may be more important than in other types of businesses. The guest does not separate the physical service from the way in which the service is performed; neither can the employee separate his/her attitude towards the work from actually performing his/her tasks (Barrows & Powers, 2009:629).

In 2007, the international hospitality industry's number one challenge was attracting and retaining qualified workers. Factors contributing to the problem of attracting and retaining qualified workers include low wage levels, a reputation for long working hours and failure to adequately address employee satisfaction (AHLA, 2006). Birdir (2002: 45) conducted a study on general manager turnover at hotels and found that the average hotel had a new general manager every 2.5 years. Chikwe (2009:45) predicted that the high employee turnover

trend in the hospitality industry would not decline until the industry refocuses its attention on relationships and cares more for the wellbeing of its employees. Turnover culture in the leisure and hospitality industry is a major problem (Chikwe, 2009:46).

The industry is still habitually perceived as the employer of last resort (Riegel, 2007:429). Many hotels are striving to become employers of choice, by providing better benefit and wage packages, increased recognition, mentoring and more career development opportunities. Although technological advances have modernised the hospitality industry, which began almost 4 000 years ago, the human factor in service delivery is more important than ever (Barrows & Powers, 2009:296). Lee and Way (2010:352) suggested that further research is needed on job satisfaction in hotels.

Having considered the above, working in the hospitality industry is also exciting. Every day is a new challenge filled with opportunities to make people feel good, and one is constantly working with people in a rewarding way (Barrows & Powers, 2009:119). More advantages of working in the hospitality industry include the many entry-level positions, the wide range of jobs available from which to select (Smith, 2010), the chance to be creative, to do a variety of different types of jobs, opportunities to work internationally, the likelihood of moving up the corporate ladder quicker than in most other industries, flexibility, a clear set of accepted hospitality qualifications, the benefits of eating gourmet food and a great atmosphere (Caterer, 2011).

2.3 South African hospitality industry

The South African hospitality industry has similar issues when compared to the international hospitality environment and has been identified as a "high risk and problem sector" by the Department of Labour (BUSA, 2010:3). The NTSS, which was mentioned in the previous chapter, is the National Department of Tourism's strategy for the tourism sector of South Africa. The NTSS 2011 was compiled through a comprehensive consultative process, which started in 2009. Stakeholder contributions, as well as the 37 000 public comments received, were used in the formulation of the NTSS (NDT, 2011:3). Each organisation in the tourism sector in South Africa should strive to contribute to the success of the NTSS. The National Department of Tourism is responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of the NTSS. The

Department established a Monitoring and Evaluation Unit to monitor the implementation of the NTSS in collaboration with all stakeholders (NDT, 2011:82).

After inspecting 2 622 hospitality establishments in the first quarter of the 2010/2011 financial year, the Department of Labour found that a shocking number of establishments were noncompliant with regard to the following (BUSA, 2010:3):

- Minimum wages: Employers were unaware of annual increases, resulting in the underpayment of employees.
- Tips and commission: Employers neglected to pay employees the minimum wage in the event of their commission amounting to less than the minimum wage.
- Wage calculation: Employers tended to calculate wages on a monthly basis, not taking into consideration overtime worked and their relevant payments.
- Information concerning pay: Payslips did not contain details regarding public holidays and overtime worked.
- Deductions: Employers illegally deducted a percentage of employees' earnings as security for uniforms issued.
- Written particulars of employment: Employers neglected to provide employees with copies of their employment contracts, resulting in the employees being confused about the terms of the contract.
- Rest periods: Employees were required to work double shifts with only a four-hour break in between shifts, in contravention of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, which requires a 12-hour break in between shifts.
- Sunday work: Employers were paying normal wages for Sundays worked, instead of the legally required one-and-a-half-time rate.
- Night work: Employers did not compensate employees appropriately for night hours worked.

- Unemployment Insurance Act, Act 63 of 2001 (RSA, 2001:42): Most cases involved the employers being unable to provide proof of payment to the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) and employees not being registered for UIF.

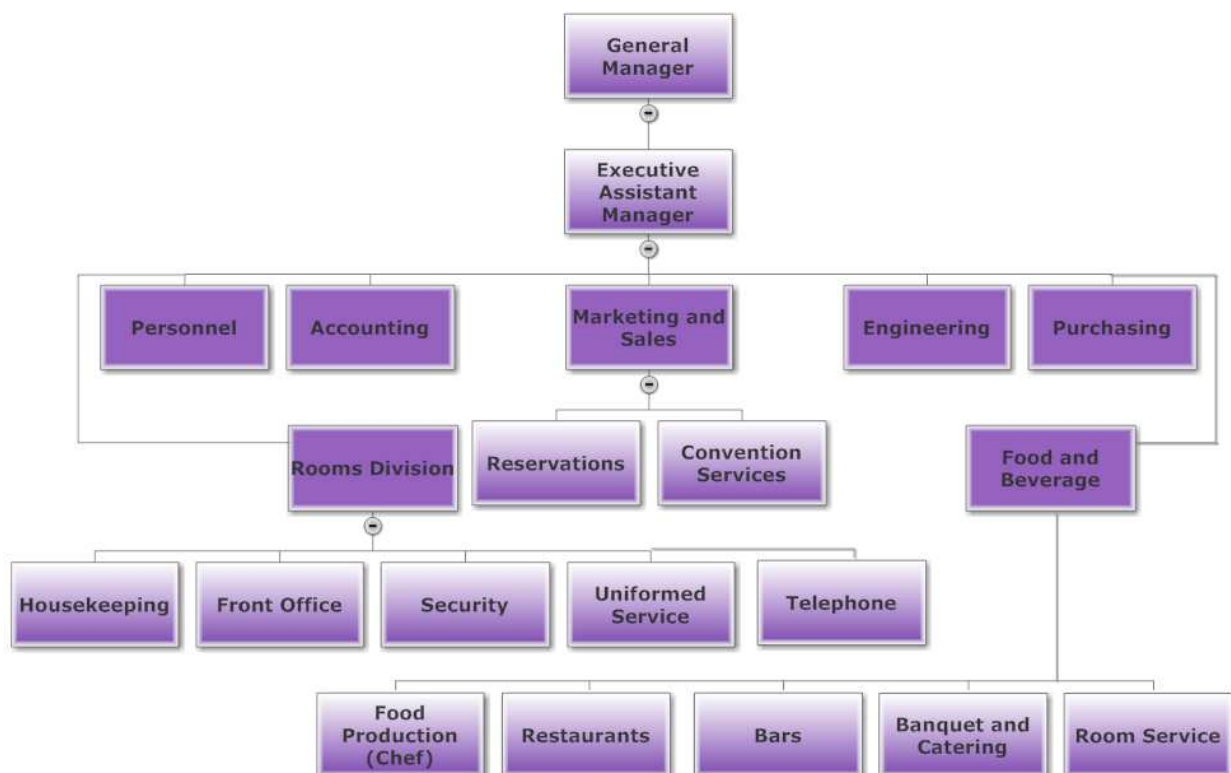
The minimum wage that hospitality employers with fewer than 10 employees are allowed to pay is R2 240.60 per month, R517.10 per week and R11.49 per hour. Hospitality employers employing more than 10 employees must pay a minimum of R2 495.80 per month, R576.00 per week and R12.80 per hour (RSA, 2012:4). The Sector Skills Plan (THETA, 2010:49) states that a great disparity in the income of white and other races in the South African tourism industry is present, with whites earning a lot more than any other race. The Sector Skills Plan states that this gap needs to be closed as soon as possible, as it makes the industry highly unattractive to new entrants. The income disparity is further exacerbated due to the fact that Gauteng is the only province that has collective bargaining councils in the industry, leaving the other eight provinces without collective bargaining councils (THETA, 2010:48-49).

Other important role players in the South African hospitality industry, besides the Department of Tourism and the Department of Labour, include the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA) and the Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa (FEDHASA). CATHSSETA, previously known as THETA, is responsible for ensuring that standards are put in place that relate to the development and training of employees in the tourism and hospitality sector. CATHSSETA provides leadership in the industry by identifying current and future skills needs, developing strategic plans to assist the industry to meet those needs, and promoting training that will meet the needs of employees and employers alike (NDT, 2011:71). FEDHASA, on the other hand, is recognised by government and the private sector as the official representative of the South African hospitality industry. FEDHASA aims to ensure a profitable and sustainable business environment for the South African hospitality industry. FEDHASA's core responsibility is to cover business, social, economic and environmental activities in support of the growth and sustainability of the South African hospitality industry (FEDHASA, 2011).

In South Africa the TGCSA is the organisation responsible for ensuring standards of quality of accommodation establishments. The stars awarded are in recognition of the

establishment’s quality and provides assurance to customers. According to the TGCSA, a hotel is an establishment that provides formal accommodation to the travelling public and offers full or limited service. The TGCSA also states that to be classified as a hotel, the establishment must have a reception area and a minimum of six rooms and must offer dining facilities (TGCSA, 2011). Any hotel that wishes to be graded must have a formal reception area, an onsite representative 24 hours per day, all meals and beverages available on site, must service rooms seven days per week and must have en suite bathroom facilities (TGCSA, 2011).

As shown in Figure 1, a typical hotel consists of seven departments which all need to work together in order to achieve the global goals of the hotel. These departments are the Rooms Division, Personnel, Accounting, Marketing and Sales, Engineering, Purchasing and the Food and Beverage department.



Source: Rutherford and O'Fallon (2007:70)

Figure 1: Typical hotel organisational chart

Additional requirements for four and five-star hotels are listed below:

- Provide valet service;

- Provide room service;
- Have portering, concierge and luggage-handling services available;
- Have a central business centre;
- Provide full laundry and housekeeping services; and
- Provide other miscellaneous services, such as massage services, child care, shoe polishing and newspaper delivery.

Due to the additional requirements of five-star hotels, the stress of daily tasks may be higher than the stress level of any other star-rated hotel category. More is expected from five-star hotel employees and therefore the provision of decent work and the job satisfaction of these employees are of great importance to the country. As stated in the problem statement, five-star hotels in South Africa are considered to match international standards and to denote exceptional quality (TGCSA, 2011). These hotels are therefore supposed to provide, in line with objective five of the 2011 NTSS (NDT, 2010:19) "a world-class visitor experience" to its guests and will therefore be the focus of this study.

2.4 Summary

Having studied the hospitality industry and more specifically the industry's working environment, one can see that job satisfaction in the industry requires attention. The hospitality industry has been characterised in terms of a part-time and casual workforce, high turnover rates, low job security, low wages, low skills levels and poor promotional opportunities and career development. The South African hospitality industry has similar issues when compared to the international hospitality environment and has been identified as a "high risk and problem sector" by the Department of Labour. Due to the additional requirements of five-star hotels, the stress of daily tasks may be higher than the stress level of any other star-rated hotel category. Having considered the above, working in the hospitality industry is also exciting with many advantages. With government and other role players' buy-in, hospitality business owners should make an active effort to improve job satisfaction. The following chapter will examine job satisfaction literature across industries to gain an understanding of the existing knowledge on this topic.

Chapter 3: Job Satisfaction

3.1 Introduction

"The customer comes second: Put your people first and watch 'em kick butt."

Hal Rosenbluth (2010)

To have a successful workforce, hospitality leaders need to follow the advice of Hal Rosenbluth. Knowing what the work force needs to "kick butt" is the main focus of this chapter. The concept of job satisfaction is discussed, along with the theories, models and questionnaires used to study job satisfaction in the past. The literature review is limited neither to South Africa nor to the hospitality industry, the rationale being that studies specific to job satisfaction in South Africa as well as job satisfaction in the hospitality industry are limited. Therefore an international, multidisciplinary job satisfaction literature review will allow for a comprehensive study.

3.2 Definitions of job satisfaction

The average person spends many of their waking hours at work, and it is for this reason that sociologists, psychologists, economists, physiologists and anthropologists find great interest in studies of the workplace. The management process and improvement of the workplace are critical and present great challenges to organisations (Harter, Schmidt, Killham & Agrawal, 2009:4). Understanding the term "job satisfaction" is vital to the researcher embarking on a study of the concept. Job satisfaction can be defined in many ways and has been investigated by many scholars from different perspectives. The concept of "job satisfaction" has been defined as follows:

- Locke (1969:316) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values." Locke's (1969) definition of job satisfaction is the definition most commonly referred to in

the literature, according to Judge and Illies (2004:661) and Saari and Judge (2004:396).

- Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969:7) developed the Cornell model of job satisfaction, as well as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and defined job satisfaction as "feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation". According to the authors, job satisfaction is a result of the supposed characteristics of one's job, in relation to one's individual frame of reference (Smith *et al.*, 1969:12).
- Weiss (2002:175) stated that job satisfaction is an attitude, which is an evaluative judgment, made with regard to an attitudinal object.
- Wright and Kim (2004:19) stated that job satisfaction represents an interaction between employees and their working environment, by measuring the correspondence between what employees want from their job and what they feel they receive.
- Wetpravit (2006:205) defined job satisfaction as an all-inclusive feeling about the job in which one is employed or as a related collection of attitudes toward various facets of the job.
- Ngo (2009) defined job satisfaction as the individual employee's general attitude towards the job in which he or she is employed, or as an employee's affective and cognitive evaluation of the job.
- Drafke (2009:406) stated that people should ask themselves how they like their jobs, and the answer to this question can be seen as job satisfaction.
- Judge, Hulin and Dalal (2009:5) described job satisfactions as multidimensional psychological responses to one's job, with evaluative and emotional components.
- Bucheli, Melgar, Rossi and Smith (2010:2) stated that job satisfaction represents "the gap between expectations and reality" of persons at work.
- Schultz and Schultz (2010:189) defined job satisfaction as the positive and negative attitudes and feelings employees hold about the job.

The researcher selected the definition of Judge *et al.* (2009:5) for purposes of this study. Judge *et al.* (2009) intentionally defined job satisfactions in the plural to include satisfaction with specific job aspects and not only overall job satisfaction. The authors considered both specific and global satisfaction to be equally meaningful (Judge *et al.*, 2009:5). The plural job satisfaction concept makes the definition of Judge *et al.* (2009) unique. This study includes satisfaction with specific job aspects, as well as overall satisfaction. The definition of Judge *et al.* (2009) therefore aligns perfectly with the current research project. For ease of reading, however the term “job satisfaction” will be used rather than “job satisfactions” for the remainder of the study. Tesone (2010:286) stated that to understand job satisfaction, one must first understand motivation.

3.3 Motivational theories

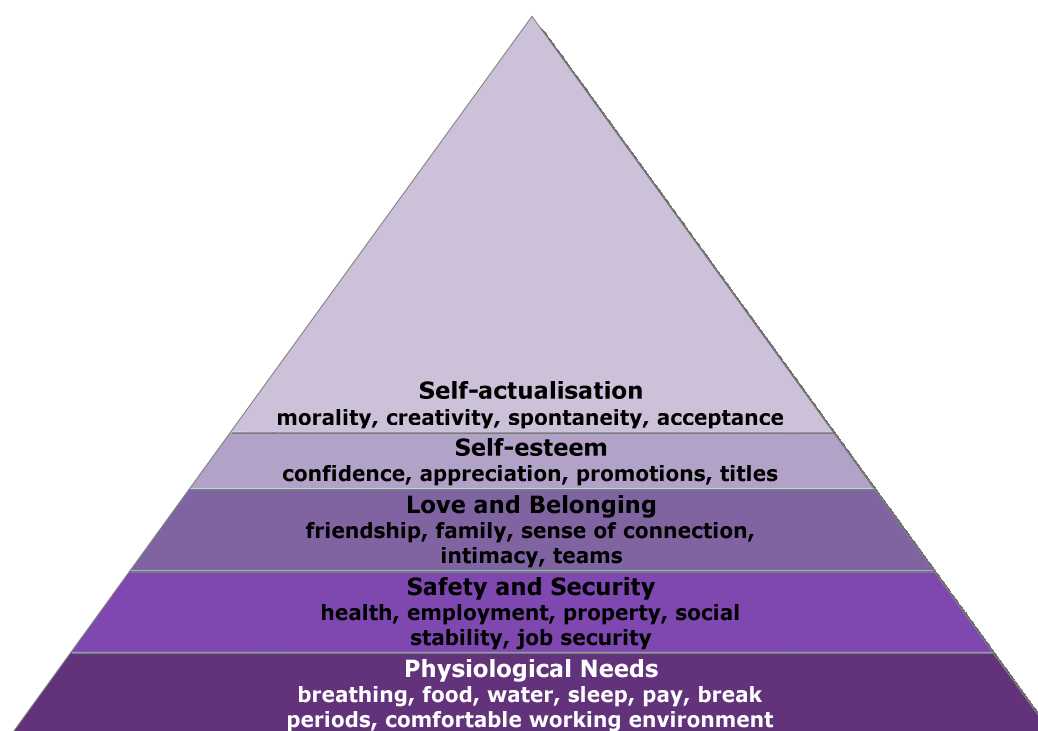
Motivation can be defined as personal (such as ambition and the need for skills development) and environmental (such as one’s financial situation and family responsibilities) forces that stimulate a person to behave in a certain manner (Drafke, 2009:352). Mullins (1998:315) stated that "motivation is a process which may lead to job satisfaction".

Motivational theories can be divided into two categories, namely content and process theories. Content theories focus on the importance of the work itself, the challenges, growth opportunities and responsibilities that a job provides to an employee (Schultz & Schultz, 2010:181). Content theories assume a more complex interaction between external and internal factors and explore the situations in which people respond to different internal and external stimuli. Content theories include Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, McGregor’s X and Y theory, Herzberg’s two-factor theory, and McClelland’s need for achievement theory. Process theories consider how the internal factors of a person result in different behaviours. Vroom’s expectancy theory is an example of a process theory (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005:930). Following is a discussion of five of the most widely discussed and popular theories of employee motivation, according to Hayes and Ninemeier (2009:71).

3.3.1 Content theories

3.3.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory was developed in 1943. The fundamental concepts of this theory are particularly useful in analysing motivation in the work environment (Berger & Brownell, 2009:298). The basic suggestion of the theory (Maslow, 1943) is that people are wanting-beings, i.e. people always require more than what they have, and what they need depends on what they have at present. Only unsatisfied needs will motivate people (Mullins, 1998:317-318), and if a specific need is not met, all efforts are directed at fulfilling that need (Walker & Miller, 2010:182). Maslow (1943) assumed that needs are arranged in a hierarchy and that some of these needs are more powerful than others. As one set of needs becomes mostly fulfilled, the next level's set of needs become motivators (Tesone, 2010:285) and the individual advances to the next level of the hierarchy or pyramid. The hierarchical order in which needs become motivators is displayed in Figure 2, which has been adjusted to include a wider variety of motivators.



Source: Woods (1992:218)

Figure 2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

At the bottom of the pyramid one finds a person's most basic needs, namely physiological needs. Physiological needs include food, sleep and, in organisational context, may include pay and break periods. Flexible benefits and job security are examples of safety needs in the workplace. People at the love and belongingness level of the hierarchy will be concerned with establishing and maintaining friendships with co-workers. Self-esteem needs are independence, titles, achievement, and prestige in the eyes of others (Berger & Brownell, 2009:299-300; Woods, 1992:217-218). The four needs explained above, namely physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs and self-esteem needs, are called D-needs or deficiency needs. The employee does not notice if these needs are met, but feels nervous if they are not met (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:72). The final need, self-actualisation, occurs when an individual aims to be all that he or she can be in an all-inclusive sense. This person has attained a self-perceived level of material, spiritual and personal contentment (Tesone, 2010:285).

If Maslow's (1943) theory is true, important management implications for improving motivation in the workplace exist. Management could motivate employees through their style of management, role definition, company activities and compensation plans. Practical examples of improving motivation are given by Envision Software Inc. (2009a):

- Physiological motivation: Provide sufficient lunch and recovery breaks and remunerate employees at a level that allows workers to buy life's necessities.
- Safety and security needs: Provide a safe working environment with relative job security and freedom from threats.
- Love and belonging needs: Create a feeling of belonging, acceptance and community by strengthening team dynamics.
- Self-esteem motivators: Assign significant projects, recognise achievements and afford status to make employees feel appreciated and valued.
- Self-actualisation: Offer meaningful and challenging work projects that enable creativity, innovation and progress in achieving long-term goals.

Maslow's (1943) methodology has been criticised in that he picked a small number of individuals whom he declared self-actualised, he read about them and talked to them and eventually drew conclusions about what self-actualisation is. Maslow (1943), however, understood this limitation and hoped that others would complete what he had begun. Another limitation is that Maslow (1943) placed constraints on self-actualisation by seeing it as something only 2% of people ever achieve (Boeree, 1998:9). Researchers have argued that Maslow's (1943) theory is not in accordance with facts (Ventegodt, Merrick & Andersen, 2003:1055). Boeree (1998:9) claimed that many people have achieved some form of self-actualisation without having all of their lower order needs met, for example Galileo and Rembrandt, who both suffered from poverty.

3.3.1.2 McGregor's X and Y theory

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory was the launch-pad for McGregor's (1985) Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X and Theory Y applied Maslow's theory directly to the problem of motivating staff (Walker & Miller, 2010:183). McGregor (1985) stated that managers tend to hold two basic views of employees, namely Theory X and Theory Y (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:72).

According to Theory X (McGregor, 1985:33-34) managers assume that:

- The average individual dislikes work and will avoid it if possible.
- Most employees must be threatened with punishment to work toward organisational objectives.
- The average person wants to be directed, is fairly unambitious, avoids responsibility, and wants security above all else.

A satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour, according to McGregor (1985:36). Theory X fails to acknowledge this fact. If management continues to focus on needs that are already fulfilled, the provision of rewards will be ineffective and the threat of punishment will be necessary. This leads to the validation of the second assumption of Theory X, but only because effects were mistaken for causes. Theory X explains the consequences of a certain management strategy, but does not explain or describe human nature, although it means to (McGregor, 1985:40-42). In conclusion, McGregor (1985:36) stated that as long as Theory

X's assumptions influence managerial strategies, the average person's potential will go undiscovered and thus unutilised. It is for this reason that Theory X is not discussed in further detail.

According to Theory Y (McGregor, 1985:47-48) managers assume that:

- Effort in work is as natural as work and play.
- Employees will apply self-direction and self-control in the pursuit of organisational objectives, without the need for threat of punishment or external control.
- Commitment to objectives is obtained by linking rewards to the accomplishment of objectives.
- The average person seeks responsibility under the proper conditions.
- The ability to exercise imagination, ingenuity and creativity in organisational problem solving is distributed widely in the business.
- The intellectual capabilities of the average person are only partially utilised under the conditions of modern industrial life.

McGregor (1985:54) stated that assumptions such as Theory Y open up possibilities for new managerial practices and policies. Theory Y can be applied by clarifying the broad requirements of the job, establishing specific targets for limited time periods, managing the employee to further his or her growth, and giving appraisal for the results obtained by the employee (McGregor, 1985:62). Some innovative management ideas that are completely consistent with Theory Y and which will increase job satisfaction, according to Schein and Ayas (2000:12-13), are decentralisation, delegation, job enlargement, participative and consultative management, and performance appraisals. Following is a brief discussion of each management idea, as provided by Envision Software Inc. (2009b):

- Decentralisation and delegation: If the business decentralises control and reduces the number of management levels, managers will have more subordinates, forcing them to delegate some responsibility and decision making to the subordinates.

- Job enlargement: Broadening the scope of a worker's job adds diversity and opportunities to satisfy self-esteem needs.
- Participative and consultative management: Consulting employees in the decision-making process utilises their creative capacity and affords them some control over their work situation.
- Performance appraisals: Managers should allow employees to set their own objectives and participate in the evaluation process of how successfully the objectives were met.

If the management ideas are properly implemented, the result might be a high level of motivation among the workforce, as employees work to satisfy their higher level personal needs through their jobs. McGregor's contribution to motivational theory was that employees' needs, especially their self-actualisation needs, can be aligned with the goals of the organisation. If employees are given tasks in which they see opportunity for growth, achievement and responsibility, they will become committed to completing the task successfully. The employees will be self-controlled and the threat of punishment will be unnecessary. Stated differently, if the job fulfils the needs of employees, their motivation will take care of performance (Walker & Miller, 2010:183).

Wilson (cited in Schein & Ayas, 2000:14-15) commented on McGregor's (1985) Theory X and Theory Y, and stated that in her own experience the application of these innovative ideas resulted in financial benefits, but not in an increase of job satisfaction. Hofstede (1994:7) criticised McGregor's (1985) theories, stating that they were written from an individualistic and relatively masculine background.

3.3.1.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Frederick Herzberg was a follower of Maslow's work for many years (Tesone, 2010:286). Herzberg's theory is presented in many published works, namely Herzberg (1964; 1966; 1968; 1976) and Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959). The two-factor theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959) is also known as the motivation-hygiene theory (Miner, 2005:61).

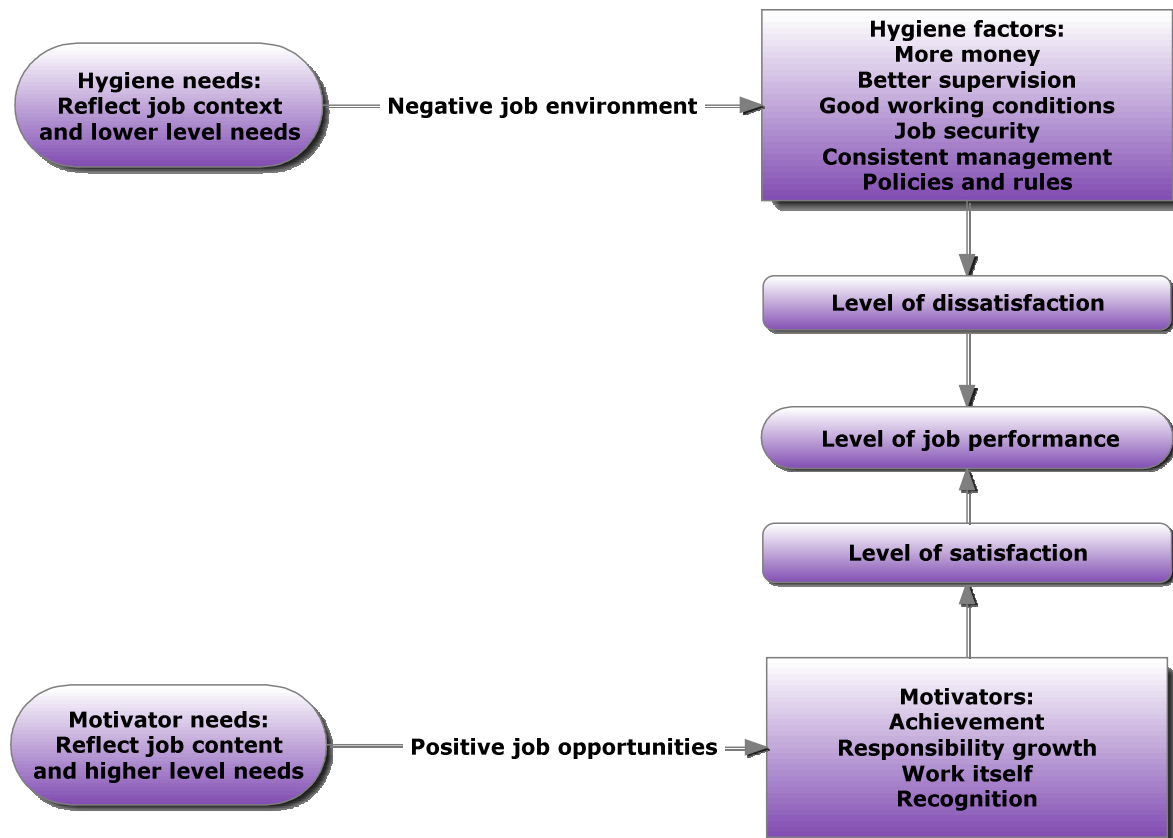
Herzberg *et al.* (1959) gathered their data by means of interviews with workers (Judge, Parker, Heller & Ilies, 2001:28). By asking employees to list incidents which they found

satisfying and dissatisfying at work, Herzberg *et al.* (1959) identified two separate groups of factors affecting motivation, based on Maslow's (1943) theory.

Herzberg *et al.* (1959) termed factors that can cause dissatisfaction among employees as hygiene factors. Hygiene factors cannot increase satisfaction, but need to be maintained at a level where they will not cause dissatisfaction for the employee (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303). Hygiene factors (lower order needs) include job security, pay, working conditions (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73), company policy and administration, technical supervision, status, personal life, and interpersonal relationships with supervisors, peers and subordinates (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303). According to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), motivating the workforce is impossible if hygiene factors are deficient. Motivation factors (higher order needs) play an important role in positively influencing performance and satisfaction and include learning, achievement, advancement (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73), responsibility, recognition of achievement, and the work itself (Berger & Brownell, 2009:304).

Figure 3, derived from Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2002:107), examines the factors affecting job satisfaction in terms of the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959). Figure 3 illustrates that the job environment influences both hygiene and motivator needs. A negative job environment creates the demand for the satisfaction of hygiene needs. On the other hand, when the job environment is positive, it allows employees to achieve their motivator needs, as their hygiene needs have already been satisfied. The hygiene factors influence the employee's level of dissatisfaction; contrarily the motivating factors influence the employee's level of satisfaction. Both the level of satisfaction and the level of dissatisfaction influence the employee's level of job performance.

Recommendations made to management by Herzberg *et al.* (1959:132) were that "jobs must be restructured to increase to the maximum the ability of workers to achieve goals meaningfully related to the doing of the job. The individual should have some measure of control over the way in which the job is done in order to realize a sense of achievement and of personal growth".



Source: Grobler *et al.* (2002:107)

Figure 3: Factors affecting job satisfaction in terms of Herzberg's theory

The two-factor theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959) is still used in studies today (Schroder, 2008:241). The main difference between Maslow's and Herzberg's theories is that Maslow (1943) suggested that each level of the hierarchy becomes a motivator, whereas Herzberg *et al.* (1959) maintained that hygiene factors cannot be motivators (Berger & Brownell, 2009:304).

Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005:933) stated that the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959) was criticised by Hardin (1965, cited in Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005:933) and Opsahl and Dunnette (1966, cited in Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005:933), and that Hardin (1965) challenged Herzberg's (1959) methodology on the grounds of poor respondent recall, while Opsahl and Dunnette (1966) found the statement of Herzberg *et al.* (1959) that money acts as a hygiene factor mystifying, as money is widely accepted to increase job satisfaction (Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi, 2011:138; Bender, Donohue & Heywood, 2005:486; Bender & Heywood, 2006:260; Hui, Au & Fock, 2004:50; Malliarou, Sarafis, Moustaka & Kouvela,

2010:49). Korman (1971:179) even went as far as saying that disconfirming evidence has "effectively laid the Herzberg theory to rest".

3.3.1.4 McClelland's three-need theory (theory of needs)

McClelland (1961) stated that employees have the need for achievement, affiliation and power, and each of these must be satisfied before the employee will be motivated. The theory suggests that all three needs can be found in varying degrees in all employees. This mix of the three motivational needs also characterises a manager's management style in how he or she motivates and manages others (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73).

According to Tesone (2010:287), an interesting way to identify which need is the most dominant among employees is to study the offices or work spaces of employees. High-achievement work spaces will be filled with certificates, trophies and plaques. High-affiliation work areas will be decorated with home-style touches, plants and photographs of family and friends. High-power work areas will usually be designed with dark colours, a large desk with a throne-like chair and power symbol décor, such as medieval weapons.

Although all three needs (achievement, affiliation and power) are important, McClelland (1961) concentrated mainly on how managers can develop the need for achievement among staff. The extent of achievement motivation is dependent upon occupational experiences, cultural influences and the type of organisation in which one is employed. The need for achievement is one of the motivating factors put forth by Herzberg *et al.* (1959) and underlies the higher levels of Maslow's hierarchy (Mullins, 1998:323). McClelland (1961) identified four common characteristics of high-achievement-needs employees: the setting of moderate goals, the preference for personal responsibility, the desire for specific feedback, and innovativeness (Mullins, 1998:323). Enriching a high-need-for-achievement employee's job, by providing greater amounts of variety, autonomy and responsibility, will most likely enhance performance. Low-need achievers, on the other hand, may be discouraged by the increased responsibility and perform poorly or even completely withdraw from the situation (Steers, 1987:60).

McClelland (cited in Mullins, 1998:324) suggested four steps in attempting to develop the achievement drive of employees:

- Give feedback to employees on their performance. Reinforcement of success will strengthen the desire of the employee to achieve higher performance.
- Develop models of achievement of people who have performed well for employees to compete with or imitate.
- Modify employees' self-image until they see themselves as needing success and challenges.
- Attempt to control the day-dreaming of employees in order for them to think about themselves in positive terms.

Maehr and Nicholls (cited in Niles, 1995:370) criticised McClelland's (1961) hypothesis, particularly in the cross-cultural context. The authors stated that McClelland's (1961) hypothesis is vulnerable, because it assumes that achievement motivation is reasonably constant across time and situation and determines not only the achievement of individuals, but the achievement of societies as well. The authors consequently proposed a redefinition of achievement motivation in the context of specific cultures. According to Miner (2005:58), McClelland (1961) leaves some of the logical dots unconnected in his research designs and ideas. Miner (2005:58) did, however, also state that peer evaluations of McClelland's (1961) theory are all very high.

3.3.2 Process theories

3.3.2.1 Vroom's expectancy theory

Vroom (1964) proposed that an employee's motivation is first and foremost influenced by his or her expectation that additional effort will lead to additional rewards. According to Vroom (1964), it will not be possible to positively influence an employee's motivation if this expectation is not met (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73). Vroom (1964:15) assumed that the "choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behaviour".

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory suggests that people, acting through self-interest, take courses of action that they perceive will maximise the probability of desirable outcomes for themselves (Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt, 2001:212). Tesone (2010:288) illustrated Vroom's (1964) theory with the following example: the supervisor may be empowered to award a \$50 bonus to the waiter with the highest number of wine sales. If the waiter sees the up-selling effort to be worthwhile and trusts that he will receive the bonus if he succeeds, he will be motivated to make the effort and this may result in added wine sales.

The three key variables of Vroom's (1964) theory are valence, instrumentality and expectancy (VIE). Valence is the importance of a particular outcome to the employee; instrumentality is whether rewards will satisfy the employee's own needs, and expectancy is the fact that effort will result in productivity (Woods, 1992:220-221). Vroom's (1964) theory can be expressed as an equation, which is:

$$\text{Valence} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy} = \text{Motivation}$$

Stereotypically, the following method is applied when the VIE model is used: respondents rate the expectancy of the predicted variable and then they rate the instrumentality and valence of the outcomes of realising the variable. Lastly, the three VIE scores are combined into the resulting force score (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996:577), which is motivation.

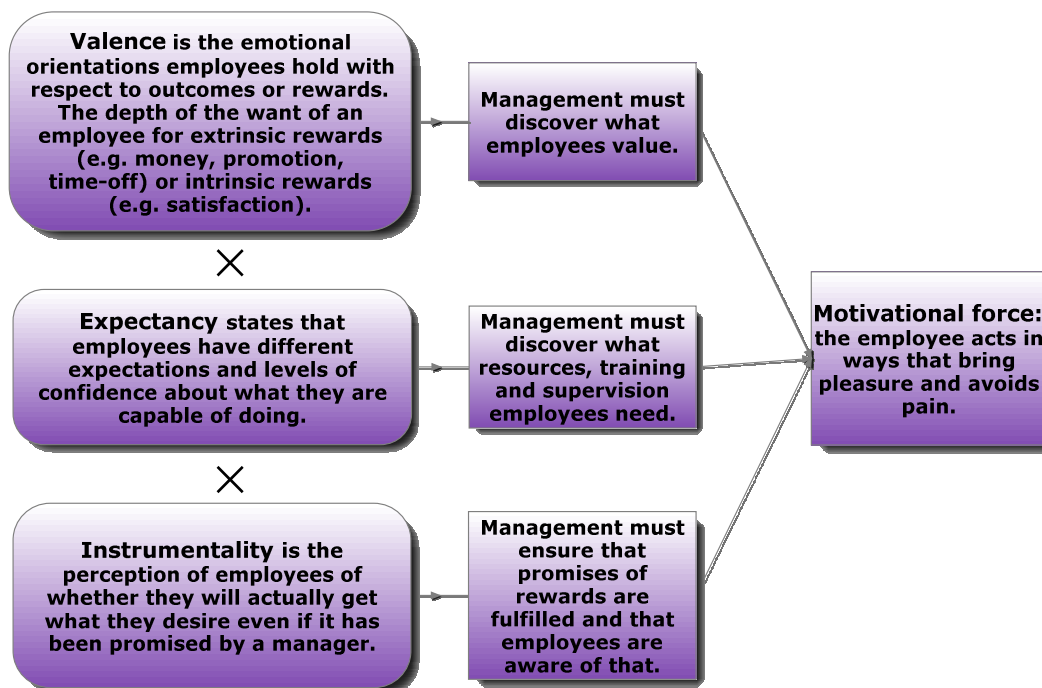
The expectancy theory is depicted in Figure 4 (Clark, 2010). To increase employee motivation, management should consider valence, expectancy and instrumentality and how to increase their effects. Discovering what it is that employees value, and acting upon this, will increase valence. Realising what supervision, training or resources employees require, and providing these, will increase expectancy. Ensuring that promised rewards are given will increase instrumentality. As mentioned, increasing valence, expectancy and instrumentality will improve employee motivation.

Pinder (1987:81-83) reiterated the facts displayed in Figure 4 by giving the following suggestions to managers who wish to motivate their employees:

- Expectancy-related factors: To generate positive expectancy forces, managers should ensure that employees are trained and capable of doing their work. Managers must

also ensure that equipment and machinery are in a good condition and that sufficient funds are available to make successful performance possible.

- Instrumentality-related factors: To operationalise the concepts of instrumentality and valence, managers must ensure that positively valent rewards are connected to good job performance.
- Valence-related factors: Management should know what type of rewards employees desire and give individualised rewards accordingly.



Source: Clark (2010)

Figure 4: Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory

Fudge and Schlacter (1999:296) and Schultz and Schultz (2010:186) stated that the expectancy theory is a well-supported motivational model, which has been subjected to rigorous academic testing, and is easily understood and straightforward, as well as complex enough to suggest strategies that can encourage ethical behaviour among the workforce (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999:296). Lawler and Jenkins (1992:12), on the contrary, criticised the expectancy theory for being a deceptively simple statement of the conditions that must exist if rewards are to be a motivational force.

3.3.3 Conclusion

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory was the basis for the two-factor theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959) and of McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (1985), and is even visible in McClelland's (1961) three-need theory. It seems that of all the authors whose theories were discussed in this section, only Vroom (1964) did not base his theory in some way on Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory.

The motivational theories discussed could help to explain certain employees' behaviour at certain times. However, all the motivational theories discussed have been criticised. The search for a generalised motivational theory seems to be a futile quest. The different theories are all important to management because of the complexity of motivation, as well as the lack of a single answer as to what motivates employees. Managers should judge the relevance of these theories in their organisation, draw from them and apply them to applicable work situations (Mullins, 1996:486-487). Linking to motivational theories, many job satisfaction models have been developed to further clarify the topic of job satisfaction. Different job satisfaction models are discussed in the next section.

3.4 Job satisfaction models

Various theories and models have been developed to explain and measure job satisfaction. According to Franěk and Večeřa (2008:63), three main lines of job satisfaction models have been used to explain and predict job satisfaction. The **dispositional job satisfaction model** suggests that some moderately stable characteristics of a person influence job satisfaction, independent of the job situation and job characteristics. An example of this type of model is the core self-evaluation (CSE) model. The **situational model** of job satisfaction states that job satisfaction is derived from job characteristics. Examples of the situational model include the job characteristics model (JCM) and Herzberg's two-factor theory (discussed under the heading relating to content theories of motivation). Lastly, the **interactional model** of job satisfaction considers both situation and person variables. Examples of the interactive model of job satisfaction include the value-percept model, the Thibaut and Kelley model, and the Cornell model, as well as Judge's integrative model, since the model is

based on the Cornell model (Judge *et al.*, 2001:31). The sections to follow elaborate on the different job satisfaction models.

3.4.1 Dispositional models

The earliest studies on job satisfaction acknowledged the significance of dispositional influences on job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2009:26). "The Dissatisfied Worker" by Fisher and Hanna (1931) is regarded as one of the first studies on job satisfaction, proving that job satisfaction has long played an important role in organisational research (Wright & Bonett, 2007:144). Fisher and Hanna (1931) recognised the role of personality in job satisfaction (Heller, Judge & Watson, 2002:817). Hoppock (1935) conducted research on job satisfaction that replicated the earlier findings of Fisher and Hanna (1931), finding that levels of emotional adjustment significantly separated dissatisfied employees from satisfied ones (Judge *et al.*, 2009:26). Emotional adjustment includes levels of anxiety, depression, hostility, fatigue, confusion and overall mood (Luebbert, Dahme & Hasenbring, 2001:496).

An important model, which according to Franěk and Večeřa (2008:63) served to narrow the scope of the dispositional theory, is the core self-evaluation (CSE) model. In developing the core evaluation concept, Judge, Locke and Durham (1997) investigated clinical, developmental, social and personality psychology, as well as philosophy (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005:299). Judge *et al.* (1997) designed a theoretical model, of the sources of core evaluations (genetic characteristics and life experiences), the composition of core evaluations and outcomes of core evaluations, which include job satisfaction. Core evaluations are composed of core evaluations of the self, core evaluations of the world, and core evaluations of others (Judge *et al.*, 1997:175).

Core evaluations of the self, also referred to as CSE, serve as a noteworthy predictor of job performance and job satisfaction, introduced in an effort to provide a single trait that would be a good predictor of job satisfaction (Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2003:305). CSE is a broad, common trait comprising four specific traits (Judge *et al.*, 2009:28), namely generalised self-efficacy, neuroticism, self-esteem, and locus of control (Judge *et al.*, 1997:175) – the definitions of which follow below.

Generalised self-efficacy is concerned with global rather than task-specific relationships and can be defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986:391), and will have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 1997:163). Neuroticism is mainly considered to be the opposite of self-esteem (Judge *et al.*, 1997:163) and is one of the "Big Five" personality traits (Goldberg, 1990:1217). Neurotic individuals experience self-doubt, depression, nervousness and sleeplessness, and neuroticism will have a negative effect on job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 1997:163-164). Self-esteem refers to an individual's appraisal of himself/herself (Judge *et al.*, 1997:160) and will be the most strongly related dispositional factor with a positive effect on job satisfaction. Locus of control is focused on the control one has over the results that lead to rewards and other types of performance (Judge *et al.*, 1997:167). Locus of control is internal when the person perceives the event to be dependent upon his/her own behaviour or characteristics (Rotter, 1966:1) and will have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 1997:168). Best, Stapleton and Downey (2005:448-449) found that employees high in CSE are less likely to view their organisational environment and tasks at work as stressful, which will inevitably shield them from burnout and its negative effects on job satisfaction.

Judge, Heller and Klinger (2008:369-370) conducted a comparative test of models studying the effect of personality on job satisfaction. The authors compared positive affectivity and negative affectivity, the Big Five and CSE. Of the three typologies, the authors found CSE to be the best predictor of job satisfaction. CSE is also the most recent of the three typologies (Judge *et al.*, 2008:362). Despite remarkable support for CSE, Judge *et al.* (2003:6-7) claimed that from a practical point of view, the measurement strategy of the CSE trait has limitations. Firstly, the CSE trait is measured indirectly; it is not measured distinctly, but is concluded to exist on the basis of indicators. Secondly, because of the indirect measurement strategy, measuring CSE takes a relatively long period of time, and the length of the indirect measure may limit CSE's usefulness in business settings.

3.4.2 Situational models

Situational models of job satisfaction are based on the assumption that all people have similar needs and will therefore be satisfied with the same job characteristics (Franěk & Večeřa, 2008:63).

3.4.2.1 Job characteristics model (JCM)

The JCM formulated by Hackman and Oldham (1976) was designed to extend, refine and systemise the relationship between individual responses to work and job characteristics. The JCM was developed to explain how the job factors identified by Herzberg *et al.* (1959) influence worker motivation and job satisfaction (Zhang & Von Dran, 2000:1255). The JCM was tested using data obtained from 658 employees in seven organisations; the jobs were highly heterogeneous, and both service and industrial organisations were included in the sample (Hackman & Oldham, 1976:259).

According to Hackman and Oldham (1980:60), if certain characteristics are present in a job, "jobholders will experience a positive, self-generated affective 'kick' when they perform well and this internal reinforcement serves as an incentive for continued good performance". The JCM disputes that the enrichment of specified job characteristics is the core factor in creating job satisfaction. The model specifies five core job characteristics that make work fulfilling and challenging (Judge *et al.*, 2009:22-23) and defines the motivating potential of a job (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000:134). The five core job characteristics are:

- Task identity: The extent to which the employee can see his or her work from beginning to end.
- Task significance: The extent to which the employee's job is seen as being significant.
- Skill variety: The degree to which the position allows the employee to perform different tasks.
- Autonomy: The extent to which the employee has discretion and control over how to conduct his or her work.
- Feedback: The extent to which the work itself provides feedback concerning how the employee is performing.

The component of the model that accounts for individual differences in receptiveness to challenging job characteristics is called Growth Need Strength (GNS), which can be described as the employee's desire for personal development, particularly at work (Judge, 2004:83). Intrinsic job characteristics are specifically satisfying for people who score high in terms of GNS (Judge *et al.*, 2001:29).

Although the JCM is well supported, some criticisms of the model exist in that the JCM assumes that perceptions of job characteristics cause job satisfaction. The measures of intrinsic job satisfaction are mostly perceptual, which in turn are susceptible to biasing influences such as mood. If mood influences the ratings of job characteristics, as well as job satisfaction, the correlation will be inflated. There are also concerns that perceptions of job characteristics do not only cause job satisfaction, but that the relationship could also be reversed (Judge, 2004:83-83).

3.4.3 Interactional models

Interactional models of job satisfaction are based on the assumption that both situational and dispositional elements influence job satisfaction. Examining interactional issues in practice is difficult and complex (Chatman, 1989:333-334). To be completely accurate and thorough in researching job satisfaction with an interactional model, Chatman (1989:335) stated that the researcher must measure situations and persons correctly, document people's effect on situations and vice versa, and be externally valid and all-inclusive.

3.4.3.1 Locke's value-percept model

Locke (1969:314) focused his study on the nature of emotions and their relationship to the evaluation and understanding of concepts of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Locke's (1969) study was mostly theoretical, with his value-percept model involving a sensible appraisal of the degree to which the job supplies outcomes, which satisfies the values of the employee (Judge & Illies, 2004:661).

Locke (1969:319) stated that the causes of job satisfaction lay in the relationship between the employee and the job and not in one of them alone. Locke's (1969) model holds that job satisfaction results from the realisation of important values, and that when a negative difference occurs between what the employee desires compared to what he/she receives,

dissatisfaction will occur. This would only be the case if the job aspect is of importance to the employee. Individuals consider many job aspects when evaluating their job satisfaction; therefore each aspect should be evaluated (Judge *et al.*, 2009:21), including the supervisor, work and pay (Locke, 1969:331).

According to the model of Locke (1969), overall job satisfaction is estimated by totalling across all contents of a job, weighted by their importance to the individual employee (Judge *et al.*, 2009:21). Locke's (1969) theory articulates job satisfaction as $\text{satisfaction} = (\text{want} - \text{have}) \times \text{importance}$ (Judge *et al.*, 2001:31). For example, to predict an individual's satisfaction with the length of his/her work week, one needs to know how many hours he/she worked, how many hours he/she wanted to work, and the discrepancy between these figures (Locke, 1969:317).

Undergraduates in two different courses were included in Locke's (1969) initial two studies, in which he used the value-percept discrepancy model to predict satisfaction. The studies were concerned with the students' satisfaction with their examination grades. The students were asked what they would consider as a minimum adequate grade for the exam, and the difference between the stated grade and the grade obtained was then correlated with grade satisfaction (Locke, 1969:323-324).

Locke (1969) completed all his studies with students as a sample group, stating that the student and laboratory data may not be representative of adults who work full time. Another limitation stated by Judge *et al.* (2001:32) is that theoretically, a difference exists between what people desire and what they consider as important. Making this distinction may, however, be difficult for employees in practice.

3.4.3.2 Thibaut and Kelley's comparison-level model of satisfaction

In developing their theory, Thibaut and Kelley (1959:v-vi) looked at basic theoretical problems in the small group field and revamped a number of intellectual notions for their purposes, without doing any empirical testing.

The model of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) was developed to explain the level of satisfaction that an employee derives from being a member of a group (Judge *et al.*, 2009:19). Thibaut and Kelley (1959:1) stated that their main motivation was "to give cumulative treatment to

a discussion of some persistent problems in the social psychology and to answer ourselves the question: how do the data of the field look when they are arranged by their relevance to a conceptual structure that begins with relatively simple assumptions and adds further ones only as they become necessary?"

The analysis begins with a description of the way in which two or more persons are inter-reliant in achieving positive outcomes. Once members' objective interdependency has been described, it is possible to determine what the members of the group should do to ensure a practical, stable and optimally satisfactory relationship. If the group members have an accurate understanding of their problems of interdependency and have the insight into the required social solutions or the opportunity to develop such solutions through learning, the actual group interaction and its results can be consistent with the expectations of the theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959:4). The adjustment one member makes affects the other members and thus the adjustments they must consequently make (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959:5).

The analytical technique used by Thibaut and Kelley (1959:10) is a matrix that takes into account all the behaviours that members might enact together. Each cell of the matrix represents one potential part of the interaction between the members and summarises the consequences for each person of that potential event, with the consequences divided into positive (rewards) and negative (costs) components. Rewards refer to pleasures, gratifications and satisfactions enjoyed by the individual, while costs are high when anxiety or embarrassment accompanies the action, when great mental and physical effort is required, or if conflicting forces of any kind are present (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959:12-13). Factors that affect rewards and costs can be exogenous (external to the relationship) or endogenous (intrinsic to the relationship). Exogenous factors include the member's needs, skills, values, tools and predispositions to anxiety. When Member A produces an item from his or her interaction range, the costs to Member A depend on the level of anxiety or discomfort caused by the production of the item and the member's skill level. Member B's costs, again, depend on the degree to which Member A's behaviour is punishing him or her, causing physical harm, or causing feelings of embarrassment or anxiety (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959:14-15). Since both exogenous and endogenous factors are acknowledged in this theory, the theory can be defined as an interactional model of job satisfaction.

To make subjective assessments of the quality of outcomes, the members of a group require standards for evaluating the acceptability and adequacy of their outcomes. The comparison level (CL) and the comparison level for alternatives (CL_{alt}) are two standards for making subjective assessments, serving as one's frames of reference. CL reflects the quality of outcomes that the member feels he or she deserves and is used to evaluate the satisfaction derived from the relationship. When the level falls below CL, the relationship is relatively unsatisfactory, whereas when the level falls above CL the relationship can be seen as being relatively satisfying. CL depends on all the outcomes known to the member, either by observation of others or from previous experience. CL_{alt} is the lowest level of outcomes a member will accept after his/her evaluation of the alternative opportunities available in other relationships at present. If outcomes drop below CL_{alt} , the member will be driven to leave the relationship (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959:21). Satisfaction is thus determined by CL and the behaviour of the employee by CL_{alt} (Judge *et al.*, 2001:20)

Generalising the model of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) to job satisfaction assumes that group membership and work roles are similar (Judge *et al.*, 2001:19), leading to the conclusion that if one's current job is perceived to be worse than one's previous jobs, the level will be below CL and job dissatisfaction will result. An individual whose current job exceeds his or her CL and CL_{alt} will be satisfied, while one whose outcomes are below CL but above CL_{alt} will be dissatisfied, but reliant on the present job (Shaver & Scott, 1991:38).

Thibaut and Kelley (1986:xiv) have been criticised for stating obvious implications, defining costs and rewards circularly, and proposing a heartless and selfish theory that serves in the interest of capitalism. Kramer (2010:15) declared that Thibaut and Kelley (1959) had provided one of the most common explanations of social exchange theory, which is still being used in studies today – for example, Eby, Durley, Evans and Ragins (2008:359) referred back to this theory to examine certain phenomena.

3.4.3.3 Cornell model

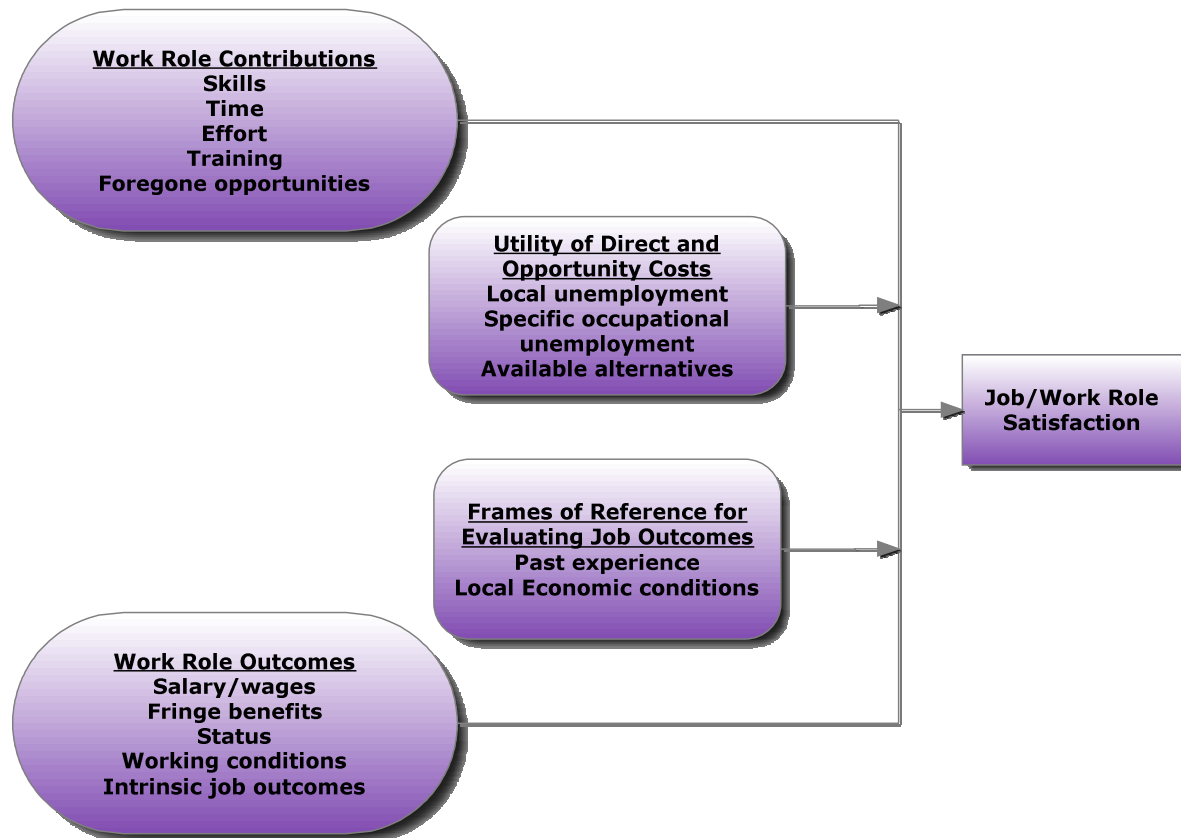
Smith *et al.* (1969) designed the Cornell model to use as the basis for the development of the JDI. Hulin, Roznowski and Hachiya (1985) combined the Cornell model, the model of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and the model of March and Simon (1958) to create a new model,

which was still referred to as the Cornell model by Judge *et al.* (2001:31) and was further elaborated upon by Hulin (1991).

The Cornell model and the Thibaut and Kelley model are similar with regard to attention to frames of reference; the difference, however, lies in the fact that the Cornell model only provides for one standard of comparison, whereas the model of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) provides for two independent standards (Hulin, 1991:452). Smith *et al.* (1969:11) stated that the alternatives available to an individual affect his or her evaluation of situations, and that job satisfaction is the function of the individual's perceived characteristics of the job in relation to his/her frames of reference (Smith *et al.*, 1969:12).

The Cornell model conceptualises job satisfaction as a function of what employees receive from their work roles relative to what they expected to receive (Hulin, 1991:452). The basic theory is that the more outcomes received relative to the contributions offered, the better the resulting job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2001:31). The original Cornell model was very similar to Figure 5, with the only adjustment made by Hulin *et al.* (1985) to the original model being the addition of the utility of direct and opportunity costs (Hulin, 1991:453-454). The original Cornell model will be examined first.

What employees expect to receive is determined by what they themselves bring to the job (skills, time, effort, training and foregone opportunities). Work-role outcomes are what the employee is currently receiving from his or her job in terms of salaries and wages, fringe benefits, status, working conditions and intrinsic job outcomes. Frames of reference for evaluating these work-role outcomes are determined by the employee's past experience, as well as the local economic conditions (Hulin, 1991:452). Frames of reference will influence how significant one perceives work-role outcomes to be. For example, a person who has previously earned a high salary will value the salary of the current job less than the person who previously earned a minimum wage (Hulin, 1991:455). Similarly, employees should act more satisfactorily toward their employers in times of economic adversity than during times of economic stability (Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal & Bashshur, 2007:517).



Source: Hulin (1991:454)

Figure 5: Modified Cornell model

With respect to Hulin *et al.*'s (1985) addition to the Cornell model, the utility of direct and opportunity costs can be explained in practice as follows: If few alternatives are available and local unemployment is high, the level of satisfaction with the current job will be higher than when the opposite is true (Hulin, 1991:452), due to the fact that employees will perceive their contributions to be less valuable due to high competition, and thus the cost of their work-role contributions will decline (Judge *et al.*, 2001:31). Consequently, employees will rate their jobs more positively during harsh economic times, when few opportunities are available, than during flourishing times when alternatives are readily available (Crede *et al.*, 2007:517).

This opportunity cost model is supported by studies finding negative correlations between job satisfaction and local economic conditions (e.g. Hulin, 1966; Miller, Katerberg & Hulin, 1979). Modelling the impact of economic conditions on one organisation is difficult due to a lack of variance, except if one assesses perceptions of the economic environment rather than the objective reality of the environment (Crede *et al.*, 2007:517). Judge *et al.* (2001:31)

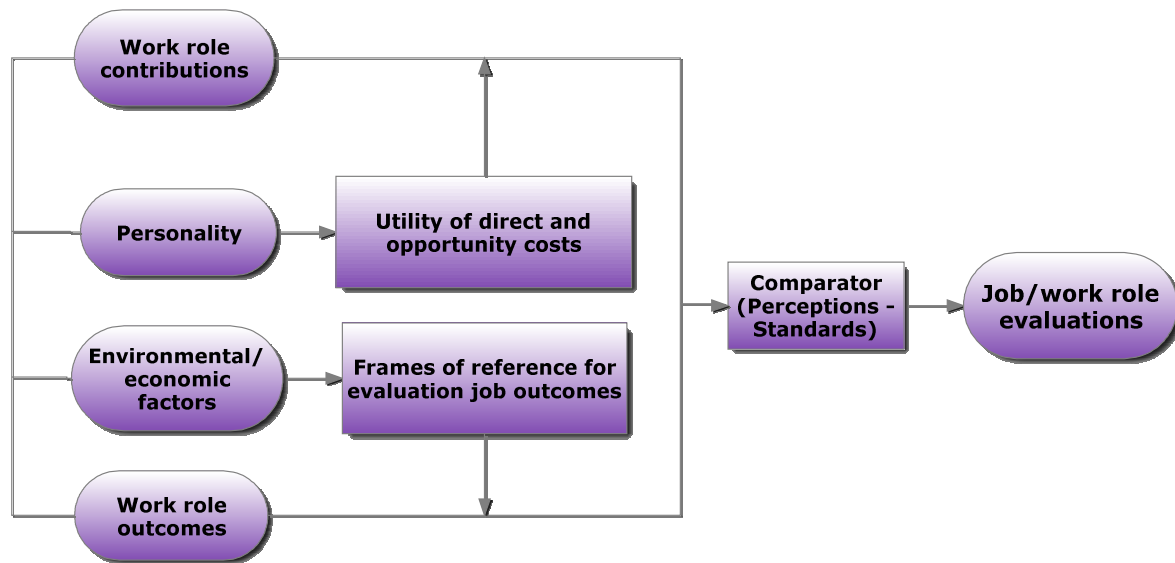
stated that more tests of the Cornell model would be required, even though the integration and breadth of the model is impressive. Judge *et al.* (2009:19) agreed that additional tests of the model would be valuable in providing a relevant economic perspective to job satisfaction research, but would be difficult to achieve.

3.4.3.4 Judge, Hulin and Dalal's integrative model of job attitudes

Judge, Hulin and Delal (2009:31-32), developed a model (Figure 6) as an integration of the CSE model, the JCM, the value-percept model, Thibaut and Kelley's comparison-level model of satisfaction and the Cornell model, but similar to the Cornell model.

Judge *et al.* (2009:31-32) stated that all job satisfaction models are similar, since job outcomes are generally judged in relation to a set of standards, with hypothesised influences on the evaluation of job outcome standards. The influences range from individual personality characteristics and values to exogenous environmental or economic influences affecting the frames of reference of employees and biological factors. Job inputs, outcomes and standards are processed through a comparator, with the result of this cognitive process being an evaluation of one's job.

Judge *et al.* (2009:32) did not base their model on an empirical study, but devised a theoretical model, stating that although the Cornell model had not been fully tested, this did not change their belief in the model. The model of Judge *et al.* (2009) adds to the Cornell model by stating that work-role contributions and outcomes are products of one's personality and environment. Personality is also added by linking it to frames of reference and utilities, explicitly including the comparison process as a separate variable in the model (Judge *et al.*, 2009:32). As can be seen in Figure 6, work-role contributions, personality, environmental and economic factors and work-role outcomes go through an individual's comparator of what he or she expected and what he or she actually experienced. The result is the individual's evaluation of his or her job.



Source: Judge *et al.* (2009:86)

Figure 6: Integrative job satisfaction model

Since this theoretical model is so new, no criticism directed against the model could be found.

3.4.4 Model selection

For purposes of this study, the integrative model of job attitudes (Judge *et al.*, 2009) was supported as a comprehensive depiction of job satisfaction suited to the consideration of both dispositional and situational effects on job satisfaction. Macro-environmental factors, such as political, economic, social and technological conditions, can affect job satisfaction, as well as the organisation's ability to satisfy the needs of employees (Judge *et al.*, 2009:33). Macro-environmental factors are associated with society at large (Darmody & Smyth, 2011:6), and although they are included in the model of Judge *et al.* (2009), they were not used for purposes of this study due to the inability of organisations to manipulate such macro-environmental factors. Although the same can be argued for individual factors, improved selection of employees can enable the organisation to appoint appropriate candidates. The model of Judge *et al.* (2009) was developed recently and will thus remain relevant. After studying the theories and models intended to explain job satisfaction, the next logical step was to review existing measures of job satisfaction.

3.5 Measuring job satisfaction

A formal method of establishing job satisfaction levels in a business is to conduct 'attitude surveys' amongst the majority of the workforce (Tesone, 2010:359). Two popular surveys used to measure job satisfaction are the JDI and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), both of which have high construct value (Judge *et al.*, 2001:32; Schultz & Schultz, 2010:190). The JDI and MSQ are discussed in the section that follows, along with the questionnaire of Lee and Way (2010), which was recently developed specifically for use in the hospitality industry.

3.5.1 JDI

The JDI was based on the Cornell model of job satisfaction, which was developed by a team of researchers in the Industrial Psychology programme at Cornell University, and was officially introduced by Smith, Kendall and Hulin in 1969.

The purpose of the research conducted by Smith *et al.* (1969:10) was to develop "a series of scales, measuring satisfaction on the job within both an evaluative-general-long-term framework and a descriptive-specific-short-term framework, and covering the important areas of satisfaction", with an attempt to create a foundation for a generally relevant series of measurements of satisfaction (Smith *et al.*, 1969:10). The JDI was developed using a total of 988 subjects (Smith *et al.*, 1969:149), including janitors, cafeteria workers and secretaries at Cornell University, employees of a farmers' cooperative, employees of a large electronics manufacturer, and employees of a major bank (Smith *et al.*, 1969:40, 49, 56, 58).

The JDI assesses five facets of job satisfaction, namely:

1. Type of work
2. Pay
3. Opportunities for promotion
4. Supervision
5. Co-workers

The scale contains 72 items in total (Smith *et al.*, 1969:83), namely:

Table 1: Items of the JDI

Work	Supervision	Co-workers	Pay	Promotion
Fascinating*	Asks my advice*	Stimulating*	Income adequate for normal expenses*	Good opportunities for advancement*
Routine	Hard to please	Boring	Satisfactory profit-sharing*	Opportunities somewhat limited
Satisfying*	Impolite	Slow	Barely live on income	Promotion on ability*
Boring	Praises good work*	Ambitious*	Bad	Dead-end job
Good*	Tactful*	Stupid	Income provides luxuries*	Good chance for promotion*
Creative*	Influential*	Responsible*	Insecure	Unfair promotion policy
Respected*	Up-to-date*	Fast*	Less than I deserve*	Infrequent promotions
Hot	Doesn't supervise enough	Intelligent*	Highly paid*	Regular promotions*
Pleasant*	Quick-tempered	Easy to make enemies	Underpaid	Fairly good chance for promotion*
Useful*	Tells me where I stand*	Talks too much		
Tiresome	Annoying	Smart*		
Healthful*	Stubborn	Lazy		
Challenging*	Knows job well*	Unpleasant		
On your feet	Bad	No privacy		
Frustrating	Intelligent*	Active*		
Simple	Leaves me on my own*	Narrow interests		
Endless	Lazy	Loyal*		
Gives sense of accomplishment*	Around when needed*	Hard to meet		

Each facet contains either nine or 18 items, as can be seen in Table 1. Each item is an evaluative adjective or phrase that describes the job facet (Spector, 1997:12). The respondent is required to write “Y” (for yes) if a word applies to his or her job facet and “N” (for no) if it does not. If the respondent cannot decide whether or not the word applies to the job facet, he or she is required to write a question mark (for uncertain). The respondent’s completed questionnaire is a description of his or her present job (Smith *et al.*, 1969:69).

During the development phase of the JDI, respondents were asked to answer “yes”, “no” or “uncertain” to phrases describing their current job, their best imagined job, as well as their worst imagined job. An item was assumed to have a positive effect on job satisfaction if it was found to be prevalent in the best job category for most workers. Similarly, the item was assumed to have a negative effect on job satisfaction if most respondents scored it as a description of their worst imagined job (Smith *et al.*, 1969:32-35). Smith *et al.* (1969:82-83) provided a list of "yes" answers to the job descriptions indicating job satisfaction, all of which are marked with an asterisk (*) above. For example, should the employee have stated that his or her work is fascinating, good, creative, respected, useful and challenging, this has been previously determined to mean that the employee is satisfied in his or her job.

A limitation of the scale is that it is limited to the five mentioned facets (Spector, 1997:14), thus excluding many other possible determinants of job satisfaction. Although the Cornell model (on which the JDI is based) includes work-role contributions, which can be seen as individual factors, the index addresses only questions about the job characteristics and not the person. One would therefore have to conclude that it is based on the situational theory of job satisfaction, meaning that although the Cornell model is interactive, the JDI is situational.

The JDI has been found to be a sound and valid measure of satisfaction (Smith *et al.*, 1969:67), which is reliable on the basis of format, item development, order effects, response-set effects, internal consistency, scale inter-correlations, scoring and score statistics (Smith *et al.*, 1969:85). According to its developers, the JDI has several advantages: Firstly, it is directed toward specific areas of job satisfaction instead of general job satisfaction. Secondly, the educational level required to understand and complete the

JDI is relatively low. Thirdly, the JDI requires the respondent to describe his or her work, rather than state directly how satisfied he or she is with the job, which allows the respondent to provide information that may be used to draw conclusions about his or her level of satisfaction (Smith *et al.*, 1969:69-70). The JDI, which has been translated into many languages, can be completed in 15 minutes (Schultz & Schultz, 2010:190) and has been updated many times (Lake, Gopalkrishnan, Sliter & Withrow, 2010:47), with the 2009 version currently available free of charge from the Bowling Green State University. To this day, frequent use is still made of the JDI and the revised versions thereof (Buchanan & Fitzgerald, 2008; Hitlan, Clifton & DeSoto, 2006; Lim, Cortina & Magley, 2008).

3.5.2 MSQ

First launched in 1957, the Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation (also known as the Work Adjustment Project) is a series of research studies on work-adjustment problems related to vocational rehabilitation service. These studies had two main objectives – firstly the development of investigative tools for evaluating the work adjustment potential of applicants for vocational rehabilitation, and secondly the assessment of work adjustment outcomes. Work adjustment is projected by matching work environments to an individual's work personality. Stated differently, work adjustment depends on how well an individual's needs match the reinforcers available in the work environment and how well an individual's capabilities correspond to the capabilities required by the job (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967:v).

The study sample employed by Weiss *et al.* (1967:1) consisted of 1 793 employed individuals from diverse professions, such as accountants, engineers, teachers, social workers, housekeepers and food service workers, with the research resulting in the development of the MSQ, which measures the level of satisfaction with various specific aspects of work and the work environment. The MSQ is useful as an individualised measurement used to examine the phenomenon of two employees expressing the same level of general satisfaction with their job, but for completely different reasons (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:vi).

The MSQ consists of a series of factor analyses completed across several different occupational groups, producing 20 relatively homogeneous factors (Campbell & Pritchard, 1983:102). Many of the 20 facets covered by the questionnaire are more specific than

those of most other satisfaction scales, including the JDI (Spector, 1997:15), and are as follows (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1-2):

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Ability utilisation | 8. Co-workers | 16. Social status |
| 2. Achievement | 9. Creativity | 17. Supervision –
human relations |
| 3. Activity | 10. Interdependence | 18. Supervision –
technical |
| 4. Advancement | 11. Moral values | 19. Variety |
| 5. Authority | 12. Recognition | 20. Working
conditions |
| 6. Company policies
and practices | 13. Responsibility | |
| 7. Compensation | 14. Security | |
| | 15. Social services | |

The MSQ is based on the situational model of job satisfaction, as concluded from the description of a situational model. The MSQ has both a long and a short version of the questionnaire, with the long form taking 15 to 20 minutes to administer and the short form only five minutes. The developers of the questionnaire recommend the use of the long form of the questionnaire, as it provides much more information for the little additional time required for completion. The questionnaire is easy to read, shows evidence of validity, and meets the acceptable standards for reliability (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:vi-vii).

Criticism of the MSQ is limited, although Spector (1997:16) noted that many of the facets in the long form of the MSQ are highly correlated, suggesting that they are possibly assessing the same thing. However, this questionnaire is still frequently used in research studies (Karsh, Booske & Sainfort, 2005; Wetprasit, 2006; Yang, 2009; Zeffane, Ibrahim & Mehairi, 2008).

3.5.3 Lee and Way's questionnaire

Lee and Way (2010) studied the work of Franěk & Večeřa (2008) and their description of situational models of job satisfaction in meeting the need for a study providing information on job satisfaction factors based on employment characteristics, particularly among employees with a variety of employment backgrounds. Thus, the job satisfaction scale of Lee and Way (2010) is based on the situational model of job satisfaction, with the purpose of their study being to "identify whether individual job satisfaction factors have a relationship with an individual's overall job satisfaction and their level of intention to remain at their current workplace according to employment characteristics by applying a newly modified job satisfaction scale" (Lee & Way, 2010:345).

After studying previous research, Lee and Way (2010) identified issues related to job satisfaction through a focus group consisting of 15 hotel employees – five from each of the three participating hotels. Forty-five attributes were initially presented to the focus group, of which 28 were deleted and the remainder used in a pilot test. The pilot test was set up to measure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, administered to 65 employees from the same three hotels participating in the focus group. The reliability of each individual factor was measured by Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient (Lee & Way, 2010:346), and acceptable validity and reliability were proven during the developmental phase of the job satisfaction scale (Lee & Way, 2010:352).

The questionnaire of Lee and Way (2010) measured the level of satisfaction with the following, using a six-point Likert scale (1 = Most strongly disagree to 6 = Most strongly agree):

- Satisfaction with location of the hotel
- Satisfaction with communication in English
- Satisfaction with work accomplishment
- Satisfaction with the department
- Satisfaction with working conditions
- Satisfaction with working shift
- Satisfaction with training for daily tasks

- Satisfaction with career advancement and development
- Satisfaction with job security
- Satisfaction with supervisor (personal)
- Satisfaction with supervisor (technical)
- Satisfaction with benefits package
- Satisfaction with pay
- Satisfaction with workload
- Satisfaction with level of opportunity to supervise others
- Satisfaction with level of different work duties
- Satisfaction with importance in the hotel

For data analysis purposes, these 17 attributes were grouped into five job satisfaction factors through factor analysis, which represent the following (Lee & Way, 2010:347-351):

1. Work environment: Location of the hotel, work accomplishment, language and working department.
2. Work itself: Working conditions, training, shifts, job security and career advancement.
3. Supervision: Supervisor (personal) and supervisor (technical).
4. Compensation: Benefits package, pay and workload.
5. Personal status: Importance at the hotel, level of opportunity to supervise others, and level of different work duties.

Overall job satisfaction was determined by asking respondents to rate their level of satisfaction in the job in which they were currently employed, measured by means of the six-point Likert scale.

The population for the study conducted by Lee and Way (2010) was sourced from a certain lodging property management company operating 24 lodging companies across the United States of America. A total of 1 489 questionnaires were distributed for purposes of this study, of which 366 were returned (seven being unusable), giving a response rate of 24.1% (Lee & Way, 2010:347).

Lee and Way (2010) found that work environment was substantially related to overall job satisfaction for the majority of respondents, irrespective of their employment characteristics. Work itself was also found to be an important indicator of overall job satisfaction. Management staff members were more sensitive to the work environment and work itself, indicating that employees in management positions were mostly concerned with their career goal of advancement. Supervision (as a job satisfaction factor) explained that as respondents became more tenured, they tended to be more sensitive to management's policies and practices. Respondents working more than 40 hours per week, respondents working mostly morning shifts, and respondents working in the housekeeping department valued workload and pay as important job satisfaction factors. Personal status was not identified as important by respondents working in areas of the hotel requiring physical activity. Personal status, on the other hand, was identified as an important factor for respondents requiring personal business interactions and respondents completing administrative and office tasks. Personal status also emerged as an important factor for employees employed in the same hotel for a long period of time and those not working routine shifts (Lee & Way, 2010:350-352).

A limitation of the aforementioned study of Lee and Way (2010) is that the entire population for this research was employed by a single organisation, making it impossible to factor out the loyalty aspect that might have influenced employees' responses. For this reason it may be difficult to generalise the findings to other settings (Lee & Way, 2010:352).

3.5.4 Measurement selection

All three job satisfaction measurements discussed are based on the situational model of job satisfaction. Based on the literature study, it was not possible to simply dismiss the dispositional influences on job satisfaction, hence the decision to design a questionnaire based on the interactive model of job satisfaction in order to overcome the limitations of the above-mentioned measuring tools in this regard. Before designing the questionnaire, it was imperative to prepare a list of determinants of job satisfaction.

3.6 Determinants of job satisfaction

Over the years, researchers have investigated and identified many determinants of job satisfaction. Drafke (2009:406-407) suggested that determinants of job satisfaction can be divided into three dimensions, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction, each of which contains different job satisfaction variables. **Internal variables** are intrinsic in the work itself (Drafke, 2009:406). **External variables** are related to the working environment, as well as to the work itself, and are easier to change or to separate from the work itself than internal variables (Drafke, 2009:409). **Individual variables** are mainly concerned with the individual and his or her family and friends (Drafke, 2009:415). The section to follow discusses the complete list of determinants of job satisfaction identified by Drafke (2009:407), as well as all the determinants of job satisfaction derived from the theories, models and questionnaires previously discussed in this chapter.

3.6.1 Dimension 1: Internal job satisfaction

Internal variables are closely associated with the job and are usually very difficult to change without leaving the job (Drafke, 2009:407).

3.6.1.1 Physical work

Physical work can be defined as a person's current job at a particular company (Drafke, 2009:407). In the 1970s and 1980s, workers valued interesting work above all else (Schroder, 2008:226), with the most important variable in job satisfaction, according to Drafke (2009:407), being the work itself. Hamidi and Eivazi (2010:964) suggested that managers must be sensitive to negative aspects surrounding the work, as these can significantly impact on job satisfaction, job performance and health. The job satisfaction of the general manager of a five-star hotel might differ considerably from that of a housekeeper in the same organisation due to the physical work performed. Work itself is a motivational factor, according to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), and plays an important role in positively influencing performance and satisfaction (Berger & Brownell, 2009:304).

3.6.1.2 Job variety and task specialisation

Job variety can be defined as the number of skills and depth of knowledge required to do the job (Drafke, 2009:407). According to the JCM, job variety increases job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2009:23). Liu and White (2011:59), Smith *et al.* (1969:83) and Weiss *et al.* (1967:2) suggested that doing routine work results in dissatisfaction with the job. Liu and White (2011:61) suggested that the job satisfaction of pharmacy employees will improve with an increase in work challenges and the need to make greater use of skills and abilities. Job variety has also been found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction (Envision Software, Inc., 2009b; Lambert & Paoline, 2008:553; Miller, Mire & Kim, 2009:424). According to McClelland (1961), enriching a high-need-for-achievement employee's job variety will most likely enhance performance and satisfaction (Steers, 1987:60). Many positions in the hospitality industry are low skilled, and increasing job variety might improve job satisfaction, as in the case of other industries.

Task specialisation has been defined by Drafke (2009:407) as the number of different tasks a person performs at work, with the notion being that the fewer tasks an employee has, the more specialised those tasks will be. Task specialisation can lead to monotony, which can result in either low or high levels of job satisfaction, depending on the individual (Drafke, 2009:408). Examples of task-specialised positions in the hospitality industry include reservationist and housekeeper.

3.6.1.3 Autonomy

Autonomy can be defined as the freedom to control one's own work (Drafke, 2009:407). Job satisfaction generally increases with job autonomy (Chiboiwa, Chipunza & Samuel, 2011:2912; Drafke, 2009:408; Hackman & Oldham, 1976:256; Herzberg *et al.*, 1959:132; Hui *et al.*, 2004:50; Jones, Hohenshil & Burge, 2009:155; Karsh *et al.*, 2005:1270; Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49; Miller *et al.*, 2009:422; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). De Witte, Verhofstadt and Omey (2007:136) found autonomy to buffer the negative effects of workload on job satisfaction. Hui *et al.* (2004:46) suggested that empowering employees by giving them discretion and autonomy in their work is an effective way in which service managers can improve the performance and satisfaction of frontline employees. Bartram and Casimir (2007:14) agreed

that empowering employees improves performance, but they found no evidence that empowering employees leads to an increase in job satisfaction.

When decentralising control and reducing the number of management levels, managers will have more subordinates, forcing them to delegate some responsibility and decision-making to subordinates. This is consistent with Theory Y of McGregor (1985), and will lead to improved job satisfaction (Envision Software Inc., 2009b). According to Marketing Innovators International (2005:5), rules are important, but empowering employees to make quick decisions is even more important and will increase employees' job satisfaction. When a head waiter knows that he or she is allowed to handle a situation and give discount to a disgruntled guest, he or she may feel less stressed and more satisfied with the ability to control the restaurant floor.

3.6.1.4 Goal determination

Goal determination can be defined as the freedom to set one's own goals and success criteria on the job (Drafke, 2009:407). Increased job satisfaction may come from having the freedom to set one's own goals and to attain them (Drafke, 2009:408). This statement is also consistent with McGregor's (1985) Theory Y (Envision Software Inc., 2009b). The relevance of work-related goals to job satisfaction depends largely on the extent to which the employee cares about and marks his or her progress in achieving the goals (Lent & Brown, 2006:239). Offering employees meaningful and challenging work projects that enable progress in achieving long-term goals is one method of improving Maslow's (1943) stated self-actualisation needs (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). Companies with a long-term commitment to employee and company goals have more satisfied employees (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5).

3.6.1.5 Feedback and recognition

Feedback and recognition can be defined as public and private comments concerning job performance (Drafke, 2009:407). Recognition can be differentiated from feedback by the fact that recognition is received from a manager and less frequently, but is more significant than feedback. If recognition is given to all employees equally, the effect on job satisfaction may be negative for employees who put in extra effort. On the other hand, lack of recognition for a job well done may result in dissatisfaction (Drafke, 2009:408). Increased

feedback results in increased job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976:256; Karsh *et al.*, 2005:1270; Miller *et al.*, 2009:422). McClelland (cited in Mullins, 1998:324) suggested giving feedback to employees on their performance in order to improve their achievement motivation, which must be satisfied before the employee will be motivated.

Recognition is an important predictor of job satisfaction (Liu & White, 2011:60; Smith *et al.*, 1969:83; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). Envision Software Inc. (2009b), Marketing Innovators International (2005:5) and Plowman (2010) all suggested giving meaningful and consistent praise to increase job satisfaction. Recognition of achievement is a motivational factor, according to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), and plays an important role in positively influencing performance and satisfaction (Berger & Brownell, 2009:304).

3.6.1.6 Independence

Weiss *et al.* (1967:2) defined independence as the opportunity to work alone on the job. The chance to work independently has been found to improve job satisfaction (Jones *et al.*, 2009:155; Karsh *et al.*, 2005:1270). Generally all departments of a hospitality enterprise are well integrated, not often affording employees the chance to work alone.

3.6.1.7 Authority

Authority can be defined as the opportunity to tell other people what to do (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1). McClelland (1961) stated that employees have the need for power, which must be satisfied before the employee will be motivated (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73). Some employees may experience increased job satisfaction by gaining more authority (Ahmed, Nawaz, Iqbal, Ali, Shaukat & Usman, 2010:71; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1). Increased positional authority promotes higher self-worth, which could in turn promote job satisfaction (Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49).

3.6.1.8 Creativity

Creativity can be defined as the chance to try one's own methods of doing the job in a new manner, and also has an influence on job satisfaction (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). Creativity is a very necessary attribute for hospitality employees, as they are constantly working with people who are by nature unpredictable. Utilising an employee's creative potential can lead to improved job satisfaction (DiLiello & Houghton, 2008:43-44; Mostafa, 2005:10; Smith *et*

al., 1969:83), resulting in a win-win situation that allows the employee the freedom to use his or her creative potential, thus improving the organisation's effectiveness (DiLiello & Houghton, 2008:43-44). Offering meaningful and challenging work projects that allow for creativity and innovation is one method of meeting Maslow's (1943) self-actualisation needs (Envision Software Inc., 2009a).

3.6.1.9 Workload

Workload can be defined as the amount of work to be done (Walter, 2010:1681). Being able to keep busy all the time influences job satisfaction (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1). Liu and White (2011:60) did not find workload to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction; contrarily, subjective workload was found to be significantly correlated with job satisfaction in the study conducted among physicians by Ommen, Driller, Köhler, Kowalski, Ernstmann, Neumann, Steffen and Pfaff (2009:6), who found that a lower workload meant a higher level of job satisfaction. Similarly, Chimankire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo and Mutandwa (2007:173) found job satisfaction to decrease with an increase in the volume of work. Plowman (2010) also suggested that reducing employee stressors, such as high workload, may improve job satisfaction.

3.6.1.10 Training for daily tasks

Learning is a motivational factor, according to the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), and plays an important role in positively influencing performance and satisfaction (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73). According to Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, management should ensure that employees are trained and capable of doing their work, as this will improve their motivation (Pinder, 1987:81-83). A learning organisation is one that has the capability of integrating people and structure to direct the business onto a path of continuous learning and change (Egan, Yang & Bartlett, 2004:282). Schmidt (2007:492) found a significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with job training among customer contact employees. Training may empower customer contact employees, such as front-of-house hospitality employees, to know how to deal with every situation. Regular and relevant training at all levels can energise staff (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5).

3.6.1.11 Working on one's feet

Smith *et al.* (1969:83) concluded that working on one's feet has a negative effect on job satisfaction, although Roznowski (1989:808) found it not to be a determinant of job satisfaction.

3.6.1.12 Temperature in the workplace

Smith *et al.* (1969:83) concluded that working in a high-temperature environment has a negative effect on job satisfaction, yet Roznowski (1989:808) again found it not to be a determinant of job satisfaction. Newsham, Brand, Donnelly, Veitch, Aries and Charles (2009:142) stated that satisfaction with temperature contributes to overall environmental satisfaction, but found environmental satisfaction not to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Newsham *et al.*, 2009:136-137).

3.6.1.13 Emotional dissonance

Emotional dissonance is required by hotel employees to achieve exceptional customer satisfaction. Unfortunately, "pretending" to be cheerful has often been noted to cause strain (Spector, Dwyer & Jex cited in Dormann & Kaiser, 2002:261; Zapf, Cropanzano & Wright cited in Dormann & Kaiser, 2002:261). Cheung and Tang (2010:3208) and Pugh, Groth and Hennig-Thurau (2011:382) found that persons who need to fake their emotions have low job satisfaction.

3.6.1.14 Customer satisfaction and participation

Ryan, Schmit and Johnson (1996:875) found that customer satisfaction leads to employee satisfaction, more so than the reverse. Yoon, Seo and Yoon (2004:403) found customer participation to influence job satisfaction. Although customer participation may increase interaction enjoyment, it may also increase job stress and reduce job satisfaction (Chan, Yim & Lam, 2010:58).

3.6.2 Dimension 2: External job satisfaction

External job satisfaction variables are easier to change than internal variables and are related to the working environment and the work itself (Drafke, 2009:409).

3.6.2.1 Achievement

Achievement can be defined as attaining success in completing tasks (Drafke, 2009:407). Weiss *et al.* (1967:1) and Drafke (2009:409) stated that high achievement leads to high job satisfaction. McClelland (cited in Mullins, 1998:324) suggested developing models of achievement of people performing well, with which employees can compete or which they can imitate in order to increase their achievement motivation, which is necessary for employee motivation. For workers in the information systems industry, achievement motivation seems to have no effect on job satisfaction, which might be due to the speculation that such employees generally have a higher level of achievement motivation than employees in other industries (Chen, 2008:114-115). Herzberg *et al.* (1959:132) recommended that management creates more opportunities for employees to achieve objectives so as to improve job satisfaction.

3.6.2.2 Role ambiguity and role conflict

Role ambiguity can be defined as the degree to which one knows one's own work roles (Drafke, 2009:407). It is difficult for an individual to be highly satisfied with his or her job when he or she does not know what that job entails, and therefore the value and aspects of individual jobs should be explained to employees (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5). Karsh *et al.* (2005:1270) found role ambiguity to be strongly related to job satisfaction.

Role conflict can be defined as job roles interfering with one another, for example when an employee is expected to complete a task, but is not given the necessary authority to do so (Drafke, 2009:409). Role conflict is negatively associated with job satisfaction (Lambert & Paoline, 2008:553; Piko, 2006:315).

3.6.2.3 Task identity

Task identity was defined by Hackman and Oldham (1976:257) as the extent to which a job requires the completion of an identifiable piece of work. – for example, if an employee is responsible for creating a complete product, he or she will experience greater job satisfaction compared to an employee who only creates a component of the product (Hackman & Oldham, 1976:257). Task identity results in relaxation (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000:142), which will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

3.6.2.4 Opportunity for advancement

Opportunity is referred to by Drafke (2009:407) as future prospects with the current employer, as well as other employers. If employees feel that they have few opportunities for advancement, their job satisfaction may be low. If jobs with other employers are perceived to be more favourable, job satisfaction with the current job may decrease (Drafke, 2010:410). Promotional opportunities have been found to have a positive correlation with job satisfaction (Lambert & Paoline, 2008:553; Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49; Smith *et al.*, 1969:83). Lee and Way (2010:351) found hospitality management employees to place great importance, in terms of job satisfaction, on opportunities to advance to executive management positions. Advancement is a motivational factor, according to the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), and plays an important role in positively influencing performance and satisfaction (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73).

3.6.2.5 Job security

Job security was defined by Drafke (2009:407) as the assurance of continued employment. When job security is low, job satisfaction suffers. Job security is a hygiene factor in the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is impossible (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73). Weiss *et al.* (1967:2) and Kooij, Jansen, Dijkers and De Lange (2010:1120) also found job security to be highly associated with job satisfaction. Greater job security coupled with permanent contracts results in higher overall satisfaction (Pouliakas & Theodossiou, 2009:682). Many hospitality establishments may have seasonal fluctuations, which results in many casual and temporary positions being available during peak seasons and then becoming obsolete in off-peak seasons, which may have a negative effect on job security and thus job satisfaction. Providing relative job security is a method of

improving Maslow's (1943) stated safety and security needs motivation (Envision Software Inc., 2009a).

3.6.2.6 Employment status

Eberhardt and Shani (1984:898) found part-time employees to report higher levels of overall job satisfaction, while the women who participated in the study of Booth and Van Ours (2008:F89) were also more satisfied with part-time than full-time employment. Levine, Harrison, Mechaber, Phillips and Gallagher (2008:1220) found similar levels of overall job satisfaction between part-time and full-time physicians, although different work-related factors were associated with the satisfaction level of each group.

3.6.2.7 Health and safety in the work environment

Employees who perceive their work environment to be safe and healthy have been found to be more satisfied with their job than those employees who do not have this perception (Lowe, Schellenberg & Shannon, 2003:396; Smith *et al.*, 1969:83; Ulrich, Beurhaus, Donelan, Norman & Dittus, 2005:393). Both men and women have greater job satisfaction when they are in good health (Booth & Van Ours, 2008:F88). Providing a safe working environment, free from threat, is a method of improving Maslow's (1943) stated safety and security needs motivation (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). Working conditions do influence the level of job satisfaction (Hulin, 1991:454; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2), while Herzberg *et al.* (1959) define good and safe working conditions as a hygiene factor without which employee motivation is impossible (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73).

3.6.2.8 Social interaction

Social interaction can be defined as the quality and quantity of one's interaction with others (Drafke, 2009:407). Increased physical and mental isolation leads to a loss of social interaction, resulting in a decline in job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is also influenced by the quality of social interaction, which can be improved in two ways, i.e. by earning the respect of one's co-workers, and by treating co-workers well. For some employees, social interaction is unwanted and might be detrimental to job satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:411). Chimanikire *et al.* (2007:173) found interpersonal relationships to have little effect on job satisfaction, however.

Due to the unique nature of the hospitality industry, social interaction is constant. Lee and Way (2010:350) conducted a hospitality satisfaction study in the United States of America and found that satisfaction with communication in English had a considerable impact on overall job satisfaction. Lee, Lee, Liao and Chiang (2009:153) also found good interdisciplinary communication to be positively correlated with overall job satisfaction. Forming committees is an option when it comes to improving communication, with frequent and open communication necessary to build employee and customer satisfaction (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5; Plowman, 2010).

3.6.2.9 Relationship with co-workers

The influence of co-workers can be defined as co-workers' viewpoints having the power to positively or negatively manipulate an employee's perception of the working environment (Drafke, 2009:407). White and Mitchell (1979:8) found co-workers' comments to be a greater motivational force than the task itself. If co-workers continually praise the company, an employee's job satisfaction level may also improve, since he or she will also tend to think highly of the company (Drafke, 2009:418). Many employees enjoy work, because they have friends in the workplace (Barrows & Powers, 2009:627). Weiss *et al.* (1967:1) stated that the relationship between co-workers is a determinant of job satisfaction, while Sharp (2008:376) found a low correlation between relationship with co-workers and job satisfaction. Lambrou, Kontodimopoulos and Niakas (2010:3), on the other hand, found the relationship with co-workers to have a marked influence on job satisfaction. Creating a feeling of belonging, acceptance and community by strengthening team dynamics is one method of improving Maslow's (1943) love and belonging needs motivation (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). McClelland (1961) stated that employees have the need for affiliation, which must be satisfied before employees will be motivated (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73).

Interpersonal relationships with peers is a hygiene factor, according to the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is impossible (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303). Since hospitality employees must generally have tight-knit relationships with one another, the effect of those relationships on job satisfaction must be considered. Having stimulating, responsible, intelligent and loyal co-workers improves job

satisfaction (Smith *et al.*, 1969:83), while Mee and Robinson (2003:55) suggested that recognising the contributions of one's co-workers can ultimately improve job satisfaction.

3.6.2.10 Relationship with supervisor

A good employee-supervisor relationship has a significantly positive effect on job satisfaction (Harris, Wheeler & Kacmar, 2009:377; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004:374; Smith *et al.*, 1969:83; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). Golden and Veiga (2008:85) also found the same to be true for employees working via computer and not in a conventional office setting. Interpersonal relationships with the supervisor is a hygiene factor in the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is impossible (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303).

3.6.2.11 Quality and fairness of supervision

Supervision can be defined as the quality of management (Drafke, 2009:407), while Lee *et al.* (2009:153) found fairness displayed by division supervisors to be the strongest predictor of overall job satisfaction. Efficient supervision may have an indirect effect on job satisfaction in that it may improve employees' use of skills and abilities (Liu & White, 2011:60). Chimanikire *et al.* (2007:173), on the contrary, found supervision to have little effect on job satisfaction. Technical supervision is a hygiene factor in the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is impossible (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). If an employee's supervisor is tactful, influential, up-to-date, familiar with the job and intelligent, a high level of job satisfaction is possible (Smith *et al.*, 1969:83).

3.6.2.12 Supervisor support

Supervisor support can improve job satisfaction (Hall, 2007:72-73; McGilton, Hall, Wodchis & Petroz, 2007:370; Yoon *et al.*, 2004:403). Chou and Robert (2008:220) suggested training supervisors to support their subordinates as a means to improve job satisfaction.

3.6.2.13 Trust in leadership

Closely related to supervisor support and transformational leadership is trust in leadership, which has also been found to be a determinant of job satisfaction (Bartram & Casimir, 2007:14; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005:11). Dirks and Ferrin (2002:618-619) found trust in

leadership to be strongly related to job satisfaction, with the relationship being stronger with direct leadership than with organisational leadership.

3.6.2.14 Management style

Management style has an influence on job satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:413), and company management should therefore make a long-term commitment to improving employees' job satisfaction (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5). Participative management, through its influence on the availability of career development support and the level of task significance, seems to have an indirect positive effect on job satisfaction (Wright & Kim, 2004:31). Being approached by the manager for advice gives employees a sense of job satisfaction (Smith *et al.*, 1969:83), while participation in strategic decision-making processes creates an opportunity for employees to significantly influence their working environment (Kim, 2002:233) and to utilise their creative capacity, which is consistent with McGregor's (1985) Theory Y (Envision Software Inc., 2009b). As such, it can be argued that when all employees are consulted, none are offended (Barrows & Powers, 2009:569). Transformational leadership can be associated with job satisfaction in that a transformational leader will recognise the need for adaptive organisational change and will motivate employees to perform beyond what is normally expected (Yang, 2009:1262). Transformational leadership can also enhance job satisfaction by, for example, activating employees' higher order needs, leading commitment to change, and encouraging awareness of the value of task outcome (Yang, 2009:1262).

3.6.2.15 Organisational culture

Organisational culture, defined by Drafke (2009:407) as the effect of the organisation's climate or environment on the employee, also has an influence on job satisfaction (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010; Egan *et al.*, 2004:280). Egan *et al.* (2004:292) found that the presence of an organisational learning culture has a positive effect on job satisfaction, and therefore employees should attempt to match their personal needs to a company with a culture capable of meeting those needs (Drafke, 2009:413). A healthy organisational culture can be described as one that helps all employees and supervisors of the company to be on the same page as top management. Trademarks of a healthy organisational culture include internal service, realism and adaptability (Organizational Culture, 2007). Internal service is a

philosophy that holds that employees must be treated well and be given good service, much the same as customers are provided with outstanding care (Berger & Brownell, 2009:11), which includes employee development. Internal service should be considered an integral part of the strategic plan and be integrated with other management factors (Berger & Brownell, 2009:13).

3.6.2.16 Wellness opportunities

Plowman (2010) stated that job satisfaction can be improved through the provision of wellness opportunities for employees, for example onsite massage therapy sessions, strength-training and aerobics classes, and free training sessions on weight management, nutrition and other topics. Wellness programmes are growing in popularity (Berger & Brownell, 2009:193), and since many hospitality organisations already have spa and gym facilities available onsite for guests, it makes sense for employees to be afforded the same opportunity to use these facilities.

3.6.2.17 Work schedules

A work schedule can be defined as the match between the job schedule and the employee's personal schedule (Drafke, 2009:407). Plowman (2010) recommended that flexible work schedules be encouraged as a method of improving job satisfaction. Flexitime and compressed workweeks may also serve to improve job satisfaction by allowing employees to schedule work around their personal obligations and activities (Drafke, 2009:413, Karsh *et al.*, 2005:1270). Indeed, the hospitality industry lends itself to flexible schedules.

3.6.2.18 Working hours

Generally, as the number of working hours increases, the level of job satisfaction decreases (Bucheli *et al.*, 2010:9; Clark & Oswald, 1996:366). Even with a small sample, Liu and White (2011:59) found the same to be true for the part-time workers included in their study. This effect should be profound for hospitality employees, as working hours in the industry are notorious for exceeding those of most other industries. The women included in the study of Booth and Van Ours (2008:F88) were found to be most satisfied with their jobs when having to work fewer than 15 hours per week.

3.6.2.19 Compensation

Compensation, defined by Drafke (2009:407) as monetary rewards and the role of money, also has an influence on job satisfaction (Hulin, 1991:454). Compensation is widely considered to be below average for the hospitality industry. Remunerating at a level that allows workers to purchase life's necessities is one method of improving Maslow's (1943) stated physiological needs motivation (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). Compensation is a hygiene factor, according to the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is impossible (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73).

Consistent with the economic theory, job satisfaction generally increases with income (Abdulla *et al.*, 2011:138; Bender *et al.*, 2005:486; Bender & Heywood, 2006:260; Chimanikire *et al.*, 2007:173; D'Addio, Eriksson & Frijters, 2003:4; Fasang, Geerdes, Schömann & Siarov, 2007:1; Hui *et al.*, 2004:50; Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49; Smith *et al.*, 1969:83; Tang, 2007:380; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1). Bucheli *et al.* (2010:9), however, found these effects to decrease with an increase in educational level. Part-time and low-income individuals, for whom the job is not a critical part of their lives, may not have significant correlations between income and job satisfaction (Tang, 2007:380). Men attach greater importance to remuneration than women when it comes to determining satisfaction levels in the workplace (Bender *et al.*, 2005:486).

3.6.2.20 Benefit packages

Both Hulin (1991:454) and Fasang *et al.* (2007:25) found benefits to have an influence on job satisfaction. Due to the generally low wages paid in the hospitality industry, expenses such as childcare can be particularly stressful for employees (Berger & Brownell, 2009:165). When a particular Burger King franchise in the USA began subsidising the daycare costs of hourly employees, this relatively minor expense caused job satisfaction to increase and the turnover rate to fall to one-third of the industry average (Barrows & Powers, 2009:598). Similarly, the hospitality industry has been striving to attract employees, with some employers offering increased benefits, transportation and bonuses (Barrows & Powers, 2009:53). Buffets Inc., for instance, in an effort to retain restaurant managers, introduced an incentive programme several years ago whereby any manager who signed a commitment letter and remained at his or her assigned restaurant for at least three years was rewarded

with a \$20 000 bonus, with a \$30 000 bonus for every additional three years at the restaurant (Barrows & Powers, 2009:597-598).

3.6.2.21 Company policies and practices

Company policies and practices, which simply refer to the way in which company policies are put into practice, also influences job satisfaction (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1). Company policies and administration are hygiene factors, according to the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is impossible (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303). Abdulla *et al.* (2011:139) found organisational policies and procedures to be a strong predictor of job satisfaction, while Miller *et al.* (2009:420) found such policies and procedures to have a more profound effect on police officers' perception of job satisfaction than the act of dealing with the public and performing the actual work. The extent to which written rules and procedures are established and known by employees is positively correlated with job satisfaction (Lambert & Paoline, 2008:553). Instrumental communication, which can be defined as the "degree to which information about the job is formally transmitted by an organization to its members" (Agho, Mueller & Price, 1993:1009), is positively correlated with job satisfaction (Lambert & Paoline, 2008:553).

3.6.2.22 Social service

The definition of social service as the chance to do things for other people (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2) is almost identical to the definition of task significance given by Hackman and Oldham (1976:257) and Saavedra and Kwun (2000:134). An employee who experiences task significance in a new position also experiences increased job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2009:23; Katz, 1978:218). The pharmaceutical respondents who participated in the study of Liu and White (2011:60) commonly identified the ability to contribute to patients' healthcare as a determinant of job satisfaction. Connolly and Myers (2003:156) found a significant and positive relationship between the ability to make a difference in the lives of others and job satisfaction. Rayle (2006:209) on the other hand, in a study of school counsellors, found only a moderate relationship between the ability to make a difference in the lives of others and job satisfaction.

3.6.2.23 Location of the business

Lee and Way (2010:350) found hospitality employees' satisfaction with the location of the business to have a considerable effect on their overall job satisfaction. Employees working in more developed areas have been found to be more satisfied with their jobs (Zhou, Li, Zhou & Su, 2008:993). Bucheli *et al.* (2010:8), however, found living in a large city to have a negative effect on job satisfaction.

3.6.2.24 Seniority

Seniority can be defined as the length of time an individual has held a particular position (Drafke, 2009:407). Satisfaction may increase with seniority, as people learn to work more proficiently, while others may grow bored or realise that their careers are not where they had hoped, thus decreasing satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:414). Lee *et al.* (2009:153) found seniority to be positively correlated with overall job satisfaction.

3.6.2.25 Tenure at current employer

Bender *et al.* (2005:484) described tenure as the number of years of occupation with the current employer, and found it to follow a U-shaped pattern (Bender *et al.*, 2005:486). Karsh *et al.* (2005:1277) found that longer tenured employees were less satisfied than those with shorter tenures, although Oshagbemi (2000:220), on the other hand, found job satisfaction to progressively increase in accordance with length of service at a particular institution. Schroder (2008:238) found no significant difference between employees with different employment periods.

3.6.2.26 Status level within the organisation

According to Hulin (1991:454), status influences the level of job satisfaction. A higher job or status level has been found to result in a higher level of job satisfaction (Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49; Piko, 2006:315; Schultz & Schultz, 2010:194). The higher the occupational level, the better the employee's opportunity to satisfy motivator needs and the greater the autonomy, responsibility and challenge involved in the position. Affording status to make employees feel appreciated and valued is one method available to improve Maslow's (1943) stated self-esteem needs motivation (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). Status is a hygiene factor in the theory of Herzberg *et al.* (1959), without which employee motivation is

impossible (Berger & Brownell, 2009:303). Lee and Way (2010:351) found status level to be unimportant for hotel employees working in areas requiring physical activity, while respondents engaging in personal business interactions and administrative tasks, and those employed in the same hotel for a long period of time, identified personal status as a major contributor to job satisfaction (Lee & Way, 2010:351-352).

3.6.2.27 Department of employment

Lee and Way (2010:350) found hospitality employees' satisfaction with the department of employment to be a significant determinant of overall job satisfaction, while Zhao and Namasivayam (2012:5), on the other hand, found the department of employment to have no significant effect on job satisfaction.

3.6.2.28 Equipment in good condition

Having access to the right tools and equipment necessary to get the job done has been found to be correlated with job satisfaction (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983:597-598), as per Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation (Pinder, 1987:81-83). Penz, Stewart, D'Arcy and Morgan (2008:797), in their study on job satisfaction amongst nurses, found that having up-to-date and readily available equipment and supplies is a major predictor of job satisfaction. Likewise, if the maintenance manager of a hotel does not have the proper equipment available to do the job properly, he or she may become frustrated and dissatisfied with his or her inability to successfully complete the assigned tasks. Chimanikire *et al.* (2007:172) found the availability of computers and teaching aids to increase the probability of job satisfaction amongst academic professionals in Zimbabwe.

3.6.3 Dimension 3: Individual job satisfaction variables

Individual job satisfaction variables are mainly concerned with the employee's family and network of friends. Many of these variables constitute opinions (Drafke, 2009:415-416), while others are facts related to the physical person.

3.6.3.1 Moral values

Moral values serve to guide a person in acting in a manner not in conflict with his or her conscience (Drafke, 2009:407). Weiss *et al.* (1967:2) found moral values to influence job satisfaction, while Hanson, Martin and Tuch (1987:300) found employees with high job-related values to be less satisfied in their jobs than employees with lower values. By drawing on employees' values and inputs and basing decisions on such, management can significantly improve job satisfaction amongst employees (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5).

3.6.3.2 Commitment

Drafke (2009:407) defined commitment as the care and selection of, and personal dedication to, a job. Generally, a high level of commitment equates to a high level of job satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:416; Norris & Niebuhr, 1983:56; Pool & Pool, 2007:366).

3.6.3.3 Expectations

Drafke (2009:407) defined expectations as a person's belief that he or she will receive something specific in return for work. The employee's expectation that the job can fulfil his or her needs should be realistic so as to avoid job dissatisfaction (Drafke, 2009:416-417). Locke (1976) hypothesised that should an employee receive less from the job than he or she originally expected, the result will be job dissatisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2009:21). If one enters an assignment with inflated expectations, one may experience negative disconfirmation, which will affect one's perceptions of the work experience and ultimately one's job satisfaction (Harvey, Buckley & Novicevic, 2007:14).

3.6.3.4 Job involvement

Job involvement can be defined as the importance of a job in one's life (Drafke, 2009:407). Blood (cited in Iris & Barrett, 1972:303) stated that job importance is not useful in predicting overall job satisfaction – for instance, if a hospitality employee is the sole breadwinner of the family, his or her job will be imperative to life, which may influence his or her job satisfaction.

3.6.3.5 Importance of specific job attributes

Locke (1976) hypothesised that if the employee receives less than he or she expected, this will only result in dissatisfaction if the employee considers that specific job attribute to be important (Judge *et al.*, 2009:21). Whether a job is considered good or bad depends on the "weight" an individual attaches to the different attributes of the job. This can be explained by means of the following example given by Wooden and Warren (2004:283): An employee has been offered two positions. Based on objective criteria, Job A seems more appealing than Job B. Job A involves more stimulating tasks, a higher income and greater job security, while Job B provides much more flexibility in terms of working hours. Which job the employee chooses to accept will depend on the "weight" he or she attaches to each job attribute. O'Brian and Dowling (1980:127), however, found the importance of job attributes to have little effect on job satisfaction.

3.6.3.6 Effort and reward ratio

The effort and reward ratio was defined by Drafke (2009:407) as the balance between the amount worked and the rewards received by an individual. Management should focus on linking organisational goals to valued rewards, which will result in increased job satisfaction – a universally valued goal (Pool & Pool, 2007:366). This is also stated in the expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964), with managers having to determine what type of rewards employees desire and then give them individualised rewards (Pinder, 1987:81-83).

If people perceive their effort as outweighing their rewards, they will become dissatisfied. The same applies to the way in which people perceive their co-workers' effort and reward ratio, in that if co-workers are seen to receive more in return for the same amount of work, dissatisfaction will result (Drafke, 2009:417). In this regard, Hirschman and Rothschild (cited in Clark, Kristensen & Westergård-Nielson, 2007:3) devised the term "Hirschman's tunnel effect", which states that while others' prosperity might make one envious, it may also provide information regarding one's own future prospects. Clark *et al.* (2007:19) found that some employees are naturally "Hirschmanian" in that the signal effects from co-workers' wages dominate any status or jealousy effects.

3.6.3.7 Comparison of jobs

Job comparison can be defined as the way in which an individual rates his or her own job in relation to the jobs of others (Drafke, 2009:407). If all family members have high-ranking jobs, one may feel less satisfied with a middle management position than one would if all family members had low-ranking positions (Drafke, 2009:418). Taylor and Vest (1992:452) found that for municipal employees in an American town, frequent comparisons with relatives and other people resulted in improved satisfaction, likely due to the fact that most of the respondents in the study were the "breadwinners" of the family, earning the highest income in the household (Taylor & Vest, 1992:452).

3.6.3.8 Opinions of others

Drafke (2009:407) defined this as the prestige attached to one's job by others. Jobs with higher social standing have been found to result in higher levels of job satisfaction when compared to entry-level positions with low social standing (Smith, 2007:1; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). According to Smith *et al.* (1969:83), having a job that commands respect will result in job satisfaction. In the case of hospitality organisations, as with most other types of businesses, some positions may be viewed as being more prestigious than others.

3.6.3.9 Personal outlook or frames of reference

Personal outlook can be defined as one's view of oneself and life in general (Drafke, 2009:407). According to Smith *et al.* (1969:13), an individual's frame of reference is the internal standard he or she uses for evaluation purposes – for example, if an individual's current job is very similar to the best job he or she has ever had, the individual should be highly satisfied with the current job. According to the Cornell model and Thibaut and Kelley (1959:21), if an employee receives more than he or she feels is deserved, job satisfaction will increase due to his or her specific frame of reference (Judge *et al.*, 2001:31).

3.6.3.10 Social and emotional intelligence

The term "emotional intelligence" (EI) was coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990:189) as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions".

Goleman (1998:95) identified the following five components of EI in the workplace:

1. Self-awareness: The ability to recognise and understand one's own moods, emotions and drives, and the effect of these on others.
2. Self-regulation: The ability to control troublesome impulses and moods, and the ability to think before acting.
3. Motivation: A passion to work and pursue goals for reasons other than status or money.
4. Empathy: The ability to understand others' emotional reactions and respond accordingly.
5. Social skill: The ability to manage relationships and build networks.

Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002:38) simplified EI into four domains, consisting of a total of 18 competencies:

1. Self-awareness: Emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence.
2. Self-management: Emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative and optimism.
3. Social-awareness: Empathy, organisational awareness and service orientation.
4. Relationship management: Developing others, inspirational leadership, change catalyst, influence, conflict management, and teamwork and collaboration.

An integrated concept of emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies offers a theoretical structure for the organisation of personality and links to a theory of job performance and action (Boyatzis, 2009:757). The inventory of emotional and social competencies (Boyatzis, 2007) was reduced to 12, taking into account the high inter-correlation between certain scales in order to create more divergent validity among the clusters and scales (Boyatzis, 2009:754):

1. Emotional self-awareness: Recognising one's emotions and the effects thereof.
2. Emotional self-control: Keeping troublesome impulses and emotions in check.
3. Adaptability: Flexibility in dealing with change.

4. Achievement orientation: Striving to meet a standard of excellence or to make improvements.
5. Positive outlook: Seeing the positive side of the future and other situations.
6. Empathy: Sensing others' viewpoints and feelings and taking a real interest in their concerns.
7. Organisational awareness: Reading a group's power relationships and emotional currents.
8. Coaching and mentoring: Sensing others' development needs and strengthening their capabilities.
9. Inspirational leadership: Guiding and inspiring groups and individuals.
10. Influence: Having successful strategies for persuasion.
11. Conflict management: Negotiating and resolving arguments.
12. Teamwork: Creating group synergy and working with others to accomplish shared goals.

According to Goleman *et al.* (2002:38), EI competencies are learnt abilities and not inborn traits. Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008:713) stated that EI may influence job satisfaction through emotional awareness and regulatory processes related to EI, and that being aware and using one's emotions may assist in regulating stress and negative emotions, which will ultimately lead to better job performance. EI has been found by some authors to be an important predictor of job satisfaction (Carmeli, 2003:807; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008:720; Sy, Tram & O'Hara, 2006:466), although Hosseinian, Yazdi, Zahraie & Fathi-Ashtiani, 2008:905 found training in some EI components to have no effect on job satisfaction, although this might be due to the fact that the respondents in this particular study had high levels of job satisfaction even prior to the EI training.

3.6.3.11 Personality

Personality traits can influence personal outlook (Ritberger, 2000:17), which could in turn influence job satisfaction. Self-esteem is one of the levels in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of

needs (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). One method of improving the self-esteem of employees is to assign them significant projects for completion. McClelland (cited in Mullins, 1998:324) suggested modifying employees' self-image until they see themselves as needing success and challenges, and attempting to control their day-dreaming so that they can think about themselves in positive terms. Core self-evaluation (CSE) has a positive, direct effect on job satisfaction (Best *et al.*, 2005:448-449; Judge & Bono, 2001:83; Laschinger, Purdy & Almost, 2007:225). As discussed in the section dealing with dispositional models of job satisfaction, CSE is comprised of self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control. According to Judge *et al.* (2008:369) and Judge *et al.* (2009:32), personality has an influence on job satisfaction.

In the literature, a collection of traits termed the Big Five (Goldberg, 1990:1217) is widely agreed to describe the most important aspects of personality, namely neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Of these, neuroticism has been found to be most closely linked to job satisfaction, followed by conscientiousness and extraversion (Judge & Mount, 2002:530-531, 533). In response to the increasing demand for a super-short personality test, the Big Five Inventory (BFI) of 44 items was reduced to the Big Five Inventory of 10 items (BFI-10) (Rammstedt & John, 2007:204-205). The results obtained for multiple samples imply that, given its brevity, the BFI-10 possesses adequate psychometric properties, although with considerable losses in comparison to the full-scale BFI. Only when personality assessment would otherwise be impossible, and for research settings in which participant time is truly limited, will the BFI-10 offer a sufficient evaluation of personality (Rammstedt & John, 2007:210). As a five-point Likert scale survey with options ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree", the BFI-10 asks the respondent to select the statement that best describes his or her personality (Rammstedt & John, 2007:210):

I see myself as someone who...

...is reserved

...is generally trusting

...tends to be lazy

...is relaxed, handles stress well

...has few artistic interests

...is outgoing, sociable

...tends to find fault with others

...does a thorough job

...gets nervous easily

...has an active imagination

Based on the outcome of the BFI-10 a personality profile can be concluded and the link between the personality profile and job satisfaction can be investigated.

3.6.3.12 Number of dependants

Chimanikire *et al.* (2007:172) found employees with a large number of dependants to be less satisfied with their current job than those with few dependents. Zhao and Namasivayam (2012:5), on the other hand, found the number of dependants to have no significant effect on an employee's job satisfaction.

3.6.3.13 Age

Job satisfaction generally increases with age (Hui *et al.*, 2004:50). Schroder (2008:241) concluded that intrinsic areas of job satisfaction, such as recognition and responsibility, may have the same importance throughout an employee's lifetime, while many extrinsic rewards of a job, such as supervision and salary, may be of less importance to the aging employee or may be better achieved as one progresses in the workforce. It has been said that age follows a U-shaped pattern (Bender *et al.*, 2005:486; Clark & Oswald, 1996:366), suggesting that job satisfaction declines in the early stages of employment and inclines as the employee ages. This pattern suggests that older people might have a stronger sense of achievement and more realistic expectations of their jobs (Bucheli *et al.*, 2010:3; Drafke, 2009:418). Moreover, older workers generally have more seniority and occupy higher positions, whereas younger workers may feel disappointed with their first job because of the lack of responsibility and challenge (Schultz & Schultz, 2010:191). People are also likely

to try out different positions during the course of their careers, eventually selecting the preferred position (Bucheli *et al.*, 2010:7).

3.6.3.14 Race

In the South African hospitality sector, 70% of employees are black (THETA & DEAT, 2007:14). Bender and Heywood (2006:260) found blacks and Asians to report lower levels of job satisfaction than whites – a finding shared by Schultz and Schultz (2010:192). In the study of Chou and Robert (2008:215), on the other hand, non-white respondents reported higher levels of job satisfaction than white respondents.

3.6.3.15 Marital status

Tang (2007:382) found that married individuals reported higher levels of job satisfaction than their unmarried counterparts. Bucheli *et al.* (2010:8) and Chou and Robert (2008:215) disagreed with this finding, reporting no significant differences between the job satisfaction levels of married, divorced or single employees.

3.6.3.16 Gender

The hospitality sector in South Africa employs slightly more females than males (THETA & DEAT, 2007:14). Hanson and Fang (2008:6) found men to be more satisfied with the internal factors of job satisfaction than women, but found no difference between men and women where external factors were concerned (Hanson & Fang, 2008:14). Bucheli *et al.* (2010:7) found significant differences between men and women in their study, with men being less satisfied than women – a finding supported by Clark and Oswald (1996:366). Research evidence is inconsistent and contradictory, however, with no clear pattern of differences between the genders (Schultz & Schultz, 2010:192). Neither Liu and White (2011:59) nor Chou and Robert (2008:215) found gender to have an effect on job satisfaction.

3.6.3.17 Educational level

Job satisfaction has been found to be lower amongst those who are highly educated (Bender *et al.*, 2005:486; Clark & Oswald, 1996:366). This may result from the relationship between expectations and reality (Bucheli *et al.*, 2010:8), with educated individuals expecting more than their non-educated counterparts. These results correspond with the

finding of Karsh *et al.* (2005:1270) that respondents with a college education were less satisfied than those without a degree. In the study conducted by Bender and Heywood (2006:266), respondents who reported that their current job was strongly related to the degree they had completed had a significantly higher level of job satisfaction than those whose jobs did not relate to their studies. This might be due to the fact that the opportunity to make use of one's abilities is associated with job satisfaction (Weiss *et al.*, 1967:1).

3.7 Summary

This chapter gave several definitions of job satisfaction, but with the core idea remaining the way in which an individual experiences his or her job. Despite the criticism levelled at the motivational theories discussed in this chapter, they could help to explain the behaviour of particular employees at certain times, and also shed some light on job satisfaction.

The job satisfaction models can be integrated to form one complete picture of all the determinants of job satisfaction. For purposes of this study, the integrative model of job attitudes (Judge *et al.*, 2009) was utilised, since it considers situational and dispositional variables. There are many measuring instruments available to measure job satisfaction. All three job satisfaction questionnaires discussed in this chapter were based on the situational model of job satisfaction.

On the basis of the study of motivational theories, job satisfaction models, existing job satisfaction questionnaires and other literature, a list of determinants was compiled. The list is long, with previous researchers often having contradictory findings. The determinants of job satisfaction were grouped into three dimensions, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction. Chapter 6 contains a comparison of the findings of the current study to the findings of previous researchers, but it is first necessary to discuss the method and sample used to gather data for the research.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

"Research is formalized curiosity. It is poking and prying with a purpose."

Zora Neale Hurston (2012)

Following the review of the literature, the next step was to "poke and pry with a purpose" to address the research problem. This chapter examines the methodology used to conduct the research, with specific focus on the questionnaire used. Other points discussed are the sample and the procedure followed to gather the data, as well as the reliability, validity, confidentiality and ethical considerations. The chapter concludes with the statistical techniques applied in the analysis of the data.

4.2 Study design

A literature review was conducted on the established knowledge of job satisfaction, focusing on the literature available on three dimensions of job satisfaction, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction. The review was not only restricted to the hospitality industry, but included all industries, as the existing knowledge on job satisfaction in the hospitality industry is limited (Tian & Pu, 2008:469). The empirical study focused on five-star hotels in the Western Cape Province, with the population for the study being all levels of employees at five-star hotels in the Western Cape. Estimating the definite size of the population was impossible, as the hotels vary greatly in terms of the number of employees, ranging from fewer than ten to several hundred per location. No sampling technique was used to select hotels for this study, as all five-star hotels in the Western Cape were invited to partake in the study. A quantitative methodology technique was used to assess job satisfaction. A quantitative research design was better suited to this research study than a qualitative design, due to the relatively large amount of job satisfaction literature available. The research focus was broad and encompassed numerous variables. The time available for

respondents to complete the questionnaire was fairly limited due to their busy work schedules (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:107).

4.3 Measuring instrument

The instrument used to gather the quantitative data was a newly developed questionnaire (Appendix A) based on the literature review set out in Chapter 3. The aim was to include most of the variables identified in the theories, existing questionnaires, models and other known determinants of job satisfaction. The newly developed questionnaire was based on several existing questionnaires, namely the MSQ (Weiss *et al.*, 1967); JDI (Smith *et al.*, 1969); the questionnaire of Lee and Way (2010), and BFI-10 (Rammstedt & John, 2007), as discussed in Chapter 3. The phrasing method of the MSQ (Weiss *et al.*, 1967) was used in the newly developed questionnaire.

The various sections of the questionnaire will be elaborated upon in the subsequent sections. The first part of the questionnaire contained questions related to the biographic details of the respondents, followed by questions relating to 74 job satisfaction variables. At the end of the questionnaire, respondents were requested to rate their overall satisfaction with their job, with space provided for comments or questions to the researcher.

4.3.1 Biographic section

The questions asked in the biographic section required employees to provide information regarding their race, educational level, marital status, gender, number of dependents, working hours per week, employment status, tenure, seniority, and level within the organisation. The scales for the questions relating to marital status, age and working hours per week were based on the Quarterly Labour Force Survey performed by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2010:13,17). The scale for working hours per week from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (Stats SA, 2010:13) was adjusted by adding two extra options from which to choose: Firstly the option of working between 46 and 55 hours per week, with the latter figure calculated by adding the maximum allowable 10 hours of overtime per week (RSA, 1997:8) to the maximum allowable 45 hours of normal work per week, and secondly the option of working more than 55 hours per week.

4.3.2 Job satisfaction variables

This section of the questionnaire contained 74 questions, as reflected in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4, relating to the three dimensions of job satisfaction, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction. The determinants of job satisfaction discussed in section 3.6 were used to formulate questions for this section of the questionnaire. Determinants 3.6.1.11 "working on one's feet" and 3.6.1.12 "temperature of the workplace" were omitted, because these two job attributes have not conclusively been found to influence job satisfaction.

In order to discourage the respondents from answering in a pattern due to a predictable sequence of questions, the questions from each dimension were not all asked in succession. Closed-ended questions were used, based on a five-point ordinal scale (Likert scale), in line with the MSQ (Weiss *et al.*, 1967). According to the Likert scale, respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the given statements, ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". Table 2 lists the questions from the internal job satisfaction dimension, Table 3 the questions from the external job satisfaction dimension, and Table 4 the questions from the individual job satisfaction dimension, with an indication of the question number, the wording of the question, and the literature from which the question was sourced.

Table 2: Questions from the internal job satisfaction dimension

Internal job satisfaction questions (starting with: In my present job, I am satisfied with...)	References from the literature, as discussed in Chapter 3 under the heading "Determinants of job satisfaction"	Question number
The training offered	Hayes and Ninemeier (2009:73); Marketing Innovators International (2005:5); Pinder (1987:81-83); Schmidt (2007:492)	1
The tasks I perform	Berger and Brownell (2009:304); Drafke (2009:407); Hamidi and Eivazi (2010:964); Herzberg <i>et al.</i> (1959)	28
The variety in my job	Drafke (2009:408); Envision Software Inc. (2009b); Judge <i>et al.</i> (2009:23); Lambert and Paoline (2008:553); Liu and White (2011:59, 61); McClelland (cited in Steers, 1987:60); Miller <i>et al.</i> (2009:424); Schroder (2008:226); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	29
The chance to be responsible for planning my work	Chiboiwa <i>et al.</i> (2011:2912); De Witte <i>et al.</i> (2005:18); Drafke (2009:408); Hackman and Oldham (1976:256); Herzberg <i>et al.</i> (1959:132); Hui <i>et al.</i> (2004:46,50); Jones <i>et al.</i> (2009:155); Karsh <i>et al.</i> (2005:1270); Malliarou <i>et al.</i> (2010:49); Marketing Innovators International (2005:5); McGregor (cited by Envision Software Inc., 2009); McClelland (cited by Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73); Miller <i>et al.</i> (2009:422); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	30
The freedom to set my own goals	Drafke (2009:408); Envision Software Inc. (2009a); Envision Software Inc. (2009b); Lent and Brown (2006:239); Marketing Innovators International (2005:5)	31
The feedback I receive on my performance	Hackman and Oldham (1976:256); Karsh <i>et al.</i> (2005:1270); McClelland (cited in Mullins, 1998:324); Miller <i>et al.</i> (2009:422)	32
The way in which I am recognised for doing a good job	Berger and Brownell (2009:304); Drafke (2009:408); Envision Software, Inc. (2009b); Liu and White (2011:60); Marketing Innovators International (2005:5); Plowman (2010); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	33
The chance to tell others how to do things	Ahmed <i>et al.</i> (2010:71); Malliarou <i>et al.</i> (2010:49); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	34
The chance to try out some of my own ideas	DiLiello and Houghton (2008:43-44); Envision Software Inc. (2009b); Mostafa (2005:10); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83)	35
The chance to be "on the go" all the time	Chimanikire <i>et al.</i> (2007:173); Ommen <i>et al.</i> (2009:6); Plowman (2010); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	36
The chance to work by myself	Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2); Karsh <i>et al.</i> (2005:1270); Jones <i>et al.</i> (2009:155)	38
Having to fake happy emotions	Cheung and Tang (2010:3208); Pugh <i>et al.</i> (2011:382); Spector <i>et al.</i> (cited in Dormann & Kaiser, 2002:261); Zapf <i>et al.</i> (cited in Dormann & Kaiser, 2002:261)	42
The customers' satisfaction levels	Chan <i>et al.</i> (2010:58); Ryan <i>et al.</i> (1996:875); Yoon <i>et al.</i> (2004:403)	48

Table 3: Questions from the external job satisfaction dimension

External job satisfaction questions (starting with: In my present job, I am satisfied with...)	References from the literature, as discussed in Chapter 3 under the heading "Determinants of job satisfaction"	Question number
My understanding of what my job entails	Karsh <i>et al.</i> (2005:1270)	2
My tasks at work not interfering with one another	Lambert and Paoline (2008:553); Piko (2006:315)	3
The opportunity to make a complete product or deliver a complete service	Hackman and Oldham (1976:257); Saavedra and Kwun (2000:142)	4
The opportunities for advancement in this job	Drafke (2010:410); Hayes and Ninemeier (2009:73); Lambert and Paoline (2008:553); Lee and Way (2010:351); Malliarou <i>et al.</i> (2010:49); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83)	5
My job security	Envision Software, Inc. (2009b); Hayes and Ninemeier (2009:73); Kooij <i>et al.</i> (2010:1120); Pouliakas and Theodossiou (2007:20); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	6
My health and safety	Booth and Van Ours (2008:F88); Envision Software Inc. (2009a); (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:73); Hulin (1991:454); Lowe <i>et al.</i> (2003:396); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Ulrich <i>et al.</i> (2005:393); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	7
Having meaningful social interactions at work	Drafke (2009:411); Lee <i>et al.</i> (2009:153); Marketing Innovators International (2005:5); Plowman (2010)	8
The chance to develop close friendships with my co-workers	Barrows and Powers (2009:627); Berger and Brownell (2009:303); Envision Software Inc. (2009b); Hayes and Ninemeier (2009:73); Lambrou <i>et al.</i> (2010:3); Mee and Robinson (2003:55); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	9
The way in which my supervisor and I understand each other	Berger and Brownell (2009:303); Golden and Veiga (2008:85); Harris <i>et al.</i> (2009:377); Janssen and Van Yperen (2004:374); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	10
The technical "know-how" of my supervisor	Berger and Brownell (2009:303); Liu and White (2011:60); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	11
The fairness of my supervisor	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2009:153)	12
The support offered by my supervisor	Chou and Robert (2008:220); Hall (2007:72-73); McGilton <i>et al.</i> (2007:370); Yoon <i>et al.</i> (2004:403)	13
My supervisor including me in decision making	Barrows and Powers (2009:569); Envision Software Inc. (2009b); Kim (2002:233); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Wright and Kim (2004:31)	14
My supervisor adapting to different situations	Yang (2009:1262)	15
My supervisor focusing on my development	Yang (2009:1262)	16
My supervisor being trustworthy	Bartram and Casimir (2007:14); Dirks and Ferrin (2002:618-619); Laschinger and Finegan (2005:11)	17

External job satisfaction questions (starting with: In my present job, I am satisfied with...)	References from the literature, as discussed in Chapter 3 under the heading "Determinants of job satisfaction"	Question number
The health of the organisational culture (e.g. there is internal service and the organisation is adaptable)	Al-Ababneh and Lockwood (2010); Drafke (2009:413); Egan <i>et al.</i> (2004:280, 292)	18
The availability of onsite employee wellness opportunities (e.g. staff gym or health talks)	Plowman (2010)	19
The flexibility of my work schedule	Drafke (2009:413); Karsh <i>et al.</i> (2005:1270); Plowman (2010)	20
The amount of pay for the work I do	Abdulla <i>et al.</i> (2011:138); Bender <i>et al.</i> (2005:486); Bender and Heywood (2006:260); Bucheli <i>et al.</i> (2010:9); Chimanikire <i>et al.</i> (2007:173); D'Addio <i>et al.</i> (2003:4); Envision Software Inc. (2009b); Fasang <i>et al.</i> (2007:1); Hayes and Ninemeier (2009:73); Hui <i>et al.</i> (2004:50); Hulin (1991:454); Malliarou <i>et al.</i> (2010:49); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Tang (2007:380); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	21
The fringe benefits I receive	Fasang <i>et al.</i> (2007:25); Hulin (1991:454)	22
The benefits I receive other than medical aid and pension (e.g. childcare and transport)	Barrows and Powers (2009:53,598-598)	23
The policies and practices toward employees of this business	Abdulla <i>et al.</i> (2011:139); Berger and Brownell (2009:303); Lambert and Paoline (2008:553); Miller <i>et al.</i> (2009:420); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	24
The chance to be of service to others	Connolly and Myers (2003:156); Judge <i>et al.</i> (2009:23); Katz (1978:218); Liu and White (2011:60); Rayle (2006:209)	25
The location of the business	Bucheli <i>et al.</i> (2010:8); Lee and Way (2010:350); Zhou <i>et al.</i> (2008:993)	26
The department in which I am employed	Lee and Way (2010:350)	27
Being able to see the results of the work I do	Drafke (2009:409); Herzberg <i>et al.</i> (1959:132); McClelland (cited in Mullins, 1998:324); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	37
The availability of the tools and equipment required to do my job	Chimanikire <i>et al.</i> (2007:172); Pinder (1987:81-83); Scarpello and Campbell (1983:597-598)	40
The condition of such tools and equipment	Penz <i>et al.</i> (2008:797)	41

Table 4: Questions from the individual job satisfaction dimension

Individual job satisfaction questions (starting with: In my present job, I am satisfied with...)	References from the literature, as discussed in Chapter 3 under the heading "Determinants of job satisfaction"	Question number
The chance to do the job without feeling I am cheating anyone	Hanson <i>et al.</i> (1987:300); Marketing Innovators International (2005:5); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	39
My commitment towards my current employer	Drafke (2009:416); Norris and Niebuhr (1983:56); Pool and Pool (2007:366)	43
My job fulfilling my needs	Drafke (2009:416-417); Harvey <i>et al.</i> (2007:14)	44
My job being better than most of my friends' and relatives' jobs	Drafke (2009:418); Taylor and Vest (1992:452)	45
Receiving the rewards I deserve	Drafke (2009:417); Judge <i>et al.</i> (2009:21); Pinder (1987:81-83); Pool and Pool (2007:366)	46
The social position in the community that goes with the job	Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:83); Smith (2007:1); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:2)	47
The role my job plays in my life	Blood (cited in Iris & Barrett, 1972:303)	49
The chance to do the kind of work that I do best	Bender and Heywood (2006:266); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1967:1)	50
My co-workers' opinions about the working environment	Drafke (2009:418); White and Mitchell (1979:8)	51
My current job when compared to previous jobs I have had	Judge <i>et al.</i> (2001:31); Smith <i>et al.</i> (1969:13); Thibaut and Kelley (1959:21)	52
Additional individual job satisfaction questions	References from the literature, as discussed in Chapter 3 under the heading "Determinants of job satisfaction"	Question number
I am able to recognise my emotions and their effects	Boyatzis (2009:754)	53
I am capable of keeping troublesome emotions in check	Boyatzis (2009:754)	54
I can handle change	Boyatzis (2009:754)	55
I strive to meet standards of excellence	Boyatzis (2009:754)	56
I see the positive side of things and the future	Boyatzis (2009:754)	57
I sense others' feelings and take an active interest in their concerns	Boyatzis (2009:754)	58
I can read a group's emotional currents and power relationships	Boyatzis (2009:754)	59

Additional individual job satisfaction questions	References from the literature, as discussed in Chapter 3 under the heading "Determinants of job satisfaction"	Question number
I can sense others' development needs and encourage their abilities	Boyatzis (2009:754)	60
I am capable of inspiring and guiding people	Boyatzis (2009:754)	61
I am capable of influencing people	Boyatzis (2009:754)	62
I am capable of negotiating and resolving conflicts	Boyatzis (2009:754)	63
I am capable of working with others to accomplish shared goals	Boyatzis (2009:754)	64
I see myself as someone who is reserved	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	65
I see myself as someone who is generally trusting	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	66
I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	67
I see myself as someone who is relaxed and who handles stress well	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	68
I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	69
I see myself as someone who is outgoing and sociable	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	70
I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	71
I see myself as someone who does a thorough job	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	72
I see myself as someone who gets nervous easily	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	73
I see myself as someone who has an active imagination	Rammstedt and John (2007:210)	74

4.3.3 Final section of the questionnaire

The final question, i.e. "Overall I am satisfied with my job", was used for statistical purposes as the dependent variable. The question was required to perform the correlation analysis and the multiple regression analysis. The question was also used to achieve objective two, which aimed to determine the level of overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape. This final question, as well as the questions relating to the job satisfaction variables of each dimension, had a number of answer categories (Strongly

disagree=1, Disagree=2, Neither=3, Agree=4 and Strongly agree=5) from which respondents could choose.

4.4 Pilot study

Following the development of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted on 20 December 2011 at a five-star hotel in Bloemfontein, selected for the sake of convenience due to Bloemfontein being the researcher's place of residence. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine the feasibility of the questionnaire; to determine the amount of time required by respondents to complete the questionnaire; and to identify any difficulties with the method or materials used, such as unclear instructions on the questionnaire (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006:60; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:110-111).

The study was conducted under the same conditions as the main study. The researcher personally visited the hotel at the times when the questionnaire was distributed to all employees working the early, late and night shifts on 20 December 2011. The researcher remained on the premises for two hours each time in order to answer respondents' questions or assist respondents to complete the questionnaire. The researcher collected most of the questionnaires on the same day, but did return the following day to collect the questionnaire from employees who did not have time to complete it while the researcher was on site. Eighteen questionnaires were gathered in total. Minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire after the pilot study, and it was found that an average of 15 minutes was required for completion. The results obtained in the pilot study were not used in the final study.

4.5 Data gathering

At the time of starting this study, there were 82 five-star hotels in South Africa, distributed as depicted in Table 5. The Western Cape is the province with the most five-star hotels in South Africa (TGCSA, 2011) and was therefore selected for purposes of this study.

Table 5: Distribution of five-star hotels in South Africa

Province	Number of five-star hotels	% of five-star hotels
Western Cape	35	43%
Gauteng	25	30%
KwaZulu-Natal	8	10%
Eastern Cape	5	6%
Limpopo	3	4%
North West	3	4%
Mpumalanga	2	2%
Free State	1	1%
Total	82	100%

The researcher included all five-star hotels in the Western Cape that were willing to participate in the study, meaning that no sampling technique was employed. At the beginning of April 2011, prior to conducting the study, emails were sent to representatives at all 35 of the Western Cape's registered five-star hotels listed on the TGCSA (2011) website, requesting their participation in the research, with a letter of support from the research supervisor attached (Appendix B). After the emails had been sent, the researcher telephoned the general managers or human resource managers of those hotels that had not responded to the email. The responses to the emails and telephone calls were as follows:

- Four hotel representatives agreed to participate in the study, one of which later informed the researcher that the timing of the data collection no longer suited the hotel manager due to high occupancy levels, and the hotel subsequently withdrew from the study.
- Six additional hotel representatives notified the researcher that they were either not interested in participating in the study or would not be able to assist in the research project.
- Twenty-five hotel representatives gave no indication whatsoever of their willingness to participate or not.

Managers in the hospitality industry may perceive human resources issues to be 'sensitive', meaning that a relatively low response rate is likely (Keegan & Lucas, 2005:158).

The empirical study was conducted in February 2012. One specific day of data collection was arranged with each of the three hotel representative who agreed to participate in the study. A two-week roster was then drawn up for the data collection period in order to visit the three participating hotels and to make an attempt to increase their response rate. The researcher personally visited an additional six hotels in the Cape Town area that had not responded to the emails and telephone calls, in an attempt to persuade more hotels to participate in the study. The researcher spoke with either the human resources manager or the general manager of each hotel to explain the purpose, process and benefits of the study and to ask whether they would be interested in participating in the research. Three hotel representatives agreed to participate in the study at that point, but two later notified the researcher that they would no longer be able to take part. Ultimately, after all the researcher's efforts, four hotel representatives agreed to participate in the research. The hotels were diverse and offered a good selection of varying environments. They were also geographically widespread, with one hotel situated on a golf estate, another in the winelands, and the other two in Cape Town itself. The hotels also varied in terms of type, with two hotels forming part of a corporate chain and the other being independent hotels.

A contact person was identified at each hotel to assist with the distribution of the questionnaire. In each case, the researcher visited the hotel in question during the course of the morning on the prearranged date and distributed the questionnaires personally to all employees (part-time and full-time) working the morning shift and the 08h00 to 17h00 shift in all departments of the hotel. The questionnaire explained the purpose of the study, the fact that participation was voluntary, the fact that the questionnaire would be completed anonymously, and the value of the research project. The heads of department were asked to encourage their respective employees to complete the questionnaire.

The researcher remained on site at each hotel for a period of two to six hours in order to answer any questions the employees might have had and to distribute the questionnaire to employees working the late shift. The researcher also offered to interview illiterate employees at that time, but no such assistance was requested. The researcher collected all completed questionnaires on the same day.

After a few days, the researcher returned to each hotel to collect the outstanding questionnaires of employees who had worked the morning and afternoon shifts on the previous occasion, as well as those completed by night-shift employees. Participating hotel representatives also had the opportunity to return late questionnaires to the research via fax or mail. By allowing extra time for questionnaires to be submitted, all employees working on that particular day (irrespective of shift) at the hotels had an equal opportunity to participate in the study.

4.6 Reliability and validity of the questionnaire

The reliability and validity of the measuring instrument is examined in this section.

4.6.1 Reliability

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:29), reliability is the consistency with which a questionnaire produces a certain result when the object being measured has not changed. The four measuring instruments, MSQ (Weiss *et al.*, 1967), JDI (Smith *et al.*, 1969), the questionnaire of Lee and Way (2010) and the BFI-10 (Rammstedt & John, 2007), on which the questionnaire was based, were all confirmed to be reliable (Lee & Way, 2010:346-347; Rammstedt & John, 2007:210; Smith *et al.*, 1969:85; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:vi-vii). The reliability of the first three questionnaires mentioned are discussed in section 3.5, while the reliability of the fourth questionnaire is discussed in section 3.6.3.11 (Chapter 3).

One measure of reliability is the degree of internal consistency of the questions in a survey (Fink, 2009:42). When different items are formulated to measure a certain construct, in this case job satisfaction, there should be a high degree of similarity among them (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:216). Internal consistency is a measure of similarity of the items of a questionnaire (Bless *et al.*, 2006:155).

One estimate of internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha (Bless *et al.*, 2006:155). According to Fink (2009:43), the criterion for adequate reliability depends on the purpose of the study. When comparing groups, a reliability coefficient of 0.50 or above is acceptable. In order to make decisions about individual health or education needs, the reliability coefficient should

be 0.90 or above (Fink, 2009:43). Cronbach's α coefficient was used to determine the reliability of the job satisfaction determinants of the current questionnaire.

4.6.2 Validity

The validity of a questionnaire is the degree to which the questionnaire measures what it aims to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:28). Many different types of validity exist, with the four most important types being face validity, construct validity, criterion-related validity, and content validity (Bless *et al.*, 2006:156). Three types of validity were proved for the newly developed questionnaire, namely face validity, construct validity and content validity.

Face validity is the degree to which the instrument appears to be measuring a specific characteristic. Face validity is useful for ensuring the co-operation of those participating in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92). Human resources managers or representatives of the participating hotels were asked to approve the questionnaire prior to data collection, and the fact that they approved the questionnaire as a measurement of employees' job satisfaction proves the face validity of the questionnaire.

Construct validity is the degree to which an instrument measures a characteristic that is assumed to exist based on patterns in people's behaviour, because it cannot be directly observed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92). Bless *et al.* (2006:159) went on to state that construct validity is the degree to which scores on an instrument reflect the desired construct rather than some alternative construct. One method of establishing construct validity is to determine whether the instrument has any convergent validity with other measures. Convergent validity is the relationship between the current instrument and other instruments that intend to measure the same construct. Should there be high correlation between instruments assessing the same construct, high convergent validity and thus high construct validity results. Since the job satisfaction questionnaire in this case was based on measurement instruments that had all already been validated, namely the MSQ (Weiss *et al.*, 1967), JDI (Smith *et al.*, 1969), the questionnaire of Lee and Way (2010) and the BFI-10 (Rammstedt & John, 2007), the likelihood of construct validity of the current measurement instrument is high. According to Mouton (2009:100), an obvious advantage of using existing instrumentation is that if the instrumentation has high validity and reliability, not much attention has to be paid to the measurement validity of the instrument.

Content validity refers to the degree to which the measurement instrument covers the range of meanings included within a concept – in this case the concept of job satisfaction (Babbie & Mouton, 2008:123). Bless *et al.* (2006:157) stated that if an instrument is based on the literature of the relevant research field and the researcher can show that an instrument measures all the different components of the variable in question, the instrument is sure to have high content validity. The content validity of the measuring instrument in this case was proven by being founded on literature, motivation theories, job satisfaction models and previous job satisfaction questionnaires used to determine the list of questions to be asked.

4.7 Ethical aspects

The questionnaire was presented to the representatives of the five-star hotels that voluntarily participated in this study, for purposes of input and refinement prior to the main study. The questionnaires were completed voluntarily, as stated clearly in the questionnaire. The confidentiality and anonymity of the participating hotels as well as the individual respondents were guaranteed.

4.8 Statistical analysis

Statisticians assisted the researcher with the analysis of the data using SAS Version 9.2. Descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis were used to analyse the data. The descriptive statistics used in this case included frequency tables, medians, and lower and upper quartiles. Descriptive statistics provide simple summaries about the sample and the responses to questions (Fink, 2009:78).

Fischer's (1945) exact test for categorical data was used to analyse the correlation between the biographic variables and overall job satisfaction at a significance level of 0.05. Spearman's (1904) correlation analysis was used to analyse the three dimensions of job satisfaction. The Spearman correlation coefficient (r) was calculated to determine whether a correlation exists between each of the internal, external and individual job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction (hypotheses 2, 4 and 6). The r was used to indicate both the strength and direction of the correlation between variables.

Regressions use correlations as the basis for predicting the value of one variable compared to another. Multiple regression techniques enable one to consider more than one predictor of the dependent variable (Fink, 2009:82). Babbie and Mouton (2008:466) also stated that multiple regression analysis provides a means of analysing situations where a given dependent variable is affected simultaneously by several independent variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relative importance of the independent variables in predicting the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated as an indicator of the extent to which the internal, external and individual job satisfaction dimensions predict overall job satisfaction (hypotheses 3, 5 and 7).

4.9 Summary

No sampling technique was used to select participating five-star hotels in the Western Cape, since the representatives of all the five-star hotels in the Western Cape were approached with an invitation for the hotel to participate in the research. The hotel representatives were contacted via email, telephone and personal visits in some cases. Of the 35 five-star hotels in the Western Cape, four agreed to participate in the research. Prior to data collection, a pilot study was conducted in a five-star hotel in Bloemfontein in order to test the newly developed quantitative questionnaire. The questionnaire was based on a review of the literature relating to job satisfaction, and the validity of the questionnaire was proven. The researcher personally visited the hotels for purposes of data collection in February 2012. The questionnaires were anonymously completed by all hotel employees who volunteered to participate in the study. Statistical analyses used to test the research hypotheses were briefly discussed in this chapter, with further elaboration to be found in the subsequent chapter, which focuses on the results obtained from the research effort.

Chapter 5: Results

5.1 Introduction

"There is nothing like looking, if you want to find something. You certainly usually find something, if you look, but it is not always quite the something you were after."

J.R.R. Tolkien (1978)

The methodology followed in the research was addressed in the previous chapter. Chapter 5 is designed to present the findings gathered from the statistical tests applied. Firstly, the response rate obtained from employees at the four hotels is discussed, after which the reliability of the questionnaire is tested through use of the Cronbach α coefficient. The biographic composition of the sample is analysed along with the relationship between the biographic variables and overall job satisfaction. Lastly, the results obtained from the three job satisfaction dimensions are to be discussed in terms of the correlation between the job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction as well as the multiple regression results.

5.2 Response rate

Table 6 depicts the response rate of the employees who completed the questionnaire at each of the four hotels included in this study. Table 6 reflects a substantial difference in the response rates of the different hotels. The lowest response rate (20%) was reported for Hotel B, while the highest response rate was reported for Hotel D (86%).

Table 6: Response rate of hotel employees

	Number of employees onsite on research day	Returned questionnaires	Response rate of employees
Hotel A	120	42	35%
Hotel B	170	34	20%
Hotel C	83	42	51%
Hotel D	7	6	86%
Total	380	124	33%

Although the total response rate may appear low (33%), this is not uncommon for hospitality-related studies. In a study on the predictors of customer service training in hospitality firms, Butcher, Sparks and McColl-Kennedy (2009:392) made use of convenience sampling by distributing 4 000 questionnaires in two hospitality publications in Australia. A response rate of only 6.4% was calculated, despite the offering of \$1 000 worth of prize draws to owners and managers of hospitality firms as an incentive to improve the response rate (Butcher *et al.*, 2009:392). Lee and Way (2010:347) reported a response rate of 24% in their job satisfaction study within a lodging property management company. Clark, Riley, Wilkie and Wood (1998:41) state that there are many recorded instances of hostility of employers and managers towards investigations undertaken by researchers in hospitality and tourism studies.

5.3 Reliability

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:186) identified the Cronbach α coefficient as the best method to study the reliability of survey research when not dealing with a choice between two items, but rather a series of possible answers. Internal reliability of the questionnaire was thus tested using the Cronbach α coefficient. A Cronbach α coefficient higher than 0.7 is adequate according to Maree and Pietersen (2007:216), while Fink (2009:43) suggested

that the purpose of the study determines adequate reliability. Fink (2009:43) recommended a Cronbach α coefficient of 0.5 when groups are compared, but for individual educational or health needs she recommended a Cronbach α coefficient of 0.9. The reliability for each job satisfaction variable was assessed by Cronbach's α coefficient ranging from 0.9334 to 0.9369. A Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.9356 was calculated for the total job satisfaction section (question 1 to 74), which indicates a reliable questionnaire.

5.4 Biographic discussion

Prior to addressing any of the research objectives, the biographic composition of the sample is discussed. The relationship between these variables and overall job satisfaction is also considered.

5.4.1 Biographic composition of the sample

A total of 124 completed questionnaires were collected from respondents at the four participating hotels. Table 7 reflects the biographic composition of the sample. Not all 124 respondents answered all of the biographic questions, resulting in different sample totals for the questions. Fifteen biographic variables were deduced from the biographic questions in the questionnaire, namely race, educational level, hospitality-related qualification, number of dependants, marital status, gender, age, language used most often, working hours per week, employment relationship, tenure, seniority, department of employment, status level, and hotel of employment.

Table 7: Biographic variables and their relationship to overall job satisfaction

Biographic variable	Category	Sample		Overall satisfaction distribution			Overall satisfaction median			P
		n	%	1	2	3	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	
Race	African	41	33%	15%	10%	75%	3	2.5	3	0.4207
	Asian	2	2%	0%	50%	50%	2.5	2	3	
	Coloured	45	37%	9%	5%	86%	3	3	3	
	White	34	28%	15%	6%	79%	3	3	3	
	Other	0	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	0	0	
Highest level of education completed	High School	66	59%	14%	3%	83%	3	3	3	0.0799
	Other	1	1%	100%	0%	0%	1	1	1	
	Primary School	2	2%	0%	50%	50%	2.5	2	3	
	Tertiary Degree	5	5%	20%	0%	80%	3	3	3	
	Tertiary Diploma	37	33%	9%	12%	79%	3	3	3	
My qualification is hospitality related	No	41	40%	23%	0%	77%	3	3	3	0.0120*
	Yes	61	60%	9%	12%	79%	3	3	3	
Number of dependents	0	47	39%	13%	11%	76%	3	3	3	0.9581
	1	15	13%	21%	0%	79%	3	3	3	
	2	25	20%	17%	8%	75%	3	2.5	3	
	3	12	10%	8%	8%	84%	3	3	3	
	4	12	10%	8%	0%	92%	3	3	3	
	5	9	8%	13%	12%	75%	3	2.5	3	
Marital status	Divorced/ Separated	6	5%	0%	0%	100%	3	3	3	0.9667
	Living Together	12	10%	17%	8%	75%	3	2.5	3	
	Married	38	31%	16%	6%	78%	3	3	3	
	Never Married	66	54%	13%	9%	78%	3	3	3	
Gender	Female	57	47%	15%	9%	76%	3	3	3	0.8410
	Male	65	53%	13%	6%	81%	3	3	3	
Age in years on 1 January 2012	18-25	31	31%	13%	10%	77%	3	3	3	0.9848
	26-35	45	45%	13%	7%	80%	3	3	3	
	36-45	15	15%	7%	7%	86%	3	3	3	
	46-55	8	8%	17%	0%	83%	3	3	3	
	56+	1	1%	0%	0%	100%	3	3	3	

Biographic variable	Category	Sample		Overall satisfaction distribution			Overall satisfaction median			P
		n	%	1	2	3	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	
Language used most often	Afrikaans	35	29%	11%	6%	83%	3	3	3	0.9245
	English	67	55%	13%	9%	78%	3	3	3	
	Other	4	3%	0%	0%	100%	3	3	3	
	Xhosa	15	13%	22%	7%	71%	3	2	3	
Average number of hours worked per week	Less than 15	2	20%	0%	0%	100%	3	3	3	0.9948
	15-29	0	0%	0%	0%	0%				
	30-39	1	10%	0%	0%	100%	3	3	3	
	40-45	56	49%	16%	5%	79%	3	3	3	
	46-55	40	35%	13%	5%	82%	3	3	3	
	More than 55	15	13%	13%	7%	80%	3	3	3	
Employment relationship	Casual	10	9%	11%	0%	89%	3	3	3	0.6247
	Permanent	86	75%	14%	7%	79%	3	3	3	
	Temporary	18	16%	12%	18%	70%	3	2	3	
Number of years employed at current hotel	0 < x ≤ 1	25	21%	4%	8%	88%	3	3	3	0.7808
	1 < x ≤ 3	38	31%	13%	8%	79%	3	3	3	
	3 < x ≤ 5	22	18%	25%	5%	70%	3	1.5	3	
	5 < x ≤ 10	22	18%	14%	9%	77%	3	3	3	
	More than 10	15	12%	8%	8%	84%	3	3	3	
Number of years in current position	0 < x ≤ 1	31	28%	3%	10%	87%	3	3	3	0.1653
	1 < x ≤ 3	43	39%	19%	7%	74%	3	2	3	
	3 < x ≤ 5	15	13%	23%	8%	69%	3	2	3	
	5 < x ≤ 10	18	16%	7%	0%	93%	3	3	3	
	More than 10	4	4%	25%	25%	50%	2.5	1.5	3	
Department of employment	Administrative	9	8%	11%	11%	78%	3	3	3	0.4080
	Food and Bev	50	47%	17%	7%	76%	3	3	3	
	Front Office	20	19%	0%	5%	95%	3	3	3	
	Housekeeping	13	12%	25%	8%	67%	3	1.5	3	
	Maintenance	15	14%	20%	7%	73%	3	2	3	
Status level	Line employee	106	88%	14%	9%	77%	3	3	3	0.4558
	Managerial	15	12%	7%	0%	93%	3	3	3	
Hotel of employment	Hotel A	40	34%	15%	10%	75%	3	3	3	0.7782
	Hotel B	33	27%	12%	3%	85%	3	3	3	
	Hotel C	40	34%	15%	7%	78%	3	3	3	
	Hotel D	6	5%	0%	17%	83%	3	3	3	
Overall satisfaction		119	100%	13%	8%	79%	3	3	3	

* indicates a significant relationship (p<0.05)

According to THETA (2010:21), in the tourism sector Africans constitute 68% of the entire workforce, Whites 15%, Coloureds 13% and Indians 4%. As depicted in Table 7, the race distribution in this case differed, with 37% Coloured respondents, followed closely by Africans at 33% and Whites at 28%. There were only 2% Asians respondents and no other races reported. This could be due to the fact that the Western Cape is home to a notable Coloured population. According to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2007:1), 54% of the Western Cape population is Coloured, 27% African, 18% White and only 1% Indian or Asian.

Hospitality enterprises in South Africa are known to employ many unskilled workers (DEAT, 2005:17). This is in line with the current study, with 59% of respondents having high school as the highest level of qualification completed. Of the respondents, 33% had completed a tertiary diploma and only 5% a tertiary degree. More than half (60%) of the respondents had a hospitality-related qualification. It should be noted, however, that some of the respondents who identified high school as their highest qualification also claimed to have a hospitality-related qualification, leading to the conclusion that the "qualification" was most likely a hospitality-related school subject such as Home Economics.

Of the respondents, 39% had no dependents and 54% had never been married. The sample was relatively young, with 45% of respondents between the ages of 26 and 35 years and another 31% between the ages of 18 and 25 years. According to THETA (2010:17), 72% of hospitality workers in South Africa are under the age of 35 years – a percentage similar to that of the current study at 76%. The sample was well balanced in terms of gender. In 2010 the tourism sector employed 44% men and 56% women (THETA, 2010:25), which differs from the research sample in this case, i.e. slightly more men (53%) than women (47%). More than half (55%) of the respondents identified English as the language used most often.

Almost half (49%) of the respondents were working 40 to 45 hours a week on average, and 48% more than that. Of the employees working more than 45 hours per week, 35% were working between 46 and 55 hours per week and 13% more than 55 hours per week. In the US-based hospitality study of Lee and Way (2010:347), 68% of employees were working less than 40 hours per week. Without generalising, it is interesting to note the vast difference

between the working hours of the respondents in this study and those of the respondents in the study of Lee and Way (2010:347). According to the National Department of Tourism (NDT, 2011:53), the South African tourism industry is known for its long working hours, as confirmed by the current research findings.

The majority (75%) of respondents were permanent employees, which is unusual in light of the fact that the hospitality industry is characterised as having a mostly part-time and casual workforce (Chikwe, 2009:46). With regard to tenure and seniority, a high number of respondents had been employed at the same hotel and in the same position for a period of one to three years. Almost half (47%) of the respondents were working in the food and beverage department and only 8% in administrative positions.

5.4.2 Overall job satisfaction

Research objective two aimed to determine the level of overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape. The current data set is skewed to the left, with the majority of the results indicating job satisfaction. An impressive 79% of respondents indicated satisfaction with their overall job, with 13% indicating that they were dissatisfied and 8% being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. According to Alderson and Green (2009), skewed data is not "bad data", but is simply less convenient for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of medians and an interquartile range (IQR) for respondents were computed, since the median is a better reflection of central tendency for a skewed data set. The median is the numerical centre of a set of data, with exactly the same number of scores below it as above it (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:265-266). The IQR is the range of values where the middle 50% of the scores is found. The IQR is expressed as the range between the upper and lower quartiles.

Table 7 shows that a median of three was calculated for most of the variables. The overall satisfaction medians of respondents with different biographic details will now be discussed. Overall satisfaction median values lower than three were computed for Asians (median = 2.5 and IQR = 2 - 3), respondents who answered "Other" to the question about highest level of education completed (median = 1 and IQR = 1 - 1), respondents who answered "Primary school" to the question about highest level of education completed (median = 2.5 and IQR =

2 - 3) and respondents who had been employed in the same position for more than 10 years (median = 2.5 and IQR = 1.5 - 3).

5.4.3 Correlation between biographic variables and overall job satisfaction

Research objective three aims to determine which of the biographic variables are correlated with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape. Before addressing the objective, it is important to consider how respondents with different biographical data reported their level of overall job satisfaction. The five categories of agreement with the overall job satisfaction statement (question 75) were consolidated into just three categories (Disagree=1, Neither=2, and Agree=3). “Strongly disagree” and “Disagree” were combined to become “Disagree”; likewise “Strongly agree” and “Agree” were combined to become “Agree”. An “Agree” response meant that the respondent was satisfied with his or her job overall, while a “Disagree” response meant that the respondent was dissatisfied with his or her job overall. A response of “Neither” meant that the respondent was neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with his or her job overall.

Table 7 reflects the overall job satisfaction level of participants with different biographic variables. It is clear from Table 7 that the majority of Coloured (86%), White (79%) and African (75%) respondents were satisfied with their jobs overall. Concerning marital status, all divorced and separated respondents were satisfied with their jobs overall. In terms of gender, 81% of male respondents and 76% of female respondents were satisfied with their jobs overall. Of the respondents who indicated Xhosa as being the language used most often, 22% were dissatisfied with their jobs overall.

Of the respondents who had been employed in the same position for more than ten years, 25% were dissatisfied with their jobs overall. Concerning the different departments, 95% of front-office employees but only 67% of housekeeping staff were satisfied with their jobs overall. The majority of managerial staff (93%) and line employees (77%) were satisfied with their jobs overall. Between 75% and 85% of respondents from all four hotels indicated that they were satisfied with their jobs overall.

To test the correlation between overall job satisfaction and each of the biographical variables (objective three), Fischer's (1945) exact test for categorical data was chosen and conducted at a significance level of 0.05. The p-value indicates the probability that a test statistic is significantly different from the null hypothesis. The following hypothesis was formulated in this regard:

Hypothesis 1:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between each of the biographic variables (race, educational level, hospitality qualification, number of dependants, marital status, gender, age, language, working hours, employment relationship, tenure, seniority, department of employment, status level and hotel of employment) and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

If a p-value of less than 0.05 was calculated, the null hypothesis was rejected. Of all the biographic variables, a significant relationship was only found between overall job satisfaction and having a hospitality-related qualification ($p = 0.0120$), as can be seen in Table 7. The conclusion that can be drawn from this finding is that employees with a hospitality-related qualification experienced a higher level of overall job satisfaction when compared to employees without a hospitality-related qualification. The null hypothesis was not rejected for any of the other biographic variables, indicating that these variables did not have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

5.5 Dimensions of job satisfaction

Three dimensions of job satisfaction were identified through the literature review in Chapter 3, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:406-407).

Six objectives were formulated for these three dimensions:

- Objective four: To determine which of the internal job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.
- Objective five: To determine the degree to which the internal job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.
- Objective six: To determine which of the external job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.
- Objective seven: To determine the degree to which the external job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.
- Objective eight: To determine which of the individual job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.
- Objective nine: To determine the degree to which the individual job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

5.5.1 Dimension 1: Internal job satisfaction

The variables associated with internal job satisfaction are closely linked to the type of job performed. Satisfaction with these variables is very difficult to change without leaving the job (Drafke, 2009:407). The correlation between each of the following 13 internal job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction was tested (objective four), as was the degree to which the internal job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction (objective five):

-
- IT1: Training for daily tasks (Question 1);
 - IT2: Physical work (Question 28);
 - IT3: Job variety (Question 29);
 - IT4: Autonomy (Question 30);
 - IT5: Goal determination (Question 31);
 - IT6: Feedback (Question 32);
 - IT7: Recognition (Question 33);
 - IT8: Authority (Question 34);
 - IT9: Creativity (Question 35);
 - IT10: Workload (Question 36);
 - IT11: Independence (Question 38);
 - IT12: Emotional dissonance (Question 42); and
 - IT13: Customer satisfaction and participation (Question 48).

The individual job satisfaction variables were distributed among five categories (Strongly disagree=1, Disagree=2, Neither=3, Agree=4, and Strongly agree=5). Respondents who indicated that they strongly disagreed with a specific statement were regarded as being highly dissatisfied with that internal job satisfaction variable. Likewise, when respondents disagreed with the statement, they were regarded as being dissatisfied with the variable. When respondents answered “Neither”, they were regarded as being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the job satisfaction variable. When respondents answered “Agree”, they were regarded as being satisfied, and when they answered “Strongly agree” they were regarded as being very satisfied with the job satisfaction variable. For each of the internal job satisfaction variables, at least one respondent selected the minimum value of one and at least one the maximum value of five, as depicted in Table 8. Table 8 depicts the distribution of respondents’ answers to each individual job satisfaction variable, as well as the medians and correlation analysis.

Table 8: Internal job satisfaction statistical analysis

Variable	Sample	Level of satisfaction					Variable satisfaction median			Correlation	
	N	1	2	3	4	5	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	Correlation coefficient (r)	Significance (p-value)
IT1	122	8%	19%	12%	48%	13%	4	2	4	-0.0112	0.9050
IT2	119	1%	2%	6%	64%	27%	4	4	5	0.0297	0.7524
IT3	116	2%	5%	8%	64%	21%	4	4	4	0.1654	0.0813
IT4	121	3%	9%	9%	51%	28%	4	4	5	0.1611	0.0828
IT5	117	9%	10%	15%	45%	21%	4	3	4	0.3548	0.0001*
IT6	119	12%	16%	14%	41%	17%	4	2	4	0.3658	<.0001*
IT7	119	15%	12%	15%	45%	13%	4	2	4	0.2809	0.0024*
IT8	120	7%	5%	13%	57%	18%	4	3.5	4	0.0024	0.0068*
IT9	120	9%	9%	17%	48%	17%	4	3	4	0.2543	0.0059*
IT10	117	1%	10%	14%	59%	16%	4	4	4	0.0841	0.3761
IT11	119	2%	5%	6%	57%	30%	4	4	5	0.0764	0.4171
IT12	117	14%	22%	21%	35%	8%	3	2	4	0.0091	0.9237
IT13	119	2%	7%	7%	61%	23%	4	4	4	0.1938	0.0379*

* indicates a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$)*

The respondents' level of satisfaction with the variables will now be discussed. It is evident from Table 8 that 57% of respondents were satisfied with internal job satisfaction variable IT11 and a further 30% were very satisfied. Respondents were also satisfied (61%) and very satisfied (23%) with IT13. With regard to IT2, 64% of respondents were satisfied and 27% very satisfied with the internal job satisfaction variable. The variable with the least number of very satisfied respondents was IT12 (8%).

The variables' satisfaction medians of responses will now be discussed. Table 8 shows that a median of four was calculated for all the variables, with the exception of variable IT12, for which a median of three was calculated. The lower quartile was the lowest (value of two) for variables IT1, IT6, IT7 and IT12. The highest upper quartile value of five was calculated for IT2, IT4 and IT11. A median of four and an IQR of four to five were calculated for IT2, IT4 and IT11.

A Spearman (1904) correlation analysis was carried out to determine the correlation between each job satisfaction variable and overall job satisfaction. A significance level of 0.05 was selected. The r-value was used to indicate both the strength and direction of the relationship between variables. If r is close to one, a strong positive correlation is implied (i.e. as the job satisfaction variable increases, so will overall job satisfaction; and as the job satisfaction variable decreases, so will overall job satisfaction). If r is close to zero, a weak correlation is implied, while if r is close to minus one, a strong negative correlation is implied (i.e. as the job satisfaction variable decreases, so will overall job satisfaction; and as the job satisfaction variable increases, so will overall job satisfaction). Chang (2012) states that, he has not been able to find a calculation for either the sample size or the power for Spearman's (1904) correlation.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether the three job satisfaction dimensions would predict overall job satisfaction experienced by five-star hotel employees in the Western Cape. There are "rules-of-thumb" available in the literature to calculate an adequate sample size for regression analysis. According to Miles and Shevlin (2011:119), these rules of thumb lack generality and may mislead, because they do not take into

account the effect size or power of the test. The authors state that due to the problems with the rules of thumb, power analysis is the preferred option.

The sample size in this study was 124 respondents (refer to section 5.2). Considering that the sample size of 124 respondents is less than the rules of thumb (Miles & Shevlin, 2011:119), the researcher did a post-hoc test using the computer program GPower by Faul and Erdfelder (1992) to determine the power of each job satisfaction dimension. Underpowered studies may not yield useful results (Wilson Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007:43). "Power is the probability of finding a result given that the effect does exist in the population" (Miles & Shevlin, 2011:120). Stated otherwise, statistical power is the percentage or number that indicates the probability that a study will attain a statistically significant effect (BusinessDictionary.com). By convention (Cohen cited in Miles & Shevlin, 2011:121), power is set to 0.80. By feeding the effect size, the α , the sample size and the number of predictors or variables into the multiple regression post-hoc test set on accuracy mode in GPower (Faul & Erdfelder, 1992), a statistical power for each job satisfaction dimension was calculated. In multiple regression the R^2 represents the effect size.

Null hypothesis two was formulated in accordance with research objective four, i.e. to determine which of the internal job satisfaction variables had a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 2:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between any of the internal job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

The null hypothesis was rejected for internal job satisfaction variables IT5, IT6, IT7, IT8, IT9 and IT13, since correlation p-values of less than 0.5 were calculated for all these variables. This means that these six internal job satisfaction variables had significant correlations with overall job satisfaction – the correlations were all positive, but relatively weak. The internal job satisfaction variable with the strongest correlation with overall job satisfaction was

internal job satisfaction variable IT6 ($r = 0.3658$). The null hypothesis was not rejected for the other seven internal job satisfaction variables tested.

In order to determine the degree to which the internal job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape (research objective five), null hypothesis three was formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 3:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

The internal job satisfaction dimension does not predict overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

A full regression model was run for the dependent variable (overall job satisfaction), and the model regressed the internal job satisfaction variables against overall job satisfaction. An R^2 of 0.3997 was calculated for the internal job satisfaction variables, meaning that the internal job satisfaction dimension predicted only 39.97% of the overall job satisfaction. This finding suggests that 60.03% of overall job satisfaction was predicted by internal job satisfaction variables not considered in this study.

Faul and Erdfelder's (1992) GPower computer program was used to feed in the following values: $R^2 = 0.3997$; $\alpha = 0.05$; total sample size = 98; and predictors = 13. The statistical power of 0.9888 was calculated, which indicates a 98.88% probability that the finding exists in the population.

5.5.2 Dimension 2: External job satisfaction

It is easier for employers to change external job satisfaction variables than internal job satisfaction variables (Drafke, 2009:409). The correlation between each of the following 29 external job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction was tested (objective six), as was the degree to which the external job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction (objective seven):

-
- EX1: Role ambiguity (Question 2);
 - EX2: Role conflict (Question 3);
 - EX3: Task identity (Question 4);
 - EX4: Opportunity for advancement (Question 5);
 - EX5: Job security (Question 6);
 - EX6: Health and safety in the work environment (Question 7);
 - EX7: Social interactions (Question 8);
 - EX8: Relationship with co-workers (Question 9);
 - EX9: Relationship with supervisor (Question 10);
 - EX10: Quality of supervision (Question 11);
 - EX11: Fairness of supervisor (Question 12);
 - EX12: Supervisor support (Question 13);
 - EX13: Management style: supervisor including employee in decision making (Question 14);
 - EX14: Management style: supervisor adapting to different situations (Question 15);
 - EX15: Management style: supervisor focussing on employee development (Question 16);
 - EX16: Trust in leadership (Question 17);
 - EX17: Organisational culture (Question 18);
 - EX18: Wellness opportunities (Question 19);
 - EX19: Work schedule (Question 20);
 - EX20: Compensation (Question 21);
 - EX21: Benefit packages: fringe benefits (Question 22);
 - EX22: Benefit packages: benefits other than medical aid and pension (Question 23);
 - EX23: Company policies and practices (Question 24);
 - EX24: Social service (Question 25);
 - EX25: Location of the business (Question 26);
 - EX26: Department of employment (Question 27);
 - EX27: Achievement (Question 37);
 - EX28: Equipment in good condition: availability of tools and equipment (Question 40); and
 - EX29: Equipment in good condition: condition of tools and equipment (Question 41).

The external job satisfaction variables consisted of five categories (Strongly disagree=1, Disagree=2, Neither=3, Agree=4, and Strongly agree=5). These categories were reported in terms of satisfaction in the same manner as for the internal job satisfaction dimension. For

each of the external job satisfaction variables, at least one respondent selected the minimum value of one and at least one selected the maximum value of five, as depicted in Table 9. Table 9 illustrates the distribution of respondents' answers to each variable, as well as the medians and correlation analysis

Table 9: External job satisfaction statistical analysis

Variable	Sample	Level of satisfaction					Variable satisfaction median			Correlation	
	N	1	2	3	4	5	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	Correlation coefficient (r)	Significance (p-value)
EX1	122	2%	2%	2%	56%	38%	4	4	5	0.0232	0.8040
EX2	114	3%	15%	10%	55%	17%	4	3	4	0.2210	0.0203*
EX3	117	3%	3%	3%	61%	30%	4	4	5	0.1494	0.1143
EX4	116	7%	13%	20%	44%	16%	4	3	4	0.2871	0.0021*
EX5	120	3%	7%	21%	57%	12%	4	3	4	0.2194	0.0185*
EX6	122	7%	10%	9%	53%	21%	4	3	4	0.2591	0.0048*
EX7	115	2%	16%	12%	51%	19%	4	3	4	0.2010	0.0336*
EX8	118	2%	2%	13%	55%	28%	4	4	5	0.0728	0.4412
EX9	121	2%	4%	7%	62%	25%	4	4	4	0.2866	0.0018*
EX10	120	2%	6%	10%	63%	19%	4	4	4	0.2347	0.0116*
EX11	119	6%	6%	11%	57%	20%	4	4	4	0.2781	0.0027*
EX12	120	3%	7%	9%	57%	24%	4	4	4	0.2113	0.0234*
EX13	122	5%	7%	10%	55%	23%	4	4	4	0.2195	0.0174*
EX14	120	3%	4%	8%	63%	22%	4	4	4	0.1269	0.1726
EX15	119	8%	14%	18%	42%	18%	4	3	4	0.2333	0.0117*

Variable	Sample	Level of satisfaction					Variable satisfaction median			Correlation	
	N	1	2	3	4	5	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	Correlation coefficient (r)	Significance (p-value)
EX16	116	2%	8%	5%	57%	28%	4	4	5	0.2033	0.0316*
EX17	109	4%	13%	16%	61%	6%	4	3	4	0.3254	0.0006*
EX18	111	27%	24%	22%	23%	4%	2	1	4	0.2307	0.0163*
EX19	112	2%	11%	14%	59%	14%	4	3	4	0.1192	0.2170
EX20	119	24%	25%	13%	31%	7%	3	2	4	0.1765	0.0581
EX21	109	13%	22%	30%	31%	4%	3	2	4	0.1697	0.0820
EX22	116	24%	21%	30%	22%	3%	3	2	3.5	0.2057	0.0296*
EX23	116	9%	17%	28%	41%	5%	3	2	4	0.2398	0.0109*
EX24	117	3%	3%	7%	71%	16%	4	4	4	0.1312	0.1659
EX25	117	6%	6%	10%	54%	24%	4	4	4	0.0834	0.3796
EX26	117	4%	2%	6%	61%	27%	4	4	5	0.2932	0.0015*
EX27	119	2%	8%	5%	67%	18%	4	4	4	0.1264	0.1781
EX28	119	6%	23%	10%	47%	14%	4	2	4	0.0697	0.4592
EX29	115	10%	21%	12%	46%	11%	4	2	4	0.2315	0.0145*

* indicates a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$)

Respondents' level of satisfaction with the variables will now be discussed. It is evident from Table 9 that 56% of respondents were satisfied with EX1 and a further 38% were very satisfied. Respondents were also satisfied (61%) and very satisfied (30%) with EX3. With regard to EX26, 61% of respondents were satisfied and 27% very satisfied with the external job satisfaction variable. The variable with the least number of very satisfied respondents was EX22 (3%).

The variables' satisfaction medians of responses will now be discussed. All the variables had a median of four, with the exception of variable EX18, which had a median of two, and variables EX20, EX21, EX22 and EX23, which had medians of three. The lower quartile was the lowest for variable EX18, for which a lower quartile value of one was calculated. The highest upper quartile value of five was calculated for EX1, EX3, EX8, EX16 and EX26. For these five variables, a median of four and an IQR of four to five were calculated.

Null hypothesis four was formulated in accordance with research objective six, i.e. to determine which of the external job satisfaction variables had a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 4:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between any of the external job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

The null hypothesis was rejected for 18 of the external job satisfaction variables, as depicted in Table 9, since correlation p-values of less than 0.5 were calculated for all these variables. This means that all these external job satisfaction variables had significant correlations with overall job satisfaction. All the external job satisfaction variables had positive correlations with overall job satisfaction, but the correlations were all weak. The external job satisfaction variables with the strongest correlations with overall job satisfaction were EX17 ($r = 0.3254$), EX26 ($r = 0.2932$), EX9 ($r = 0.2866$) and EX4 ($r = 0.2871$).

In order to determine the degree to which the external job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape (research objective seven), null hypothesis five was formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 5:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

The external job satisfaction dimension does not predict overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

A full regression model was run for the dependent variable (overall job satisfaction), and the model regressed the external job satisfaction variables against overall job satisfaction. An R^2 of 0.6688 was calculated for the external job satisfaction dimension, meaning that the dimension predicted 66.88% of the overall job satisfaction. This finding suggests that 33.12% of overall job satisfaction was predicted by external job satisfaction variables not considered in this study.

Faul and Erdfelder's (1992) GPower computer program was used to feed in the following values: $R^2 = 0.6688$; $\alpha = 0.05$; total sample size = 64; and predictors = 29. The statistical power of 0.8415 was calculated, which indicates an 84.15% probability that the finding exists in the population.

5.5.3 Dimension 3: Individual job satisfaction

Individual job satisfaction variables mainly concern the employee's network of friends and his or her family. Many of these variables consist of opinions (Drafke, 2009:415-416). Other individual variables are facts related to the physical person. The correlation between each of the following 32 individual job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction was tested (objective eight), as was the degree to which the individual job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction (objective nine):

ID1: Moral values (Question 39);

ID2: Commitment (Question 43);

ID3: Expectations (Question 44);

-
- ID4: Comparison of jobs (Question 45);
- ID5: Effort and reward ratio (Question 46);
- ID6: Opinions of others (Question 47);
- ID7: Job involvement (Question 49);
- ID8: Educational level: getting the chance to do the work that you do best (Question 50);
- ID9: Influence of co-workers (Question 51);
- ID10: Personal outlook or frame of reference (Question 52);
- ID11: EI: Recognising emotions and their effects (Question 53);
- ID12: EI: Ability to keep troublesome emotions in check (Question 54);
- ID13: EI: Ability to handle change (Question 55);
- ID14: EI: Striving to meet standards of excellence (Question 56);
- ID15: EI: Seeing the positive side of things and the future (Question 57);
- ID16: EI: Sensing others' feelings and taking an active interest in their concerns (Question 58);
- ID17: EI: Ability to read a group's emotional currents and power relationships (Question 59);
- ID18: EI: Sensing others' development needs and encouraging their abilities (Question 60);
- ID19: EI: Ability to inspire and guide people (Question 61);
- ID20: EI: Ability to influence people (Question 62);
- ID21: EI: Ability to negotiate and resolve conflict (Question 63);
- ID22: EI: Ability to work with others to accomplish shared goals (Question 64);
- ID23: Personality: not being reserved (Question 65);
- ID24: Personality: being generally trusting (Question 66);
- ID25: Personality: not tending to be lazy (Question 67);
- ID26: Personality: being relaxed and handling stress well (Question 68);
- ID27: Personality: having artistic interests (Question 69);
- ID28: Personality: being outgoing and sociable (Question 70);
- ID29: Personality: not tending to find fault with others (Question 71);
- ID30: Personality: doing a thorough job (Question 72);
- ID31: Personality: not getting nervous easily (Question 73); and
- ID32: Personality: having an active imagination (Question 74).

The individual job satisfaction variables had five categories (Strongly disagree=1, Disagree=2, Neither=3, Agree=4, and Strongly agree=5). These categories were reported in terms of satisfaction in the same manner as for the other job satisfaction dimensions. For each of the individual job satisfaction variables, at least one respondent selected the minimum value of one and at least one selected the maximum value of five, as depicted in Table 10. ID15, ID17 and ID21 were the only three variables where the lowest selected category was two. Table 10 depicts the distribution of respondents' answers to each variable, as well as the medians and correlation analysis.

Table 10: Individual job satisfaction statistical analysis

Variable	Sample	Level of satisfaction					Variable satisfaction median			Correlation	
	N	1	2	3	4	5	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	Correlation coefficient (r)	Significance (p-value)
ID1	117	5%	4%	4%	59%	28%	4	4	5	0.0790	0.4033
ID2	116	4%	3%	5%	61%	27%	4	4	5	0.3560	0.0001*
ID3	119	10%	15%	19%	41%	15%	4	2	4	0.5231	<.0001*
ID4	118	9%	23%	30%	31%	7%	3	2	4	0.2989	0.0012*
ID5	117	17%	24%	22%	28%	9%	3	2	4	0.3965	<.0001*
ID6	112	3%	19%	33%	41%	4%	3	3	4	0.2316	0.0154*
ID7	119	2%	5%	13%	60%	20%	4	4	4	0.4080	<.0001*
ID8	121	1%	6%	6%	62%	25%	4	4	4	0.1398	0.1329
ID9	117	3%	10%	25%	54%	8%	4	3	4	0.2477	0.0082*
ID10	120	2%	7%	22%	52%	17%	4	3	4	0.1816	0.0511
ID11	117	2%	2%	13%	66%	17%	4	4	4	0.0720	0.4485
ID12	119	1%	9%	9%	63%	18%	4	4	4	0.3186	0.0005*
ID13	123	2%	0%	6%	68%	24%	4	4	4	0.1660	0.0711
ID14	121	2%	0%	1%	61%	36%	4	4	5	0.1715	0.0645
ID15	121	0%	7%	3%	58%	32%	4	4	5	0.3652	<.0001*

	Sample	Level of satisfaction					Variable satisfaction median			Correlation	
Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5	Value	Lower quartile	Upper quartile	Correlation coefficient (r)	Significance (p-value)
ID16	119	2%	2%	8%	64%	24%	4	4	4	0.2401	0.0098*
ID17	121	0%	5%	14%	64%	17%	4	4	4	0.1583	0.0883*
ID18	117	2%	2%	8%	74%	14%	4	4	4	0.1703	0.0700
ID19	121	1%	5%	5%	65%	24%	4	4	4	0.2084	0.0236*
ID20	117	12%	10%	9%	58%	11%	4	3	4	0.0184	0.8468
ID21	119	0%	3%	7%	67%	23%	4	4	4	0.1262	0.1771
ID22	122	1%	2%	5%	59%	33%	4	4	5	-0.0164	0.8603
ID23	117	14%	54%	14%	13%	5%	2	2	3	0.0743	0.4340
ID24	122	2%	5%	3%	52%	38%	4	4	5	0.1773	0.0547
ID25	120	4%	11%	4%	32%	49%	4	4	5	-0.0802	0.3920
ID26	119	3%	5%	22%	55%	15%	4	3	4	0.0727	0.4383
ID27	119	10%	41%	23%	18%	8%	2	2	4	-0.0597	0.5244
ID28	118	3%	14%	14%	44%	25%	4	3	5	0.0217	0.8171
ID29	115	4%	18%	25%	30%	23%	4	3	4	-0.1741	0.0651
ID30	119	1%	4%	2%	64%	29%	4	4	5	0.1844	0.0475*
ID31	118	4%	20%	17%	41%	18%	4	3	4	-0.2540	0.0059*
ID32	118	3%	2%	13%	60%	22%	4	4	4	0.0142	0.8800

* indicates a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$)

Respondents' level of satisfaction with the variables will now be discussed. It is evident from Table 10 that 61% of respondents were satisfied with ID14 and a further 36% were very satisfied. Respondents were also satisfied (64%) and very satisfied (29%) with ID30. The variable with the least number of satisfied respondents was ID6 (4%).

The variables' satisfaction medians of responses will now be discussed. All the variables had a median of four, with the exception of variables ID4, ID5 and ID6, which had a median of three, and variables ID23 and ID27, which had a median of two. The lower quartile was the lowest for variables ID3, ID4, ID5, ID23 and ID27, with a value of two. The highest upper quartile value of five was calculated for ID1, ID2, ID14, ID15, ID22, ID24, ID25, ID28 and ID30. For variables ID1, ID2, ID14, ID15, ID22, ID24, ID25 and ID30, a median of four and IQR of four to five were calculated.

Null hypothesis six was formulated in accordance with research objective eight, i.e. to determine which of the individual job satisfaction variables had a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 6:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

There is no significant correlation between any of the individual job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

The null hypothesis was rejected for 14 of the individual job satisfaction variables, as depicted in Table 10, since correlation p-values of less than 0.5 were calculated for all these variables. All the individual job satisfaction variables with significant correlations with overall job satisfaction had positive correlations with overall job satisfaction, with the exception of ID31. The individual job satisfaction variables with the strongest correlations with overall job satisfaction were ID3 ($r = 0.5231$), ID7 ($r = 0.4080$) and ID5 ($r = 0.3965$).

In order to determine the degree to which the individual job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape (research objective nine), null hypothesis seven was formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 7:

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

The individual job satisfaction dimension does not predict overall job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

A full regression model was run for the dependent variable (overall job satisfaction), and the model regressed the individual job satisfaction variables against overall job satisfaction. An R^2 of 0.7982 was calculated for the individual job satisfaction dimension – the dimension thus predicted 79.82% of the overall job satisfaction. This finding suggests that 20.18% of overall job satisfaction was predicted by individual job satisfaction variables not considered in this study.

Faul and Erdfelder's (1992) GPower computer program was used to feed in the following values: $R^2 = 0.7987$; $\alpha = 0.05$; total sample size = 76; and predictors = 32. The statistical power of 0.9667 was calculated, which indicates a 96.67% probability that the finding exists in the population.

5.6 Summary

Research objectives two through nine were addressed in this chapter. A Cronbach α coefficient of 0.9356 was calculated for the three job satisfaction dimensions (questions 1 to 74), which indicates a reliable questionnaire. In the four hotels participating in the study a response rate of 33% was achieved, which is not uncommon for a hospitality-related study. By testing a number of hypotheses through different statistical formulae, a clearer picture of job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape was formed. Of all the biographic variables, a significant relationship was only calculated between overall job satisfaction and having a hospitality related qualification. The correlation between each job satisfaction variable and overall job satisfaction was tested, and of the 74 job satisfaction

variables, it was found that six internal, 18 external and 14 individual job satisfaction variables had significant correlations with overall job satisfaction. It is important not to stop here, but to compare the findings of the current research with previous studies and to draw conclusions that are relevant and useful. A discussion of the results follows in the subsequent chapter.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

"A new word is like a fresh seed sown on the ground of the discussion."

Ludwig Wittgenstein (2012)

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the prominent findings of the study and to make references to relevant research. The discussion is based on the correlations between each of the biographic, internal, external and individual job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction, as listed in Chapter 5. The degree to which each job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction is also discussed. Findings are elaborated on, with contradicting as well as supporting literature. Recommendations to improve job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape are made.

6.2 Discussion of biographic results

The correlations between biographic variables and overall job satisfaction will be discussed first, followed by recommendations for managers regarding these variables.

6.2.1 Discussion and comparison with other studies

Table 7 (biographic variables and their relationship with overall job satisfaction) indicates that a significant relationship was only calculated between overall job satisfaction and having a hospitality-related qualification. Employees with a *hospitality-related qualification* experienced a higher level of overall job satisfaction than employees without such a qualification. One reason for this finding could be that employees have more self-confidence when entering the workplace and this gives them satisfaction in being equipped and able to do the job. This finding is in line with the finding of Bender and Heywood (2006:266) that PhD-level scientists claiming to have a current job closely related to their

qualification reported a higher level of satisfaction than scientists whose current job was not related to their qualification.

Race, educational level, number of dependants, marital status, gender, age, language, working hours, employment relationship, tenure, seniority, department of employment, status level and hotel of employment did not have a significant relationship with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape. Tang (2007:382) found that *married* personnel managers attending professional seminars experienced higher job satisfaction than their unmarried counterparts. However, Chou and Robert (2008:215) and Bucheli *et al.* (2010:8) conducted job satisfaction research on international multidisciplinary samples and found no significant difference between the job satisfaction levels of married, divorced or single employees. Liu and White (2011:59), who conducted a study on the job satisfaction levels of hospital pharmacy employees in Australia, and Chou and Robert (2008:215), whose study focused on direct care workers, found *gender* to have no effect on job satisfaction. Schroder (2008:238) found no significant difference in terms of job satisfaction among employees with *different periods of employment* at a university. A *higher job or status level* was found to result in a higher level of job satisfaction amongst healthcare staff in Hungary (Piko, 2006:315) and registered nurses in Greece (Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49), which contradicts the current findings.

6.2.2 Recommendations for hotel managers

It can be concluded that the only biographic variable that managers must consider in the selection process in order to ensure job satisfaction is whether the prospective employee has a hospitality-related qualification. For the same reason, it could be beneficial for five-star hotels to encourage employees to enrol for hospitality qualifications whilst working at their establishments. By offering bursaries and scholarships to employees, thus allowing them to earn the necessary qualifications, hotels would benefit from increased job satisfaction. Such hospitality-related qualifications do not necessarily have to be tertiary degrees, but could also include certificates, diplomas and short courses (such as bread-baking and sommelier courses) from accredited institutions.

Employers are increasing conscious of the value for money from their investments in training. Hotel managers could motivate to employers that providing opportunities to employees to further their education could lead to loyal employees and happy guests. Improving the quality of employees in the tourism sector is one of the actions the NTSS aims to address (NDT, 2011:41). The investment in quality education and skills development as well as the creation of decent work on a large scale are at the centre of the South African government's electoral mandate for 2009 to 2014 (The Presidency SA, 2009:2).

6.3 Discussion of internal job satisfaction results

The variables associated with internal job satisfaction are closely linked to the job performed by employees. According to Drafke (2009:407), satisfaction with these variables is very difficult to change without leaving the job. Findings on the internal job satisfaction variables and their correlations with overall job satisfaction will be discussed next. Recommendations are also made with regard to ways in which the managers of five-star hotels can improve internal job satisfaction among their employees.

6.3.1 Discussion and comparison with other studies

Table 8 (internal job satisfaction statistical analysis) indicates that for six of the internal job satisfaction variables, significant positive correlations with overall job satisfaction were calculated. These variables were feedback, recognition, creativity, goal determination, authority, and customer satisfaction. *Feedback* was found to have a correlation with job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976:256). For example, feedback provided to nursing-home employees (Karsh *et al.*, 2005:1270) and police officers (Miller *et al.*, 2009:422) correlated with job satisfaction. In relation to feedback, Liu and White (2011:60) found *recognition* to be important in predicting job satisfaction amongst hospital pharmacy employees in Australia. Weiss *et al.* (1967:2) and Smith *et al.* (1969:83) had similar findings with regard to employees from diverse professions.

Specific results can be obtained from utilising an employee's *creative potential*, one of which is improved job satisfaction (DiLiello & Houghton, 2008:43-44; Mostafa, 2005:10; Smith *et al.*, 1969:83). Smith *et al.* (1969:83) who researched 988 employees from different

companies, Mostafa (2005:10) whose sample was Egyptian business managers, and DiLiello and Houghton (2008:43-44) who studied a US Army contracting agency, all found creativity to lead to increased job satisfaction. One method to improve creativity is to afford employees the *freedom to set their own goals*, since determining and achieving goals can lead to increased job satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:408), but only if the employee cares about achieving goals and his or her progress in this regard (Lent & Brown, 2006:239).

Weiss *et al.* (1967:1) and Ahmed *et al.* (2010:71) also found that increased *authority* improves job satisfaction. According to Malliarou *et al.* (2010:49), positional authority promotes higher self-worth and consequently job satisfaction.

The last internal job satisfaction variable with a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction was customer satisfaction. Ryan *et al.* (1996:875) found that *customer satisfaction* leads to employee satisfaction, more so than the reverse, and theorised that this finding would be most prevalent in service industry jobs where contact with customers outweighs contact with peers and managers (Ryan *et al.*, 1996:875).

For the seven other internal job satisfaction variables tested, no significant correlations with overall job satisfaction were calculated, as indicated in Table 8. The variables with the least significant correlation with overall job satisfaction were the physical work, training for daily tasks, emotional dissonance, and independence. The findings of some researchers contradict this, however. Drafke (2009:407) stated that the *work itself* is the most important factor in job satisfaction, but without basing his statement on empirical tests. Schmidt (2007:492) found a significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with *job training* among technical and customer service employees in nine organisations in the United States and Canada, stating that training involving face-to-face interaction with an instructor was significantly preferred over solitary-type training. It is possible that the training given to the five-star hotel employees in this study was of the solitary type and therefore did not have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction. Pugh *et al.* (2011:382) and Cheung and Tang (2010:3208) found that persons needing to *fake their emotions* experience low levels of job satisfaction. Employees who do not find it important to express authentic emotions when interacting with customers and

who believe in their own ability to fake their emotions will experience moderated negative effects of emotional dissonance on job satisfaction, according to Pugh *et al.* (2011:384-385). Contrary to the findings of this study, the chance to *work independently* was been found to improve job satisfaction among nursing-home employees (Karsh *et al.*, 2005:1270) and African American counsellors (Jones *et al.*, 2009:155).

6.3.2 Recommendations for hotel managers

Although the researcher recognises that internal job satisfaction variables are difficult to alter, there are some approaches that could be followed to improve job satisfaction. For example, managers of five-star hotels could focus on giving regular feedback and recognition to employees. Implementing systems with regular *feedback* may be a simple and effective method of improving job satisfaction. Managers could consider weekly feedback sessions for all levels of staff in an effort to clarify any obscurities in the minds of employees and give them a sense of direction. This might let employees know in which areas of their job they are performing well and which areas require attention. Managers could also use the feedback sessions to give *recognition* where due and to allow employees to *set their own goals* in accordance with company goals, with constant assessment of the progress being made in this regard (Liu & White, 2011:61). Access to goal-relevant resources could also be offered to employees (Lent & Brown, 2006:242). Giving employees meaningful and challenging work projects that enable progress towards achieving long-term goals, as well as creativity and innovation, are methods of improving Maslow's (1943) stated self-actualisation need (Envision Software Inc., 2009a). Going hand-in-hand with goal determination, managers could encourage employees to be *creative* in their problem solving and everyday tasks, as this will lead to a win-win situation of having a more satisfied workforce, as well as a more innovative hotel (Hsieh, 2010:166). This having been said, an essential element in promoting creativity is the tolerance of mistakes (Mostafa, 2005:24).

Authority is more difficult to give to all levels of employees. Ways of increasing authority include setting employee rosters with rotating team leaders, thus affording each employee the opportunity to act in an authoritative role. Offering promotional opportunities where employees can work themselves up in the hotel by applying for internal positions could also

give employees the chance to increase their positional authority (Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49). Improved *customer satisfaction* may improve overall job satisfaction, which is another reason to ensure that customers are satisfied. This might be due to customer satisfaction being seen as an indicator of business success (Ryan *et al.*, 1996:875). Compensation based on customer satisfaction may improve job satisfaction, according to Bulgarella (2005). Managers could for example, offer a reward for each waiter who receives positive feedback on a completed comment card (which could be placed in the bill folder).

6.4 Discussion of external job satisfaction results

It is easier for employers to change external job satisfaction variables than internal job satisfaction variables (Drafke, 2009:409). Findings on the correlation of external job satisfaction variables with overall job satisfaction will now be discussed, as will recommendations made to managers regarding these variables.

6.4.1 Discussion and comparison with other studies

Table 9 (external job satisfaction statistical analysis) indicates that for 18 of the external job satisfaction variables, significant positive correlations with overall job satisfaction were calculated. The external job satisfaction variables with the strongest correlations with overall job satisfaction were organisational culture, department of employment, relationship with supervisor, and opportunity for advancement. *Organisational culture* has been found to influence job satisfaction in previous studies (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010; Egan *et al.*, 2004:280). According to Organizationalculture (2007), a healthy organisational culture is beneficial to all levels of employees in all departments. Collins (cited in Hsieh, 2010:184) and Logan, King and Fischer-Wright (cited in Hsieh, 2010:184) found a strong company culture to be one of the most important things separating good companies from great ones.

There have been contradictory findings in the literature regarding the influence of the *department of employment* on overall job satisfaction. Zhao and Namasivayam (2012:5) found the department to have no significant effect on job satisfaction among hotel employees in China, which might be due to all the employees being in similar working

situations. The current research findings correlate with those of Lee and Way (2010:350), who found a correlation between employees' level of satisfaction with the department of employment and overall job satisfaction. The current findings also correlate with previous research findings to the effect that a good *employee-supervisor relationship* has a substantially positive effect on job satisfaction (Harris *et al.*, 2009:377; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004:374; Smith *et al.* 1969:83; Weiss *et al.*, 1967:2). Janssen and Van Yperen (2004:379) suggested that this correlation might be due to employees being more effective and innovative when they have a good relationship with their supervisor.

Lee and Way (2010:351) found hospitality management employees to place great importance, in terms of their job satisfaction, on *opportunity to advance* to executive management positions. Promotional opportunities have been found to have a positive correlation with job satisfaction among correctional staff (Lambert & Paoline, 2008:553), among registered nurses in Greece (Malliarou *et al.*, 2010:49) and among 988 employees from different companies (Smith *et al.*, 1969:83). Lambert and Paoline (2008:557) stated that the correlation between promotional opportunities and job satisfaction makes sense given that many people want to have a career rather than just perform a job. Malliarou *et al.* (2010:49) postulated that promotional opportunities lead to increased authority, public recognition and pay, which ultimately result in increased job satisfaction.

Eleven of the external job satisfaction variables had no significant relationship with overall job satisfaction, as indicated in Table 9. The four external job satisfaction variables with the least significant correlation with overall job satisfaction were role ambiguity, relationship with co-workers, location of business, and availability of tools and equipment. Literature contradicting these findings includes Karsh *et al.* (2005:1270), who found *role ambiguity* to be strongly related to job satisfaction among nursing-home employees. In a study conducted by Lambrou *et al.* (2010:3), *relationship with co-workers* was found to have a marked influence on job satisfaction. Sharp (2008:376) calculated a low correlation between relationship with co-workers and job satisfaction, similar to the current study. Lee and Way (2010:350) found hospitality employees' satisfaction with the *location of the business* to have a considerable relationship with their overall job satisfaction. Contrary to this study, Lee and Way (2010:352) found that the location of the hotel might influence job

satisfaction through the hotel employees' perception of the location. *Availability of tools and equipment available* has been found to correlate with job satisfaction (Chimanikire *et al.*, 2007:172; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983:597-598).

6.4.2 Recommendations for hotel managers

Concerning external job satisfaction variables, managers can consider the following points in the effort to improve job satisfaction.

A healthy *organisational culture* has been noted as important in the pursuit of a satisfied workforce. A company's climate requires total involvement and commitment from top management (Mostafa, 2005:24). To ensure a healthy company culture, managers could state a clearly defined purpose for the company, be realistic and adaptable, and encourage a sense of service from the employees to the company itself (Organizationalculture, 2007). Drafke (2009:413) suggested that employees' personal needs be matched to a company with a culture capable of meeting those needs. An interesting perspective on the value of organisational culture, as well as the implementation strategies thereof, is presented by Hsieh (2010), who suggested that every organisation should develop a "culture book". Such a culture book is developed with input from all stakeholders, who are given the opportunity to express their views of the company culture, after which the book is made public and given to new employees to read.

Lee and Way (2010:352) recommended inspecting each *department* and developing a customised improvement agenda focusing on the employment characteristics of employees in that department. Giving all new employees the opportunity to spend time in the different departments of the hotel may be a useful exercise, since employees might then be able to make informed decisions when it comes to applying for positions in other departments if they no longer feel satisfied in their current department. *Opportunity for advancement* is also an important external job satisfaction variable in terms of job satisfaction. Hotels could give existing employees the opportunity to apply for positions before they are advertised publically. Lee and Way (2010:352) suggested providing opportunities for career development and incentives to challenge employees to advance from their current positions. Having a development programme in place for employees may

work wonders if the hotel is large enough to accommodate it or if the hotel forms part of a corporate chain. Such a programme provides in-house training, which leads to increased responsibility, as well as management and leadership skills in practice. Such a programme was found to be highly successful in an online merchandising company (Hsieh, 2010:198). By making use of a development programme, employees have no excuse for being stagnant in one position for very long and can work themselves up into managerial positions if they wish to do so.

According to Harris *et al.* (2009:379-380), in the case of employees who are not given high-level empowerment opportunities, a good *supervisor relationship* can help to compensate for some of the drawbacks of low empowerment levels and subsequently increase job satisfaction. Managers could operate with an open-door policy, creating an environment where employees feel comfortable engaging with their superiors. This may lead to an improved employee-supervisor relationship and consequently greater job satisfaction. Managers could make an effort to get to know their employees and take an interest in them as individuals, which would allow managers to develop programmes that address the social and affiliation needs of employees, resulting in positive outcomes for both the employees and the hotel (Lee & Way, 2010:352).

6.5 Discussion of individual job satisfaction results

Individual job satisfaction variables mainly concern the employee's network of friends and his or her family. Many of these variables consist of opinions (Drafke, 2009:415-416). Other individual variables are facts related to the physical person. Findings on the correlations between individual job satisfaction variables and overall job satisfaction will now be discussed, along with recommendations for managers in respect of these variables.

6.5.1 Discussion and comparison with other studies

Table 10 (individual job satisfaction statistical analysis) indicates that significant correlations with overall job satisfaction were calculated for 14 individual job satisfaction variables, with 13 positive correlations and one negative correlation. The individual job satisfaction variables with the strongest correlations with overall job satisfaction were expectations,

commitment, effort and reward ratio, job involvement, and seeing the positive side of things and the future.

If one enters an assignment with inflated *expectations*, one may experience negative disconfirmation, which will affect perceptions of the work experience and ultimately job satisfaction (Harvey *et al.*, 2007:14). Therefore, expectations should be aligned with reality – only then will an employee be able to become committed to an organisation. Drafke (2009:416) stated that job satisfaction is high when *commitment* is high. Pool and Pool (2007:366) found similar results for executives at Ashland University, as did Norris and Niebuhr (1983:56) at an accounting firm. Pool and Pool (2007:366) stated that commitment enables employees to collaborate and solve business problems as successful teams, which results in increased job satisfaction.

If employees are of the opinion that their co-workers receive more in return for the same amount of work, this will result in dissatisfaction (Drafke, 2009:417). Similarly, if people perceive their *effort to outweigh the reward*, they will become dissatisfied (Drafke, 2009:417).

Although Blood (cited in Iris & Barrett, 1972:303) stated that *job involvement* is not useful in predicting overall job satisfaction, the contrary has been found in the current study. Thus, if employees indicated that they were happy with the role their jobs played in their lives, they were satisfied with their jobs overall. A person's mindset has an influence on how he or she perceives the world and reacts to situations. Achor (2010:12, 65) stated that many studies related to *positive psychology* have been conducted over the past 20 years, confirming this theory. It cannot come as a surprise that a person with a positive outlook will be more satisfied with his or her job.

Twelve of the individual job satisfaction variables tested related to EI. "Seeing the positive side of things and the future" (one of the EI variables) was already mentioned in the previous paragraph. Although previous studies (Carmeli, 2003:807; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008:720; Sy *et al.*, 2006:466;) have found EI to influence job satisfaction, only five of the EI variables had significant correlations with overall job satisfaction in the current study. Hosseinian *et al.* (2008:905) found training in some EI components to have no effect on job

satisfaction, but this might be due to the fact that the respondents in their study had high levels of job satisfaction even prior to EI training.

Ten of the individual job satisfaction variables tested related to personality. Judge *et al.* (2008:369) and Judge *et al.* (2009:32) stated that personality has an influence on job satisfaction, but in the current study only two of the personality variables had significant correlations with overall job satisfaction, namely "doing a thorough job" and "not getting nervous easily". "Doing a thorough job" had a positive correlation with overall job satisfaction, while "not getting nervous easily" had a negative correlation with overall job satisfaction. In other words, employees who stated that they were inclined to get nervous easily were more satisfied with their jobs overall than employees who stated that they were not inclined to get nervous easily.

6.5.2 Recommendations for hotel managers

It is very difficult to alter individual job satisfaction variables. As a manager, one could focus on selecting employees with a positive attitude and a reputation for loyalty. According to Pool and Pool (2007:366), that an organisation that supports developmental programmes valuing and promoting *commitment* will reap benefits such as job satisfaction. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that prospective employees have realistic expectations of the company and the position. Harvey *et al.* (2007:21) suggested that employees be informed of the difficulties they might encounter in their position, and that *expectations should be aligned with the reality* of their tasks. Vroom (1964) advised that managers find out what type of *rewards* employees desire and that they then give individualised rewards (Pinder, 1987:81-83).

Another option when it comes to improving individual job satisfaction is to make use of the "Happiness Advantage". Employees could be encouraged to *be positive*, and the focus could be placed on positive work aspects in meetings so as to boost morale. Achor (2010) described the benefits of having a company that focuses on the positive. Seeing the positive side of things and the future is one of the EI variables. Managers could be motivated by the finding of Sy *et al.* (2006:472) that managers' EI can make a difference in the lives of employees. If managers do not have high EI levels, they could undergo EI training so as to

be able to lead employees more effectively. When *job involvement* is high, job satisfaction is high, and therefore employees could be encouraged to be more involved in work activities. Managers could schedule monthly social events for staff, providing an opportunity to become more involved at work.

6.6 Degree to which each job satisfaction dimension predicted overall job satisfaction

Due to the power of each job satisfaction dimension being more than 0.80 (refer to sections 5.5.1, 5.5.2 and 5.5.3), which is the minimum suggested statistical power for an ordinary study (Cohen cited in Wilson Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007:48), the results of the multiple regression analysis have been included in the discussion.

The internal job satisfaction dimension predicted more than 39% of overall job satisfaction. This dimension was the least significant of the three in terms of predicting overall job satisfaction. The external job satisfaction dimension predicted more than 66% of overall job satisfaction. The external job satisfaction dimension thus predicted 27% more of overall job satisfaction than the internal job satisfaction dimension. Lee and Way (2010:348) found five job satisfaction factors, comprising 17 job satisfaction attributes in total, to predict 68.89% of overall job satisfaction. Miller *et al.* (2009:423) found five job satisfaction variables (three internal and two external) to predict approximately 42% of overall job satisfaction.

The individual job satisfaction dimension predicted more than 79% of overall job satisfaction. Miller *et al.* (2009:423) found personality to predict 9% of police officers' overall job satisfaction. It is important to note, however, that personality was only part of the individual job satisfaction dimension.

6.7 Summary

The prominent findings of the study were discussed in this chapter and reference was made to relevant research. The internal job satisfaction dimension predicted 39.97% of overall job satisfaction, while the external job satisfaction dimension predicted 66.88% and the

individual job satisfaction dimension 79.82% of overall job satisfaction. The correlation between each biographic, internal, external and individual job satisfaction variable and overall job satisfaction was discussed. Recommendations to improve job satisfaction were made under each heading. The only biographic variable to be considered by managers during the selection process in terms of job satisfaction is whether the prospective employee has a hospitality-related qualification. In terms of the internal job satisfaction findings, managers could focus on providing regular feedback to employees and giving them authority. Regarding external job satisfaction, all new employees could be given the opportunity to spend time in the different departments of the hotel. Hotels could also give employees the opportunity to apply for positions before they are advertised to the public. Since it is very difficult to alter individual job satisfaction variables, one could focus on selecting staff members who are positive and have a record of being loyal. Hotel managers could also consider offering EI training. Furthermore, it may be important to ensure that prospective employees have realistic expectations of the company and the position. These recommendations may be useful to hotel managers who wish to improve job satisfaction in their respective hotels.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

"The outcome of any serious research can only be to make two questions grow where only one grew before."

Thorstein Veblen (2012)

The previous chapters contained a deliberation of the literature review, research methodology, results, discussion and recommendations. This chapter will conclude the research project by revisiting the research objectives individually to indicate how each was achieved. The value of the research project is discussed, listing the benefits of a satisfied workforce. The limitations of the study are also discussed, as no research project is without limitations and these cannot be ignored. Finally, future research opportunities emanating from this research are presented.

7.2 Research objectives revisited

The main goal of this study was to investigate job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape. To achieve this goal, certain objectives were formulated, and in terms of the research objectives stated in section 1.3, the following specific outcomes emerged from the investigation:

Objective 1: To develop a conceptual framework of job satisfaction.

Outcome of objective 1: An international, multi-industrial literature survey was conducted (Chapter 3) to form the theoretical premise for this study. Three dimensions of job satisfaction were identified to potentially influence job satisfaction, namely internal, external and individual job satisfaction (Drafke, 2009:406-407). A list of job satisfaction variables were grouped within each job satisfaction dimension.

Objective 2: To determine the level of overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 2: An impressive 79% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their jobs overall, while 13% indicated that they were dissatisfied and 8% that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (refer to section 5.4.2).

Objective 3: To determine which of the biographic variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 3: There is no significant correlation between biographical variables and job satisfaction amongst employees in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape, with the exception of the variable of having a hospitality-related qualification, which was found to have a positive correlation (refer to section 5.4.3).

Objective 4: To determine which of the internal job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 4: For six of the internal job satisfaction variables, namely goal determination, feedback, recognition, authority, creativity and customer satisfaction, a significantly positive – but relatively weak – correlation with overall job satisfaction was calculated (refer to section 5.5.1).

Objective 5: To determine the degree to which the internal job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 5: The internal job satisfaction dimension predicted more than 39% of the overall job satisfaction (refer to section 5.5.1).

Objective 6: To determine which of the external job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 6: For 18 of the external job satisfaction variables, namely role conflict, opportunity for advancement, job security, health and safety in the work environment, social interactions, relationship with supervisor, quality of supervision,

fairness of supervisor, supervisor support, management style: supervisor including employee in decision making, management style: supervisor focussing on employee development, trust in leadership, organisational culture, wellness opportunities, benefit packages, benefits other than medical aid and pension, company policies and procedures, department of employment, and equipment in good condition: condition of tools and equipment, there was a significantly positive – but relatively weak – correlation with overall job satisfaction (refer to section 5.5.2).

Objective 7: To determine the degree to which the external job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 7: The external job satisfaction dimension predicted more than 66% of the overall job satisfaction (refer to section 5.5.2).

Objective 8: To determine which of the individual job satisfaction variables have a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 8: For 13 of the individual job satisfaction variables, namely commitment, expectations, comparison of jobs, effort and reward ratio, opinions of others, job involvement, influence of co-workers, EI: ability to keep troublesome emotions in check, EI: seeing the positive side of things and the future, EI: sensing others' feelings and taking an active interest in their concerns, EI: ability to read a group's emotional currents and power relationships, EI: ability to inspire and guide people, and personality: doing a thorough job, a significantly positive correlation with overall job satisfaction was calculated. For one of the individual job satisfaction variables, namely personality: not getting nervous easily, a significantly negative correlation with overall job satisfaction was calculated (refer to section 5.5.3).

Objective 9: To determine the degree to which the individual job satisfaction dimension predicts overall job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 9: The individual job satisfaction dimension predicted more than 79% of the overall job satisfaction (refer to section 5.5.3).

Objective 10: To make recommendations to improve job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape.

Outcome of objective 10: Recommendations were made for one biographic variable, and for the internal, external and individual job satisfaction dimensions (refer to sections 6.2.2, 6.3.2, 6.4.2 and 6.5.2).

7.3 Value of the study

If the five-star hotels utilise the recommendations made, they may reap the following benefits of a satisfied workforce:

- **Profit:** Over the past decade, companies have been increasingly measuring nonfinancial indicators, such as job satisfaction, which they believe will ultimately affect profitability (Ittner & Larcker, 2003:88-89). There is significant evidence that job satisfaction and commitment lead to profit (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002:273; Stanford, 2008:4). Barrows and Powers (2009:328) also found job satisfaction to have an impact on a hotel's bottom line.
- **Customer satisfaction:** Job satisfaction results in customer satisfaction (Harter *et al.*, 2002:273; Vilares & Coelho, 2003:1704). Job satisfaction influences customer satisfaction in two ways: directly through the process of emotional contagion, and indirectly through the manner of interaction with customers (Homburg & Stock, 2004:154). On average it costs a business five to six times more money to attract new customers than to retain existing customers (Berger & Brownell, 2009:6), making this point very important for management.
- **Productivity:** Berry (1998:294) stated that for the past 50 years, psychologists, managers and supervisors had assumed that job satisfaction, which results in productivity, would have an important impact on an organisation's success. Harter *et al.* (2002:273) and Saari and Judge (2004:398) also found job satisfaction to lead to productivity.

- Reduced employee turnover: Job satisfaction leads to reduced employee turnover (Dawson & Abbott, 2009:2; Harter *et al.*, 2002:273; Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009:282; Riegel, 2007:432). In some cases, excellent employees leave the company because of their level of dissatisfaction, whereas employees who can work in a dysfunctional environment, and those who are not able to leave, stay with the company. This situation is an important consideration for businesses with high turnover rates (Riegel, 2007:432-434). Turnover often leads to "brain drain", resulting in major delays in service delivery and a negative effect on innovation (Wetpravit, 2006:24). A short-term strategy for reducing turnover would be to create reasonable schedules and to treat employees fairly. A long-term strategy, however, requires continuous and thorough consideration of job satisfaction factors (Riegel, 2007:435).
- Organisational commitment: Satisfied employees tend to be more committed to their companies (Riegel, 2007:432). Karatepe and Kilic (2007:249) found job satisfaction to be significantly and positively related to the organisational commitment of frontline employees. Lambert, Hogan and Griffin (2007:651), Laschinger and Finegan (2005:10), and Ho, Chang, Shih and Liang (2009:6) reported similar findings.
- Reduction in accidents: Probst and Brubaker (2001:155) found job satisfaction to be an important predictor of safety knowledge and motivation. Job satisfaction leads to a reduction in the number of workplace accidents (Harter *et al.*, 2002:273). According to Gyekye and Salminen (2009:177), a corresponding pattern exists between job satisfaction, compliance with safe working behaviour and accident frequency, with older employees found to be more satisfied, more committed to safe working practices, and consequently involved in relatively fewer accidents than younger employees.
- Employee health: D'Addio *et al.* (2003:3) suggested that job satisfaction is strongly related to mental and physical health indicators. Dormann and Kaiser (2002:262) state that poor job satisfaction negatively affects employees' health. Likewise,

Fischer and Sousa-Poza (2008:389-391) found job satisfaction to improve subjective health status and lead to fewer days of ill health. Employees with high satisfaction levels seem to enjoy good health, which allows them to go about their daily tasks without external aid. It should be noted that according to Fischer and Sousa-Poza (2008:393) the health-improving benefits of job satisfaction are only subjective, and the objective physical health indicators show no improvement with job satisfaction. A meta-analysis conducted by Faragher, Cass and Cooper (2005:107) showed that job satisfaction is an influential factor when it comes to both the physical and mental wellbeing of employees. The most significant relationship found by Faragher *et al.* (2005:107) was between job satisfaction and burnout. Other correlations included depression, anxiety, self-esteem, cardiovascular disease and musculoskeletal disorders, with cardiovascular disease and musculoskeletal disorders being the least correlated with job satisfaction. Lee *et al.* (2009:153) suggested that improved job satisfaction may result in improved mental health in the workplace.

- Reduction in absenteeism: Job dissatisfaction leads to absenteeism (Scott & Taylor, 1985:609). According to Yang (2010:617) improving job satisfaction in the hospitality environment will substantially reduce employee absenteeism. Satisfied employees are more likely to be more effective in handling daily stressors, thus minimising their withdrawal or absence from work. When employees enjoy their job, this normally creates a positive buffer to deal with the daily stress of work (Zeffane *et al.*, 2008:238), thereby reducing employee absenteeism.
- Competitive advantage: Job satisfaction is one of the few remaining opportunities for gaining competitive advantage (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:5). Franěk and Večeřa (2008:63) agreed that organisations cannot be competitive if the employees are dissatisfied. Satisfied employees contribute greater responsiveness, work reliability and quality to the organisation, thus reducing internal process costs (Yang, 2009:1262) and improving competitive advantage. Measuring job satisfaction as well as other nonfinancial indicators can give managers a glimpse into the progress being made by the business, well before a financial result is obvious (Ittner

& Larcker, 2003:88-89). Creating a work environment that satisfies and motivates employees has been proven critical in delivering on marketing promises, achieving profit goals and competing over the long run (Marketing Innovators International, 2005:1).

- Life satisfaction: Historially, for most employees in most countries, job satisfaction has been a determining factor in their life satisfaction and standard of living (Palmer, 2007:23). Adams, King and King (1996:417), Tang (2007:380) and Zeffane *et al.* (2008:224) reiterated this by stating that job satisfaction is an important part of life satisfaction for the working population.

By improving the job satisfaction levels of their employees, hotels will also be complying with two objectives of the NTSS 2011, namely to “provide excellent people development and decent work within the tourism sector” and to “deliver a world-class visitor experience” to its guests (NDT, 2011:16, 19).

7.4 Limitations of the study

The results of the study should be interpreted with caution due to the limitations of the study. The results cannot be generalised with confidence to other five-star hotels in the Western Cape or South Africa. The unwillingness of the majority of five-star hotels in the Western Cape to participate in the research project as well as the employee sample size can be regarded as limitations. Employees were free to decide whether or not to participate in the study – hence the absence of opinions from non-participating employees. Lastly, satisfaction can only be estimated through indicators and cannot be measured as clearly and precisely as profits (Vilares & Coelho, 2003:1708).

7.5 Future research

An area of this study which could benefit from further investigation is the relationship between a hospitality related qualification and job satisfaction. The optimum level of education necessary for the perfect balance between job satisfaction, well equipped staff and the costs of training could be analysed.

There is a need for future research into five-star hotels in other provinces of South Africa, and the findings could be compared with the current research to determine whether job satisfaction in five-star hotels is similar no matter their location in South Africa. There is also a need for job satisfaction studies in other star-rated hotels, since to the best of the researcher's knowledge; no studies of this nature have been done in South Africa. The job satisfaction levels of employees employed at different star-rated hotels could then be compared through a more heterogeneous sample.

International hotel job satisfaction benchmarking could be undertaken. This could indicate how South Africa ranks as a hospitality employer compared to other countries and could offer opportunities to learn from other countries that have succeeded in satisfying their hotel employees. The influence of variables external to the organisation on employees' job satisfaction could also be analysed to provide hotels the opportunity to counteract negative environmental influences, thus improving job satisfaction.

To improve the response rate in future studies, incentives could be offered to hotels and the data-collection period could be scheduled in their off-peak season. Should data-collection be possible in both the peak and off-peak seasons, it could be determined whether the responses to questionnaires differ based on the possible changing stress levels of respondents and other changing factors. Future researchers could also try to improve the response rate of employees by holding a random prize draw at each location for all participating employees. To ensure that the questionnaires are still completed anonymously, the respondents could each be assigned a questionnaire number and at the end of the day a number can randomly be selected and a prize awarded to the employee holding the corresponding number.

7.6 Conclusion

The findings of this study on job satisfaction in selected five-star hotels in the Western Cape brought a few important aspects to light. It appears that most of the respondents were satisfied with their jobs overall, as only 13% indicated that they were dissatisfied and 8% that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their jobs overall. When considering the biographic variables and their correlation with overall job satisfaction, it was found that the only biographic variable with a significant correlation with overall job satisfaction was having a hospitality-related qualification. Consequently, no other biographic variable needs to be considered as far as job satisfaction is concerned.

The three job satisfaction dimensions predicted overall job satisfaction in varying degrees. Internal job satisfaction predicted the smallest percentage of job satisfaction at 39.97%, while the external job satisfaction dimension predicted 66.88% of overall job satisfaction. Managers could focus on fostering a healthy organisational culture, improving their relationships with employees, developing customised improvement programmes for each department of the hotel, and offering career advancement opportunities to employees. The individual job satisfaction dimension predicted 79.82% of overall job satisfaction. As such, managers could ensure that appropriate employees are hired, that their expectations are aligned with reality, that they are offered individualised rewards, and that they are encouraged to be positive thinkers.

As a final analogy, the conclusion can be drawn is that if five-star hotels were to hire the right people and focus on what is important to them, the hotels would reap the benefits associated with job satisfaction, provide excellent people development and decent work within the tourism sector, and deliver a world-class visitor experience to its guests.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Newly developed questionnaire



The tourism industry is crucial to South Africa's economy. Visitors usually return to South Africa if they are pleased with the service they receive. When all employees at hotels experience job satisfaction, their good service can generate return guests.

Please fill in the questionnaire below (it should not take longer than twenty minutes to complete).

This survey is for research purposes only, and confidentiality is guaranteed.

Feedback on the findings of job satisfaction at five-star hotels in South Africa will be provided to every participating hotel.

Queries may be directed to Lisa-Mari Coughlan at lisawep@gmail.com.

Demographic details	Please complete the following by marking with an X:					
Race	African	White	Coloured	Asian	Indian	Other
Highest level of education completed	No schooling	Primary school	High school	Tertiary diploma	Tertiary degree	Other
My qualification is hospitality related	Yes	No				
Number of dependants	0	1	2	3	4	5 or more
Marital status	Never married	Divorced / separated	Widow / widower	Living together	Married	
Gender	Male	Female				
Age in years on 1 January 2012						
Language I use most often (please print)						
Employment details	Please complete the following by marking with an X:					
Number of hours I usually work per week	Less than 15	15-29	30-39	40-45	46-55	More than 55
Employment relationship	Casual (employed for a once off job)		Temporary (employed for a fixed period)		Permanent (employed indefinitely)	
I have been with this hotel for years and months (number)	___ years and ___ months					
Number of years and months in current position	___ years and ___ months					
My current job title (please print)						

	In my present job, I am satisfied with...	Please complete the following by marking with an X:				
		Strongly disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neither (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly agree (SA)
1	The training offered	SD	D	N	A	SA
2	My understanding of what my job entails	SD	D	N	A	SA
3	My tasks at work not interfering with one another	SD	D	N	A	SA
4	The opportunity to make a complete product or deliver a complete service	SD	D	N	A	SA
5	The opportunities for advancement in this job	SD	D	N	A	SA
6	My job security	SD	D	N	A	SA
7	The health and safety	SD	D	N	A	SA
8	Having meaningful social interactions at work	SD	D	N	A	SA
9	The chance to develop close friendships with my co-workers	SD	D	N	A	SA
10	The way my supervisor and I understand each other	SD	D	N	A	SA
11	The technical "know-how" of my supervisor	SD	D	N	A	SA
12	The fairness of my supervisor	SD	D	N	A	SA
13	The support offered by my supervisor	SD	D	N	A	SA
14	My supervisor including me in decision making	SD	D	N	A	SA
15	My supervisor adapting to different situations	SD	D	N	A	SA

	In my present job, I am satisfied with...	Please complete the following by marking with an X:				
		Strongly disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neither (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly agree (SA)
16	My supervisor focusing on my development	SD	D	N	A	SA
17	My supervisor being trustworthy	SD	D	N	A	SA
18	The health of the organisational culture (e.g. there is internal service and the organisation is adaptable)	SD	D	N	A	SA
19	The availability of onsite employee wellness opportunities (e.g. staff gym or health talks)	SD	D	N	A	SA
20	The flexibility of my work schedule	SD	D	N	A	SA
21	The amount of pay for the work I do	SD	D	N	A	SA
22	The fringe benefits I receive	SD	D	N	A	SA
23	The benefits I receive other than medical aid and pension (e.g. childcare and transport)	SD	D	N	A	SA
24	The policies and practices toward employees of this company	SD	D	N	A	SA
25	The chance to be of service to others	SD	D	N	A	SA
26	The location of the business	SD	D	N	A	SA
27	The department in which I work	SD	D	N	A	SA
28	The tasks I perform	SD	D	N	A	SA
29	The variety in my job	SD	D	N	A	SA
30	The chance to be responsible for planning my work	SD	D	N	A	SA
31	The freedom to set my own goals	SD	D	N	A	SA
32	The feedback I get regarding my performance	SD	D	N	A	SA
33	The way I am noticed when I do a good job	SD	D	N	A	SA
34	The chance to tell others how to do things	SD	D	N	A	SA
35	The chance to try out some of my own ideas	SD	D	N	A	SA
36	The chance to be "on the go" all the time	SD	D	N	A	SA
37	Being able to see the results of the work I do	SD	D	N	A	SA
38	The chance to work by myself	SD	D	N	A	SA
39	The chance to do the job without feeling I am cheating anyone	SD	D	N	A	SA
40	The availability of tools and equipment required to do my job	SD	D	N	A	SA
41	The condition of the tools and equipment	SD	D	N	A	SA
42	The fact that I have to pretend to be happy when I'm not	SD	D	N	A	SA
43	My commitment towards my current employer	SD	D	N	A	SA
44	My job fulfilling my needs	SD	D	N	A	SA
45	My job being better than most of my friends' and relatives' jobs	SD	D	N	A	SA
46	Receiving the rewards I deserve	SD	D	N	A	SA
47	The social position in the community that goes with the job	SD	D	N	A	SA
48	The customers' satisfaction levels	SD	D	N	A	SA
49	The role my job plays in my life	SD	D	N	A	SA
50	The chance to do the kind of work that I do best	SD	D	N	A	SA
51	My co-workers' opinions about the working environment	SD	D	N	A	SA
52	My current job when compared to previous jobs I have had	SD	D	N	A	SA

Other research questions	Please complete the following by marking with an X:				
	Strongly disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neither (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly agree (SA)
53 I am able to recognise my emotions and their effects	SD	D	N	A	SA
54 I am capable of keeping troublesome emotions in check	SD	D	N	A	SA
55 I can handle change	SD	D	N	A	SA
56 I strive to meet standards of excellence	SD	D	N	A	SA
57 I see the positive side of things and the future	SD	D	N	A	SA
58 I sense others' feelings and take an active interest in their concerns	SD	D	N	A	SA
59 I can read a group's emotional currents and power relationships	SD	D	N	A	SA
60 I can sense others' development needs and encourage their abilities	SD	D	N	A	SA
61 I am capable of inspiring and guiding people	SD	D	N	A	SA
62 I am capable of influencing people	SD	D	N	A	SA
63 I am capable of negotiating and resolving conflicts	SD	D	N	A	SA
64 I am capable of working with others to accomplish shared goals	SD	D	N	A	SA
65 I see myself as someone who is reserved	SD	D	N	A	SA
66 I see myself as someone who is generally trusting	SD	D	N	A	SA
67 I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy	SD	D	N	A	SA
68 I see myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well	SD	D	N	A	SA
69 I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests	SD	D	N	A	SA
70 I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable	SD	D	N	A	SA
71 I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others	SD	D	N	A	SA
72 I see myself as someone who does a thorough job	SD	D	N	A	SA
73 I see myself as someone who gets nervous easily	SD	D	N	A	SA
74 I see myself as someone who has an active imagination	SD	D	N	A	SA
75 Overall I am satisfied with my job	SD	D	N	A	SA

You have now completed the questionnaire. Thank you!

Please use the space provided should you have any comments or queries (please print).

Appendix B

Support letter from research supervisor



CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE
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10 March 2011

To whom it may concern

RE: DATA GATHERING FOR M TECH PROJECT

Lisa-Mari Weppenaar is a fifth year Hospitality Management student registered for a Master's degree in Tourism and Hospitality Management at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT). I am her supervisor and her study is entitled: "Employee satisfaction in five star hotels in South Africa." The importance of the study is underlined by the Draft National Tourism Sector Strategy for 2010 to 2015.

Should you and your hotel employees be willing to participate in the project, a self-administered questionnaire will be distributed to your members of staff. Its completion could take approximately 10-15 minutes. Ms Weppenaar will be on site to administer the questionnaires. A minimum interference with your operations is guaranteed and the data will only be gathered during February or March 2012.

Information will be kept confidential and employees' participation will be voluntary. You will be informed about the results of the study, which could benefit the management of your hotel.

I will appreciate it if you could please inform Ms Weppenaar as soon as possible whether you will be able to assist her in this regard.

Yours faithfully


ADV MAMIE MOOLMAN
ACTING DIRECTOR: SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY AND SPORT