UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

The Relative Importance of Happiness, Job Satisfaction, and Affective Commitment in Predicting Intention to Quit among South African Employees

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Abstract

This research study presents the relative importance of subjective wellbeing (SWB), together with job satisfaction, and affective commitment in the prediction of intention to quit among South African employees (N = 134). In particular this study considered whether SWB contributes to the positive organisational behaviour domain in relation to intention to quit. Both male and female participants of varying age and ethnicity were examined from multiple organisations in South Africa. Data were collected using online surveys whereby participants completed four short Likert-type scales, namely, the orientations to happiness scale, affective commitment scale, job satisfaction scale, and turnover intention scale (or TIS-6). Relative weights analysis (RWA) results indicated that the predictive contribution of job satisfaction was the largest, followed by affective commitment, and then SWB, which did not appear to be a relatively important predictor of intention to quit. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that SWB explained a small amount of additional variance in intention to quit over and above that explained by job satisfaction and affective commitment. Implications and recommendations for future studies are discussed.

Keywords: Subjective wellbeing (SWB), happiness, job satisfaction, affective commitment, relative weights analysis, intention to quit

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Table of Contents

Abstract ..... **i**

Acknowledgements ..... **ii**

List of Tables ..... **vi**

List of Figures ..... **vi**

Chapter 1: Introduction **1**

Chapter 2: Literature Review **2**

Theoretical Framework **2**

Positive Psychology: A Brief Introduction **3**

The Foundations of Positive Organisational Behaviour **4**

Positive Organisational Behaviour **5**

Core constructs of POB with a focus on happiness 6

The Importance of Happiness **7**

Defining Happiness 9

Components of SWB 10

Correlates of SWB 12

The Relationship between SWB and Job Satisfaction **14**

SWB, Job Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment **15**

Intention to Quit **16**

SWB and Intention to Quit **18**

Summary of Main Points **19**

Hypotheses **20**

Chapter 3: Method **21**

Study Design **21**

Participants **21**

Measures **22**

SWB measures 22

Affective commitment 22
Job Satisfaction measure.....23
Intention to quit measure 23
Procedure.....24
Statistical Analyses.....25

Chapter 4: Results.....26
Exploratory Factor Analysis.....26
Affective commitment 27
Job satisfaction.....27
Intention to quit.....27
SWB.....27
Reliability Analysis 28
Descriptive Statistics.....28
Correlation Analysis 30
Regression Analysis 31
Relative Weights Analysis 31
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis 33
Summary of Main Findings 36

Chapter 5: Discussion.....37
Quality of Measures.....37
Research Design Limitations 39
Rethinking the dependent variable.....41
A Brief Discussion about the use of RWA 42
Exploring the Descriptive Statistics 43
Discussing the Hypotheses.....43
Thinking more critically about SWB.....46
Intention to quit and success.....47
Job satisfaction and affective commitment as predictors of intention to quit 48
Practical Implications.....49
Directions for Future Studies.....49
Conclusion 50

References **52**

Appendices **61**

Appendix A **61**

Figure 3 61

Appendix B **62**

Figure 4 62

Appendix C **63**

Affective Commitment Scale 63

Appendix D **64**

Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6) 64

Appendix E **65**

Orientations to Happiness Scale 65

Appendix F **66**

Job Satisfaction Scale 66

List of Tables

Table 1: *Descriptive Statistics for Summary Scales*.....*29*
Table 2: *Shapiro-Wilk Test Statistics*.....*29*
Table 3: *A Table Representing the Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation Analysis of Indicators* *30*
Table 4: *A Summary of a Traditional Regression and Relative Weights Analysis* *34*
Table 5: *A Table Comparing the Relative Weight of Job Satisfaction with the Relative Weights of all other Predictors*.....*35*
Table 6: *A Table Comparing the Relative Weight of Affective Commitment with the Relative Weights of all other Predictors* *35*
Table 7: *A Table Comparing the Relative Weight of OHS (M) with the Relative Weights of all other Predictors*.....*35*
Table 8: *Hypotheses and Summarised Results*.....*36*

List of Figures

Figure 1: *A bar graph demonstrating the relative weights of job satisfaction, affective commitment, meaning, and pleasure in predicting intention to quit for males and females* *34*
Figure 2: *A conceptual framework of the relative importance of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and SWB (Meaning & Pleasure) as predictors of intention to quit* *44*
Figure 3: *A Scree plot representing the EFA results of the OHS, displaying Five factors* *61*
Figure 4: *A Scree plot representing the two factors of meaning and pleasure derived from the OHS EFA*.....*62*

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study aims to develop and contribute knowledge to the positive psychology (PP) and positive organisational behaviour (POB) research domains by attempting to address an aspect that reflects a gap in the existing literature: namely, the relationship between happiness (later referred to as subjective wellbeing (SWB)) and intention to quit. The study intends to ascertain whether happiness has anything new to offer to POB in its relationship with intention to quit. Further, it aims to evaluate the importance of various predictors of intention to quit. These predictors include job satisfaction, affective commitment and happiness. It is anticipated that the research findings of this study will help to determine whether happiness is negatively related to intention to quit and whether this relationship enhances the ability to predict intention to quit when considered together with job satisfaction and affective commitment as additional predictors.

In establishing a better understanding of these relationships it is possible to make inferences about happiness at work and its influence on important outcomes such as success and performance in helping to reduce intentions to quit. Therefore, the research problem is to investigate whether introducing happiness to the equation, which already includes job satisfaction and affective commitment, will add any power to the prediction of intention to quit and thus provide a better understanding of how to reduce such intentions.

An additional and subsidiary study aim pertains to the fact that there is some inconsistency among the literature as to which variable, job satisfaction or affective commitment, is a better predictor of intention to quit (Firth, Mellor, Moore, & Loquet, 2004; Martin & Roodt, 2008). As a result, this study also aims to provide more clarity as to which antecedents of intention to quit are better predictors and whether these variables, namely job satisfaction, affective commitment, and happiness can be placed in a hierarchical order in predicting intention to quit.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a systematic review of the appropriate literature on positive organisational concepts, with a particular focus on happiness at work. It also explores variables that may be associated with happiness and areas related to the main concepts discussed that require more research within the field of organisational psychology. Lastly, it includes an outline of the hypotheses derived from the current literature.

Theoretical Background

The pursuit of happiness is a central and common goal among people and societies around the world (Diener, 2000; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005; Oishi, Graham, Kesebir, & Galinha, 2013; Tov & Diener, 2013; Veenhoven, 2012). Most people desire happiness; however, life is complex and involves many factors that influence a person's level of happiness (Diener, 2000; Tov & Diener, 2013; Veenhoven, 2012). Research suggests that a significant influencing factor of happiness is work, which occupies a large portion of most people's lives (Froman, 2010; Luthans, 2002a; Luthans, 2002b). Consequently, it is important to foster happiness at work in order to allow for increased overall happiness and wellbeing.

The twenty-first century has been fraught with economic uncertainty and this has impacted on the lives of people at work. People are no longer seeking wealth in terms of income alone (van der Meer & Wielers, 2013). Research suggests that they are also looking to attain a happier, more meaningful life of good health and general wellbeing (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Froman, 2010). With globalisation the world is becoming smaller, but this creates higher levels of competition (Rothmann & Rothmann, 2010). Studies show that as a result of these growing levels of competition, human capital is becoming an increasingly significant asset. Organisations are therefore willing to spend greater amounts of money on their human assets in creating an environment that fosters happiness at work (Geldenhuys, Łaba, & Venter, 2014; van der Meer & Wielers, 2013).

Research findings illustrate that increased happiness at work has many important consequences in the workplace. These include greater productivity and overall success (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005), as well as general health and balance (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Furthermore, with the changing and turbulent nature of the current economy, ensuring employees are happy at work has become an increasing necessity in order to retain high talent and enhance the organisation's competitive advantage (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005).

In accordance with this need, scholars in the organisational psychology discipline have recently begun to consider new and more positive ways of addressing behaviour and attitudes at work (Luthans, 2002a; Luthans, 2012; Money, Hillenbrand, & da Camara, 2008). There has hence emerged a new orientation towards POB, which encourages more focus on enabling a happier workforce in order to enhance human capital (Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). The POB framework has come to be widely used in designing and implementing interventions within organisations today (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Money et al., 2008).

Positive Psychology: A Brief Introduction

PP is a relatively new field of study that was brought into focus by Professor Martin Seligman, the former president of the American Psychological Association (Money et al., 2008). It has become a meaningful paradigm that is used in various different disciplines from psychology to sociology, medicine and organisational psychology (Roberts, 2006). Prior to the introduction of PP, a few scholars such as Mill (1806–1873), Russell (1872–1970), Rogers (1951), and Maslow (1970) attempted to express a more positive side of psychology (Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005), but most early psychological research was concentrated within the disease model (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

The primary focus of psychology within the disease model was on discovering what was wrong with a person and how to move them back to a ‘normal’ state of being (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In the fifty years of this model’s existence, researchers and practitioners using it were able to establish many treatments to aid the management of various disorders such as schizophrenia and bipolar personality disorder (Roberts, 2006). There have been many successes in this modality, with significant interventions for psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety.

While the disease model made and continues to make many important strides in psychological understandings, scholars have previously given little attention to the alternative modality of improving peoples’ lives (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). PP has opened up opportunities for psychologists to take a completely different view of human behaviour simply by finding ways to enhance the lives of relatively healthy individuals (Roberts, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and to focus on health and wellbeing rather than disease (Roberts, 2006).

Seligman outlined three aims of PP within psychology - firstly, psychology should still consider human weakness, but should also equally consider human strengths. To clarify:

Seligman is not calling for the rejection of the disease model. Rather, he is asking for more consideration of positive behaviours, to balance out the focus on weaknesses. Therefore, the second consideration is that psychology should attempt to build the strengths of individuals. Lastly, while psychology is concerned with healing pathology, it should also look at making normal lives more fulfilling (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Roberts, 2006; Seligman, 2011; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Following these guidelines, PP has gradually picked up momentum among scholars of various disciplines around the world and has begun to expand into several different fields of research (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Roberts, 2006; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010).

The Foundations of Positive Organisational Behaviour

Both POB and positive organisational scholarship (POS) fall under the general field of positive organisational psychology (POP) (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). They are derived from the paradigm of PP and are an application of this research field in the organisational setting (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). These concepts are differentiated by three main factors (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). Firstly, there is variation in the way in which they are measured and in their main research interests: POB tends to use surveys more, while POS uses various different quantitative and qualitative research methods. Secondly, POB places more emphasis than POS on organisational performance, and lastly POB tends to focus on individual level analysis within an organisation while POS considers a larger scale organisational level of analysis. The general trend in POP literature is to establish whether positive constructs are related to positive organisational behaviour (Donaldson & Ko, 2010; Froman, 2010). It also necessitates rigorous scientific research on POB to establish its variable contribution to understanding health and wellbeing within the organisation.

Given the high relevance of POB in today's society and its focus on positive performance outcomes, POB concepts have become highly popular among practitioners in the world of working individuals (Froman, 2010). In the same way that psychology previously focused mainly on fixing dysfunctional behaviour, organisational psychology concentrated on establishing interventions in order to solve dysfunctional managerial and employee problems (Luthans, 2002a). POB, however, provides a renewed emphasis on positive aspects of life by focusing on improving the functional aspects of an organisation and aiming to better the organisation overall.

Positive Organisational Behaviour

POB has emerged as an application of PP in the workplace (Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Luthans (2002a) officially defined POB on a micro-level as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychology capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (p. 59). This definition recognises that POB consists of criteria that can be developed, which is one of the main differences between PP and POB (Luthans, 2002b; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). That is, POB considers psychological capacities that are state-like, as opposed to trait-like capacities (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The concept of POB is therefore useful in the workplace since the latter is an area that can be improved through organisational training and development (Luthans, 2002a).

In accordance with this understanding of POB, it can be said that traits are more stable in different situations and over time, whereas states tend to be more temporary expressions of attitudes that can be developed and changed, though they may later become stable traits (Luthans, 2002a; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The developmental criterion required by the POB definition necessitates that constructs be state-like. As a result, the more traditional, stable and trait-like organisational behaviour variables such as motivation and personality are not emphasised in the POB framework (Luthans, 2002a). Therefore, a central approach of POB involves the ability to train and develop positive behaviour at work among managers and employees in order to improve organisational performance (Luthans, 2002a).

Organisations have begun to realise the value and significance of POB within the workplace (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Intrinsic motivators such as work-family balance are gaining importance in the workplace and less emphasis is being placed on motivators such as income (Geldenhuys et al., 2014; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; van der Meer & Wielers, 2013). POB considers alternative ways of attaining happiness in the workplace which may serve to enhance organisational functioning. Therefore, the shift in focus from traditional to more recent ideas about what motivates employees and can thus enable better organisational functioning may be reason for the increased interest in POB (Money et al., 2008; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). As a result, POB has been linked to many important positive constructs that contribute significantly to organisational functioning (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). While it has been suggested that new and uncommon traits, capacities, behaviours and outcomes should be considered in future research (Luthans & Youssef, 2007), it can also be noted that the field of POB is still in its emerging stages and

needs further research on common mechanisms at work in order for its relevance in the organisational psychology area to be fully understood (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

Core constructs of POB with a focus on happiness.

In studying POB and its association with increasing performance in the workplace by means of developmental initiatives, it was found that happiness in the organisation appears to be a central construct in this field of research (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). Although Roberts (2006) has suggested that PP was only vaguely considered prior to the 21st century, Cropanzano and Wright (2001) have illustrated that happiness has been studied in relation to productivity at work for many years. They note, however, that confusion in operationalizations of the construct has prevented happiness in the workplace from being recognised as important (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). Nevertheless, with a better understanding of happiness emerging through PP in terms of subjective wellbeing (SWB), this previously under-researched concept is starting to gain momentum, with scholars realising its importance in life as well as at work (Diener, 2000; Froman, 2010).

Happiness is thus one of the core constructs that has been associated with POB. Other important constructs are psychological wellbeing, hope, optimism, resilience, and psychological capital (PsyCap) (Froman, 2010; Luthans, 2002a; Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). These constructs have been linked to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and other positive organisational attitudes (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). These attitudes are subsequently associated with certain positive behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), work engagement, courageous principle action, positive deviance, and job performance (Donaldson & Ko, 2010; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Geldenhuys et al., 2014). Work-related outcomes of hope, optimism and resilience include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and happiness at work and there is some evidence to suggest that these outcomes result in improved job performance (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

It is therefore, apparent that POB comprises many core constructs that have important consequences for an organisation. Some of these constructs, such as PsyCap, have been studied in more detail than others (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Luthans, 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). More research is required to establish a better understanding of how happiness contributes to the POB field and if it can make a considerable difference in the functioning of an organisation (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Additionally, studies on happiness in the workplace have largely focused on

performance and success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). However, little is known about how this construct can contribute to other areas of organisational psychology such as recruitment and selection, or to a better understanding of the retention of employees.

The Importance of Happiness

Research has illustrated that happiness plays a significant role in directing what people pursue in life (Diener, 2000; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005; Oishi et al., 2013; Tov & Diener, 2013; Veenhoven, 2012). With the emergence of PP and POB and the increased interest in positive organisational outcomes, happiness has been studied in various disciplines. PP has allowed for, and initiated, more consideration into building human strengths in order to attain life satisfaction by improving happiness and enabling a more fulfilled lifestyle (Roberts, 2006). As a result, the concept of happiness has become the focus of many studies and there is increasing interest in enabling happiness in all spheres of life (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Diener, 2012; Donaldson & Ko, 2010; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Roberts, 2006; Seligman, 2011; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Wright, 2006).

While empirical research on happiness seems to be limited as it is a relatively new concept in organisational psychology (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005), existing literature in this discipline, as well as in psychology, appears to indicate consistently the significance of happiness as a concept (Diener, 2000; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005; Oishi et al., 2013; Tov & Diener, 2013; Veenhoven, 2012). This is evident from two robust meta-analyses which have considered literature on happiness and how it contributes to the effective functioning of an organisation (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005). Additionally, the idea of happiness at work in South Africa has been explored by the U.K.'s iOpener Institute for People & Performance in South Africa. This institute implemented a large-scale survey in various countries around the world to determine levels of happiness at work. Furthermore, organisations like FutureFact have been recording the moods of South Africans for nearly twenty years (Kuper, 2009). These organisations highlight the growing interest among organisations with regard to happiness at work (HR Future, 2010; Stoke, 2012).

A key notion in happiness studies appears to be the link between happiness and success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). It is said that a positive state of mind as a result of being happy, allows for many tangible benefits to manifest within different situations (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). For example, it is suggested that happiness energises

people and stimulates more creativity, which allows for higher levels of productivity (Wright, 2006). Similarly, happy people involve themselves in behaviours that are essential for success and as a result, they tend to experience more success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008).

The link between happiness and success suggests that the concept of happiness in organisations appears to be of great importance in the study of organisational psychology and POB, as both these fields are concerned with improving organisational performance by maximising human potential (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). This is because, for many companies, the focus of production is the bottom line, which relates directly to success in an organisation (van der Meer & Wielers, 2013). Additionally, Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al. (2005) have demonstrated the importance of sustainable wellbeing, which impacts on happiness. These authors have also revealed that it is possible to increase happiness levels, indicating state-like properties, and that this field of study has significance in various areas of life such as at work, in relationships, and in health. Thus it is relevant to consider happiness in relation to organisational functioning as well as other areas of a person's life because of its clear positive associations with success.

Despite most happiness literature being focused on success, it is however, a complex concept made up of multiple interlinking factors (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). These multiple factors compliment each other and can include contextual factors, competence, motivation, and performance, among others (Uusiautti, 2014). The way in which these elements interact determines whether success precedes happiness or vice versa. For example, Uusiautti (2014) illustrated how the elements of success are interconnected in multiple directions. It is evident from this that success leads to happiness and wellbeing. However, it is also apparent that there may be factors affecting the success-happiness relationship that precede success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). Therefore, the way in which success is defined can determine how success relates to happiness. Due to these difficulties and issues in defining success, in addition to difficulties in obtaining data concerning performance in an organisation, this complex construct has not been considered as a measured variable in the current study. However, its important links to happiness should be noted.

There are many other correlates of happiness that also contribute to this construct being understood as important. These correlates include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, OCB and engagement, among others (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Wright, 2006). These are discussed in more detail below.

Defining Happiness.

The increased interest in happiness is a reflection of societal trends, which are placing more importance on 'the good life' (Diener, 2000; Luthans, 2002a). These include increased focus on work-life balance, with work-life enrichment attracting considerable attention recently (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Despite the increased interest in happiness, there is still little consensus on one specific definition and it is often used interchangeably with other positive words such as wellbeing, job satisfaction, SWB, personal wellbeing, positive wellbeing, and psychological wellbeing (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Diener, 2000; Dodge, Daly, Huyton, & Sanders, 2012; La Placa, McNaught, & Knight, 2013; Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007). Some authors however, have attempted to find a level of consensus in defining and distinguishing these interpretations of happiness (Diener, 2000; Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Dodge et al., 2012; Luthans, 2002a).

There is no formal definition of happiness as it can be interpreted differently depending on how broadly it is conceptualised. For example, the applicable literature suggests that this construct can be an umbrella term, which encompasses many aspects of happiness in life (La Placa et al., 2013; Veenhoven, 2012). However, happiness has also been understood to be a single component of wellbeing (Dodge et al., 2012) that can rather be likened to SWB, life satisfaction or subjective enjoyment of life than to the broader, umbrella concept of general wellbeing (Veenhoven, 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Many authors have simply stated that happiness is the feeling of being happy while others have expressed a more in-depth understanding of the term (Wright, 2006; Wright et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Additionally, researchers tend to use many different terms interchangeably with happiness. It has been illustrated however, that some of these terms represent different concepts (Dodge et al., 2012; Swart & Rothmann, 2012). For example, wellbeing seems to be an umbrella term that encompasses other facets such as health and SWB (Dodge et al., 2012; La Placa et al., 2013).

In considering the more specific facets or constructs that fall under wellbeing, a central component is that of SWB (Dodge et al., 2012; La Placa et al., 2013). Many authors refer to happiness as identical to SWB (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Diener, Diener, & Diener, 1995; Diener, Tay, & Oishi, 2013; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). Hence, happiness has been understood to be a single element of general wellbeing. Research suggests that happiness is an everyday term used by the layperson (Tov & Diener, 2013; Wright et al., 2007), whereas SWB is a term used more by researchers, because it can be more clearly defined (Diener, 2000; Luthans, 2002a; Oish et al., 2013; Veenhoven, 2012).

Accordingly, SWB is a more academically recognised construct. It can be located in traditional PP research, and it is frequently spoken about in the relevant literature found in PP and POB (Oishi et al., 2013). As a result, SWB is more commonly referred to in psychology research and theory (Luthans, 2002a).

There is thus debate among the literature as to whether SWB and happiness are the same concept or not. Some scholars maintain that happiness is not as comprehensive or as broad as SWB (Dodge et al., 2012; La Placa et al., 2013), while SWB is said to comprise a person's cognitive and affective evaluations of how satisfied they are with their life (Diener et al., 1995; Luthans, 2002a). Nevertheless, the literature generally suggests that happiness and SWB can be referred to as the same construct (Diener, 2012; Oishi et al., 2013; Tov & Diener, 2013; Veenhoven, 2012). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, happiness is considered to be the same as SWB and SWB can simply be defined as "people's cognitive and affective evaluations of their lives" (Diener et al., 1995, p. 851). In order for consistency throughout the document, I will hereafter refer only to SWB in this document.[1]

Components of SWB.

Research on SWB has shown that it can be divided into various components (Veenhoven, 2012). Wong (2011) describes four different components that may involve various personalities, pathways, and situations. These four types include hedonic, prudential, eudemonic, and chaironic. In his distinction of these types of SWB, Wong suggests that while everyone desires to be happy, people differ in the experiences that make them happy and will accordingly experience one of, or a combination of, the four types of SWB. Dolan and Metcalf (2012) explain that SWB should be measured along three categories, namely, evaluation, experience, and eudemonia. This further illustrates Wong's point whereby SWB can be measured along a spectrum of experiences, as well as through evaluations and eudemonia, which "serves as an umbrella term that incorporates psychological well-being, virtue/ excellence, intrinsic motivation/ authenticity, flow/ fully functioning, meaning/ purpose, and concern for others" (Wong, 2011, p. 70).

Wright et al. (2007) have also indicated that SWB comprises three factors. Various researches have considered similar understandings of SWB in which the three factors (identified by Wright et al.) include subjective (Swart & Rothmann, 2012), global (Diener et al., 2013) and affective or emotional experience (Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Wright et al.,

[1] Please note, some authors refer to happiness and others refer to SWB, I will refer to SWB. However, the author being acknowledged may have referred to happiness rather than SWB.

2007). This is comparable to the experiential understandings of SWB expressed by Wong (2011) and Dolan and Metcalf (2012). Similarly, Swart and Rothmann (2012) describe two different conceptualisations of SWB. They explain that various authors have described happiness as a subjective phenomenon. Additionally, it has been suggested that SWB can refer to the cognitive evaluations of whether the direction in which one's life appears to be moving is good or bad, and whereby a person is constantly searching for meaning in their life (Seligman, 2011; Swart & Rothman, 2012). In this understanding, SWB is experienced as regular positive emotions and fewer negative emotions. These understandings of SWB are similar in that they consider SWB to comprise both subjective and cognitive experiences, whereby Wright et al. further distinguishes cognitive experiences into global and affective.

Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) define a happy individual as "someone who frequently experiences positive emotions. Examples of positive emotions include joy, satisfaction, contentment, enthusiasm, and interest." (p. 101). Again, this illustrates the varying parts that compose SWB and highlights its affective nature. More components of SWB have been demonstrated by Peterson et al. (2005). They explain SWB by distinguishing three components, which involve the pursuit of pleasure, engagement, and meaning. Moreover, Lyubomirsky, King et al. (2005) note that central to SWB is positive affect. Therefore, these authors agree that while SWB may be composed of varying parts, positive affect is the "hallmark" of wellbeing and thus of SWB.

Lyubomirsky, King et al. (2005) explain that by considering the understandings presented in their meta analysis of SWB studies, a general way of defining SWB can duly be presented. Consequently, they define SWB as "frequent positive affect, high life satisfaction, and infrequent negative affect" (p. 114). This is similar to Seligman's (2011) account of SWB and exemplified by Swart and Rothman (2012). Lastly, two essential components of SWB which are critical to understanding this construct are cognitive and affective evaluations of one's life (Bowling et al., 2010; Diener, 2012; Veenhoven, 2012). This involves both rational thoughts or beliefs about one's life and also how one feels about one's experiences of life. Therefore, while there are many interpretations of the varying components that make up SWB, research generally illustrates that SWB can be distinguished as having more positive cognitive and affective evaluations of events than negative evaluations.

Correlates of SWB.

Globally, and particularly in South Africa, there is limited research, but in the research to date, SWB has been linked to many important organisational behaviours and outcomes (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Wright, 2006). For example, based on empirical evidence, it has been suggested that happy managers show indirect effects of SWB on individual and organisational outcomes (Swart & Rothmann, 2012). That is, managers with higher levels of SWB express more positive work attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as higher OCB. Additionally, as illustrated earlier, a few authors have noted the important relationship between SWB and organisational performance (Wright, 2006; Luthans & Youssef, 2007) and many have equated performance with success (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Uusiautti, 2014; Wright, 2006). Moreover, it has been suggested that there are several factors contributing to the link between SWB and performance (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008).

It has recently been observed that career commitment is associated with the relationship between career success and SWB (Pan & Zhou, 2013). Research has also shown that SWB is related to being physically healthier, living longer and having better coping abilities (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005), all of which enable people to accomplish more at work and thus perform better (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). Since employee wellbeing has thus been related to job performance, happy people are more productive and therefore make more money (Wright, 2006).

Increased income has also been linked to higher levels of SWB (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Diener et al., 1995; Diener et al., 2013). This resource is closely associated with success and performance (Diener et al., 2013). In a meta-analysis of the relationship between SWB and various work outcomes, a small positive relationship was found between SWB and levels of income (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). It has also been found that household income was positively associated with SWB; however, this association was strengthened by three mediators, namely, material goods, financial satisfaction, and optimism (Diener et al., 2013). The small effect of income on SWB levels is identified mainly in lower to middle class individuals (Pan & Zhou, 2013; van der Meer & Wielers, 2013). In addition, the effects of income on SWB were shown to be enduring (Diener et al., 2013). However, studies have shown that the relationship between SWB and income is small and is mainly associated with income relative to that of others (van der Meer & Wielers, 2013).

Research has also suggested that SWB can be linked to various positive

organisational outcomes (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). For example, SWB can enhance levels of job satisfaction (Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007), organisational commitment and OCB (Swart & Rothmann, 2012). Furthermore, SWB has been shown to be a positive outcome of other behaviours (Peterson et al., 2005; Van Zyl, Deacon, & Rothmann,, 2010). Peterson et al. were among the first researchers to note the importance of pleasure, meaningfulness and engagement in relation to SWB. Other authors have supported the relationship between these three constructs and SWB (Van Zyl et al., 2010), indicating that pleasure, meaningfulness, and engagement leads to SWB.

In an extensive meta-analysis about the benefits of SWB and positive affect, Lyubomirsky, King et al. (2005), note several skills, behaviours and resources that are cultivated by a positive affect. Such elements include: sociability and activity; self-esteem or liking oneself and others; physical health and strength; and lastly, effective conflict resolution skills (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). These may further be linked to important behaviours: for example, altruism and OCB (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005), as well as those that foster high job performance (Wright et al., 2007).

Interestingly, Wright (2006) has suggested that employee wellbeing might be correlated with intention to quit and may even prove to be a more effective predictor of intention to quit than job satisfaction or organisational commitment, owing to its association with the happiness-productive thesis. This suggestion speculates that the happier one is, the more productive one will be and thus less likely to leave the organisation (Wright, 2006). Strangely, however, this relationship seems not to have been explored in the literature. Conversely, the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit or organisational commitment and intention to quit continue to be explored in the literature to date (Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2013; Firth et al., 2004; Martin & Roodt, 2008).

This review of the literature has attempted to demonstrate that SWB is associated with various organisational outcomes and attitudes (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). One such organisational attitude, namely, job satisfaction, has often been considered to be one and the same as SWB (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). However, while it is evident that they are related, these variables can also be differentiated. Owing to the similarities between job satisfaction and SWB at work, further consideration of these two concepts is discussed in the next portion of this document in an attempt to provide more clarity as to how they can be differentiated.

The Relationship between SWB and Job Satisfaction

Not only is SWB strongly related to organisational outcomes such as success and performance, but also a central relationship that consistently emerges from organisational psychology literature is that of job satisfaction and SWB (Bowling et al., 2010; Dodge et al., 2012; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Although SWB and job satisfaction appear to be different constructs, there still seems to be some confusion as to how these constructs might differ from each other (Bowling et al., 2010).

Prior to the recent emergence of positive psychology, SWB in the workplace was studied by means of the happiness-productive thesis (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Wright et al., 2007). This is the idea that SWB and productivity are associated. As these authors reveal, however, this previous research did not sufficiently illustrate links with SWB but rather with job satisfaction due to confusion with the operationalization of the constructs (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). This confusion between the two concepts demonstrates that job satisfaction and SWB may differ. While they are similar and highly correlated (Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005), it would seem that SWB is a broader construct than job satisfaction (Wright et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Moreover, unlike job satisfaction, SWB is not tied to any particular situation, namely a job (Peterson et al., 2005; Wright, 2006).

Wright et al.'s (2007) interpretation of the role of SWB at work within the framework of psychological wellbeing similarly indicates that it is a broader construct than job satisfaction, and that the presence of job satisfaction does not necessarily mean the presence of psychological wellbeing: but that psychological wellbeing may facilitate job satisfaction. Accordingly, some research has also shown that general wellbeing encompasses job satisfaction (Dodge et al., 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Job satisfaction is an attitude, which inherently involves an evaluative component (Tett & Meyer, 1993), whereas SWB in the workplace involves more emotional or affective and psychological connections to the job and the specific work being done (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Wright et al., 2007). To further understand these constructs as distinct elements, some research has suggested that SWB leads to job satisfaction (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Therefore they are different because one allows for the other to occur. Furthermore, SWB is a more short-term, momentary state than previously studied organisational constructs such as job satisfaction, which is more enduring (Diener, Lucas, & Scollon, 2006).

SWB, Job Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment

In considering the various correlates of SWB, as well as how this construct can be associated with job satisfaction, some studies provide evidence that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are found to be key outcomes of SWB (Bowling et al., 2010; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Swart, 2011). As a result, further investigation of the available literature on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and SWB was conducted to explore the relationship between these three variables. After consulting the available literature, it was clear that there is a robust amount of empirical research on organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Bowling et al., 2010; Tett & Meyer, 1993). This was to be expected as these constructs can be considered to be traditional organisational concepts that have been frequently researched in the past (Tett & Meyer, 1993). While there is still some information on SWB in the workplace, it appears to be focused mainly on success and performance (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008), but as noted earlier, these are often difficult to define and measure as it is sometimes challenging to access performance data for an organisation.

The literature search examined other possible outcomes that may arise from these three important organisational concepts. It was noted that intention to quit was consistently associated with two of the three variables, namely, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Locke & Latham, 1990; Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne, & Rayton, 2013), while no research was found to consider intention to quit and SWB. Despite no empirical evidence of this relationship, it has been suggested that employee wellbeing, which can be likened to SWB, may play an important role in predicting intention to quit (Wright, 2006). Therefore, it might be reasonable to consider that a negative relationship exists between intention to quit and SWB owing to the links between these two variables and both organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

In further exploration of these variables, it was noted that there is some controversy as to which of these variables, namely, job satisfaction or organisational commitment, contribute more to the prediction of intention to quit (Firth et al., 2004; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Yalabik et al., 2013). That is, there is inconsistent evidence around whether job satisfaction has a higher correlation with turnover intention than organisational commitment (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

Some authors have found that job satisfaction has a stronger correlation with intention to quit (Martin & Roodt, 2008; Tett & Meyer, 1993), while others have illustrated that organisational commitment is more strongly related to intention to quit (Firth et al., 2004). The latter claim has been said to be more popularly held among scholars (Martin & Roodt,

2008). However, there is empirical evidence specifically aimed at determining the difference between these predictive variables that suggests that job satisfaction has a slightly higher correlation with intention to quit (Martin & Roodt, 2008; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wang, Lee, & Ho, 2012). Given that SWB has not been empirically associated with intention to quit and it may have an indirect relationship with this variable, it may be possible that SWB can also contribute to predicting intention to quit albeit less than job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction and organisational commitment can be defined accordingly. Job satisfaction is a person's "affective attachment to the job" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 261). Organisational commitment can be understood in terms of three different forms, namely, affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Although each of these components of organisational commitment are equally interesting, since this study is focused on the employee's feelings about, and at work it is more relevant to consider affective commitment individually as opposed to organisational commitment generally. Additionally, normative and continuance commitment have rarely been studied (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Therefore, affective commitment can be defined as "employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Since there is little empirical evidence on the relationship between intention to quit and SWB, further research of the literature was conducted to determine the importance of intention to quit in organisations and how it may be related to SWB.

Intention to Quit

Owing to the competitive nature of business in current society, it is essential to retain talented people within the organisation (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). People have become an organisation's most valued asset, which can increase in value over time. Therefore, organisations have invested in methods of retaining people that enable them to appreciate rather than depreciate in value to the organisation (Lai & Chen, 2012; Wang et al., 2012). Consequently, it is critical to understand the behaviours, emotions, and attitudes associated with turnover. In doing so, it becomes apparent that factors affecting intention to quit are important in reducing turnover rates and thus increasing the company's competitive advantage by allowing people to gain value for the organisation (Ajzen, 1991; Lai & Chen, 2012; Siu, Cheung, & Lui, 2014; Wang et al., 2012): that is, allowing people to learn new skills and be more productive. Additionally, high turnover can be extremely costly

for an organisation due to induction and training of new employees as well as decreased production (Firth et al., 2004).

That said, there is overwhelming evidence to support the claim that turnover intention is one of the most accurate predictors of actual turnover (du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Intention to quit has been said to be the last evaluative step before making the final decision to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993). As such, intention to quit can be described as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). There are multiple costs to an organisation associated with turnover (Firth et al., 2004). These include recruitment, selection, induction and training as well as the costs associated with loss of productivity or reputational cost on the company's image (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Firth et al., 2004; Martin & Roodt, 2008). Therefore, it is important to establish ways of reducing intention to quit in order to avoid turnover and its associated costs (Firth et al., 2004).

There is a relatively robust body of research that substantiates the proposition that intention to quit is negatively influenced by job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Chen et al., 2011; Firth et al., 2004; Lai & Chen, 2012; Wang et al., 2012). Some authors have illustrated other influential variables such as feelings of stress (Firth et al., 2004; Siu et al., 2014) and work related factors (Aladwan et al., 2013). However, most studies highlighted the significance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in relation to intention to quit over and above these other variables (Firth et al., 2004; Siu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012).

It is clear from research results that there are multiple factors which mediate and moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit, and that between organisational commitment and intention to quit (Aladwan et al., 2013; Firth et al., 2004; Siu et al., 2014). These factors include: work opportunities; personal needs and responsibilities (Aladwan, et al., 2013); supervisor support or monitoring of work conditions (Firth et al., 2004); work expectations and organisational tenure (Chen et al., 2011). Additionally, it has been illustrated that job satisfaction and feelings of stress can mediate the relationship between PsyCap and intention to quit (Avey et al., 2010; Siu et al., 2014). These studies illustrate that positive emotions and work wellbeing may have an impact on intention to quit.

Positive emotions have also been linked to life satisfaction (Cohn, Fredrickson, Brown, Mikels, & Conway, 2009; Siu et al., 2014), and life satisfaction is a key component of SWB (Cohn et al., 2009; Peterson et al., 2005). It may then be worth thinking about the

influence of life satisfaction and SWB on intention to quit.

Other studies have considered various positive factors and their influence on intention to quit. A recent study has illustrated the importance of satisfying psychological needs in determining ways to reduce turnover intention (Rothman, Diedricks, & Swart, 2013). This study illustrates the importance of giving employees a level of autonomy as a determinant of psychological needs satisfaction and this was shown to reduce intentions to quit. Another study revealed that optimism was not associated with lower levels of intention to quit and in fact among call centre employees, pessimists reported lower levels of intention to quit (Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2004).

In a recent study looking at the link between positive emotions, work wellbeing and turnover intention, Siu et al. (2014) reveal that there is a small direct negative relationship between positive emotions and stress symptoms, and stress symptoms are positively related to intention to quit. Positive emotions by definition incorporate elements of SWB (Diener, 2000; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005). Therefore, it may be possible that SWB, which is also a positive emotion that is influenced by feelings of stress (Diener, 2000; Siu et al., 2014), is indirectly negatively related to intention to quit. Consequently, there are multiple studies indicating the importance of reducing intention to quit in an organisation by determining various predictors of intention to quit (Aladwan et al., 2013; Firth et al., 2004; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Tett & Meyer, 1993). These studies also appear to indirectly show that SWB may be a relevant predictor of intention to quit. Therefore, if increased SWB at work is associated with enhanced performance, and the retention of talented workers leads to better performance, then happy workers may be associated with increased retention or lower intention to quit.

SWB and Intention to Quit

Intention to quit has been shown to relate negatively with multiple positive organisational outcomes. These include a negative relationship between intention to quit and job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job performance (Wang et al., 2012), as well as a possible inverse relationship with job success (Bowen, 1982; Chen et al., 2011; Firth et al., 2004; Lai & Chen, 2012; Siu et al., 2014). Other positive outcomes that reduce intentions to quit include work engagement and OCB (du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). There is little if any research however, considering whether increased SWB, which is considered to endorse positive work outcomes (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Bowling et al., 2010; Cohn et al., 2009; Diener, 2000; Diener, 2012), may also result in decreased intention to quit. While it is

evident that job satisfaction and organisational commitment seem to be closely related to SWB and have been shown to have similar relationships with other organisational outcomes such as performance and success (Bowling et al., 2010; Geldenhuys et al., 2014; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wright et al., 2007), there is no research considering a relationship between SWB and intention to quit.

It is clear from the abundance of literature that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important predictors of intention to quit (Tett & Meyer, 1993). It is also apparent from more recent literature that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important constructs that influence SWB (Bowling et al., 2010; Geldenhuys et al., 2014). However, there is insufficient research on the links between SWB and intention to quit, as well as on how job satisfaction and organisational commitment are related to SWB. The current study thus aims to attend to this gap in the literature. More specifically, this study intends to research the interaction between SWB, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to quit. It is hoped that research findings offered in this study will provide a better understanding of how SWB is associated with intention to quit.

Summary of Main Points

This research is meaningful to the PP and POB fields, as a relationship between SWB and intention to quit may have an important impact on overall organisational performance. While it is recognised that happy workers are more productive (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), it is also recognised that it is important to retain talented employees within the organisation in order to enhance performance and thus competitive advantage (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Martin & Roodt, 2008). This illustrates the significance of establishing ways of reducing intentions to quit. If increased SWB at work is associated with enhanced performance, and the retention of talented workers leads to better performance, then happy workers may be associated with increased retention or lower intention to quit.

SWB is emerging as an important construct in social studies and in the organisational context (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Roberts, 2006; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). It has been associated with many important positive organisational outcomes (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Diener et al., 2013; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005; Pan & Zhou, 2013; van der Meer & Wielers, 2013; Van Zyl et al., 2010; Wright, 2006; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). However, the jury is out as to whether or not it is a critically important construct that can provide further insight for organisational and individual

behaviour and functioning. There is also limited research in the South African context regarding this variable and whether it can contribute any value to organisations (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010).

This study considers three main ideas around SWB and intention to quit. Firstly, it looks to determine whether SWB also predicts intention to quit, when considered together with job satisfaction and affective commitment. Secondly, it asks: if SWB is indeed a predictor, is its contribution to predicting intention to quit significantly different from the other predictors, namely, job satisfaction and affective commitment? Lastly, this study wishes to ascertain whether SWB adds to the validity of the other two predictors in predicting intention to quit.

Hypotheses

In view of the above review of the literature, the objective of this research is to examine job satisfaction, affective commitment and SWB as predictors of intention to quit. The study also aims to determine how SWB at work contributes and influences job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to quit. Additionally, the researcher intends to determine the relative importance of each of these predictors of intention to quit in the workplace. In accordance with the literature review, the following research hypotheses have been postulated and will be assessed in this research study.

Hypothesis 1*a*: Job satisfaction explains a statistically significantly higher proportion of intention to quit variance than does affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1*b*: Job satisfaction explains a statistically significantly higher proportion of intention to quit variance than does SWB.

Hypothesis 2: SWB correlates negatively with intention to quit after the effects of job satisfaction and affective commitment have been held statistically constant.

Chapter 3: Method Section

The focus of this chapter is to describe the various aspects of the research process. It is separated into five sections, which present the study design, participants, measures, procedure and statistical analyses.

Study Design

A quantitative approach was used for data collection by means of a descriptive design. Correlational procedures were used to collect data in order to determine whether a relationship existed between the variables. Data were elicited through a questionnaire comprised of four short Likert-type scales with a five-point rating gauge. These scales include the orientations to happiness scale (OHS) scale, an affective commitment scale, a job satisfaction scale, and a scale determining intention to quit. This study utilised standardised instruments in the form of self-report surveys. The variables being studied in this research paper are subjective phenomena, therefore the most effective means of measuring them is by using a questionnaire and directly asking a participant how they feel (Veenhoven, 2012). Questions in the questionnaire probe answers that reflect the respondents' attitudes of SWB, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to quit.

Participants

Initially, 163 individuals' responses were recorded. However, 28 respondents did not complete the survey or had too many items missing for the data to be useable, that is, less than a 25% response level. Therefore, after cleaning the data, the sample under examination consisted of 135 South African men and women employees between the ages of 22 and 61 (M = 37.03; SD = 10.09).

Respondents' were of varying sex and ethnicity. They were selected from various organisations within different industries in South Africa. The vast majority of respondents worked in the retail industry (73.3%). Within this sample, 79 participants were female (59%) and 54 were male (40.3%). The average number of years worked in the organisations was 7.74 years (SD = 7.10), ranging from less than one year to 32 years. Most participants were at a middle management level (38.1%) within the organisations, while the average monthly net salary bracket was between R10 001 and R20 000 (SD = 8.92). The sample consisted mostly of women in their thirties, holding middle management positions within the retail industry, earning between R20 000 and R50 000 a month having worked in the same organisation for up to two years.

Measures

SWB measure.

Global measures of SWB, that is, both cognitive and affective measures (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999), have been instrumental in measuring SWB in various nations (Pavot, 2013). This involves a self-report questionnaire with questions that probe a person's general level of SWB and life satisfaction. In this study the 18-item measure of global SWB that was developed and validated by Peterson et al. (2005) was utilised. The primary reason for this is that in previous studies, this OHS had good internal consistency for each of its three components, namely pleasure (α = .82), engagement (α = .72), and meaning (α = .82). These validation coefficients were determined by a large sample of students in America. This scale has been adapted and used in the South African setting by Swart and Rothmann (2012). In their study they shortened the scale to have 12 items. The shortened OHS had relatively good reliability coefficients for each of its three components, namely, pleasure (α = .74); engagement (α = .77); and meaning (α = .79).

The original 18-item scale was adapted for this study resulting in a 17-item scale. The adapted scale used in this study consists of six items in two of the three SWB dimensions, namely meaning and pleasure. One item (e.g. "Whether at work or play, I am usually 'in a zone' and not conscious of myself") was removed from the engagement sub-dimension as it did not have face validity for the sample being studied. Each item was measured on a five-point Likert-type scale whereby, 1 indicates that the respondent *strongly agrees* with the given statements and five indicates that they *strongly disagree* with the statements (see Appendix E). The response set was adapted from the original OHS in order to maintain a more uniform response set throughout the questionnaire. The original OHS, asked respondents to indicate the degree to which a statement is most like them on a scale from one to five (e.g. 1 indicates "very much unlike me" and 5 indicates "very much like me"). Additionally, the wording of one item was changed, as it also appeared to lack face validity within the given sample of respondents. Specifically, the word "euphoric" in item 2 of the pleasure sub-scale (e.g. "I go out of my way to feel *euphoric*") was changed to "happy".

Affective commitment measure.

In order to measure organisational commitment, the study used a portion of the 12-item scale, which was adapted for the South African context by Bagraim (2005), from the 18-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). This scale is rated on a five-point Likert-

type scale. The adapted version has a high internal-consistency reliability (α = .87) (Bagraim, 2005). This study only considered one of the three organisational commitment components, namely, affective commitment. Of the three organisational commitment components, namely, normative, continuance, and affective commitment, normative and continuance commitment do not seem to be relevant to the research question as it is concerned with peoples' feelings about the job rather than their perceived lack of opportunity for employment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Accordingly, four items measuring affective commitment in the adapted organisational commitment scale were used. These four items were also rated on a five-point Likert-type scale whereby 1 indicates that the respondent *strongly agrees* with the given statements and 5 indicates that they *strongly disagree* with the statements. An example of an item from the scale is: "I feel emotionally attached to this organisation" (see Appendix C).

Job satisfaction measure.

Six items of the seven-item scale developed by Clark (2001) were used to measure job satisfaction. A reverse coded item was not used however. In order to avoid a response bias, item five was re-formulated by changing the word "satisfied" to "unsatisfied". This item was also very similar to item 6 (see Appendix F). The original scale has a high Cronbach's alpha (α = .91) (Clark, 2001). It was measured on a five-point Likert-type scale whereby 1 indicates *never* and 5 indicates *always*. Here, low scores are indicative of low satisfaction. Responses reveal how often respondents' experienced each item within the last year. An example of an item from this scale is: "My activities at work are interesting".

Intention to quit measure.

Most measures of intention to quit simply involve asking participants on a Likert-type scale to rate their likelihood of leaving the organisation in the near future (Aladwan et al., 2013; Firth et al., 2004; Siu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012). Aladwan et al. (2013), however, used a 14-item scale to measure intention to quit, namely the Turnover Intention Scale – 14 (TIS-14). They illustrated that the commonly used one-item scales may not be adequate for measuring intention to quit, as it does not effectively represent the construct (Aladwan et al., 2013). The TIS-14 was developed in South Africa. A shortened version of this scale has subsequently been developed with six items and a Cronbach's alpha score of *.8* (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). This scale has also shown criterion-predictive validity and differential validity.

Owing to convenience factors, such as time efficiency and practicality or ease of use, the shortened six-item version of the TIS-14 was used in this study. Five of the six items on this scale were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always), while the remaining single item was measured on a similar Likert scale ranging from 1 (Very Unlikely) to 5 (Very Likely) (see Appendix D). Item 6 had a reversed response category in order to avoid a response bias. Therefore, 1 indicated *always* and 5 indicated *never*. The response category for item 2 was also changed in order to have more uniform response categories.

The overall questionnaire was comprised of 39 items altogether including questions on demographics, and was made up of six sub-scales. It was estimated to take about five minutes to complete.

Procedure

Using the online survey platform, Qualtrics, the questionnaire was developed and distributed in various organisations via e-mail. Before distributing the survey, ethical clearance was established from the Ethics in Research committee in the Commerce Faculty at the University of Cape Town. A pilot study was then executed in which seven voluntary respondents completed the survey and gave qualitative feedback on the items. It was found that none of the respondents in the pilot study had any issues with the items and the layout of the survey.

Permission to distribute the survey within the various organisations was obtained from the relevant personnel in each of the organisations. Subsequently, an e-mail was sent to a key contact within the organisations with a link to the questionnaire and a brief description of the study and the length of time that it should take to complete. The key contact then distributed this link throughout their respective organisations and respondents were simply required to follow the hyperlink by clicking on it. This would direct them to the Qualtrics site where they were able to complete the questionnaire.

Respondents were provided with a consent form explaining that the information gathered from the survey would be used only for research purposes and that participation was voluntary and anonymous. The form also briefly explained the purpose of the study, its procedures, and its benefits, as well as that the study posed no risk to respondents. The researcher's details were also provided for respondents to ask any questions or to raise any concerns. Participation in this study was voluntary and respondents' were not restricted from leaving the study at any point during participation. Strict adherence to the ethical guidelines

provided by the UCT Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee was followed and executed in each of the research steps involving human subjects.

Given the time and cost constraints of this research study, both convenience and snowball non-probability sampling techniques were utilised in order to collect data in the most effective and efficient way possible (Burns & Burns, 2008; Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003). Data were gathered over a period of about six weeks from July through August 2014. Snowball sampling was utilised halfway through the data collection process, owing to the poor response rate evident with the use of the convenience sampling method.

Statistical Analyses

Data were statistically analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 (SPSS Inc, 2009). Descriptive statistics were used to investigate the central tendency and variability of the variables specifically collected from the given sample. Exploratory factor analyses were used to assess the factorial validity of the measuring instruments. While Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to evaluate the internal consistency reliability of each of the measures. Pearson product moment correlation was used to identify possible relationships between the variables. A medium effect cut-off point for correlation coefficients of *.30* was set as an indicator of practical significance (Cohen, 1992).

The hypothesis on the rank order of the predictive contribution of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and SWB was investigated by means of relative weights analysis (RWA) to establish the relative importance of each of the predictors of intention to quit. This analysis was performed using a programme developed by Tonidandel and LeBrenton (2014) called RWA-Web found at http://relativeimportance.davidson.edu/. Additionally, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed in order to determine if SWB explained any additional intention to quit variance over and above those explained by job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter is divided into seven sections reporting on the various statistical analyses that were implemented. The first section reports the exploratory factor analyses (EFA) used to study the dimensionality of each of the scales used in the report. The next section considers the reliability of the scales after the EFA has been performed as well as the descriptive statistics. Section three examines the relationship between the variables by performing a correlation analysis between each of the variables being considered. The fourth section briefly presents results from a multiple regression analysis. Section five investigates the relative importance of the three predictors in terms of the proportions of intention to quit variance explained by using RWA. Section Six examines whether any additional intention to quit variance can be explained by SWB over and above the other predictors using hierarchical regression analysis. The last section summarises the main findings evident from the research and links these to the hypotheses.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

EFA was utilised to assess the construct validity of the four measures employed in this study, namely, affective commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit and SWB. This analysis enables the exploration of underlying latent variables evident from patterns of correlations among the items of the four measures (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). A principal axis factoring method was applied, as it was assumed that the factors were related for each construct being measured. This method was also engaged rather than principle component analysis (PCA) because PCA is more appropriate for data reduction and does not separate common variance from unique variance (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Direct Oblimin oblique item rotation was employed as it aids interpretation and this method of rotating assumes that factors to be isolated are correlated (Pallant, 2005).

Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0, is used to help determine how many factors are important (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Pallant, 2005; Williams, Brown, & Onsman, 2012). This approach can be flawed in the sense that it may suggest too many factors; therefore, the scree test was also considered whereby the last significant drop in the size of the eigenvalues on a graph is identified as representative of the number of apparent factors (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used in order to determine if factor analysis was appropriate for analysing the data (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). These tests illustrated that factor analysis was plausible for the items of each

of the measures. Furthermore, the requirements concerning the minimum amount of respondents of five times more cases than items for each measure was maintained (Burns & Burns, 2008). Consequently, the assumptions of factor analysis were satisfied, indicating that factor analysis was a plausible means of analysis.

Affective commitment.

The principal-axis factoring of the four-item scale specified a single relevant factor demonstrating that the scale was uni-dimensional. The eigenvalue of this factor was 2.908 and accounted for 72.69% of the total variance. Furthermore, the scree plot showed that one factor was relevant (Burns & Burns, 2008). The four items had sufficiently high absolute factor loadings (factor loadings: $.764 < r < .911$) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Williams et al., 2012).

Job satisfaction.

Principal axis factor analysis illustrated that this scale was uni-dimensional and thus extracted one factor. It was apparent that item 5 had a factor loading of below the .30 cut-off value and was thus, removed from further analyses (Hair et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2006). After removing this item, the eigenvalue of the five-item scale was 3.219 and accounts for 64.38% of the variance. Further support for the uni-dimensionality of this scale was evident in analysis of the scree plot, which also illustrates that only one factor was relevant (Burns & Burns, 2008; Fabrigar et al., 1999). The remaining five items loaded significantly onto this factor (factor loadings: $.719 < r < .855$).

Intention to quit.

This six-item scale was shown to be one-dimensional after principal axis factor analysis was performed. The eigenvalue of this scale was 3.352 which accounted for 55,86% of the variance. The scree test also indicated that one dimension was evident among the items of this scale. The six-item scale revealed significant factor loadings all of above .30 ($.594 < r < .829$).

SWB.

Principal axis factoring was utilised to examine the items of the three-dimensional scale developed by Peterson et al. (2005). While this scale is comprised of three separate sub-dimensions, all the items were combined and analysed together. Initially, the 17 items loaded

onto five factors (see Figure 3, Appendix A), however only two had eigenvalues of above 1.0. These two significant factors accounted for 35,25%, and 13,59% variance, respectively (see Figure 4, Appendix B).

The analysis did not yield the three factors that had been originally developed. The first factor that emerged was made-up of the first five items from the meaning sub-scale, and item 2 from the engagement subscale. The engagement item was found to have relatively ambiguous wording that might be interpreted as expressing meaning in one's life (e.g. "I seek out situations that challenge my skills and abilities"). The second factor was comprised of three pleasure items only, namely items 2, 3 and 6. Therefore, the OHS was shown to be a two-dimensional scale, labelled as meaning (OHS (M)) and pleasure (OHS (P)). This is inconsistent with findings from previous studies on the OHS (Peterson et al., 2005; Swart & Rothmann, 2012).

Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) was used to determine the internal-consistency reliability of each of the EFA-derived summary scales. For a scale to have an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability, it should have a Cronbach's alpha coeficient of .70 or more (Hair et al., 2003). Furthermore, items were not considered appropriate if their item-total correlations were below .30 (Williams et al., 2012). These inadequate items were consequently, removed. Coefficient alpha for each of the measures was above the acceptable level of .70 and ranged from .908 to .710. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each of the scales was as follows: affective commitment (α = .908); Job satisfaction (α = .899); intention to quit (α = .877); OHS (α = .783); OHS (M) (α = .848); OHS (P) (α = .710).

Descriptive Statistics

The distribution of scores for each summary variable was analysed using descriptive statistics (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). The sample was comprised of 136 respondents for each of the variables. However, one participant's data were omitted from the job satisfaction and pleasure factors once pairwise deletion for missing data was conducted. Table 1 represents the number of participants (*N*), mean (*M*), standard deviation (*SD*), standard error (*SE*) and normality for each of the summary variables. The intention to quit scale (*M* = 2.65; *SD* = 882) had relatively low average scores, while the affective commitment scale (*M* = 3.85; *SD* = .876), the total OHS (*M* = 4.03; *SD* = .484) and the job

satisfaction variable (M = 3.74; SD = .757) appeared to be relatively high for a five-point scale.

Skewness and kurtosis results illustrated that the assumption of normality was violated for most of the variables. However, the standardised skewness and kurtosis coefficients were within a range of +/- 3. This is an indication of acceptable distribution (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002). Additional support for these analyses was evident from the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality (see Table 2). This test was reviewed as it is best suited for smaller samples and is said to be a better measure of normality than Kolmogorov-Smirnov (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). While most of the variables deviated significantly from a normal distribution (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002; Pallant, 2005), the OHS approximated a normal distribution (W_{136} = .98; p = .07). Although the assumption of normality was violated for the majority of the variables, most parametric tests are reasonably robust and can thus be used with non-normally distributed data (Pallant, 2005). Therefore, it was still appropriate to conduct parametric statistical analyses.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Summary Scales

Variables	*N*	*M*	*SE*	*SD*	*Skewness (SE)*	*Kurtosis (SE)*
Job Satisfaction	135	3.74	.065	.757	-.566 (.209)	-.419 (.414)
Affective Commitment	136	3.85	.075	.876	-.895 (.208)	.766 (.413)
Orientations to Happiness	136	4.03	.042	.484	-.152 (.208)	-.190 (.413)
OHS (M)	136	3.69	.047	.547	-.168 (.208)	-.743 (.413)
OHS (P)	135	3.69	.064	.742	-.491 (.209)	.552 (.414)
Intention to Quit	136	2.65	.076	.882	.420 (.208)	-.620 (.413)

Notes. *N* = Number of respondents after pairwise deletion of missing data; *M* = Mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *SE* = standard error of mean.

Table 2

Shapiro-Wilk Test Statistics

	Statistic	df	Sig.
Job Satisfaction	.966	135	.002
Affective Commitment	.921	136	.000
Orientations to Happiness	.982	136	.065
OHS (M)	.952	136	.000
OHS (P)	.960	135	.001
Intention to Quit	.965	136	.002

Note. df = degrees of freedom; sig. = level of significance

Correlation Analysis

The relationships between the total OHS, the meaning and pleasure subscales of OHS, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit were analysed by conducting a correlation analysis with pairwise deletion. The table below (Table 3) demonstrates the correlation matrix of these variables. Job satisfaction was positively and significantly correlated with all the other variables apart from intention to quit. It was adequately correlated with affective commitment (r = .595, p < .001) and poorly correlated with OHS (r = .333, p < .001), OHS (M) (r = .289, p < .001) and OHS (P) (r = .226, p < .01). It was however, negatively and significantly related to intention to quit (r = -.706, p < .001).

Affective commitment was poorly yet positively correlated with OHS (r = .157, p = .067; n.s.), OHS (M) (r = .072, p = .399; n.s.) and OHS (P) (r = .202, p < .05). The correlation between intention to quit and affective commitment however, was strong, negative and significant (r = -.680, p < .001). OHS had strong positive correlations with OHS (M) (r = .868, p < .001) and OHS (P) (r = .677, p < .001) but a poor negative correlation with intention to quit (r = -.092, p = .288; n.s.). Lastly, OHS (M) was poorly positively related to OHS (P) (r = .221, p < .01) and negatively related to intention to quit (r = -.017, p = .840; n.s.), while OHS (P) had a low negative correlation with intention to quit (r = -.158, p = .068; n.s.).

Table 3

A Table Representing the Mean, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Analysis of Indicators

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*
1. *Job Satisfaction*	3.74	.757	-					
2. *Affective Commitment*	3.85	.876	.595***	-				
3. *OHS*	4.03	.484	.333***	.157	-			
4. *Meaning*	3.69	.547	.289***	.072	.868***	-		
5. *Pleasure*	3.69	.742	.226**	.202*	.677***	.221**	-	
6. *Intention to Quit*	2.65	.882	-.706***	-.680***	-.092	-.017	-.158	-

Note. N = 135 after pairwise deletion of missing data: * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01; *** p ≤ 0.001; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation

Regression Analyses

A standard multiple regression was conducted to establish whether a linear combination of predictors significantly correlated with intention to quit ($F_{4, 130} = 54.662$; $p < .001$). This analysis revealed that 61.6% of the variance in intention to quit can be accounted for by the linear combination of OHS (P) and (M), job satisfaction, and affective commitment ($R = .792$; adjusted $R^2 = .616$). Three of the four predictors contribute to predicting intention to quit, whereby OHS (M) ($\beta = .162$, $t = 2.824$, $p < .01$) contributed positively but less than affective commitment ($\beta = -.379$, $t = -5.608$, $p < .001$), which contributed more to the model than OHS (M) but less than job satisfaction ($\beta = -.528$, $t = -7.522$, $p < .001$). OHS (P) did not significantly contribute to the prediction of intention to quit ($\beta = .002$, $t = 0.041$, $p = .967$). These results correspond to the first two columns of Table 4.

Relative Weights Analysis

To test hypotheses 1*a* (*Job satisfaction explains a statistically significantly higher proportion of intention to quit variance than does affective commitment*) and 1*b* (*Job satisfaction explains a statistically significantly higher proportion of intention to quit variance than does SWB*), a RWA (Johnson, 2000) was conducted using the RWA-Web programme (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014). Table 4 represents the summarised results found in this analysis. As recommended by Tonidandel, LeBreton, and Johnson (2009), bootstrapping with 10 000 replications was used. The confidence intervals for each of the relative weights and their resultant significance tests were based on these replications. Additionally, it has also been suggested that both accelerated and bias corrected confidence intervals be utilised as they represent better accuracy of coverage (Tonidandel et al., 2009). Ninety-five percent confidence intervals were constructed. If these confidence intervals failed to include the value of zero, the corresponding null hypotheses had to be rejected at the five percent alpha level of significance (assuming two-tailed tests).

The results reveal that the combination of the four weighted linear predictor variables, namely job satisfaction, affective commitment, OHS (P) and OHS (M) together explain over half the variance evident in the criterion variable, intention to quit ($R^2 = .627$). In accordance with the standard multiple regression results, the RWA also illustrated that this model accounts for over 50% of variance in intention to quit. However, the R^2 shows a slightly higher amount of variance ($R^2 = .621$) than that of the standard multiple regression analysis (adjusted $R^2 = .616$).

The RWA also indicated that only two of the three predictors accounted for a statistically significant amount of variance in intention to quit (see Table 4). This was evident, as the 95% confidence intervals for only job satisfaction (CI: .213; .441) and affective commitment (CI: .190; .381) did not include zero (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014). While on the other hand, in contrast to the traditional multiple regression analysis, OHS (P) (CI: -.011; .044) and OHS (M) (CI: -.007; .041) were both not shown to be significant predictors of intention to quit. This was expected when examining the confidence intervals for the raw weights because job satisfaction and affective commitment evidently had much larger values than the OHS predictors.

It is often observed that there is a lack of agreement between the two analyses, as they tend to address slightly different research questions (Tonidandel et al., 2009). The results from the analyses supplement each other (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). The traditional analysis tends to only consider incremental prediction whereas RWA expresses non-trivial variance in the outcomes (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). The RWA accounts for multicollinearity between predictor variables and thus, may provide supplementary information about these variables that can produce different results (Nathans, Oswald, & Nimon, 2012; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011).

The RWA also allowed for an analysis of the relative contribution of each of the predictors on the overall model (R^2) and if this showed significant difference in predicting intention to quit compared to the other predictors (See Tables 5-7). The analysis indicated that the confidence intervals were inclusive of zero when comparing job satisfaction (Table 5) and affective commitment (Table 6). Therefore, the predictive powers of job satisfaction and affective commitment are not significantly different from each other. The relative weight of both OHS (M) and OHS (P) were statistically significantly smaller than the remaining variables and were thus, significantly different from both job satisfaction and affective commitment in predicting intention to quit (See Table 7). However, OHS (M) and OHS (P) do not differ significantly from each other.

The RWA-Web has an additional technical capability for running an investigation of the differences between the relative weight magnitudes as a function of each gender. Given the novel use of the application, the researcher decided to run her data through this analysis, despite not having determined hypotheses for this investigation. It was evident that males did not differ statistically significantly from females, as the confidence intervals did include zero. These findings are graphically represented in Figure 1. The next chapter engages in a further discussion as to why this latter analysis was performed.

In sum, the results indicated that most of the explained variance in intention to quit is attributed to job satisfaction (52% of model R^2), and affective commitment (44% of model R^2), while meaning (2% of model R^2) and pleasure (1.5% of model R^2) were significantly lower.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

A hierarchical regression analysis was performed to test the final hypothesis (*SWB correlates negatively with intention to quit after the effects of job satisfaction and affective commitment have been held statistically constant*), whereby the incremental validity of the predictors of intention to quit is examined. A two-step analysis was used to determine how SWB influences the predictability of intention to quit. Step one presented the first two variables, namely job satisfaction and affective commitment. In step two, OHS (P) and OHS (M) were added to the model as additional independent variables. In the first step, job satisfaction and affective commitment together accounted for 59.7% (p = .001) of the variance in intention to quit. Both these variables were highly significant predictors individually (job satisfaction: *Beta* = -.527; p < .001; affective commitment: *Beta* = -.379; p < .001). The second step indicated that the new model explained 61.5% (p < .05) of variance in intention to quit. OHS (P) (*Beta* = .003, p = .964) and OHS (M) (*Beta* = .161, p < .01) significantly contributed to the explained variance in intention to quit (ΔF^2 = 4.08, p < .05). However, in considering the effect size of 0.064 (using Cohen's f^2 method: $f^2 \frac{R^2_{AB} - R^2_A}{1 - R^2_{AB}}$), from a practical perspective, pleasure and meaning are not likely to make a large improvement in predicting intention to quit (Cohen, 1992).

Table 4

A Summary of a Traditional Regression and Relative Weight Analysis

Criterion = Intention to quit (adjusted R^2=.616; F [4,130] = 54.662, p < .001)

Predictor	b	β	RW	CI-L	CI-U	RS-RW
Intercept	5.315					
Job Satisfaction	-.615***	-.528	.3280	.2134	.4407	52.30%
Affective Commitment	-.382***	-.379	.2763	.1903	.3807	44.06%
OHS Pleasure (P)	.003	.002	.0094	-.0114	.0444	1.50%
OHS Meaning (M)	.261**	.162	.0134	-.0070	.0414	2.14%

Note. N = 135 after pairwise deletion of missing data: * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01; *** p ≤ 0.001; b = unstandardised regression weight; β = standardised regression weight; RW = raw relative weight (within rounding error raw weights will add up to R^2); CI-L = lower bound of confidence interval used to test the statistical significance of the raw weights; CI-U = upper bound of confidence interval used to test the statistical significance of the raw weights; RS-RW = relative weight rescaled as a percentage of predicted variance in the criterion variable attributed to each predictor (within rounding error rescaled weights sum to 100%).

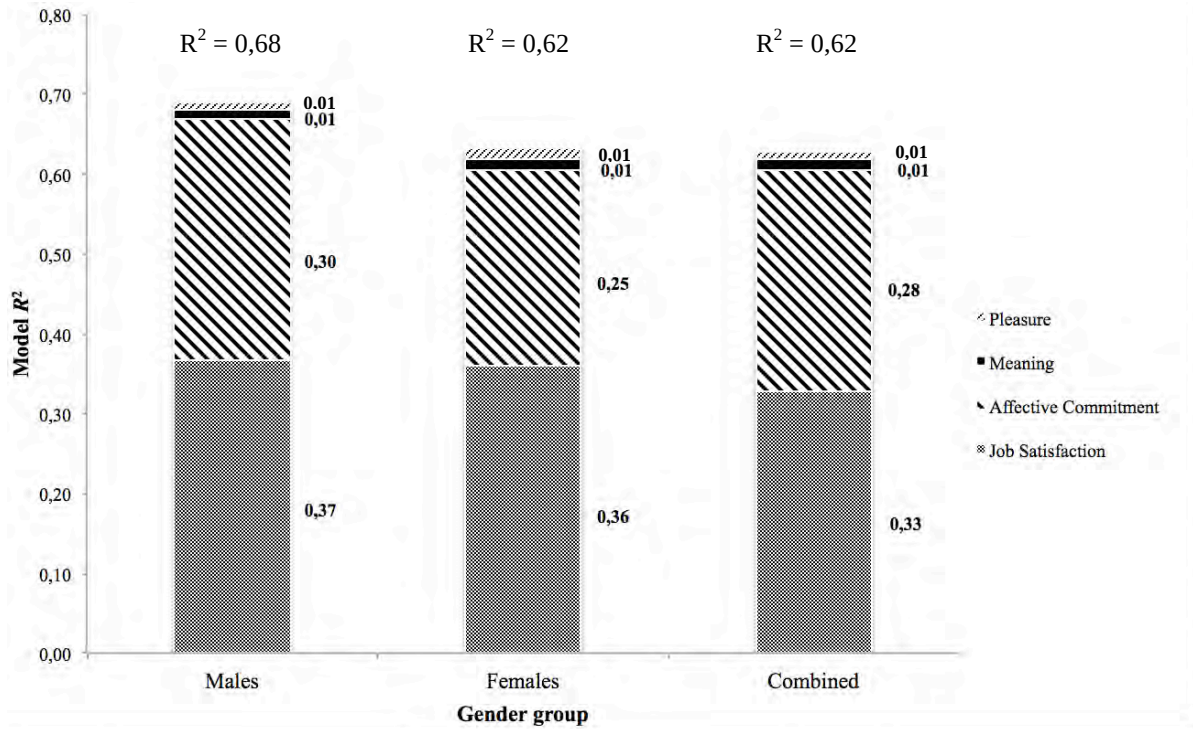

Figure 1. Relative weights of job satisfaction, affective commitment, meaning, and pleasure in predicting intention to quit for males and females[2]

[2] It is important to highlight that the bars indicate raw relative weights. Therefore, these numbers are of the overall variance explained by each predictor (R-squared).

Table 5

A Table Comparing the Relative Weight of Job Satisfaction with the Relative Weights of all other Predictors

	CI-L	CI-U
Affective Commitment	-.229	.140
OHS (M)	-.435	-.196
OHS (P)	-.443	-.209

Note. If zero is not included, the relative weights are significantly different from Job Satisfaction

Table 6

A Table Comparing the Relative Weight of Affective Commitment with the Relative Weights of all other Predictors

	CI-L	CI-U
Job Satisfaction	-.229	.232
OHS (M)	-.371	-.175
OHS (P)	-.383	-.183

Note. If zero is not included, the relative weights are significantly different from Affective Commitment

Table 7

A Table Comparing the Relative Weight of OHS (M) with the Relative Weights of all other Predictors

	CI-L	CI-U
Job Satisfaction	.195	.434
Affective Commitment	.173	.371
OHS (P)	-.034	.038

Note. If zero is not included, the relative weights are significantly different from OHS (M)

Summary of Main Findings

Table 5 provides a summary of the main results from this study based on the above analyses.

Table 8

Hypotheses and Summarised Results

Hypotheses	Data Analysis Technique	Level of Support
1*a*. Job satisfaction explains a statistically significantly higher proportion of intention to quit variance than does affective commitment.	RWA; Multiple Regression	Not Supported
1*b*. Job satisfaction explains a statistically significantly higher proportion of intention to quit variance than does SWB (OHS (M) & OHS (P)).	RWA; Multiple Regression	Supported
2. SWB (OHS (M) & OHS (P)) correlates negatively with intention to quit after the effects of job satisfaction and affective commitment have been held statistically constant.	Hierarchical Multiple Regression	Supported

Notes. SWB = subjective wellbeing; RWA = relative weights analysis; OHS (M) = Orientations to Happiness Scale – Meaning; OHS (P) = Orientations to Happiness Scale - Pleasure.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The aim of this study was to gain a better understanding of the relative importance of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and SWB in predicting intention to quit. More specifically, the current research sought to determine how SWB contributes to the prediction of intention to quit over and above the variables, job satisfaction and affective commitment. This chapter is divided into four main sections. The first section discusses the quality of the measures used in this study, as well as the research design implemented. Limitations pertaining to both design and scales are also discussed within this section. This is a deviation from some research theses or dissertations where limitations are discussed under a separate heading. In this case, it adds to the overall logic of the chapter and the structure to integrate limitations into the discussion. Secondly, an interpretation of the results according to the hypotheses will be discussed, in which the implications of the results are explored in relation to previous work in this field of research. The next section considers relevant recommendations for future research as well as for organisations to consider in light of the current results. Lastly, a summary of the key findings from this study is provided.

Quality of Measures

In considering the psychometric qualities of the four measures used in this study, it is clear that three of the four measures performed well in determining a good level of measurement in the given sample. The performance of the measures allows the researcher to have some confidence in the results and what these results propose. Each of these three measures (The TIS-6; Job Satisfaction Scale, and Affective Commitment Scale) is well established and has been used in multiple settings in numerous studies. Additionally, all four measures have been used in other South African studies (Aladwan et al., 2013; Bagraim, 2005; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Rothmann, 2013; Swart & Rothmann, 2012).

It is critical to note that despite the fact that it has been used in the South African setting, the SWB measure, namely, the OHS did not perform as well in measuring levels of SWB in the current sample of South African workers. There are many possible explanations for this but the most obvious is that South African workers are not accustomed to understandings of pleasure, meaning, and engagement-in-life as being aspects of SWB. Consequently, there is an opportunity here to think about developing a scale that has greater resonance in the South African context. Perhaps what is needed is a more culture-specific and nuanced expression of SWB in South Africa. In reflecting on the psychosocial, political, and economic trends within the South African context there is evidence that work is being done

that is looking into the moods, attitudes and viewpoints of people at work (FutureFact, 2014; Kuper, 2009; Stoke, 2012). In doing so, organisations like FutureFact and the iOpener institute are highlighting a positive mindset at work.

The OHS was chosen because the items appeared to the researcher to have face validity, and a pilot study was conducted in which no issues were raised. The pilot study was implemented with a sample that was similar to that of the current sample. Despite attempts to assess these limitations in advance, it was not anticipated that this scale would not work. One explanation for this might be that the scale did not have adequate face validity for the rest and majority of the sample in this case. As a result, the poor EFA results for this scale in this sample may have occurred because the OHS was not specifically developed for or amongst the South African population. However, most of the scales used thus far to measure SWB have been developed in America (Rothmann, 2013). While the OHS has been used in other South African studies, its use in this context is limited and requires more research (Rothmann, 2013).

It was noted earlier in the literature review that there has been some non-academic interest and research conducted in South Africa on SWB at work (HR Future, 2010; Stoke, 2012). This research has been guided by various organisations and consultancies including those mentioned above, namely, FutureFact and the iOpener institute. These organisations have recognised the importance of SWB in the workplace through in depth, large-scale surveys across the country (HR Future, 2010; Stoke, 2012). It may be possible that the kind of information generated in these surveys will help us to understand South African-specific definitions of concepts like SWB better. This work and these kinds of organisations may form the foundations on which understandings of SWB in South African organisations can be developed and cultivated over time and on which new validated and reliable scales can be developed.

Future researchers may consider conducting a qualitative study in this area among different cultures and communities in order to develop a working definition within the South African population from which a scale can be developed. This might also allow for better understandings of the importance of SWB in South African organisations. In addition, organisations like FutureFact and the iOpener institute can provide some first-hand, non-academic evidence of people's moods and attitudes at work in South Africa to guide future research on these matters (FutureFact, 2014; Kuper, 2009; Stoke, 2012).

In considering results from the EFA on the OHS, it was apparent that only a single item from the engagement subscale was shown to be valid among the respondents. There is

some evidence to suggest that in another sample, engagement also failed to perform particularly well (Rothmann, 2013). It should be noted however that engagement as it is operationalized here, is not the same as the popular POB concept of work engagement. Engagement in this scale refers to the extent to which a person is connected with the world around them (Peterson et al., 2005). Therefore, despite the apparent shortcomings of the OHS and that it did not work as envisioned, two clear factors representing two key aspects of SWB, namely meaning and pleasure, emerged after conducting the EFA and were sufficiently robust and reliable to run the analyses with confidence. Essentially, the scale did not work as anticipated but worked well enough with these two distinct constructs to pursue the analysis related to the hypotheses.

Research Design Limitations

The research design implemented in this study has some limitations related to the time frame and the restricted resources of the study. Among these issues are the sampling methods used and the size of the sample.

Owing to the use of convenience and snowball sampling, the sample was not representative of the South African working population. These sampling methods are flawed in that they do not give each person in a population an equal chance of participating in the study (Hair et al., 2003). However, this sampling technique was the most appropriate and efficient way of establishing enough participants in the limited time frame available for the study. With less time and budget constraints, random sampling may be an option in future studies, as it would allow for a more representative sample from which findings can be generalised among the population.

The data collection method could be improved as the current method may have allowed for common method variance. Future studies should perhaps consider using paper and pencil methods of collecting data in addition to online methods, as this might allow for reduced chances of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This may also allow for increased response rates (Hair et al., 2003). Data were collected using self-report measures. As a result, response bias may be an issue, whereby individuals inflate or deflate responses based on what they believe to be more socially desirable. However, these limitations do not seem to have had a large effect on the data, as this study did not aim to generalise across the population but rather to inform the gap in the literature regarding intention to quit and SWB. Additionally, the results were applied with confidence owing to the good level of reliability and validity for each of the measures used.

The sample was sufficient and adequate for these research purposes despite being relatively small in size (Pallant, 2005). This sample appeared to come mostly from the retail industry, which is a large industry in South Africa but by no means the largest (Statistics South Africa, 2014). It therefore, does not cover all business sectors within South Africa and mainly consisted of middle to higher-level employees, earning a relatively high income compared to the majority of workers in South Africa. Although it is important to consider the sectors and levels of employment studied in this research, the study cannot be generalised to all employees within South Africa. However, as noted above, it was not the intention of this study to generalise findings across all employees in South Africa. It rather intended to ascertain a better understanding of how organisational outcomes and POB concepts can be associated. It has also been useful in highlighting a flaw in the OHS that future researchers can improve upon. Overall, the sample of respondents remains adequate and useful for the intentions of this study.

Another concern with the current design is that it is cross-sectional, which may only reflect the respondents' feelings at a point in time rather than over time. As a result, it is not possible to determine causal relationships between the variables (Mann, 2003). It may be important to consider the causal relationship between these variables in future studies in order to establish a thorough understanding of how they affect one another. This may be possible by conducting a longitudinal study of varying levels of SWB among employees over time. By determining an understanding of SWB over time, it may also be possible to compare these levels with other organisational behaviour outcomes. As a result, it will enable a better understanding of how SWB interacts with other variables over time, which will facilitate causal analyses.

Another means of facilitating causal inferences would be for future research to consider a repeated measures experimental design, as people's level of SWB varies. These levels vary depending on a whole host of other aspects, including current mental state and emotional stability at a point in time, as well as reactions to various circumstances and experiences (Diener et al., 2006). This research design would allow for the same group of people to be analysed at different times so that it might be possible to determine a level of change over time as well as cause and effect measures (Burns & Burns, 2008; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Thereby a greater understanding of how SWB might affect organisational behaviour variables could be established.

State-like concepts such as SWB may be difficult to measure as they are constantly changing (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Therefore, a repeated measures design might enable a

more accurate account of people's level of SWB. By virtue of using rating scales that have been established and used in similar studies, and by promoting anonymity and confidentiality, cross-sectional self-report measures were rendered suitable for the purposes of the current study.

Lastly, Bothma and Roodt (2013) note that in order to determine the most consistent measure of intention to quit, this variable should be measured after a reasonable amount of time from the acceptance of a position in an organisation. The current study did not consider this, however it may be a useful means to enhance the reliability of measuring intentions to quit in future studies. It was suggested that a period of six months after accepting a position in an organisation is adequate to determine an appropriate level of turnover intention (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). The current study indicated that only three respondents had been at their organisation for less than one year while the majority of respondents had been part of the organisation for over two years. The intention to quit measure also had a high reliability in this study. Therefore, this limitation should not have had a large impact on the quality of the existing results.

Rethinking the dependent variable.

One obvious interpretation of the results is to conclude that essentially there is little relationship between intention to quit and SWB and that these variables are simply not important when considered together. However, it has been argued that the experience of positive affect when happy can lead to success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). Based on a critical review of employee wellbeing, Wright (2006) has explained that SWB may lead to more productivity and thus, success in terms of productivity. Evidence has also revealed that higher levels of SWB have been shown to foster workplace success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Diener, 2012). It is thus apparent that SWB is important in relation to performance and success.

If one were able to access real performance data or to measure performance accurately, one could conduct a longitudinal or repeated measures study with these data. It was not possible to consider performance and success in this study but perhaps these variables would have yielded stronger, more significant and practically useful results. As a result, it may be beneficial to establish a better empirical understanding of how SWB plays a role in performance and success in South African organisations. While SWB might not be that strongly related to intention to quit, there may be other organisational behaviour outcomes like performance that should rather be considered in relation to SWB.

A Brief Discussion about the use of RWA

The RWA employed in this study was the most appropriate analytical technique for the given hypotheses. Johnson (2000) was among the first to utilise this technique and to acknowledge its practical utility. It has recently been recognised as being a valuable analytical procedure as it allows one to determine the relative importance of various predictors in a regression analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). It is evidently a more thorough technique for establishing the importance of variables in that it allows for the variance of correlated predictor variables to be partitioned in a more accurate manner (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014). This study's hypotheses were ideal for the use of this kind of analytic technique because it permits an understanding of how each of the predictor variables, namely, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and SWB, can contribute to the explained variance in a criterion - specifically, intention to quit.

The current study utilised a freely available programme called RWA-Web, which is available at http://relativeimportance.davidson.edu/ (Tonidandel & LeBrenton, 2014). These authors encourage researchers to make use of the programme to assist with the RWA analysis. They have devised a set of algorithms to establish the relative weights of constructs as predictors (Tonidandel & LeBrenton, 2014). In developing this useful platform on which to perform such analyses easily, they have also provided a comprehensive tutorial whereby it is possible to follow a step-by-step procedure for performing a RWA (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014). The RWA is a fairly new technique but is highly regarded (Johnson, 2000; Johnson, 2004; Nathans et al., 2012; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011).

Owing to the ease of use of this programme, as well as the clear and understandable results presented, Tonidandel and LeBreton (2014) recommend that more studies utilise this analytic technique when considering the relative importance of various predictors. This technique aids in better understandings of how variables are related and whether they can predict another variable (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). Not only has this new analytic technique proved to be practically useful in the current study but the RWA-Web programme enabled many useful and easy-to-understand analyses that enhance the RWA.

As an added function, the RWA-Web programme offers an analysis in which it is possible to determine how the relative weights differ as a function of gender (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014). Hypotheses that distinguished between the genders were not proposed because the researcher only became aware of the possibility to address this differential factor

when already engaging with the RWA. Additionally, there appeared to be nothing in the literature to suggest any differences. Since these differences have not been considered or explored in any other studies, the current study attempted to begin addressing this gap in the literature. The results indicated that there were no differences between males and females. Lastly, the RWA-Web programme also offers information about whether the raw relative weights are statistically significant (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014). This is found by computing bias accelerated and corrected confidence intervals (Tonidandel et al., 2009). These results are discussed in more detail below.

Exploring the Descriptive Statistics

In general, the descriptive statistics indicate that the sample in this study appeared to be satisfied, happy, and affectively committed to their organisations, while for the most part the sample had low levels of intention to quit. This initially indicated what was to be expected. In considering the correlations between the given variables, it was clear that each of the positive organisational constructs had an inverse relationship with that of intention to quit. This immediately illustrated what was to be expected of the variables and allowed for analyses to move forward with confidence.

Additionally, the correlations between the variables indicated that SWB in terms of pleasure and meaning did not seem to relate strongly with any of the other variables. This gave the researcher a preliminary impression that the results would not be exactly as hypothesised and that this measure of SWB may not be adequate for the sample in this case. The descriptive statistics also indicated that there was a poor correlation between job satisfaction and SWB, as well as between affective commitment and SWB. This appeared to be inconsistent with findings from other studies which have shown that these attitudes are correlated relatively well with SWB (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Bowling et al., 2010; Diener et al., 2006; Wright et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). This may be as a result of the scale composition and its success in the sample as discussed earlier. Another explanation may include the factor of the sample composition and size, in that a larger, more generalizable sample may have yielded higher correlations. However, as noted earlier, this sample was useful for the purposes of the current study.

Discussing the Hypotheses

The outcomes of this study illustrated that SWB contained only two dimensions (pleasure and meaning) and did not support analyses from previous studies where three

dimensions were found (Peterson et al., 2005; Swart & Rothmann, 2012). The EFA did however, confirm the unidimentionality of intention to quit, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. Multiple regression analysis and RWA confirmed hypotheses 1*a* and 1*b*. It was evident that the rescaled relative weight of job satisfaction was larger than affective commitment, and affective commitment had a larger rescaled relative weight than SWB (pleasure and meaning). Thus, indicating that job satisfaction is a better predictor of intention to quit than affective commitment and affective commitment is a better predictor of intention to quit than SWB. A graphic representation of how these variables have been shown to interact is presented below in Figure 2.

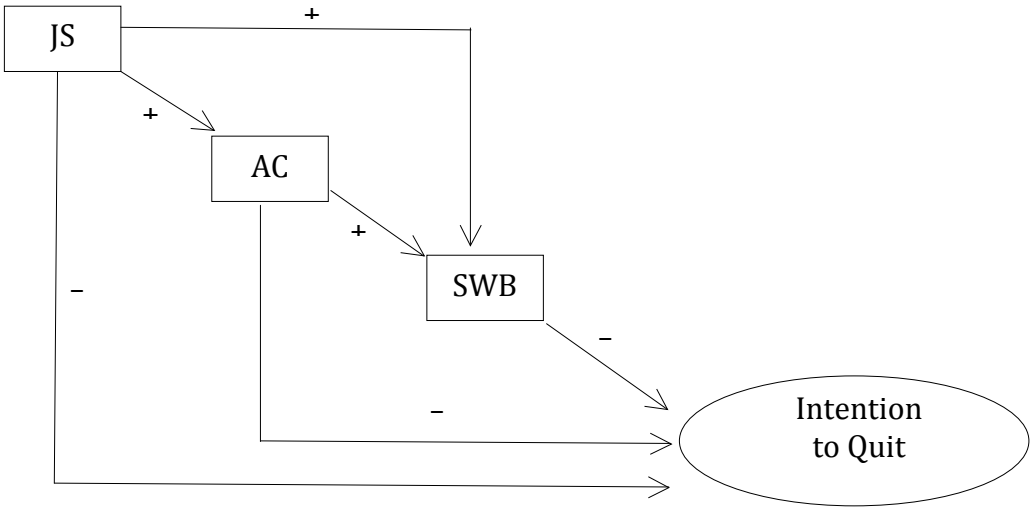

Figure 2. A conceptual framework of the relative importance of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and SWB (Meaning & Pleasure) as predictors of intention to quit.

This study additionally considered whether SWB increased the validity of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in predicting intention to quit. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis provided evidence to support hypothesis 2, as SWB (pleasure and meaning) was shown to offer incremental validity in predicting intention to quit. This was apparent in that both pleasure and meaning were positively correlated with intention to quit after the effects of job satisfaction and affective commitment had been statistically held constant. The findings suggested that SWB does add a small amount of validity to the prediction of intention to quit. However, this additional validity does not seem to be practically relevant as it is so small. The effect size of 0.064 indicates that pleasure and

meaning are not likely to make a large difference in predicting intention to quit further (Cohen, 1992). These findings refer to the hypotheses outlined earlier in Table 8.

The results strongly suggest that our current understanding of the significant impact or influence between the two fundamental, traditional, and well-researched constructs of job satisfaction and affective commitment do hold muster. If we look at the trajectory of research emanating out of organisational behaviour studies for the last twenty years these constructs have endured and seem to have real traction amongst people at work (Martin & Roodt, 2008; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Yalabik et al., 2013). These results therefore highlight the significant roles that job satisfaction and affective commitment have in our understanding of organisational behaviour. While there are multiple factors that have been shown to influence intention to quit (Aladwan et al., 2013; Firth et al., 2004; Siu et al., 2014), job satisfaction and organisational commitment continue to be among the most significant variables in relation to intention to quit over and above these other variables. This was also illustrated by the RWA results whereby both job satisfaction and affective commitment together explain almost the entire R-squared model. That is, they contribute around 96% of the overall variance explained by the R-squared model, further highlighting the overwhelming role these two variables play in predicting intention to quit.

The discipline of POB is burgeoning with the introduction of a whole host of new constructs such as SWB, hope, and optimism among others (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). This novel, more positive way of looking at organisational behaviour concepts has prompted a need for the new constructs to be rigorously researched. With more thorough research on these new constructs, it is possible to establish their validity and legitimacy in the workplace. It is thus, necessary to subject the latest POB constructs to the same kind of rigid psychometric research that the traditional constructs such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment have endured. For example, these two variables have often been considered in a robust amount of literature (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bowling et al., 2010; Geldenhuys et al., 2014; Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010; Wright et al., 2007). They have been explored as both antecedents and outcomes in relation to a number of other variables including organisational culture, OCB, job involvement, and work engagement, to name only a few. Through this multitudinous literature, both job satisfaction and affective commitment have slowly been cultivated, refined, and clearly defined, so that conceptualisations and operationalizations of these variables are well established and stable. Perhaps what this current study is suggesting is that it is necessary to establish a better understanding of this emerging construct of SWB through rigorous

research, before decisions can be made about its usefulness in the workplace in relation to intention to quit specifically.

As noted by Tonidandel and LeBrenton (2014, p. 5), "The relative weight statistic has been shown to provide extremely good estimates of the relative importance of predictor variables when those predictor variables are correlated"**.** As a result, the relative weight of SWB was not presented as being relatively important as it was poorly correlated with job satisfaction and affective commitment. Perhaps as we refine measures and the construct itself, SWB will perform better as a predictor. Alternatively, we might continuously find that SWB does not impact on people's intention to leave an organisation and hence confirms traditional research that positions job satisfaction and affective commitment as the key predictors for this important organisational attitude and potential behaviour.

Thinking more critically about SWB.

As highlighted in depth in the literature review, this new idea of SWB appears to be an important concept, which has been recently researched in multiple studies (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Diener, 2012; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005). However, a possible explanation due to the way in which SWB has played itself out in this study may be that it has not been presented as an important predictor in the case of whether or not people intend to stay within the organisation. Given the limitations, this does not necessarily indicate that SWB is not a good predictor, but rather, it did not seem to work as a predictor in this study. It may also be the case that because the scale used in this study was not a good indicator of SWB in the given sample, SWB was not shown to have high correlations with the other predictor variables.

There seems to be a few studies considering zest and positive emotions (Donaldson & Ko, 2010; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2004) yet there is little evidence showing how being optimistic, for example, might impact on other negative behaviours such as intention to quit. These positive concepts might be useful in determining ways of reducing negative organisational behaviours and attitudes by determining an inverse relationship between such variables. However, there is some evidence to suggest that pessimists tend to have lower levels of intention to quit (Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2004). This seems to go against our understanding of how positive organisational behaviours tend to perform in relation to negative organisational behaviours or intentions. As a result, the limited empirical research on these variables warrants further exploration in generating

critical insight into the fields of POB and PP and how they might affect or be related to other, better established organisational constructs.

Intention to quit appears to be a negative organisational behaviour that can be used in some ways to symbolise positive organisational concepts such as low commitment or low job satisfaction (Tett & Meyer, 1993). However, in this study, intention to quit was shown to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction and affective commitment but only slightly for SWB. Hence there may be a possibility that if the dependent variable is changed so that a different kind of organisational attitude or intended behaviour is considered rather than intention to quit, there might be a stronger correlation with SWB.

Future studies may find it useful to consider more positive behaviours and attitudes in relation to SWB. For example, it may be interesting to study how SWB and work engagement or job involvement are related. Additionally, perhaps some neutral organisational constructs like organisational culture and personality traits might have a stronger association with SWB. Lastly, in considering the multiple benefits evident among happy workers (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon et al., 2005), there may be a noteworthy relationship between work-family enrichment and SWB, which can be explored in future research. By considering different dependent variables of SWB, prospective studies can also look to determine how SWB might influence other organisational psychology areas such as recruitment and selection or job redesign.

Intention to quit and success.

There is clear and strong evidence that shows a high correlation between intention to quit and actually quitting and hence turnover is the chief concern when studying intention to quit (Bowen, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Lesser but important consequences include lowered performance, presenteeism and absenteeism (Aladwan et al., 2013; Bowen, 1982; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Wang et al., 2012). Individuals who remain at work but who are seriously contemplating leaving their organisation are often less effective in their jobs and less committed to the organisation. As noted multiple times, positive attitudes like SWB have been associated with performance and success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008) and hence are hypothesised to have a negative relationship with undesirable organisational behaviours like turnover. There is some but not much research in this field and hence the current research attempted to investigate these associations empirically.

The results of this study suggest that because there was a small negative relationship between intention to quit and SWB, there may be a similarly small negative relationship between turnover and SWB. However, despite it being suggested that there may be a relationship between intention to quit and performance (Wright, 2006), owing to the poor relationship between intention to quit and SWB, it seems doubtful that intention to quit and performance or success are in fact related. This will however require further explicit research

Job satisfaction and affective commitment as predictors of intention to quit.

Evidence from this study suggests that while both job satisfaction and affective commitment contribute significantly more than SWB, job satisfaction is the major predictor. It was indicated that the relative weight of job satisfaction is higher than that of the other predictors in this study, followed by affective commitment, then SWB. Therefore, it appears that job satisfaction is a better predictor of intention to quit than affective commitment. These results weigh in with the findings of researchers like Martin and Roodt (2008), Tett and Meyer (1993), and Wang et al. (2012). The understanding that job satisfaction is a better predictor of intention to quit has been noted as the less popular opinion in the literature (Martin & Roodt, 2008). However, it appears that evidence from this study as well as other empirical studies that have specifically aimed to determine this distinction have continuously shown that job satisfaction has a higher correlation with intention to quit than affective commitment. Nevertheless, these two variables were both strongly related to intention to quit.

The attraction and benefit of the RWA-Web developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2014) is that it allows one to determine whether the relative weight of one predictor is statistically significantly different from that of another predictor within a sample. In this case, it was evident that the relative weights of affective commitment and job satisfaction were not presented as being statistically significantly different from each other in predicting intention to quit for the sample. They are similar in their ability to predict whether a person may intend to leave the organisation or not. This may indicate that despite showing different levels of relative importance in predicting intention to quit, perhaps job satisfaction and affective commitment do not differ and are in fact equally suitable predictors of this variable. It is thus recommended that future research consider RWA in determining differences between job satisfaction and affective commitment in predicting intention to quit so as to determine a more comparable analysis of whether job satisfaction and affective commitment differ in their ability to predict this variable. The following section will discuss some practical implications that can be derived from the main findings of this study.

Practical Implications

Work plays a significant role in people's lives and can contribute to a large portion of ones level of overall life satisfaction (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Money et al., 2008). As noted earlier in the literature review, POB considers psychological capacities that are state-like in nature and are thus more momentary experiences rather than long-term, sustainable traits (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Therefore, the state-like POB concept discussed in this study - namely, SWB - and its related positive organisational attitudes, job satisfaction and affective commitment, are useful in the workplace as it is an area that can be improved through organisational training and development (Luthans, 2002a). As a result, this orientation towards capacities that can be developed may enable consideration of performance, as these states can be developed to enhance performance.

While it is widely recognised that happy workers are more productive (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005; Money et al., 2008; Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Uusiautti, 2014; van der Meer & Wielers, 2013; Wright, 2006), it is evident in this study that they may not necessarily show lower intentions to quit. This study echoes previous research by way of highlighting the importance of job satisfaction and affective commitment in determining levels of intention to quit. However, SWB did not appear to play an important role in helping to predict this significant variable.

By understanding factors related to intention to quit, it is possible to develop strategies that can help to avoid employee turnover (Aladwan et al., 2013). As a result, the current research illustrates that by increasing satisfaction and commitment in the organisation, one can strengthen the possibility that the employees will have lower intentions to leave and can thus ensure lower levels of turnover. This will ultimately contribute to the competitive advantage of an organisation (Aladwan et al., 2013; Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008).

Directions for Future Studies

Among those mentioned earlier there are some recommendations for future research. Although this study has not illustrated that SWB plays an important role in predicting intention to quit, this evidence may be the result of little research having been conducted on SWB relative to empirical evidence considering affective commitment and job satisfaction. The latter two variables are traditional organisational constructs that have been studied for over two decades and thus have well-established scales that effectively measure each of the constructs. In contrast, SWB in the workplace is a new concept which is still not well

understood. This is not to mention that there still does not seem to be an official definition of SWB. As a result, a better operationalization of SWB, in addition to a well-established scale that measures this construct effectively in varying cultures and settings has not been developed and thus more research is required to ascertain whether the construct SWB is, in fact, important. Pursuing this will make it possible to determine whether or not SWB matters and whether it makes for better, more productive workers. The current research serves to add to understandings of how SWB might contribute to the POB field and organisational functioning but also expresses a need for further research to be conducted on this POB concept.

Conclusion

Most literature on SWB has been concerned about how this variable contributes to organisational performance and success (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Diener, 2012; Lyubomirsky, King et al., 2005). While it appears that SWB is important for these outcomes, more research is required to fully determine how important this variable is and whether it can significantly contribute to other domains of organisational psychology. The field of POB has recently attracted much attention among scholars and has led to increased interest in positive organisational concepts like SWB. This study adds to the limited research on the POB concept of SWB by examining its relative importance among other more traditional variables.

Given that SWB is an increasingly important variable in PP and POB research, the findings of this study help to further enhance understandings of the outcomes and variables involved in these research fields. The study results suggest that SWB does not appear to be important for the prediction of intention to quit. This illustrates that there may be a large overlap between SWB and the other predictors utilised in this study. The findings also echo previous studies in expressing the importance of traditional organisational constructs, namely job satisfaction and affective commitment, in predicting intention to quit. As a result, these findings serve to confirm the reputation of old organisational behaviour concepts and to remind the interested scholar to continue to utilise the essential knowledge and insight afforded by thorough understandings of these variables. Interestingly, it was apparent from these findings that affective commitment and job satisfaction essentially appear to have an equivalent ability to predict intention to quit.

The study also provides evidence of how RWA can be used to investigate comprehensively the relative importance of various predictors within a sample. It serves to

demonstrate how RWA can be used to enhance traditional regression analyses and to further enhance understandings of how variables can be related. This analytic technic was useful in the current study and should be considered in future studies of a similar nature.

Lastly, the results of this study highlight a need to subject these new POB concepts to rigorous research in order to determine whether they add anything new to the field of organisational psychology and, ultimately, to advancing understandings of how people behave in the workplace. Therefore, findings from this study suggest that further empirical studies and in particular, longitudinal and/ or repeated measures experimental research are required and encouraged, in order to supplement existing knowledge of these new concepts. SWB and other POB concepts should also be explored and understood in light of how South African employees identify with such concepts.

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Appendices

Appendix A

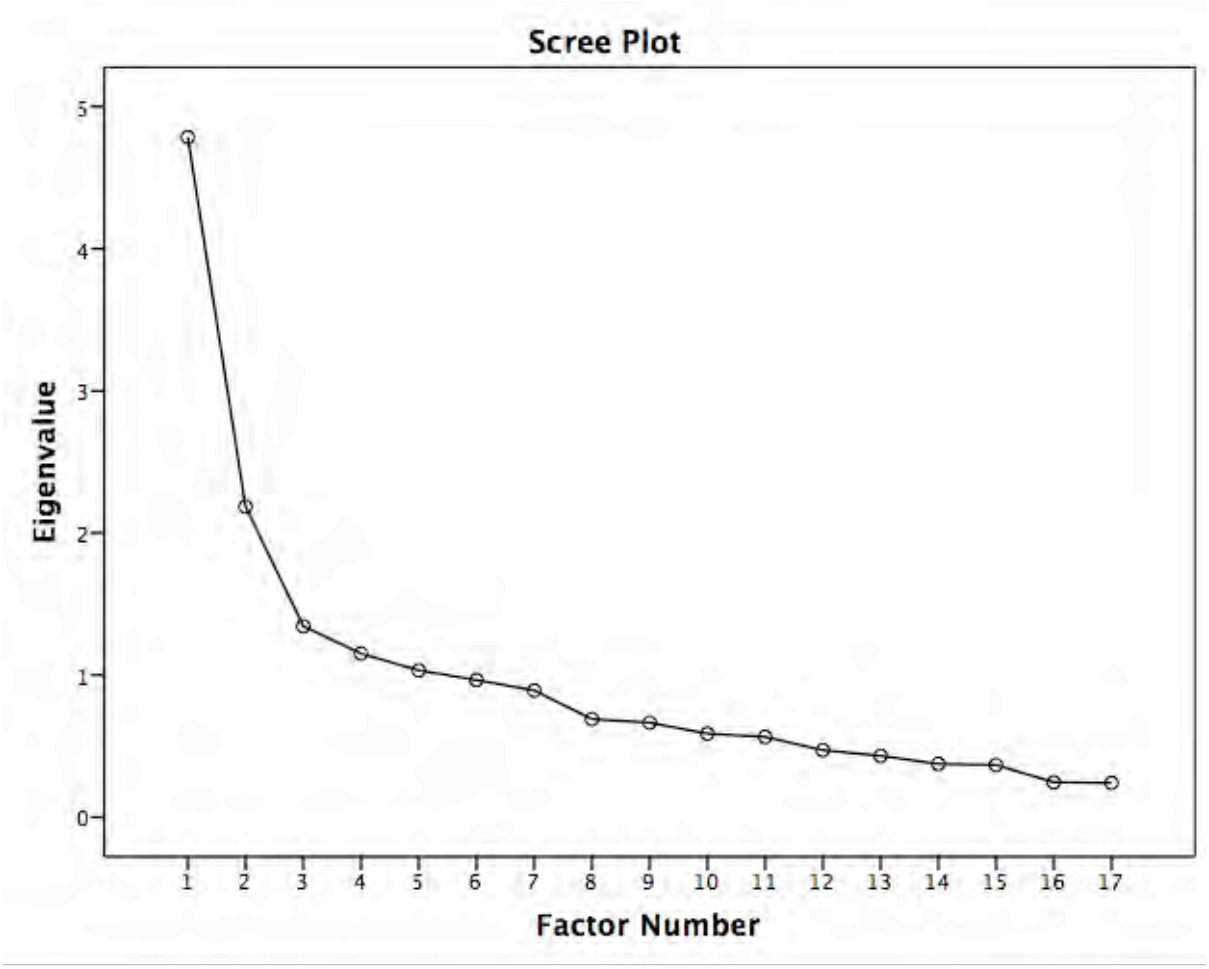

Figure 3. A scree plot representing the EFA results of the OHS, displaying five factors

Appendix B

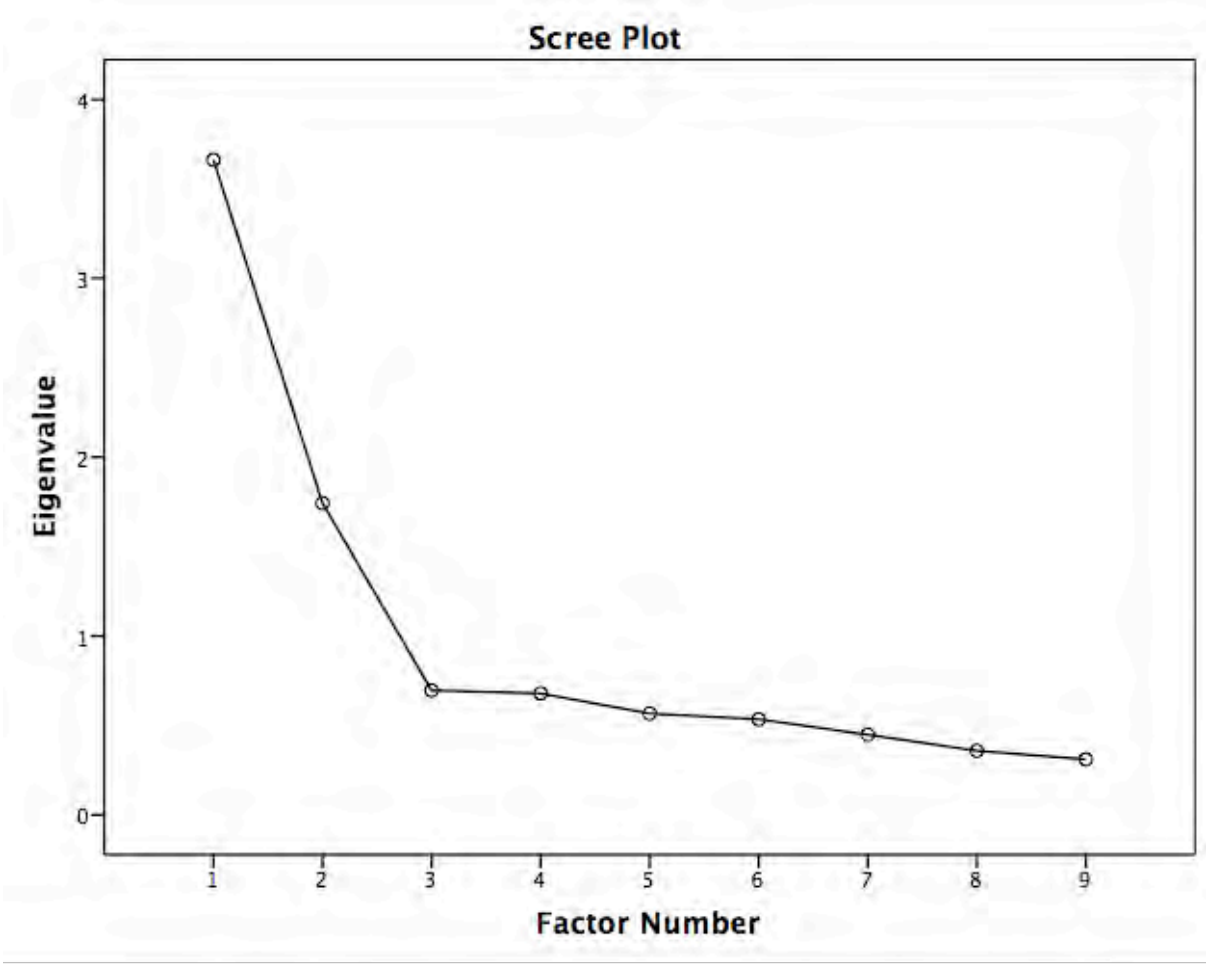

Figure 4. A scree plot representing the two factors of pleasure and meaning as derived from the OHS EFA

Appendix C - *Affective Commitment Scale*

1. I feel a strong connection to my organisation

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I feel emotionally attached to my organisation

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. I feel like part of the family at organisation

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. My organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix E - *Orientations to Happiness scale*

Measured on a five-point scale "1 = Strongly Agree" through "5 = Strongly Disagree"

Life of meaning

1. My life serves a higher purpose.
2. In choosing what to do, I always take into account whether it will benefit other people.
3. I have a responsibility to make the world a better place.
4. My life has a lasting meaning.
5. What I do matters to society.
6. I have spent a lot of time thinking about what life means and how I fit into its big picture.

Life of pleasure

1. Life is too short to postpone the pleasures it can provide.
2. I go out of my way to feel happy.
3. In choosing what to do, I always take into account whether it will be pleasurable.
4. I agree with this statement: ''Life is short – eat dessert first.''
5. I love to do things that excite my senses.
6. For me, the good life is the pleasurable life.

Life of engagement

1. Regardless of what I am doing, time passes very quickly.
2. I seek out situations that challenge my skills and abilities.
3. I am always very absorbed in what I do.
4. In choosing what to do, I always take into account whether I can lose myself in it.
5. I am rarely distracted by what is going on around me.

Appendix D - *Turnover intention Scale 6 (TIS - 6)*

1.	How often have you considered leaving your job?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
2. R	To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
3.	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
4.	How often do dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
5.	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	**Very Unlikely**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Very Likely**
6.	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	**Always**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Never**

Appendix F - *Job Satisfaction Scale*

1.	My activities at work are interesting	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
2.	I get a lot of satisfaction from carrying out my responsibilities at work	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
3.	I find my activities at work to be personally meaningful	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
4.	I love what I do at work	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
5. R	Generally speaking, I am very unsatisfied with my job	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
6.	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**