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Role Stress, Individual Cultural Orientation, Perceived Organisational Support and Job Satisfaction

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A dissertation submitted to the Department of Psychology, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfilment for a Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own, unaided work. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

_____

Jenna Leigh Solarsh

February 2012

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Chapter One: Introduction and Rationale

Research has established that job-related stress impacts on psychological and psychosomatic functioning with detriments to both individual and organisational level outcomes (Beehr, Jex, Stacy & Murray, 2000; Cooper, Kirkcaldy & Brown, 1994; Johnson & Cooper, 2003). Individual level outcomes include depression, decreased overall well-being and coronary heart disease (Beehr & Glazer, 2005; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005). Organisational level outcomes account for increased absenteeism and turnover as well as lower job performance and satisfaction (Ganster, 2008; Schuler, 1980). The literature has consistently viewed stress related issues at work as being linked to decreasing employee well-being and job satisfaction which has subsequent negative effects on overall life satisfaction (Coetzee & de Villiers, 2010; Faragher, Cooper & Cartwright, 2004; Skalli, Theodossiou & Vasileiou, 2008). Psychological strain has further been found to have unfavourable consequences for life satisfaction, job satisfaction (Dallimore & Mickel, 2006) and organisational commitment (Coetzee & Rothmann, 2005).

Throughout the literature stress has been referred to as an ever-present dynamic that can never be completely eliminated due to the constant presence of stressors (Faragher et al., 2004). Stressors may be defined as pernicious events and conditions that are judged to be the root of strain which ultimately has adverse effects on individual well-being (Ganster, 2008). The sources of these stressors are wide-ranging (Knudsen, 2006) however the current research will maintain a focus on stress as a consequence of role-stressors. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal's (1964) seminal work on the adverse impact of role conflict, and its subsequent role stressors, continues to provide value to research and practice today, therefore their pioneering efforts will underpin the theoretical approaches applied to the stress process in the current research. Experienced role conflict may be used as a measure of stress, organisational dynamics as well as mental health outcomes (Donald & Donald, 2001). Role conflict is assumed to provoke negative job-related outcomes (Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003) through psychological malfunctioning that develops as a result of role stressors (Kahn et al., 1964). Role stressors are considered to be chronic ongoing stressors of the work environment. Sometimes role stressors may have positive outcomes for an individual (Beehr & Glazer, 2005) however most often role stress is related to negative work attitudes (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). These stressors need to be

addressed so that practitioners may best understand how to implement interventions that can remedy their potential harmful outcomes (Beehr et al., 2000).

Responses to stressors vary as a function of personality, beliefs, values, attitudes, support structures, goals and experiences of the individual (Blumenthal et al., 2006). Thus the existence of work place stressors does not automatically and consistently result in strain (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The challenge-hindrance model suggests that individuals approach stressors in a dissimilar fashion (Webster, Beehr & Love, 2011). This implies that individuals possess a unique threshold for managing stress, that may be moderated by various features of the self and the environment (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997) – these include coping strategies, social support, personality, attitudes and values (Aryee, Luk, Leung & Lo, 1999). Numerous theories place their focus on the process of stress, as opposed to the causes of stress. This links to moderator theories whereby certain moderator variables have been found to impact on the stressor-strain relationship (Ganster, 2008). The current research aims to assess the potential moderating effects of two unique variables (individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support) on the relationship between role-stressors and job satisfaction.

Over the past several decades, industrial psychologists have become progressively more involved in exploring the dispositional sources of a wide variety of work behaviours and attitudes (Allen et al., 2011). Perrewe and Zellars (1999) ascertain that understanding the stress process requires a focus on variables that influence how individuals interpret the conditions in their environments. In order to understand individuals there is a need to understand their values and cultures (Bardi & Goodwin, 2011). The perceptions of workplace stressors may be influenced by individual cultural values, beliefs and norms (Sawang, Oei & Goh, 2006). Stress cannot be presumed to be understood without reference to the individual (Blumenthal et al., 2006). Therefore in order to understand individual's reactions to stressful situations individual differences (in this instance originating from cultural variation) should be included in any analysis.

Both individualism and collectivism cultural constructs have been helpful in predicting behaviour and responses in research spanning the past few decades (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Individualism/collectivism is an important cultural dimension that has been linked to individuals'

perceptions of well-being and satisfaction (Liu & Spector, 2005). Moreover people from different cultures identify with and observe their jobs through unique socially and culturally constructed experiences which may be responsible for greater or lesser perceptions of stress (Bhagat et al., 2010). Research suggests that individuals can be trained to understand and be more accommodating of other cultures (Hassi & Storti, 2011), which highlights the potential benefit in further exploring the role that cultural orientation plays in organisational dynamics within the South African context.

In order to understand individual human behaviour there is a need to understand individual values and cultural beliefs: the underpinnings of most behaviour. Culture and background determine how individuals will respond to a variety of interactions and changes within an organisation (Morrison, Lumby & Sood, 2006). However researchers have noted that investigations, as well as theoretical explorations, into this field have been scarce (Bardi & Goodwin, 2011). Today the South African workforce is characterised by diversity and a plethora of cultures (Zulu & Parumasur, 2009). In highly heterogeneous societies cultural differences must not be ignored, especially in the workplace otherwise it may result in reduced organisational outcomes (Holtzhausen, 2005). Research has linked national and organisational cultures to the stress process (Bhagat et al., 2010; Spector et al., 2002). However individuals evaluate and assess their personal circumstances from "within their own cultural lens" (Hassi, 2011, p.50). If individuals use their own cultures to assess situations, specifically stressful ones, it would be important to understand how their culture either encourages or discourages the coping process and their ability to adequately deal with stress in the workplace. Bhagat et al. (2010, p.25) claim that the way in which individual cultural values influence the coping process of work related stress is a "relatively unexplored area of cross-cultural organisational research". Therefore this study aims to investigate the potential moderating effect that personal cultural orientation has on the coping process between role stressors and job satisfaction outcomes, in order to better understand culture-specific coping styles.

South Africa's prejudicial past and the implementation of employment equity legislation has had major ramifications for the organisational sphere (Zulu, & Parumasur, 2009). Numerous black economic empowerment (BEE) initiatives have unfortunately left a majority of previously

disadvantaged employees feeling over-whelmed and misplaced in the euro-centric organisations that dominate the economic environment of South Africa (Holtzhausen, 2005). During apartheid the culture of the majority of the population was repressed throughout the political, social and economic spheres (Ndletyana, 2008) and therefore the old South Africa was plagued with mono-cultural organisations that were built upon the euro-centric culture of individualism, independence, self-centredness and competitiveness (Boyd, Spicer & Keeton, 2001; Finestone & Synman, 2005; Lorbiecki, 2005). These organisations were managed as though they were homogeneous entities and had no regard for differences amongst staff members (Penceliah, 2008). The new South Africa is actively engaged in moving towards the creation of afro-centric organisational cultures that integrate multicultural aspects in business policies and functioning. Afro-centric cultures place a stronger focus on unity, communal inclusivity and supportiveness (Finestone & Snyman, 2005). However there are still barriers to the full realisation of such cultural entities thriving in the South African context (Ndletyana, 2008; Holtzhausen, 2005). This may be attributable to the individual cultural orientation that guides employee behaviour. Moreover Zulu and Parumasur (2009, p.56) indicate that there are still companies in South Africa whose "working environments are very much Eurocentric and undemocratic in nature" which creates problems for effective multicultural practices within these organisations, which may be linked to increased role stress for employees. This problem has been linked to BEE workers not identifying with corporate culture which is often related to high stress levels (Cunningham, Lynham & Weatherly, 2006). From this it is reasonable to assume that individual cultural orientation is likely to play a role in perceptions of stressors as well as the process of coping with stress in the South African context.

Even though the 1980's saw a surge of research on stress and coping there is a growing concern today to re-address the issue from a non-western standpoint (Bhagat et al., 2010; Perrewe et al., 2002). Conducting a study on stress and culture may allow for better generalisability of results to the South African context. Moreover exploring individual cultural orientation can inform practitioners which cultural groups may be at greater risk in the workplace (Coetzee & Rothman, 2005). Globalisation signifies that many businesses are operating across different cultures. As a result of this trend it is becoming more necessary to explore issues relating to stress from a viewpoint other than that of the West (Liu & Spector, 2005; Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmier,

2002). The nature of job stressors has been found to differ amongst people of varied cultures (Liu, 2003) while the various cultural dimensions have been linked to different job stressors (Liu & Spector, 2005) hence indicating there is significant value in understanding how stress and other workplace variables are influenced and affected across and within cultures.

A study by Bhagat et al. (2010) assessing the impact of national cultural context on workplace stress placed South Africa in the middle of the continuum between individualism and collectivism and high and low power distance. These findings are the likely result in a country that has eleven official languages and a business core characterised by both euro and afro-centric values (Ndletyana, 2008; Holtzhausen, 2005), with the work sphere embodying a diversity of cultural identities. This middle ground score indicates the necessity to assess culture's impact on the stress process from an individual context. Kamper and Bandenhorst (2010) identified that black South African youth are cultivating a trend of westernised consumerism and culture which has consequences for research that traditionally views South Africans as adhering to a collectivist culture. The current research hopes to advance traditional theory by assessing the impact of both horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism which allows for a combination of elements from both cultural patterns, acknowledging the existence of a multicultural society within South Africa.

Multicultural workforces create complexities in understanding how diverse people relate to organisational objectives and policies, as revealed by their personal cultures (Martins & Coetzee, 2011). This is an important and necessary dynamic to address within South African organisations as South Africa is a unique culture rich country (Finestone & Snyman, 2005). Multicultural models maintain that behaviours and attitudes are not universal and are rather bound by cultural devices that are unique to national contexts (Crigger, Holcomb & Weiss, 2001). Acceptance of multiculturalism has been viewed as the solution to problems encountered by post-apartheid South Africa (Soudien, 1994). Multiculturalism celebrates individual differences and allows for the acknowledgement of a wide breadth of diverse cultures when conducting research (Crigger, et al., 2001). A study by Finestone and Snyman (2005) indicated that many South African companies are wary of addressing individual cultural identities of employees as a result of cultural sensitivity. This highlights the value that can be gained through a study of ICO whereby

employee cultures are addressed ethically and without bias. Multiculturalism in the South African business context, will not only benefit employee needs but will also yield greater productivity for the organisation, through harnessing competitiveness as a consequence of innovation that stems from diverse thinking (Finestone & Snyman, 2005; Thomas & Bendixen, 2002).

Positive work environments reinforced through just organisational policies and strategies have been found to reduce and alleviate workplace stress (Faragher et al., 2004). Perceived organisational support (POS) is the result of effective implementation of workplace policies and perceptions of fair treatment (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). Therefore, indicating how POS may be related to the experience of role stressors in the workplace. Stamper and Johlke (2003) noted that even though stress still plagues organisations, there have been few investigations into the organisational factors that may alleviate role stress. They highlight the value that may be attained through explorations of perceived organisational support's influence on the stress process. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002, p.702) revealed that the "magnitude of the relationship between supervisor support and POS differs considerably across organizations", indicating that POS may offer a superior measure of how organisational support systems may moderate the stress process. Kahn and Byosiere (1992 as cited in Bhagat et al., 2010) recommended that future studies should address the effects of sources of perceived support, other than supervisor and co-worker support, on organisational outcomes related to stress. This indicates the relevance of perceptions of overall organisational support to the stressor and job satisfaction relationship.

Managers need to understand and effectively respond to the presence of stress in order to ensure the continued development and progression of their organisations (Ganster, 2008). Managing stress is based on the needs of both the organisation and individual employees; variables at both levels can offer insight into the coping process (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997). Bhagat et al. (2010) recommended that future research on organisational stress should distinguish "appropriate theory specific moderators and contextual conditions of the relationships between various facets of organisational stress and psychological strain" (p.23). Faragher et al. (2004) further emphasise the relevance of conducting research that explores factors that may moderate the experience of

workplace stress. They highlight how organisations are consistently working towards the successful management of stress and recommend that any such exercise should not only assess stressors but should include an assessment of variables that may moderate the stress process. Organisations often implement secondary stress interventions that do not alter the workplace and initial cause of stress; rather employees are expected to adapt and deal with stress after being taught to cope (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997). People from different cultures may not identify with the intervention strategy implemented and this may have negative consequences for the individual and organisation. Understanding how these variables may moderate the role stress-job satisfaction relationship could have practical implications for indicating whether a primary or secondary intervention is most suited to a particular organisation. Distinguishing stressors in an occupational setting and documenting a relationship between these stressors and job satisfaction outcomes is necessary in order to generate functional and constructive intervention programs (Ganster, 2008). Following these recommendations the current researcher aims to explore the potential moderating effects of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support on the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction.

In order to achieve this aim of investigating the moderating effects of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support on the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction, chapter two will introduce the theoretical and conceptual background of the research. This chapter will explore relevant literature and research relating to the independent variable (role stressors), the moderators (individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction). In the final section of chapter two, the primary objective of the research is clarified and the specific research questions it aims to address are outlined.

Chapter three outlines the research methodology that was implemented in order to effectively conduct the current study. This section describes the research design and sample, the sampling procedure, the measuring instruments utilised and the statistical techniques employed in interpreting the data as well as ethical considerations of the study. Chapter four provides the results of the current study. Results include both descriptive and inferential statistics. Chapter

five presents a detailed discussion and interpretation of the results. Additionally it provides the limitations of the present study and outlines recommendations for future stress research.

Chapter Two: Theoretical and Conceptual Background

This chapter aims to provide the reader with an overview of existing literature and research that has fashioned the current body of knowledge pertaining to the variables in this study. The literature review will highlight theories and research relating to stress, individual cultural orientation, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction, which will be rooted within the context of the current research objectives.

2.1 Stress

2.1.1 Theoretical approaches to stress and occupational stress

Even though stress research has been around for decades there is still debate to the actual definition of stress (Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008). This has vital implications for the manner in which research is conceptualised and conducted. Ganster (2008) assumes that stress is best understood as "a general process by which conditions in the workplace produce changes in well-being, with different theories of work stress describing what those specific processes are" and further clarifies that stress "is a field of study and not a specific construct" (p.260). Even though there is a multitude of definitions of occupational stress (Schuler, 1980; Ganster, 2008), the current research is focusing on role theory as the model of stress and the transactional approach as the process of stress and has therefore chosen to make use of the definitions that align with these models.

A commonality throughout the stress literature is the differentiation between stress, stressors and strain. Stress is most widely viewed as a process, with stressors representing the causes or inputs of stress, while strain signifies the outcomes and (usually aversive) reactions to stress (Beehr et al., 2000; Fenalson & Beehr, 1994; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005). Selye (1973) refers to stress as a reaction to some demand in the immediate environment. The incidence of stress (a stressor) is believed to generate a stimulus reaction which may result in strain (Ganster, 2008). This reaction is propelled by a motivation to overcome obstacles relating to the stressor (Beehr and Glazer, 2005; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Responses to and consequences of stress are therefore often

included in the definition of stress. Stemming from this one should comprehend the importance of acknowledging the process of stress i.e. stressor-strain-outcome relationships.

According to Schuler (1980) organisational stress is a dynamic condition in which individuals are confronted by an opportunity, demand and/or constraint for being, having or doing what they desire. The resolution of these confrontations is believed to be influenced by individual perceptions of the situation which are often augmented by various organisational dynamics. Schuler's (1980) definition therefore implies that stress is the consequence of environmental features impacting on an individual's attainment of personal needs and desires. The inability to satisfy individual needs and desires contributes to lowered well-being which is a component of job satisfaction, thus illustrating how stressors may negatively affect personal outcomes.

Most definitions of stress in organisations are centred on both organisational and individual qualities which imply that stress develops through human interaction with work roles and responsibilities (Schuler, 1980). Organisational stress arises with the occurrence of noxious levels of environmental demands that stem from features of one's work role (Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Kahn et al., 1964). These demands cause deviation from normal modes of functioning as a result of disruption to physiological or psychological operations (Bhagat & Allie, 1989; Schuler, 1980) that require some form of adaptation to the situation (Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008). Normal functioning, in this context, refers to a lack of stressors and their subsequent responses guiding human behaviour in the workplace (Schuler, 1980). Therefore occupational stress is classified by environmental conditions that are associated with negative characteristics experienced on the job (e.g. poor working conditions, lack of autonomy, high workload, ambiguous and conflicting role demands and poor interpersonal interaction) (Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Ganster, 2008) which may lead to individuals experiencing strain (Beehr et al., 2000; Ganster, 2008) depending on the manner in which they appraise the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Job stress leads to dysfunctional organisational and individual outcomes (Baker, Israel & Schurman, 1996; Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005; Schuler, 1980). As a result stress research has typically been associated with destructive consequences for the individual and

organisation. Conversely the challenge-hindrance model of stress accounts for both positive and negative attributes of perceived stress. This theory posits that stressors that are perceived as challenging and stimulating may result in some satisfactory outcomes, while stressors that are perceived as hindering one's abilities will likely lead to a more harmful consequence (Webster et al., 2011). Individual differences such as personality and culture may be responsible for the interpretation of stressors as either a challenge or hindrance; these differences have further been found to have buffering effects on the overall stress process (Ganster, 2008). This highlights the potential for certain cultural groups to exploit role stressors to their advantage. Moreover other features of work circumstances, such as social support, have been linked to alleviating pressures associated with challenge and hindrance stressors (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999).

Stress literature has often described stress and the subsequent lowering of well-being and job satisfaction as a consequence of poor person-environment fit (P-E) (Schuler, 1980; Yang, Che & Spector, 2008) – person refers to the employee while the environment is referring to features of the organisation which may lead to stress. These organisational causes of stress may find their sources in role conflict. This is directly related to the level of "role fit" (Schuler, 1980, p.188) that the individual experiences on the job. Role conflict therefore indicates an absence of fit between roles that employees are expected to fulfil (Aryee et al., 1999).

2.1.2 Role theory as a model of occupational stress

The field of role stress has its roots in Kahn et al.'s (1964) role theory. This theory postulates that potential stressors arise as incompatible role demands conflict with one another due to a lack of congruence between them (Kahn, et al., 1964). Beehr and Glazer (2005) distinguish role stressors as those which arise from the different roles people are expected to participate in and preserve on a daily basis. Thus this type of stress is directly related to the roles and behaviours that an employee is required to demonstrate on the job. Role stress may be derived from one's own expectations of what a role entails as well as expectations from others about what the role encompasses (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). In the workplace expectations of others (usually a supervisor or employer) guide individual (employee) behaviour (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Consequently role conflict may be fragmented into sub-types: sent-role conflict, person-role

conflict, interrole conflict and role overload (Donald, & Donald, 2001; Hennington, Janz & Poston, 2011; Kahn et al., 1964). Sent-role conflict extends to include both intersender and intrasender conflict (refer to Figure 1 for a graphical representation of role conflict).

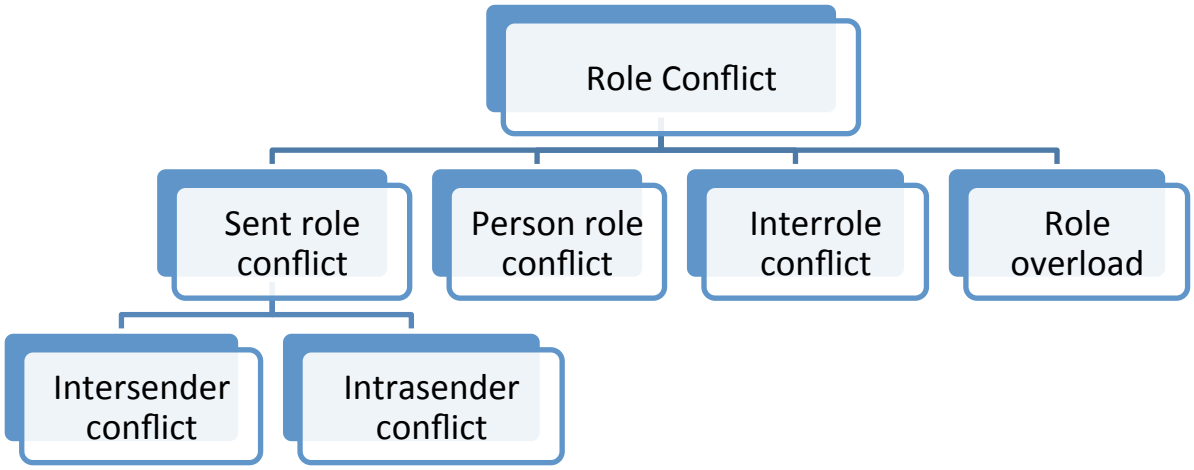


Figure 1: Model of role conflict

These various forms of role conflict are defined and discussed in the context of the current research below.

Bhagat et al. (2010) acknowledge role conflict, role overload and role ambiguity as the three frequent causes of occupational stress. Stamper and Johlke's (2003) research on exploring role conflict and role ambiguity as separate constructs revealed results that were inconsistent with previous research on role stressors' (as a uni-dimensional construct) relation to certain organisational outcomes including job satisfaction, intent to leave and performance. They believe that this inconsistency creates problems for generalising from past studies and recommend that the sources of role conflict should be examined separately from one another. The causes of role conflict are varied and need to be looked at in isolation from one another in order to understand the true source of stress (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Moreover, individual differences which are associated with the ability to manage expectations and roles should have various moderator effects on each dimension of role conflict (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Donald & Donald (2001) further clarify the importance of pinpointing the various sources of role conflict in order to be

able to implement action that will eliminate or alleviate this conflict. Therefore the current research aims to investigate the multidimensional sources of role conflict so that a greater understanding of potential moderator effects can be achieved and utilised to target causes of stress.

Although the current study does not directly assess role ambiguity, any research on role stressors should include some reference to it because of its association with role conflict in both theory and research (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Role ambiguity indicates a lack of specificity and consistency in the roles that are expected to be performed by employees on the job (Kahn et al., 1964). The accompanying vagueness and uncertainty may often result in experienced pressure and tension on the job as well as in other life domains (Frone et al., 1997). Role conflict and role ambiguity have been found to lead to low job satisfaction (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Lambert, Altheimer, Hogan & Barton-Bellessa, 2011). Each individual perceives roles differently and subsequently role ambiguity and conflict are subjectively experienced (Beehr & Glazer, 2005; Perrewe & Zellars, 1999) thus allowing for perceptions to be moderated by individual differences and circumstances. The stress process has been found to be moderated by social workplace support (Beehr et al., 2000; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). From this its stems that the interpretation of assigned roles will be influenced by individual perceptions of the work environment, that are formed through one's cultural orientation, and may further result in less strain during the stress process as a consequence of perceived organisational support.

Individuals centre their work performance and functioning on role inferences that are based on prescribed expectations of what behaviours and attitudes are required for success in that particular role (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Role stress is caused by aspects of the environment which stand in the way of successful role completion and performance (Schuler, 1980). Role senders are responsible for alerting the focal person to the responsibilities and demands expected within a particular role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Potential role stressors may occur if an employee is unable to meet or manage the expectations of a role sender, which will lead to the experience of strain (Beehr & Glazer, 2005; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Consequently sent-role conflict exists in two forms: intersender role conflict is a consequence of perceived inconsistency and discord between messages and expectations sent by numerous role senders in the employee's

environment; while intrasender role conflict is the outcome of clashing expectations sent from one role sender (e.g. a supervisor who sends contradictory orders to employees) (Beehr & Glazer, 2005; Donald & Donald, 2001).

Role senders present role expectations to the role receiver (focal person). The focal person may construe these expectations as demands, constraints or possibly as opportunities (Schuler, 1980). This is dependent on the unique interpretation of events and information by each focal person (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). It is proposed that individual cultural orientation will have some implications for this interpretation. The focal person regularly interacts and engages with role senders who are responsible for communicating role expectations and demands to the focal person (Frone et al., 1997; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). When the focal person perceives the sent role expectations as being overly-challenging and demanding it may lead to perceived job-stress (Hennington et al., 2011). Perception of messages viewed in a negative light may distort the situation and lead an individual to experience anxiety and apprehension about their expected role (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Interpersonal predictors of role stress address how communication, cooperation, collaboration as well as power dynamics in organisations may lead to experienced stress for employees (Lambert, Lambert & Ito, 2004). This interpersonal aspect of role stress is hypothesized to be moderated by individual cultural orientation, as power relationships and openness to cooperation are likely to be determined by culture. Moreover miscommunication and misunderstanding of expectations (which may be associated with inter/intrasender role conflict) could be a direct result of different cultural values and attitudes being attached to certain communication techniques (Shulruf, Hattie & Dixon, 2007; Triandis; 1995).

Thoits (1991, p.101) makes reference to "identity relevant stressors" which are related to all roles an individual may participate in during life. Person-role conflict may be construed as an identity relevant stressor as it indicates clashes between two different roles or responsibilities of the focal person. This type of conflict materialises when requirements of the job clash with personal beliefs, values and attitudes (Hennington et al., 2011; Kahn et al., 1964) because expected roles dictate the required work attitudes and behaviours. Tension between personal and work values and attitudes may be reinforced through a dominant individual cultural orientation (Triandis,

1995). Therefore it can be assumed that without congruence between personal attitudes and expected work attitudes some form of role stressor will result (Beehr & Glazer, 2005).

People experience conflict between the different roles they are expected to participate in on a daily basis; this interrole conflict was identified as a source of strain by Kahn et al., (1964). Active participation in multiple contradictory roles may create strain for employees, therefore interrole conflict stems from tensions caused by membership to one group (an employing organisation) interfering with roles expected through membership to other groups (cultural, home or religion based) (Kahn et al., 1964). Consequently participation in one role is made more challenging by virtue of involvement in an incompatible role from a different domain (Gryzwacz & Bass, 2003). Role stressors encountered in attempting to maintain a balance between roles contributes to negative psychological functioning and lower job performance (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983). These pressures have further been linked to lowered satisfaction experienced in multiple realms of life (Aryee et al., 1999). Contradictory to traditional research, Nordenmark (2004) advocated that if an individual participates in a plethora of roles, it may be beneficial and hold significance for overall satisfaction. He proposed that "multiple roles generate social resources and make it possible to find satisfaction" (Nordenmark, 2004, p.117). This implies that having to participate in multiple roles does not always result in interrole conflict and could potentially have positive outcomes for satisfaction as a result of receiving a resource such as social support in varying roles.

The final dimension of role conflict is role overload. The resulting pressure is experienced as a result of time constraints whereby an employee lacks adequate time resources to efficiently and effectively complete tasks within roles (Kahn et al., 1964). This conflict may also occur due to a deficiency of essential resources needed to successfully execute responsibilities and obligations associated with the work role (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Organisational support may have exceptional value as a resource to individuals dealing with role overload. The perception that the organisation values the employee's contribution to completing all tasks and assignments in the required time may have the positive effect of moderating stressors that originate from role and work overload. Perceived organisational support is likely to induce feelings of appreciation in the

employee (Eisenberger et al., 1986), who will then use these feelings to reduce the harmful impact of role overload stressors.

Most often role stress is related to negative work attitudes and outcomes (Jackson & Schuler, 1985), however, sometimes stressors have positive or less harmful outcomes for an individual (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). A positive outcome is dependent on potential moderator effects. Environmental (perceived organisational support) or personal (individual cultural orientation) moderators may have some effect on the role stressor-strain relationship (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). The influence of moderators on the stressor-strain relationship is better understood through application of the transactional approach to the stress process.

2.1.3 The transactional approach as a process of occupational stress

As mentioned above the existence of work place stressors does not automatically and consistently result in strain. The challenge-hindrance model suggests that individuals approach stressors in a dissimilar fashion (Webster et al., 2011) as a result of subjective perceptions of stress (Schuler, 1980). This implies that individuals possess a unique threshold for managing stress, which is understood to be moderated by various features of one's self and the environment (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997) – these include coping strategies, social support, personality, attitudes and values (Aryee et al., 1999). Perrewe and Zellars (1999) elucidate the importance of the transactional approach when they state that "in order to truly understand the components of the stress process, the primary focus should be on how individuals interpret objective conditions rather than simply relating stressors to strains" (p.740). This highlights how individual perceptions stemming from cultural orientation and experiences of organisational support are likely to influence the stress-coping process through a moderating relationship.

The transactional approach proposes stress as an interaction between a stimulus (stressor) and a response (strain) and thus considers stress to be a process (Delongis, Lazarus & Folkman, 1988). This process is based on interactions and adjustments between the individual and the environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The perception of stressors in the environment generates a reaction aimed at eliminating or alleviating the stressor (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). The

process may be moderated by personal resources. Once all personal resources are expunged, strain and lowered satisfaction are the likely outcomes (Coetzee & Rothman, 2005). An individual's perception and interpretation of events and situations is influenced by their values and cultural beliefs (Cooper et al., 1994; Jackson, 2004). The individual is able to react to stressors with all means available to them. These reactions are responsible for the physical, psychological and behavioural outcomes of stress (Ganster, 2008).

The transactional approach is considered to consist of a primary appraisal, a secondary appraisal and often a reappraisal is included in the model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The primary appraisal is the assessment of how challenging or hindering a situation or role may be, while the secondary appraisal is the ability of the individual to cope with the role or situation (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen & DeLongis, 1986). Thus the approach is centred on two processes (appraising the situation and then coping with the situation) which moderate the impact of the stressors caused by a lack of person-role fit. The appraisal will moderate the outcome of the stress-strain relationship (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This has outcomes for experienced strain as well as job satisfaction (Arnold, Flaherty, Voss & Mowen, 2009; Yang et al., 2008). In the current research it is proposed that role stressors will result in a primary appraisal of stress, while the moderating effects of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support will lead to changes resulting in a secondary appraisal. The reappraisal is considered the "ultimate effect" (Arnold et al., 2009, p.196) of the role stressor and is initiated through the secondary appraisal. This 'ultimate effect' may lead to strain or changes in judgments of job satisfaction (Ganster, 2008).

Blumenthal et al., (2006) highlight how research has consistently indicated that the transactional process cannot be adequately appreciated without recognition of how individual perceptions and attributes contribute to cognitive appraisals. Appraisals are based on both individual characteristics as well as the nature of the situation and environment in which the stressor originates (Baker, Israel & Schurman, 1996; Bhagat, 1983; DeLongis et al., 1988). The cognitive appraisal is conceptualised as a systematic mental process that discriminates and differentiates role stressors into those that may result in negative affect and those that may not harm employee well-being and job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2009; DeLongis et al., 1988). Therefore stressors

force an appraisal of the situation so that individuals may adapt accordingly (Kanner at al., 1988). Perceived organisational support may encourage positive appraisals because the additional support results in employees trusting that their extra efforts to overcome role stressors will be valued by the organisation (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). Moreover the organisational support creates an impression of the organisation as a care-giver who is genuinely concerned with their workers well-being, which should also buffer against any further strain suffered as a result of role stressors (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997; Ganster, 2008). Greater perceptions of support are likely to result in a less threatening interpretation of role stressors (Aryee et al., 1999). Individuals react independently and uniquely to the experience of role stress (Arnold et al., 2009; Ganster, 2008). The different interpretations of stressors are likely to be influenced and moderated by individual cultural orientation that inform and dictate responses to situations encountered. The transactional model of stress consequently provides a theoretical base for employing individual cultural orientation and organisational support as moderators in an analysis of role stressors and their outcomes for job satisfaction (Amatea & Fong, 1991; Beehr & Glazer, 2005).

2.2 Individual cultural orientation

2.2.1 Foundations of culture theory – the national context

Understanding the impact that culture plays in the effectiveness of organisational performance is important in a multicultural society (Martins & Coetzee, 2011). South Africa maintains a focus on cultural equality in all spheres of life. This focus extends to diverse business practices implemented by South African organisations as stipulated by law (Finestone & Snyman, 2005). Many organisations and practitioners incorrectly assume that existing South African policies and legislation regarding diversity in the workplace, are adequate means to address this subject matter (Ocholla, 2002). However research and practice has indicated that organisations need to actively manage diversity in order to reap the benefits that are possible within the multicultural business dynamic that is unique to the South African context (Ocholla, 2002; Thomas & Bendixen, 2000; Zulu & Parusamur, 2009).

Singelis (2000, p.76) maintains that "all social psychology is cultural" thus indicating the importance of acknowledging individual cultural differences when exploring a field such as stress, which has been found to be influenced by environmental and individual level variables (Schuler, 1980). Culture is viewed as a complex system of beliefs and attitudes (Triandis & Singelis, 1998) that have implications for work norms as well as positive organisational functioning (Schwartz, 1999). Culture dictates what behaviours are deemed desirable as well as how goals and values should determine action (Probst, Carnevale & Triandis, 1999). Qualitative studies have reported that responses (potential strain) to stressors vary in different cultural contexts (Cross, 1995; Narayanan, 1999 as cited in Liu & Spector, 2005). Other research has revealed that culture presents a unique function in the stress and coping process (Goh, 2003; Sawang et al., 2006). Therefore employers need to take account of the individual differences, values, beliefs and culture that each employee brings into the organisation (Cooper et al., 1994; Jackson, 2004). In order to understand the influence that individual cultural orientation may have on employee behaviour it is necessary to recognise how any theory of individual culture is rooted in theories relating to the national context.

Hofstede's (1983) cultural theory is based on four dimensions that establish the nature of any culture. Individualism versus collectivism is the most well-known and well explored dimension. It describes the relationship that exists between the individual and the group in a given context (Liu & Spector, 2005). The second dimension is power distance and relates to the authority structure i.e. how much power people are allowed to have over one another. It addresses the extent to which members accept the unequal distribution of power in society (Hofstede, 1983). In low power distance nations inequality is deemed unacceptable and thus this type of culture requires strong indices of collaboration and participation. In high power distance cultures authority figures are obeyed and respected while members consent to the unequal distribution of power and resources (Liu & Spector, 2003). Recall that South Africa scored in the middle of the power distance continuum (Bhagat et al., 2010) which is indicative of an aggregation of different attitudes to involvement in issues regarding power and the distribution of resources. The third facet deals with values relating to masculinity and femininity. Masculine cultures centre their focus on achievement and accomplishment with emphasis on independence, wealth, personal advancement and ambition. Feminine cultures highlight and acknowledge the value of nurturance, growth and well-being with a focus on friendship, social interaction, group work by participation, affiliation, helpfulness and humility. The final aspect of the theory addresses uncertainty avoidance. This indicates how members relate and react to uncertainty and instability in their environment. Low uncertainty avoidance cultures value risk-taking, change and challenge. High uncertainty avoidance cultures favour stability and security and are resistant to change (Hofstede, 1983).

The individualism-collectivism dimension has found the most usefulness in research attempting to explain and predict cultural differences (Cross, 1995; Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis, 2006). The current research will not deviate from this trend and thus only principles relating to these constructs will be applied to the context of this study. The nature of job stressors has been found to differ amongst people of varied cultures (Liu, 2003) while the various cultural dimensions have been linked to different job stressors (Liu & Spector, 2005). A 24 nation study revealed that the cultural dimensions of individualism/collectivism and power distance were related to role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload (Spector et al., 2002). Past research has indicated which stressors are most likely to occur within different cultures. One stressor that was common

to both individualistic and collectivist cultures is interpersonal conflict (Liu & Spector, 2005). This can be linked to role stressors, which is the focus of the current research as it aims to investigate if there is a moderating effect of individual cultural orientation on the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction outcomes. Higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction is reported in more individualist societies than in collectivist societies (Liu, 2003; Liu & Spector, 2005). This suggests that employees with an individualist orientation may maintain higher well-being and satisfaction while experiencing pressure from certain role stressors.

Individualism-collectivism is an important cultural dimension that has been linked to individual perceptions of well-being and satisfaction (Liu & Spector, 2005). The individualism and collectivism dimension of culture theory refers to social patterns that are formed on the basis of beliefs, attitudes, norms and values (Hofstede, 1983; Triandis, 1995). These cultural blueprints guide the manner in which individuals approach stressful situations in all realms of life by influencing interpretation and reaction to events (Bhagat et al., 2010). Individualists tend to act in favour of their individual needs, placing a greater emphasis on the attainment of personal goals opposed to those of the collective, while collectivists tend to place greater significance on the achievement of group success and prefer to make decisions based on consensus by the collective (Cross, 1995; Triandis, 1995). Collectivists subordinate their own needs and goals to those of the group while individualists are motivated by their own preferences and desires (Triandis, 1995). Therefore events at work may be interpreted as stressful as a consequence of pre-established interpretative frames of reference dictated by individual cultural preferences (Petersen, et al., 1995).

Cultural theories originally maintained their value and dominance in describing the attitudes and behaviours of people in a national context (Bhagat et al., 2010). Equating culture with country (as is often done in research on cultural effects on stress) is flawed (Sawang et al., 2006). Hofstede (1983) acknowledged that within national contexts, regional differences are likely to exist which indicates that applying one culture to an entire country may be flawed. Sawang et al. (2006) found an unequal distribution of individualist and collectivist orientations within the three countries they surveyed. Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai and Lucca (1988) found that cultural orientation differs between individuals in the national context and asserted that

assessment of individual cultural values is a better measure and predictor of the effect culture may exert on workplace variables. This implies that any given country will have populations that comprise of citizens with different individual cultural orientations (ICO) and therefore gives merit to a study on ICO which may allow for greater and more reliable inferences about cultures effect on the stress process. As South Africans we are likely to have some commonalities and uniting characteristics, as Hofstede (1983, p.42) puts it "we all derive part of our identity" from our nationality, because "it is part of the question 'who am I?'". Nonetheless in a country as diverse as South Africa, applying a uniform culture in research may provide inconsistent and meaningless results. South Africa needs to transform from a mono-cultural Euro-centric nation to one that embodies diversity through a common multicultural identity (Penceliah, 2008). This need to create a shared culture as a consequence of South Africa's multicultural context may appear problematic as "Western and African cultures must merge to create a South African culture, not just merely co-exist" (Finestone & Snyman, 2005, p.131). This problem indicates the likelihood that individual cultural orientation may hold more value in addressing individual needs in the workplace. Thus Triandis (1995) indicates the value gained in assessing cultural dimensions from an individual perspective.

2.2.2 Individualism and collectivism – the individual context

Triandis Leung, Clack and Villareal (1985) indicate the importance in assessing cultural orientations from the perspective of the individual. Triandis (1995; 2006) approaches culture by introducing individualism and collectivism as individual level variables that emerge as cultural syndromes that dictate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes, which then guide interaction with the environment. Individualism and collectivism are not two ends of a single continuum but rather should be conceptualized as two distinctive dimensions that are completely separate from one another (Oyserman et al., 2002) highlighting how individuals may possess attributes from both dimensions. Individualism and collectivism at the individual level may be referred to as idiocentricism and allocentricism respectively (Triandis et al, 1985). However, for the purposes of this research the terms horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism will be utilised to maintain consistency throughout the report.

The notion of individualism and collectivism at the individual level is propelled by the following psychological processes: a) individual perceptions of the self – either defined in terms of independence and autonomy or interdependence and reliance; b) how the self relates to others – determined through rational realism or socio-emotional concerns; c) which goals are pursued – individualists focus on goals related to personal achievement while collectivists engage in activities directed towards the accomplishment of group goals; d) what determines social behaviour and interaction – individualists are motivated by personal attitudes, needs and desires while collectivists are guided by group obligations, duties and norms (Triandis, 1995). These concepts contribute to individual cultural orientation (ICO). "Individual cultural orientation refers to an individual's cultural values independent of the dominant cultural orientation of the society in which he/she resides" (Chen, Wasti & Triandis, 2007, p.261). Therefore ICO is an internalized mental construction of acceptable choices, behaviours and reactions to given situations separate to that of national culture (Triandis, 1995).

Individual cultural orientation is strongly influenced by an individual's perception of the self (Singelis, 2000). Individuals do not strictly belong to an individualist or collectivist culture, however, the manner in which they define the self is usually either independent of groups or interdependent on group interaction (Cross, 1995; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). This sense of self contributes to individual values, perceptions, behaviours and reactions to different situations (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Singelis, 2000). Therefore it is possible to assume that ICO will have some effect on an individual's response to role stressors in their work environment as appraisals of stress are linked to personal perceptions based on value judgments (Chen et al., 2007; Oyserman et al., 2002).

Individualism and collectivism have traditionally been viewed as two distinctive cultural patterns (Hofstede, 1983). Triandis (1995) distinguished between numerous categories of individualism and collectivism – referred to as horizontal and vertical dimensions. This suggests that traditional theories are lacking in practical applicability (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Horizontal cultural features construe all selfs as similar and alike with regards to equal opportunity and advancement. Vertical cultural aspects depict hierarchical structures with some group members above and some below (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). The combination of individualism and

collectivism with these two dimensions creates four distinct patterns of culture. Horizontal individualism embraces the notion of an autonomous, independent individual with a strong emphasis on equality. Horizontal collectivism introduces the perception of the self as a part of the collective, while maintaining that equality is imperative within group interaction and dependence. Vertical individualism involves the conception of autonomy and self-directed behaviour with inequality being characterized as an acceptable norm. Vertical collectivism indicates recognition of the self as part of some collective or group while tolerating the existence of inequalities with regard to positions and roles within groups and society (Triandis, 1995; Singelis et al., 1995) (refer to Figure 2 for attributes of all four dimensions).

	Attributes Characterizing Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism	
	Horizontal (Self at the Same Level as Others)	Vertical (Self in a Hierarchy Relative to Others)
Individualism (independent self)	Being distinct and separate from others	Improving individual status via competition
	Being self-directed, self-reliant	Seeking achievement, power, prestige
	Modesty, not conspicuousness	Standing out
	Expressing uniqueness	Display of success, status
Collectivism (interdependent self)	Maintaining benevolent relationships	Maintaining and protecting in-group status
	Common goals with others	Deference to authorities and to in-groups
	Social appropriateness	Conformity
	Sociability	Harmony
	Cooperation	

Figure 2: The four dimensions of the IND-COL scale (Shavitt et al., 2006)

Triandis and Gelfand (1998) assert that the distinction between horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism is important for research conducted in the field of cross-cultural studies. In the presence of horizontal individualism people are self-reliant and are content working towards their own goals however they do not judge their satisfaction on the basis of becoming distinguished from others or achieving great status (egalitarian) (Oyserman et al., 2002). In horizontal collectivism individuals perceive themselves as similar and focus attention to the pursuit of group goals however there is no subservience to any group member – authority structures are not valued and may be resisted. In vertical individualism status and social recognition is the most desirable attribute which fosters an atmosphere of competition and even

conflict. In vertical collectivism personal goals and desires are sacrificed for the integrity of the group, authorities are obeyed even when it contradicts personal beliefs (Singelis et al., 1995).

2.2.3 Individual cultural orientation, role stressors and job satisfaction

Culture contributes to actions and behaviours that individuals deem to be appropriate within an organisation. Culture formation is moulded through the interaction of norms, values, attitudes, relationships with others and the environment (Triandis, 2006). Features of individualism and collectivism inform the individual on their sense of self as well as their identity. These features influence the manner in which the individual will "understand, categorize and interpret their environment" (Robert & Wasti, 2002, p.546) which has outcomes for perceptions relating to both stressors and satisfaction (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Schein (2004) explains that culture is formed through the conditioning of cognitive structures relating to values, norms and attitudes which shape individual behaviour. Hofstede (1983) makes use of the following experiment to indicate the importance of cultural influences on conditioning cognitive perceptions and functioning:

> *"An ambiguous picture is used: one that can be interpreted in two ways. The picture represents either an attractive young girl or an ugly old woman, depending on how it is viewed. In order to experience the process of conditioning, one half of the class is asked to close their eyes. The other half is then shown, for five seconds, a slightly changed version of the picture, in which only the young girl can be seen. This half is then asked to close their eyes and the first half is shown, also for five seconds, a version in which only the old woman can be seen. The ambiguous picture is then shown to everyone at the same time. The results are amazing: the vast majority of those conditioned by seeing the young girl first, now see only the young girl in the ambiguous picture; and those conditioned by seeing the old woman first can afterwards usually only see the old woman" (p.42).*

In the above simple experiment Hofstede (1983) is able to highlight the ability of our experiences and beliefs (culture-based) to dictate and influence the way in which we interpret

new situations and events. Belief systems and culture influence mental functioning and processing (Jose & Schurer, 2010; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Robert & Wasti, 2002). As discussed above, the stress appraisal process is the result of a cognitive evaluation of the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If mental processing is influenced by cultural beliefs and this same processing is responsible for appraisals of stress then it seems logical to assume that the outcomes of role stressors may be moderated by individual cultural orientation. Research conducted by Thomas and Ely (1996, p.84) revealed that "employees frequently make decisions and choices at work that draw upon their cultural background – choices made because of their identity-group affiliations" (Thomas & Ely, 1996, p.). This highlights how individual cultural orientation, may contribute to the perception of the experience of workplace role stressors as a direct consequence of the individuals cultural identity in the South African context. Markus & Kitayama (1991) suggested that future research should endeavour to understand the differences and similarities in the appraisal process across cultures. Sawang et al. (2006) argued that people with an individualist ICO will interpret and manage workplace stress in a manner dissimilar to collectivists. Even though research has indicated that culture cannot eliminate stress and that experienced strain can still occur regardless of one's culture, with negative outcomes for job and life satisfaction (Bhagat et al., 2010), the current research is interested in exploring the potential moderating effects that ICO may have on these outcomes in the presence of role stress.

Cultural differences have been linked to the stress coping process indicating that cultural orientation impacts on the capacity to deal with the various workplace stressors (Chun, Moos & Cronkite, 2006; Sawang et al., 2006). In a study that explored the impact of individualist and collectivist cultures on organisational stress, Bhagat et al. (2010) identified that the following coping strategies were adopted by each culture. Individualists focus on problem solving; they attempt to change the situation by acknowledging the stressor and providing solutions to avoid strain. Collectivists try to circumvent confrontation with stressors; they exert effort in disregarding problems related to occupational stress, instead of challenging it. Moreover functioning in a foreign and unfamiliar cultural environment has been linked to experiences of stress. Individuals who are required to perform in cultural environments that are drastically different from their own culture are likely to encounter greater experiences of stress (Albert & Triandis, 1985). Individual values specify what roles are considered acceptable to the individual

(Triandis, 1995). If a role is perceived to be inconsistent with one's culture it may further aggravate the role stressors by adding to their negative impact.

Culture also affects the manner in which people assess their satisfaction (Suh, Diener, Oishi & Triandis, 1998). Warr (1999) indicated that personal values and beliefs strongly influence individual perceptions of well-being and job satisfaction. Individualism and collectivism are expected to have distinctive advantages and disadvantages in promoting psychological health and well-being (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Therefore ICO may moderate the stressor-strain relationship in either direction. Individual differences that arise from ICO have further been linked to various facets of job satisfaction (Wasti, 2003). Judgments of job satisfaction are likely to be influenced by ICO. As a positive consequence of collectivist culture individuals are socialised to take pleasure in participating in work and general life roles (Triandis, 1995). From this it stems that collectivists may experience greater job satisfaction, regardless of the presence of stressors, because they perceive social benefits in their work roles (Suh et al., 1998).

Wasti (2003) acknowledges that people with varying cultural orientations assign different values to the importance of tasks and relationships in the workplace; individualists should apportion greater significance to completion of tasks while collectivists should value stronger interpersonal relations. Individualism has most commonly been associated with the values of personal independence and self-interest (Oyserman et al., 2002). This personal independence branches off to embrace behaviours and beliefs that contribute to autonomy, greater self-esteem, uniqueness and personal responsibility (Shulruf et al., 2007). The notion of personal responsibility can be linked to experiences of sent-role conflict because individualists who are left uncertain about their expected performance and responsibilities will likely feel increased tension and frustration if they feel attempts to take control of their jobs are constrained by mixed messages from supervisors. Furthermore Markus & Kitayama (1991) indicate the importance of personal goal achievement to the well-being and satisfaction of individualist employees; thus suggesting that sent-role conflict may be perceived as supervisors (and potentially even the organization) blocking the attainment of goals that hold value and significance to the employee.

Collectivists maintain their focus on group harmony and unity while directing efforts towards the achievement of group success and internalization of group goals. Moreover they value hierarchical structures that inform their rank within the group (Oyserman et al., 2002). This suggests that poorly articulated instructions and expectations from supervisors could also lead to role stress in collectivists as they are unable to decipher what their supervisors and colleagues expect of them. Collectivists evaluate their job satisfaction through assessments of their contribution to attainment of group objectives (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore it is suggested that sent-role as well as person-role conflict may lower job satisfaction if collectivists are unable to positively contribute to group obligations as a result of not clearly understanding and identifying with their roles.

Individuals with different cultural orientations identify with and relate to aspects of their job in dissimilar ways (Bhagat et al., 2010). Robert and Wasti (2002) confirm that ICO indicates the probability of an individual behaving and responding to situations in a manner related to their culture. Individual cultural preferences direct individuals to perceive their own behaviour and the behaviour of others in a distinct manner (Albert & Triandis, 1985). This has vital implications for the existence and elimination of sent-role stress as it is directly dependent on perceptions and expectations of acceptable role behaviour (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Triandis et al., (1988) indicate that an individualist cultural orientation could lead an employee to favour personal objectives in the event of incompatibility with work roles, responsibilities and goals. Chen et al.'s (2007) research concluded that collectivists are not always cooperative but behaviour is rather guided by social cues that elicit collaboration as a result of this cultural orientation. An individualistic cultural orientation influences behaviour through personal attitudes instead of societal or workplace norms (Suh et al., 1998). Such individuals tend to follow their own intuition and perspective of a situation (Triandis, 1995); this may have the consequence of exacerbating person-role and interrole conflict when impulses contradict workplace responsibilities and roles. Individuals who fall in the vertical collectivism dimension may likely experience less person-role conflict because their culture guides them to override personal feelings and attitudes to work situations and demands (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 1995). In light of the differences in value orientations between individualists and collectivists, it has been suggested that there should be moderating effects on the stress process (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011).

2.3 Perceived organisational support

2.3.1 Theoretical underpinnings of perceived organisational support

Eisenberger et al. (1986) proposed that in order for employees to determine whether their efforts will be appreciated and valued by their organisations they assess the degree to which they believe the organisation cares about their well-being and values their individual contribution. Organisational support theory is based on the notion that employees form global beliefs of organisational support induced by impressions that the organisation values employee contribution and meets socio-emotional needs relating to well-being and job satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore perceived organisational support (POS) is the degree to which employees believe their organisation values their work contribution and cares about their individual well-being (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) indicate that employees generally believe that their organisation either has a positive or negative posture towards their contributions and well-being.

Organisational support theory augments the personification of the organisation (Eisenberg et al., 1986; Hochwater, Kacmar, Perrewe & Johnson, 2003). This implies that through interaction with agents of the organisation as well as understanding the financial and legal stake of the organisation, the employees will attribute human-like qualities to their organisation (Levinson, 1965). This attribution encourages employees to perceive the overall organisation as an individual with whom they interact. As a consequence of attaching human value to the organisations image "employees view their favourable or unfavourable treatment as an indication that the organisation favours or disfavours them" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p.698). An imperative to organisational support theory is that the employee believes that any favourable treatment is based on voluntary and discretionary action by the organisation, as opposed to such conduct being stipulated by unions or other employee initiatives (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Individual attributes, such as personality, as well as biographic variables have also been linked to the perception of favourable treatment by the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Wayne, 1993) which may account for differences in results due to the presence of such extraneous variables.

Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005) refer to social exchange theory as one of the most prominent tools available to predict and explain workplace behaviours. Social exchange theory informs and inspires the construct of perceived organisational support in that commitment to the organisation is reinforced by the employee's perception that the organisation is committed to them (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Therefore employee efforts are directed through trusting that the organisation will value and reward hard work (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). As far back as 1965 Levinson introduced the concept of reciprocation which links to social exchange theory. He alleged that employees judge the organisation on the basis of interaction with agents of the organisation (supervisors). This not only illustrates social exchange theory but further depicts the importance of perceived supervisory support in creating affirmative judgments on the organisations' treatment of employees (Sluss, Klimchak & Homes, 2008). This relationship also creates a link to both inter and intra sender role conflict. It is reasonable to assume that sent role conflict could be moderated by stronger feelings of POS because the support offered by supervisors counteracts confusing and contradictory orders and expectations.

According to social exchange theory people give back to those that give to them. It depicts POS as a reinforcing agent (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However this may be impacted by an individual's personal ideology regarding exchanges. Some people may have a weak exchange orientation which suggests that they may not change attitudes and behaviour towards the organisation and work roles even if feelings of support are perceived (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In the event that employees and organisations engage in positive reciprocity, the likely result should be benefits for both parties (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS appears to indirectly influence effects of role stressors on organisational outcomes (affective commitment, increased performance and lower turnover) (Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Wayne et al., 1997) and individual outcomes (job satisfaction, life satisfaction and lower turnover intention) (Sluss et al, 2008; Valentine, Greller & Richtermeyer, 2006).

POS is related to psychological processes that may alleviate tension and withdrawal behaviours while increasing commitment and performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). When employees feel respected and cared for, basic socio-emotional needs are met; this encourages

employees to incorporate organisational roles into their personal identity which may alleviate tension and stress arising from various roles. When employees receive support they are likely to reciprocate this through an obligatory commitment to the organisation. However positive reciprocity and the fulfilment of socio-emotional desires combined may promote affective commitment based on feelings of true loyalty and attachment (Shore & Wayne, 1993).

A model proposed by Cartwright and Cooper (2002) addresses organisational commitment as a bi-directional variable that extends to include commitment from the organisation to the employee. This form of organisational commitment can be linked to perceptions of organisational support. Commitment attitudes develop over time as a result of employee contemplation on the relationship between themselves and their employer (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Commitment and perceived support can therefore be thought of as a process that is likely to be affected by the length of employment and improved by multiple interactions within the organisation (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). In considering organisational commitment to the employee and perceived organisational support it is logical to assume that perceptions of support develop over time as employees fulfil work roles and duties that are eventually felt to be appreciated by the organisation.

POS has further been linked to theories of organisational commitment (Pannacio & Vandenberghe, 2009). Organisational commitment assists researchers and practitioners in understanding employee work behaviour and attitudes (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). An important aspect, that is felt to precede employee commitment to the organisation, is organisational commitment to the employee (Baruch, 1998). In order for organisations to obtain employee commitment they need to initiate a relationship of respect and appreciation for their employees. It is therefore reasonable to assume that the notion of commitment from the organisation to the employee will also allow practitioners to predict employee behaviour. Leading organisational commitment theorists Meyer & Allen (1997) have acknowledged that organisational support to the employee is associated with employee commitment to the organisation. Therefore perceived organisational support can be viewed as a reinforcing agent in the organisation commitment process (Mowday, 1998; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001).

2.3.2 Antecedents of perceived organisational support

POS is formed on the basis of three organisational antecedents: fairness, supervisor support, and organisational rewards and favourable job conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These constructs have been linked to increases in job and life satisfaction (Shore & Wayne, 1993). In this context fairness is determined through the fair distribution of work resources (procedural justice) as well as the degree of perceived organisational politics. Procedural justice contributes to fairness perceptions if work roles and responsibilities are distributed through an acceptable procedure based on equality; in such instances employees should perceive their treatment regarding work roles as being fair (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus it is proposed that even with the existence of role conflict, organisational support grounded in fairness perceptions could alleviate the consequences of stress.

Assessments of procedural justice are determined by structural and social elements. Structural justice indicates adherence to formal rules in the assignment of formal roles and the distribution of information. It also includes employees having a role in the decision making process which introduces the social elements of justice (interactional) (Rhoades & Eisenberg, 2002). This may attenuate pressure resulting from role conflict; if an individual is able to voice concern about a role, it allows them to feel validated. This sense of validation directs the employee to experience the social elements of justice (through fair interpersonal treatment) such as feeling valued and respected by the organisation, even in the event that their suggestion on work roles is not accepted (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This indicates that the mere perception of procedural justice may have a constructive outcome for role stress. Fairness may be negatively impacted by perceived organisational politics which is influenced by nepotism, favouritism and advancing individual needs over those of the organization as a whole (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002)

Interactional justice is also influenced by supervisory support, the second antecedent of POS. Supervisor support is often considered to be the most influential component of POS as a product of daily interaction with one's supervisor (Baranik, Roling & Eby, 2010). Thus favourable and encouraging treatment from a supervisor is often amalgamated as favourable support from the organisation because supervisors are viewed as agents who represent and embody the

organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hochwater et al., 2003; Levinson, 1965). However Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) in their meta-analysis of research conducted on POS found that fairness has the strongest positive relationship with POS, followed by supervisor support. Nonetheless when employees are afforded the opportunity to utilise high levels of social support, they are likely to appraise their work environment and accompanying roles as less threatening (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The final contributor of POS is organisational rewards and job conditions which are operationalised through human resource practices. Perceptions of commitment are enhanced by emotional rewards such as sincere praise and encouragement while disingenuous and insincere praise can have the opposite effect on POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Other standard incentives such as pay and promotion, that signify a positive assessment of the employee, also boost POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Open recognition for good work, pay and promotion (rewards) are manifest, apparent acknowledgements that employee contributions are valued and appreciated by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This directly links to the defining attributes of POS. Job conditions such as maintaining a sense of job security also enhance POS as employees are able to feel secure and settled in their jobs. Job training can boost both job security and POS as the employee identifies these proceedings as evidence of the organisations investment in their individual potential and value (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Autonomy and control over ones work should further amplify POS. Experienced autonomy is related to role stress as it provides the individual with discretion as to the best way to carry out work roles and responsibilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). From this it stems that this antecedent of POS should help alleviate potential strain resulting from role stressors, as a direct effect of employees sensing they have more control over the roles they are expected to fulfil. Role stressors have also been viewed as antecedents of POS in previous research. Evidence from those studies has suggested that role stressors lower perceptions of organisational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). However the current researcher is interested in exploring the potential value that POS (derived from the components discussed above) may have on the negative effects of role stressors and therefore will not address role stressors as a contributor to POS.

2.3.3 Perceived organisational support, role stressors and job satisfaction

With advances in technology and employee intellectual capabilities, organisations need to maintain an even stronger focus on competitiveness (Faragher et al., 2004). This results in greater work roles and responsibilities being imposed on employees. The pressures associated with these responsibilities should lead to higher instances of experienced role stress and lowered job satisfaction (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Research has revealed that POS has strong effects on role conflict and role ambiguity (Stamper & Johlke, 2003) as well as job satisfaction outcomes and psychological functioning (Sluss et al., 2008). Therefore POS has been found to moderate effects on role stressor-outcomes relationships. The current study maintains its focus on the outcome relating to judgments of job satisfaction in the presence of role stress.

POS may be construed as a form of social support as it offers employees affirmation of their hard work, provides assistance when necessary as well as displays sincere regard and concern for well-being (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). Similar to social support (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999), POS acting as a buffer on the stressor-strain relationship is theoretically supported (Wayne et al., 1997). However, there is debate regarding whether the influence of POS is stronger on main effects (increasing job satisfaction) or on moderating effects (reducing the negative effects of stress) (Stamper & Johlke, 2003).

Organisational support also includes aid and assistance which allows employees to perform more effectively and further contributes to employees' abilities to overcome stressful situations that arise from work roles (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Perceptions of organisational support are further influenced by organisational policies and practices (Wayne et al., 1997). Organisational practices include the assignment of roles and responsibilities. Stamper and Johlke (2003) postulated that organisations who are sincerely concerned about their employees' well-being will offer in-role support to employees thus reducing the negative impact of role conflict and role ambiguity. Therefore if the organization institutes policies or practices that deal with role conflicts and is perceived as supportive by the employee, it is likely to directly affect the

experience of role stress as well as moderate the impact of that role stress on various outcomes, including job satisfaction.

The organisation is viewed by the employee as the responsible entity for ascribing work role behaviours (Levinson, 1965). From this it stems that employees may experience less harmful role stressors if they believe the organisation openly values their effective involvement in assigned roles. Stamper and Johkle (2003) explain that organisations who care about their employees will probably make bigger efforts to clarify worker roles and responsibilities in order to alleviate pressures caused by inter and intra sender role conflict. This illustrates the potential main effect that POS could have on role stressors. It is further indicated that perceptions that organisations care about employee satisfaction and value active participation in all work roles facilitate more positive appraisals of stress which may reduce noxious consequences (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Sometimes the conflicting nature of a job task cannot be removed and therefore role conflict is the inevitable outcome (Pannacio & Vandenberghe, 2009). However, POS may attenuate the strain of this conflict (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). Social support reduces negative reactions to role stress by impacting on the coping process (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). Employees may treat POS as some form of coping mechanism (Stamper & Johkle, 2003) and for this reason it is likely that it could attenuate negative outcomes instigated by role stressors - POS is premised to assist employees in coping with role stress (Pannacio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

The literature indicates that if POS is high the employee is more inclined to incorporate the identity of the organisation into their personal role status (Eisenberger et al., 1986), which will potentially lower the impact of person-role and interrole stressors by aligning personal and work roles. This will have positive outcomes for job satisfaction and overall well-being (Lambert et al., 2011) because POS helps employees cope with role stress (Pannacio & Vandenberghe, 2009). POS can boost and reinforce the ties between the employer and employees (Hochwater et al., 2003). This can have positive satisfaction outcomes for employee's feelings of value and appreciation as a result of experienced contentment originating in fair organisational treatment. Research has shown that POS encourages employees to increase their individual effort to achieve organisational goals (Eisenberger et al., 1986); this effort extends to overcoming role stress

which may otherwise impinge on performance which could likely lower satisfaction (Wayne et al., 1997).

POS has been found to increase affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wayne et al., 1997) which denotes an emotional attachment to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). This emotional attachment has consistently been linked to higher job satisfaction and general well-being as well as greater loyalty to the firm (Lu, Siu, Spector & Shi, 2009) thus illustrating the potential existence of a moderating link between role stress and greater job satisfaction outcomes. Affective attachment extends to employees incorporating work roles into their personal identity (Meyer et al., 2002). Therefore the current study is interested in the influence that POS may have on role stressors through encouraging employees to incorporate their work roles into their identity, thus either increasing or stabilising satisfaction.

2.4 Job satisfaction

Positive or negative appraisals of stressful situations may lead to the experience of eustress or distress respectively (Lazarus, 1993). Stress that is not alleviated in the coping process will lead to the experience of strain (distress) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). There are three types of strains – physical, psychological and behaviour-based (Extremera, Duran & Rey, 2009). Psychological strains refer to anxiety, depression as well as reductions to well-being and satisfaction (Jex & Crossley, 2005). Well-being encompasses the facet of job satisfaction (Schuler, 1980). This study only aims to investigate the potential moderating effects that individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support may have on role stressors with outcomes for job satisfaction, and hence will only be interested in strain related to this psychological outcome. This type of outcome has been referred to as having human consequences opposed to organisational consequences (Jex & Crossley, 2005). However, organisational effectiveness today is directly impacted by the psychological functioning of its workforce (Warr, 1999), thus illustrating the significance to organisations.

Occupational stress has found a vast amount of interest over the years from practitioners, researchers and organisations (Beehr & Glazer, 2005; Ganster, 2008; Stamper & Johlke, 2003). Stress most often has negative consequences for the organisation, the most common being the cost of increased mental health care, reduced productivity, decreased quality of customer service and lower job satisfaction for employees (Jex & Crossley, 2005). Job, and subsequent life satisfaction deals with cognitive-judgmental features of individual well-being (Diener, Emmons, Larson & Griffin, 1985). Hence job satisfaction is a personal evaluation of the quality of work life according to a person's subjective measure of what constitutes well-being and satisfaction. Satisfaction has been viewed as an indicator of positive mental health (Bhagat & Allie, 1989). In extreme cases general stress and role stressors will lead to an absence of mental health and increases in psychological strain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983). Research has explicated that stressors are related to low satisfaction (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Thus lowered job satisfaction has been found to be a manifestation of the symptoms of stress (Siu, Spector, Cooper & Lu, 2005). Moreover, role conflict has been correlated to negative consequences for individual psychological functioning including

reductions to job and life satisfaction (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005). Based on this the current researcher presumes that job satisfaction can be substituted as a measure of the outcome of experienced role stress.

Job satisfaction is the interaction of affect and cognition – feeling and thinking (Judge & Church, 2000) – as well as an interaction between individual values and the work environment (Locke, 1969). Both top-down and bottom-up approaches have been explored to explain individual differences in judgments of satisfaction. Top-down implies that satisfaction is based on dispositional characteristics of the individual responsible for the appraisal, while bottom-up suggests that the environment and different contexts play a significant role in satisfaction assessment (Heller, Watson & Ilies, 2004). The set-point approach to satisfaction maintains that it is determined by predispositions that are inherent to the individual and is not necessarily shaped or influenced by the environmental context. It proposes that each individual has a baseline for satisfaction and that this set-point is consistent over the life span. It acknowledges that major events (both at the workplace and other life domains) will cause this subjective happiness to temporarily shift around the set point (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996). However, research conducted by Fujita & Diener (2005) served to indicate that satisfaction may not have an individual set point. They rather proposed a theory of a soft set-point that will allow for variations to individual satisfaction. This extends theory that suggests that varying environmental circumstances and perceptions can influence satisfaction at a given time (Schimmack, Oishi, Furr & Funder, 2004). Moreover, research has indicated that responses to job satisfaction are the result of both short-term situational prompts and long-term attitudes (Weiss, Nicholas & Daus, 1999). Therefore job satisfaction may fluctuate and should not be considered a stable construct. Satisfaction judgments are further considered to be evaluations of current job situations and this illustrates how job satisfaction may vary as a consequence of contextual variables (Yeoh, 2007). This implies that satisfaction is not a stable quality that individuals will possess equally throughout their lifetime. Individual differences (ICO) and subjective perceptions (POS) and views based on one's current position (in their work roles) will likely impact on any evaluation of job satisfaction. White (1981) advocated that individuals' feelings and outlooks about work experiences are determinants of overall attitudes to satisfaction. This illustrates the potential relation between workplace stressors and job satisfaction. Stemming from this it is

understandable how role stressors, as contextual variables, are related to perceptions of job satisfaction.

Relationship quality and the preservation of solid interpersonal connections have been linked to higher job and life satisfaction (Kang, Shaver, Sue, Min & Jing, 2003; Kwan, Bond & Singelis, 1997). Levels of job satisfaction have been found to vary across cultures (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Suh, Diener and Updegraff (2008) explain that different cultural orientations will force individuals to appraise satisfaction with dissimilar criteria. They believe that an individualist or collectivist orientation is likely to be responsible for "divergent satisfaction judgment styles" (Suh et al., 2008, p.5) found across and within cultures (Kitayama & Markus, 2000). Hui, Yee, and Eastman (1995) found a positive relationship between collectivism and job satisfaction. Collectivists value strong interpersonal relationships (Triandis, 1995), which could stand to motivate them to overcome issues relating to inter and intra sender role conflict which will solidify relationships and contribute to better perceptions of satisfaction. Moreover, the collectivist orientation to maintain harmony in groups (Liu & Spector, 2005; Oyserman et al., 2002) could help eradicate the existence of sent-role stressors which could stabilize satisfaction. Sustaining harmony and unity within groups is a "culturally mandated task" (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p.230) for collectivists. Research has further indicated that individualists are likely to base satisfaction judgements on personal emotions while collectivists consider perceptions that others have of them (Suh et al., 2008). Consequently a lack of harmonious relations on the job could potentially result in an individual with a collectivist orientation exacerbating the pressure arising from sent-role conflict which may be detrimental to satisfaction. In collectivist cultures people are more likely to want to maintain harmonious relationships with all people they interact with (family, friends and co-workers) while in individualist cultures this harmony may only extend to ones close family and friends (Kang et al., 2003). Thus it could be suggested that people with a collectivist orientation may be more affected by role stressors while individualists may have inherent qualities that help buffer and prevent harmful effects on job satisfaction when experiencing sent-role conflict.

Kwak, Chung, Xu & Eun-Jung (2010) found job dissatisfaction was related to a lack of organisational support. Low job satisfaction has been linked to an absence of perceived

organisational support (Aiken, Clarke & Sloane, 2002). Furthermore support has been found to buffer the effects of stress on job satisfaction and well-being (Ducharme & Martin, 2000). This research provides a basis for the proposed moderating effect of perceived organisational support on the role stressor and job satisfaction relationship. Aside from role stressors and the proposed moderators, other variables have also been linked to judgments of job satisfaction. Research has indicated that hours worked, age and gender impact on satisfaction assessments (Clarke & Oswald, 1996; Groot & Van Den Brink, 1999). Prior research has indicated that older respondents tend to report greater job satisfaction than their younger counterparts (Chambers, 1999).

Webster et al. (2010) found that role ambiguity and role conflict were positively related to job dissatisfaction. Moreover their research indicated that stressors could be both a challenge and a hindrance and these perceptions may be determined by personal or contextual variables. This suggests that role stressor outcomes for job satisfaction, and other work attitudes, are likely to be impacted by other variables, such as cultural orientation or organisational support. It is also indicative that moderators may either enhance or reduce job satisfaction in the presence of role stressors. This highlights the potential for individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support to have both negative and positive consequences for job satisfaction outcomes. Therefore exploring the impact of variables such as individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support on the stressor-job satisfaction relationship, may allow practitioners to develop interventions aimed at increasing organisational assistance to employees across all levels of the organisation in order to reduce strain and enhance job satisfaction.

2.5 Research questions

Based on the above literature, the current study aims to answer the following research questions.

Research Question 1: Does individual cultural orientation moderate the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction?

Research Question 2: Does perceived organisational support moderate the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction?

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The research design that was adopted in the current study was cross sectional and non-experimental in nature. Santrock (2005, p.56) explained that "non-experimental research methods (descriptive and correlational research) cannot establish cause and effect because they do not involve manipulating factors in a controlled way". Ex post facto designs indicate that a study has taken place after the fact and imply no manipulation (Leedy, 1989). Therefore this research design was most suitable to the study as there was no manipulation, no control group and no random assignment.

The lack of manipulation and control was a potential drawback to the study because there was no way for the researcher to control or account for the impact of extraneous variables on the participants' responses (Leedy, 1989). However, ex-post facto designs are readily used by researchers because of their suitability to both naturalistic and field research (Kerlinger, 1986). Moreover, the administration of such a design is relatively simple, flexible and inexpensive.

3.2 Sample

The sample consisted of 152 participants, drawn from four organisations in the industries of imports and sales, vehicle tracking, engineering and property management and development. Criteria for inclusion were that participants should be current residents of South Africa and should be employed in a South African organisation. It was also required that participants had a grade 12 qualification to ensure ability to understand and interpret the questionnaires. These requirements helped the researcher reduce the effect that extraneous variables may have had on the results of the study. The sample is described in Table 1.

Table 1: Description of sample group (N = 152)

Descriptor	n	Percent
Gender		
Male	72	47.37
Female	80	52.63
Age		
Under 30 yrs	74	48.68
Over 30 yrs	78	51.32
Marital Status		
Never Married	80	52.63
Married	52	34.21
Divorced	10	6.58
Widowed	3	1.97
Cohabiting	7	4.61
Other	3	1.97
Broad Racial Group		
White	93	61.18
Black	44	28.95
Coloured	4	2.63
Indian	7	4.61
Asian	4	2.63
Racial Group Category		
White	93	61.18
Black	59	38.82
Work Arrangement		
Full time	143	94.08
Part time	9	5.92
Hours worked per week		
20-25 hrs	6	3.95
26-30 hrs	4	2.63
31-35 hrs	2	1.32
36-40 hrs	13	8.55
41-45 hrs	59	38.82

46-50 hrs	50	32.89
51+ hrs	18	11.84

Length of employment with organisation		
Less than 1 year	35	23.03
2-4 yrs	61	40.13
5-7 yrs	31	20.39
8-10 yrs	10	6.58
11+ yrs	15	9.87

The sample consisted of 72 (47.37%) males and 80 (52.63%) females. The age range of the participants ranged from 20 to 59, with a mean of 32 and a standard deviation of 6. Of the 152 participants, 74 (48.68%) were under the age of 30 years while 78 (51.32%) were over the age of 30 years. The majority of the sample were English speaking (63.16%), 29 (19.08%) listed Zulu as their home language and 13 (8.55%) were Afrikaans while the remaining 14 (9.21%) listed other African languages. Ninety-three (61.18%) participants were white, there were 44 (28.95%) black participants and 15 (9.87%) coloured, Indian and Asian participants. According to South African legislation the generic term 'black people' refers to African, Coloured, Indian and Asian South Africans (Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003). Therefore race was further categorised as white and black. This category was included in order to assess how race (as classified by South African law) impacted on the variable of individual cultural orientation which is likely to be influenced by one's racial grouping. Ninety-three participants were white (61.18%) and 59 (38.82%) were black. One hundred and forty three (94.08%) of the participants were employed full time and 127 (83.55%) work 41 or more hours per week, which indicates that many of the participants work well above the standard requirement of 40 hours per week. A large portion (40.13%) of the sample had only been employed by their current organisation for two to four years while 56 (36.84%) have been employed by their current organisation for more than five years. Fifty-two (34.21%) participants are married while 10 (6.58%) are divorced and 80 (52.63%) have never been married.

3.3 Sampling Procedure

Non-probability sampling was used because the researcher was unable to ensure that every constituent of the population had an equal opportunity for participation (Leedy, 1989). Numerous organisations were contacted by the researcher telephonically and by email, however, access was granted only to four organisations. There were no stated criteria for organisational selection as the researcher wanted to yield a diverse sample that could adequately provide meaning to a study on culture. The contact person (within each organisation) was provided with a letter requesting access and outlining the purpose of the research and what participation entailed (Appendix A). Once permission had been granted (Appendix B), the questionnaires (to be discussed in detail below) together with a participant information sheet (Appendix C1 and C2) were distributed in either electronic form or in hardcopy to employees who met the inclusion criteria. The questionnaires were distributed through an online application (survey monkey) whereby participants were emailed a link by the organisational contact person. This link directed them to a site where the questionnaire was completed and uploaded to a database with all other responses. One of the consenting organisations requested a hard copy version of the questionnaire which was then distributed by the organisational contact person. Questionnaires were filled in at work and were placed in an envelope upon completion. This in turn was placed in a sealed box in a central location in the workplace that was easily accessible to employees. The researcher then collected completed questionnaires. Fifty three responses were in the form of hardcopy questionnaires while 99 were online responses filled in through survey monkey.

3.4 Measuring Instruments

The combined questionnaire consisted of 108 items and took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

3.4.1 Biographic Questionnaire

The 8 item questionnaire was developed in order to collect demographic information about the participants (Appendix D). It provided information that allowed for an adequate description of

the sample. No personal or identifying information was required in the questionnaire and therefore anonymity was ensured. The questionnaire included the following items: gender, age, language, race, whether employed full time or part time, hours worked per week, duration of current employment and marital status.

3.4.2 Multidimensional Role Conflict Questionnaire

Role conflict can be used to measure stress and organisational dynamics (Donald & Donald, 2001). Therefore role stressors were assessed using the Multidimensional Role Conflict Questionnaire developed by Donald and Donald (2001) (Appendix E). This scale addressed the limitations often experienced in using uni-dimensional measures of role conflict by providing sub-scales that specifically measure the multidimensional nature of role conflict. The scale consists of 24 items, with subscales focusing on Kahn et al.'s (1964) original taxonomy of role conflict types. These subscales are person-role conflict (5 items), role overload (6 items), intersender conflict (6 items), intrasender conflict (4 items) and interrole conflict (3 items). Items are rated on a five point Likert-type scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" where strongly disagree=1 and strongly agree=5. Higher scores are related to greater experiences of role conflict.

Construct validity of this scale was established through reliable internal consistency as well as utilising item and factor analyses (Donald & Donald, 2001). In the original validation study the sub-scales of the dimensions of role conflict had the following alpha coefficients: person-role conflict = .77; role overload = .80; intersender conflict = .78; intrasender conflict = .55; and interrole conflict = .50 (Donald & Donald, 2001). Even though all of the reliabilities were not above the acceptable .70 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994, as cited in Visser and Rothman 2008), reliabilities between .50 and .60 are considered satisfactory for instruments in their early stages of development (Nunnally, 1967, as cited in Donald & Donald, 2001). The internal consistency of the scale in the present study was also established with the coefficient alpha. The alpha coefficients for the current study were as follows for all 6 dimensions: person-role conflict = .91; role overload = .73; intersender conflict = .72; intrasender conflict = .77; and interrole conflict = .70.

3.4.3 Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scale (IND-COL)

Individual cultural orientation was assessed using the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scale (IND-COL) (Singelis, Triandis, Bwahuk & Gelfand, 1995) (Appendix F) which consists of 32 items. This scale addresses four dimensions of culture, opposed to the traditional two dimensions (individualism and collectivism) (Hofstede, 1980). The four dimensions of the scale are horizontal individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI), horizontal collectivism (HC) and vertical collectivism (VC) (Figure 1). The horizontal and vertical aspects of this scale have been likened to Hofstede's (1980) measure of power distance. Therefore it can be viewed as a scale that is able to measure multiple dimensions of individual cultural orientation (it is not limited to just individualism and collectivism) where participants may score high or low across all dimensions. Each dimension is measured by 8 items. Items are rated on a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" where strongly disagree=1 and strongly agree=7.

The initial validation study of the scale proved it to be a valid and reliable measure of all four dimensions of individual cultural orientation. Confirmatory factor analysis revealed a consistent structure, with reasonable reliability coefficients for each dimension: HI = .67; VI = .74; HC = .74; VC = .68. The internal consistency of the scale in the present study was also established with the coefficient alpha. The current study utilised the overall individualism subscale (HI and VI), the overall collectivism subscale (HC and VC) as well as the four above mentioned subscales. The overall individualism subscale alpha coefficient was .91 while the overall collectivism subscale alpha coefficient was .92. Alpha coefficients for the subscales were as follows: HI = .83; VI = .88; HC = .87; VC = .82. Thus scale reliability was found to be well above the required .70.

3.4.4 Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS)

An 8 item shortened version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) Survey of Perceived Organisational Support was utilised to measure POS. (Appendix G). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002, p.699)

support the use of a reduced version of the survey "because the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal reliability, the use of shorter versions does not appear problematic". However, they go on to stipulate that the two components (valuation of employees' contribution and care about employees' well-being) of POS need to be adequately measured in a shortened version – both accounted for in the 8 item scale. The SPOS is indicative of employees' global beliefs that the organisation cares about their well-being and values their contribution (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

The eight items used in the current study were those that loaded the highest in Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) factor analysis. These 8-items have been used as a shortened version in numerous studies (Hochwater, Kacmar, Perrewe & Johnson, 2003; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). Items are rated on five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The higher the score, the greater the perception of organisational support. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .84. The current study revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .94. This was well within the required value of .70 and thus internal consistency of scale items was established.

3.4.5 The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The 36 item Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985) was used to calculate a composite score of job satisfaction (Appendix H). The JSS assesses nine facets of job satisfaction: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication. Factor analysis was conducted to provide evidence that the scale measures distinct facets of job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Each facet is measured with four items, while the composite score is calculated by summing all 36 items. Items are rated on a 6 point Likert-type scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Higher scores indicate a greater degree of job satisfaction.

Spector (1985) confirmed convergent and discriminant validity in the initial validation study. Moreover he further reported alpha coefficients ranging from .60 to .91 for the facet subscales and an alpha of .91 for the overall scale. This indicates that the scale and its subscales are a reliable measure of job satisfaction and its components. The current study only required use of

the composite score of the summed 36 items. The composite score was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of .88. Thus internal consistency was confirmed for the current study.

3.5 Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations and frequencies were determined for all variables. Skewness, kurtosis and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were also utilised to describe the normality and distribution of the data. Reliability indicates the consistency of items in measuring a particular construct (Bramwell, 2001). Therefore scale reliabilities were established in order to indicate that the scales are relevant and of use to the current research (as indicated above). A correlation is a statistical technique that searches for a relationship between two or more variables (Mills & Banyard, 2007). Moreover, a correlation is the statistic that describes or indicates the intensity or magnitude of the relationship (or association) between variables (Leedy, 1989). The correlation coefficient explains the degree of the relationship through its direction and strength and falls between -1.00 and 1.00. The positive or negative sign before the number indicates the direction of the relationship; while the correlation coefficient reveals whether there is a strong or weak relationship between the variables if the relationship is significant (Robson, 1987). When making use of moderated regression analysis it is necessary to determine how the IV's (includes moderator variables) relate to the DV within the model (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was also used to establish relationships that existed between the variables, as an exploration of the relationships between the main variables in a study is required when utilising moderated multiple regression (to be explained more below). Furthermore secondary analyses, in the form of one way analysis of variance and t-tests, were run to explore potential relationships that may exist between the variables and certain biographic data, which are not addressed through regression. ANOVA's are utilised to assess mean differences between 3 or more different groups. Therefore biographic variables with more than two categories were tested for significant effects with an ANOVA analysis. Independent sample t-tests are employed to assess the mean difference between two groups. Therefore biographic variables with only two categories were investigated for significant effects by means of independent sample t-tests. In order to perform an ANOVA or T-test, equality of variance needs to be established through Levene's test for homogeneity of variance.

Results are only considered significant and meaningful if the p value is greater than 0.05 on Levene's test so that homogeneity of variance can be confirmed. Further statistics necessary to confirm the statistical assumptions of used analyses were also run and will be explained in depth below as well as in the results chapter.

The effect of a moderating variable is characterised statistically as an interaction (Bramwell, 2001). This interaction affects the strength and/or direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Correlations (Pearson's product moment) were first run to establish the existence of a relationship between the independent and dependent variables (role stress and job satisfaction respectively); and between the moderator variables (ICO and POS) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The data was then analysed through moderated multiple regression (MMR) in order to address the main research questions. MMR is used to approximate the effect of a moderator variable (*Z)* on the independent-dependent variable (X-Y) relationship (Aguinis & Pierce, 1999; Helm & Mark, 2010). The regression equation incorporates Y as a criterion, and X and Z as predictors of Y. In addition, the MMR equation includes a third predictor consisting of the X by Z product. This product term carries information regarding the interaction of the moderator and independent variable on the dependent variable (Aguinis & Pierce, 1999).

The MMR equation is as follows

$$Y = a + b_1X + b_2Z + b_3X.Z$$

Where *Y* represents the predicted value for the independent variable, *a* corresponds to the least squares estimate of the intercept of surface of best fit, b_1 is the least squares estimate of the population regression coefficient for *X*, *b2* is the least squares estimate of the population regression coefficient for *Z*, and *b3* is the least squares estimate of the population regression coefficient for the product term which carries information about the interaction between *X* and *Z* (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In determining a moderating effect the null hypothesis needs to be rejected which will indicate that the regression of the DV on the IV is unequal across different values of the moderator.

In order to effectively make use of moderated multiple regression and other parametric tests certain statistical assumptions need to be met – these assumptions are explained below.

Normality. Providing evidence of a normally distributed sample is a necessary requirement for most parametric statistical analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The distribution can be assessed through consultation of histogram plots as well as through skewness and kurtosis scores.

Linearity. Linear relationships between the IV's and the DV should exist in order to fulfil the assumption of linearity for MMR (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Scatterplots should be analysed in order to identify the existence of linear relationships between variables.

Measurement Error. Busemeyer and Jones (1983 as cited in Baron & Kenny, 1986) propose that moderation is linear and further highlight the danger in applying interactions of variables that have high measurement error. Measurement error refers to the potential for the chosen measuring instruments to yield a low reliability in measuring each variable (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Scale reliabilities indicated by a Cronbach's alpha greater than .6 are believed to provide adequate confirmation of low measurement error.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity refers to the existence of very high correlations between independent variables within a study (Osborne & Waters, 2002). MMR requires an absence of multicollinear relationships and therefore correlations between IV's should reveal coefficients below .80 (Lewis-Beck, 1980).

Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity refers to establishing equality of variance for the data. This assumption deals with an analysis of the ungrouped data, ensuring that the predictability in scores for one variable is approximately the same at all values of another variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The residuals scatterplot is utilised to assess the equality of variance.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical principles need to be addressed when carrying out research studies. Therefore ethical approval for the current study was requested and subsequently granted by the University Ethical Committee (Appendix I – ethical approval forms). Participation in the study was voluntary and returning a completed questionnaire was deemed as consent to participate. Participants were provided with guidelines for completion and submission of the questionnaire and were further informed (Appendix C1 and C2) that they may discontinue participation at any time, prior to submission and that their consent will be implied with the return of the questionnaire. All employees who volunteered to participate in the study were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. Anonymity was provided by not requesting any personal indentifying information such as name and ID number. The online questionnaire was emailed by means of a link that directed participants to a site where the questionnaire was completed and uploaded to a database with all other responses. No IP addresses were provided to the researcher through online distribution, therefore indicating anonymity of participation. Both these actions ensure anonymity as the researcher cannot trace responses. Moreover the researcher has only examined group trends while individual responses were not addressed. This anonymity further indicates that no participant was advantaged or disadvantaged in any way through participation in the study. Only the researcher and her supervisor have access to completed questionnaires and in this way confidentiality will be maintained. The results of this study will be provided to organisations who granted access to the researcher.

Chapter Four: Results

This section presents a comprehensive analysis of the statistical results of the collected data. It begins with a brief examination of the simple statistics and offers a distribution analysis to evaluate the normality of the sample. It was found, as will be presented, that the sample was normally distributed amongst all scales. Thus the assumption of normality was fulfilled for the purposes of running moderated multiple regression analyses and other parametric statistical analyses. As discussed in the methodology section, in order to effectively make use of moderated multiple regression and other parametric tests certain assumptions need to be met – these assumptions are discussed below in relation to the current data to validate the use of MMR in the study. All assumptions were met, therefore the main research questions were addressed using MMR and Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Data relating to the overall scales, as well as the subscales, were addressed within these statistics. Secondary analyses, in the form of a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two independent sample t-tests, were run in order to analyse the impact of biographical variables on the independent and dependent variables. Post hoc tests were then conducted on the ANOVAs that revealed significant results.

4.1 Statistical abbreviations

For ease of reference, a key of the abbreviations utilised in the results section is provided below in Table 2.

Table 2: Statistical Abbreviations Guide

Abbreviations	Variable
PersonRC	Person role conflict subscale
RoleOL	Role overload subscale
IntersenderCon	Intersender conflict subscale
IntrasenderCon	Intrasender conflict subscale
InterroleCon	Interrole conflict subscale
TotalInd	Total Individualism scale
TotalCol	Total Collectivism scale
HorInd	Horizontal individualism subscale
VerInd	Vertical individualism subscale
HorCol	Horizontal collectivism subscale
VerCol	Vertical collectivism subscale
Pos	Perceived organisational support scale
JobSatis	Job Satisfaction scale

4.2 Simple statistics

Table 3 below provides the descriptive statistics for all variables. In assessing the response range on a continuum from 1 – 5 for the multidimensional role conflict subscales, the above descriptive statistics reveal that there was a moderate level of experienced role conflict by participants. The role overload subscale had the highest mean (M=3.21) with a standard deviation below 1 (SD=0.82) while the median (m=3.33) did not fall far from the mean, indicating that scores are evenly spread around the mean. Person role conflict revealed the lowest mean (M=2.18) with the highest standard deviation (S=1.14) and a median (m=2.6) relatively close to the mean. It is therefore possible that the responses on the subscale were slightly skewed. Alternatively an explanation for the lower mean is that participants of this sample simply experience less person role conflict because of the nature of their job. Nonetheless, the simple statistics seem to suggest that role conflict, on average, was moderately experienced by the individuals in the current sample.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for scales and subscales (N=152)

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Median	Minimum	Maximum
PersonRC	2.18	1.14	2.6	1	5
RoleOL	3.21	0.82	3.33	1	5
IntersenderCon	3.06	0.82	3.08	1	5
IntrasenderCon	2.7	0.98	2.5	1	5
InterroleCon	3.09	0.63	3	1	5
TotalInd	4.84	0.96	4.88	1	7
TotalCol	4.73	1	4.93	1	7
HorInd	5.26	0.91	5.3	1	7
VerInd	4.43	1.21	4.31	1	7
HorCol	5	0.99	5.3	1	7
VerCol	4.32	1.12	4.5	1	7
Pos	3.49	1.01	3.75	1	5
JobSatis	3.52	0.92	3.53	1	6

Similarly, examining the descriptive statistics for the horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism scale, illustrates how these specific South African employees are placed in the middle of a continuum between individualism and collectivism (as already implied by Bhagat et al., 2010). The overall individualism scale and the overall collectivism scale produced mean scores (M=4.84 and M=4.73 respectively), standard deviations (S =.96 and S=1 respectively) and median scores (m=4.88 and m=4.93) that were in a normal range from one another. Moreover neither of these indicated extreme scores as the culture variable was measured on a scale from 1 – 7.

The perceived organisational support scale was a unidimensional measure that revealed that the sample appears to moderately maintain perceptions that they are employed by supportive organisations. The scale was assessed on a continuum from 1 – 5 with a mean (M=3.49), standard deviation (S=1.01) and median (m=3.75) indicating that POS yielded moderate scores across the sample. The job satisfaction measure provided a global score for satisfaction at work. The descriptive statistics for this scale indicate how the participants indicated moderate levels of satisfaction on the job on a continuum from 1 – 6. This is supported by the mean (M=3.52), standard deviation (S=0.92) and median score (m=3.53). The moderate mean scores across all measured variables may imply that a normal distribution exists. However, it was still necessary

to apply skewness, kurtosis and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as a measure of normality, in order to assess whether, or not, the data meets the assumptions for a parametric statistical analysis such as Pearson's product moment correlation and moderated multiple regression.

4.3 Distribution analysis – tests of normality

Table 4: Summary of skewness, kurtosis and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov-Smirnov
PersonRC	0.15	-1	p<0.01
RoleOL	-0.4	-0.8	p<0.01
IntersenderCon	-0.22	-0.88	p<0.01
IntrasenderCon	0.3	-0.66	p<0.01
InterroleCon	-0.16	0.13	p<0.01
TotalInd	-0.013	-0.63	p<0.01
TotalCol	-0.55	-0.26	p<0.01
HorInd	-0.53	-0.25	p<0.01
VerInd	0.18	-0.84	p<0.01
HorCol	-0.73	-0.01	p<0.01
VerCol	-0.26	-0.55	p<0.01
Pos	-0.54	-0.67	p<0.01
JobSatis	0.02	-0.37	p<0.01

"Parametric statistical analyses assume that errors or residuals are independently and randomly sampled from a single normally distributed population" (Judd, McClelland & Culhane, 1995, p.452), therefore it is necessary to illustrate that the current research data was normally distributed. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run to determine whether or not the scores were normally distributed across the sample. The results were interpreted through an analysis of the significance of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as skewness and kurtosis scores. Skewness and kurtosis measure the degree to which the current sample deviates from a normal distribution (Singh, 2007). Skewness represents the asymmetrical distribution of scores around the mean. While kurtosis refers to the "peakedness" (Singh, 2007, p.141) of the curve – how peaked or flat the distribution is around the mean. Perfectly distributed data should have skewness and kurtosis scores that are no greater than 0.00 (Kirk, 2008). However, the likelihood of obtaining a perfect score of 0.00 is slim and therefore if skewness and kurtosis fall within the

expected range of chance fluctuations of the statistic, it is acceptable to assume that the distribution is normal (Brown, 1997). Therefore skewness and kurtosis scores that fall between -1.00 and +1.00 are considered to be normally distributed (Morgan, Griego & Gloekner, 2001).

The results in Table 4 (above) indicate that all skewness and kurtosis scores fall within the range of -1.00 and +1.00, thus confirming the normal distribution of the data for the current study. Furthermore the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test had a consistent significant p value ($p < 0.01$) across all measured variables, indicating that normality can be established. Therefore parametric statistical analyses (MMR and Pearson Product-Moment correlations, t-tests and ANOVA's) could be performed on the data.

4.4 Assumptions of Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR)

Making sure an analysis meets the associated assumptions helps avoid Type I and II errors within results and interpretation of data (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Therefore in order for each variable to be considered statistically valid as a moderator in a regression analysis, the following assumptions were tested and fulfilled.

4.4.1 Linearity. Linear relationships between the IV's and the DV should exist in order to fulfil the assumption of linearity for MMR (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In order to adequately address the concern for linearity of the variables, data should be used to generate residual plot graphs (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Therefore the researcher made use of the standardised residuals by standardised predicted values plot to assess linearity. Data should occur in a linear pattern across the graph, as opposed to a curvilinear pattern (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Osborne & Waters, 2002). If the data clusters tightly along the line in the plot, then it further confirms that the residuals are normally distributed and maintain a linear relationship (Allen & Bennett, 2008). Moreover an absence of major patterns on the scatterplots is indicative that this assumption should be presumed to be met (Allen & Bennett, 2008). Examination of these graphs for the current data (Appendix J) revealed that the data was linear and this assumption was therefore deemed to be reliably fulfilled.

It is also acceptable to use theory or previous research to inform current analyses regarding the assumption of linearity (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Basically this implies that if theory and prior research have clearly and strongly established linearity between variables, it is acceptable to assume linearity. Numerous studies and theories have confirmed the existence of a linear relationship between role stress and satisfaction outcomes (Beehr et al., 2000; Coetzee & de Villiers, 2010; Coetzee & Rothmann, 2005; Dallimore & Mickel, 2006; Faragher et al., 2004; Ganster, 2008; Skalli et al., 2008). Thus this stands to provide further evidence that this assumption has been fulfilled in the current research.

4.4.2 Measurement error. It is necessary to confirm that very little measurement error exists. While it may be impossible to completely eliminate all measurement error, there is still a need to assess the extent to which measurement error does exist and to ensure that it is not high (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984). An adequate assessment of measurement error can be performed by ensuring that all scale reliabilities have an alpha coefficient of at least .60 indicating appropriate internal reliability (Kim & Mueller, 1986 as cited in Bernstein, 1992). The alpha coefficients for all variables and measures in the current study range from 0.70 to 0.91 (provided in methodology section). These high reliabilities are therefore believed to confirm low existence of measurement error in the current data and thus the second assumption for MMR has been proved.

4.4.3 Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity refers to the size or extent to which the independent variables are correlated (Osborne & Waters, 2002). However, when the degree of their correlation is too high variables are believed to be multicollinear (Miles and Shevlin, 2001). Multicollinearity was assessed by calculating the relationship between the independent (role conflict subscales) and moderator (ICO subscales and POS) variables through the use of Pearson correlation coefficients (the normality established above allows for the use of this parametric test). In order to establish appropriate levels of muilticollinearity the correlation coefficient should not exceed 0.80 (Lewis-Beck, 1980). Table 5 provided below indicate that the IV's and moderators do not correlate at levels above 0.80. For most of the individualism and collectivism subscales they failed to reveal any significant relationships, thus providing evidence that the variables are not multicollinear.

Table 5: Pearson's correlation coefficients for role conflict IVs and moderator variables (N=152)

	PersonRC	RoleOL	IntersenderCon	IntrasenderCon	InterroleCon
TotalInd	0.12	0.07	-0.03	-0.12	0.02
	0.12	**0.42**	**0.62**	**0.13**	**0.79**
TotalCol	-0.02	-0.1	-0.06	-0.008	0.15
	0.81	**0.22**	**0.43**	**0.92**	**0.06**
HorInd	-0.2	-0.08	-0.15	-0.2	-0.22
	0.01**	**0.3**	**0.06**	**0.01****	**0.005****
VerInd	-0.04	0.16	0.05	-0.03	0.02
	0.59	**0.04**	**0.52**	**0.63**	**0.83**
HorCol	-0.11	-0.14	-0.15	-0.09	-0.08
	0.17	**0.08**	**0.06**	**0.23**	**0.27**
VerCol	0.06	-0.05	0.02	0.07	-0.0009
	0.44	**0.51**	**0.77**	**0.38**	**0.99**
Pos	-0.43	-0.17	-0.3	-0.34	-0.16
	<0.0001***	**0.03***	**0.0002****	**<0.0001*****	**0.04***

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

4.4.4 Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity refers to establishing equality of variance. Simply put this assumption deals with an analysis of ungrouped data, ensuring that the predictability in scores for one variable is roughly the same at all values of another variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In a moderated multiple regression, deviations with regard to this assumption can be detected via an assessment of the shape of the residuals scatterplot, already utilised in providing evidence of linearity (Appendix J). The patterns appeared largely rectangular in the residuals plot with the majority of scores concentrated across the centre which is indicative of equality of variance and thus the final assumption was met. Moreover, equality of variance is believed to exist if all responses fall within two standard deviations of the mean. This assumption was confirmed in the RStudent plot which indicated that responses fell within two standard deviations. As a final point before interpreting the results of the MMR, Cohen and Cohen (1983) indicate that a moderator model should be applied to a sample that has a minimum of 100 participants. The current sample had 152 participants and it was thus deemed an appropriate fit to utilise such a model.

4.5 Correlations for Role Conflict, ICO and POS with Job Satisfaction

When making use of moderated regression analysis it is necessary to determine how the IV's (includes moderator variables) relate to the DV within the model (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were performed for the five role conflict IVs, the six culture moderators and the perceived organisational support moderator with the dependent variable, job satisfaction, respectively. Correlations are provided in the tables below and are followed by a brief discussion of these results.

Table 6: Pearson's correlation coefficients for role conflict IVs and job satisfaction (N=152)

	PersonRC	RoleOL	IntersenderCon	IntrasenderCon	InterroleCon
JobSatis	-0.44	-0.28	-0.4	-0.46	-0.19
	<0.0001* **	**0.0005** **	**<0.0001*** **	**<0.0001*** **	**0.02** **

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

Table 6 provides the correlation analysis for the five types of role conflict with job satisfaction. All correlations revealed a significant inverse relationship to exist between these variables thus indicating that increases in role conflict are associated with reductions in job satisfaction. The strength of this relationship varies with each dimension of role conflict. Intersender conflict has the weakest significant relationship ($r=-0.04$, $p<0.0001$) while intrasender conflict has the strongest relationship ($r=-0.46$, $p<0.0001$) thus indicating that clashing expectations sent by one person are more strongly related to lowered perceptions of satisfaction than inconsistencies in expectations sent by different people. Person role conflict also yielded a fairly strong inverse relationship ($r=-0.44$, $p<0.0001$) with job satisfaction. This could be indicative of the role ICO may play in moderating the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction as person role conflict is influenced by personal beliefs, values and attitudes (Hennington et al., 2011; Kahn et al., 1964).

The correlations between the individual cultural orientation scales and job satisfaction (Table 7) consistently revealed a moderate significant positive relationship between the collectivism subscales (Total collectivism (r=0.29, p=0.0003), horizontal collectivism (r=0.36, p<0.0001) and vertical collectivism (r=0.19, p=0.01)) and job satisfaction scores, while none of the individualism subscales exposed any form of association. This indicates that only a collectivist orientation is significantly related to overall job satisfaction in this sample, even though the literature asserts that both individualist and collectivist orientations maintain distinct advantages and disadvantages in supporting job satisfaction (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998).

Table 7: Pearson's correlation coefficients for ICO subscales and job satisfaction (N=152)

	TotalInd	TotalCol	HorInd	VerInd	HorCol	VerCol
JobSatis	-0.05	0.29	0.05	-0.11	0.36	0.19
	0.56	**0.0003****	0.51	0.15	**<0.0001*****	**0.01****

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

Table 8 identifies an extremely strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and perceived organisational support (r=0.79, p<0.0001). This relationship was expected based on the literature (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Sluss et al., 2008) that links these variables in a direct relationship and highlights how increases in POS are related to increases in job satisfaction.

Table 8: Pearson's correlation coefficients for perceived organisational support and job satisfaction (N=152)

	Pos
JobSatis	0.79
	<0.0001***

***p < .001

4.6 Analysis of research questions

All of the MMR regression models were structured similarly. Job satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable, then each multidimensional role conflict subscale (person role conflict, role overload, intersender conflict, intrasender conflict and interrole conflict respectively) and each moderator (individualism, collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical collectivism and POS respectively) were entered into the equation resulting in a total of five moderated regression equations for each moderator variable. In the final step the product terms of each IV with each moderator were inserted to ascertain the existence of any interactive effects (Aguinis & Pierce, 1999). In order for a moderator hypothesis to be accepted, it is necessary for the statistical analysis to reveal significant interaction results. If either variable reveals significance on its own, then this is considered to be a main effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable (ultimately revealing an association between the IV/moderator and the DV, independent of the interaction term) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Thus job satisfaction was regressed onto the independent variables of role conflict (person role conflict, role overload, intersender conflict, intrasender conflict and interrole conflict respectively) and the moderator variables of ICO and POS respectively and then onto their interaction terms. Of the 35 MMR analyses done, all 35 models revealed significant results with a consistent value of $p < 0.0001$ across all the regressions. However, in order to understand the nature of the relationships identified in each regression model it is necessary to run post hoc tests and evaluate the parameter estimates to understand the strength and direction of the significant results (Aguinis & Pierce, 1999). The overall model will often indicate significant results and then upon inspection of the parameter estimates no significance is found. Therefore it was not surprising that only four post hoc tests revealed significant interactions (moderator effects) even though all regression models were found to be significant. The results of these four analyses are discussed below. In addition to the regression coefficient associated with the product term, another procedure used to assess the presence of the *X* by *Z* interaction is to compute the difference between the multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) associated with the equation that includes the interaction term and the basic model equation (linear regression model without the interaction term) (Helm & Mark, 2010). The resulting change in R^2 indicates whether the moderating effect of *Z* adds explained variance in *Y* to the model when interaction effects of the

predictor and moderator are accounted for (Aguinis & Pierce, 1999). Many main effects of the predictor (IV) and moderator variables were also found to be significant. Even though these are not directly relevant conceptually to testing the moderator research questions of the current study, the significant main effects will also be discussed while addressing each research question. As a result of length restraints, it would be unreasonable to provide details on all 35 regressions that were run on the data. Therefore only regressions that revealed either main effects or moderator significance will be elaborated on in this results section. All moderated regressions not addressed in this section are to be considered as having revealed insignificant post hoc results; explanations pertaining to these findings will be elaborated on in the discussion in the next chapter.

4.6.1 Research Question 1: *Does individual cultural orientation moderate the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction?*

The results of the MMR on individual cultural orientation (ICO) revealed no significant moderator effects for any of the collectivism subscales. However, the analysis of horizontal individualism revealed significant interactions with person role conflict and intersender conflict. These analyses will be addressed in order to answer Research Question 1. Although no significant moderator effects were found for the collectivism variables, numerous main effects were found for the collectivism subscales. All these significant results will be discussed below.

Job satisfaction was regressed onto person role conflict and horizontal individualism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of person role conflict with horizontal individualism. Findings indicated a significant yet inverse moderator effect of person role conflict by horizontal individualism on job satisfaction ($t(1)=-2.0$, $p=0.04$) which explained 21% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 9). Moreover the R^2 increased by 0.04 between the basic ($R^2=0.17$) and interaction models ($R^2=0.21$). Thus the moderated model explains an additional 4% of the variance found in scores between perceived person role conflict, horizontal individualism and job satisfaction scores. The relationship is negative (beta=-0.11) and therefore as the interaction term increases, job satisfaction decreases, thus illustrating that a horizontal individualist orientation is likely to lead to lowered satisfaction in the presence of person role

conflict. The standardized estimate for the interaction term is 0.84, indicating the strength of this relationship.

Table 9: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on person role conflict and horizontal individualism (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
PersonRC	2.17	0.37	0.9	0.37
HorInd	1.5	0.33	1.67	0.09
PersonRC*HorInd	-0.11	-0.84	-2	**0.04**

R-Square = 0.21
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 13.38$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto intersender conflict and horizontal individualism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of intersender conflict with horizontal individualism. Findings indicated a significant yet inverse moderator effect of intersender conflict by horizontal individualism on job satisfaction ($t(1)=-2.41$, $p=0.01$) which explained 19% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 10). Moreover the R^2 increased by 0.05 between the basic ($R^2=0.14$) and interaction models ($R^2=0.19$). Thus the moderated model explains an additional 5% of the variance found in scores between perceived intersender conflict, horizontal individualism and job satisfaction scores. The relationship is negative (beta=-0.17) and therefore as the interaction term increases, job satisfaction decreases, thus illustrating that a horizontal individualist orientation is likely to lead to lowered satisfaction in the presence of intersender conflict. The standardized estimate for the interaction term is 0.82, indicating the strength of this relationship.

Table 10: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on intersender conflict and horizontal individualism (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
IntersenderCon	4.78	0.70	1.25	0.13
HorInd	3.37	0.74	2.32	0.06
IntersenderCon*HorInd	-0.17	0.82	-2.41	**0.01**

R-Square = 0.19
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 11.71$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto interrole conflict and total collectivism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of interrole conflict with total collectivism. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of interrole conflict by total collectivism on job satisfaction (t(1)=-1.37, p=0.17) (Table 11). However, total collectivism yielded a positive (beta=1.24) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores (t(1)=2.4, p=0.01), explaining 19% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 11). The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of collectivism are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction. The standardized estimate for total collectivism is 0.60, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship.

Table 11: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on interrole conflict and total collectivism (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
InterroleCon	1.36	0.11	0.35	0.72
TotalCol	1.24	0.60	2.4	**0.01**
InterroleCon*TotalCol	-0.06	-0.54	-1.37	0.17

R-Square = 0.19
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 11.19$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto interrole conflict and horizontal collectivism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of interrole conflict with horizontal collectivism. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of interrole conflict by horizontal collectivism on job satisfaction (t(1)=-0.93, p=0.35) (Table 12). However, horizontal collectivism yielded a positive (beta=2.26) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores (t(1)=2.4, p=0.01), explaining 22% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 12). The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of horizontal collectivism are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction. The standardized estimate for horizontal collectivism is 0.53, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship.

Table 12: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on interrole conflict and horizontal collectivism (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
InterroleCon	0.02	0.001	0.01	0.99
HorCol	2.26	0.53	2.4	**0.01**
InterroleCon*HorCol	-0.08	-0.35	-0.93	0.35

R-Square = 0.22
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 14.72$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto interrole conflict and vertical collectivism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of interrole conflict with vertical collectivism. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of interrole conflict by vertical collectivism on job satisfaction ($t(1)=-1.23$, $p=0.22$) (Table 13). However vertical collectivism yielded a positive (beta=1.94) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores ($t(1)=1.85$, $p=0.05$), explaining 15% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 13). The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of vertical collectivism are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction. The standardized estimate for vertical collectivism is 0.52, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship. Thus the above three interpretations (Tables 11, 12 and 13) are indicative of the positive influence a collectivist orientation has on outcomes for job satisfaction.

Table 13: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on interrole conflict and vertical collectivism (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
InterroleCon	0.24	0.02	0.07	0.94
VerCol	1.94	0.52	1.85	**0.05**
InterroleCon*VerCol	-0.11	-0.49	-1.23	0.22

R-Square = 0.15
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 9.01$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto intrasender conflict and horizontal collectivism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of intrasender conflict with horizontal collectivism. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of intrasender conflict by horizontal collectivism on job satisfaction ($t(1)=-0.58$, $p=0.56$) (Table 14). However horizontal collectivism yielded a positive (beta=1.86) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores ($t(1)=2.08$,

p=0.03), explaining 32% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 14). The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of horizontal collectivism are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction. The standardized estimate for horizontal collectivism is 0.44, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship.

Table 14: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on intrasender conflict and horizontal collectivism (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
IntrasenderCon	-1.71	-0.22	-0.5	0.61
HorCol	1.86	0.44	2.08	**0.03**
IntrasenderCon*HorCol	-0.04	-.025	-0.58	0.56

R-Square = 0.32
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 23.44$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto person role conflict and horizontal collectivism. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of person role conflict with horizontal collectivism. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of person role conflict by horizontal collectivism on job satisfaction ($t(1)=-0.51$, $p=0.61$) (Table 15). However horizontal collectivism yielded a positive (beta=1.71) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores ($t(1)=2.3$, $p=0.02$), explaining 29% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 15). The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of horizontal collectivism are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction. The standardized estimate for horizontal collectivism is 0.44, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship. Thus the above two interpretations highlight the positive influence a horizontal collectivist orientation has on outcomes of job satisfaction.

Table 15: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on person role conflict and horizontal collectivism (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
PersonRC	-1.31	-0.22	-0.65	0.51
HorCol	1.71	0.40	2.3	**0.02**
PersonRC*HorCol	-0.02	-0.18	-0.51	0.61

R-Square = 0.29
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 20.69$, $p < 0.0001$

4.6.2 Research Question 2: *Does perceived organisational support moderate the relationship between role stressors and life satisfaction?*

The results of the MMR on perceived organisational support yielded significant interaction effects on job satisfaction with both intersender conflict and intrasender conflict. Therefore these analyses will be addressed in order to directly answer research question 2. Numerous main effects were identified even without the presence of a moderator effect. Therefore all interaction and main significant results will be discussed below.

Job satisfaction was regressed onto intersender conflict and perceived organisational support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of intersender conflict with perceived organisational support. Findings highlighted that this model yielded a significant main effect of perceived organisational support on job satisfaction ($t(1)=5.95$, $p<0.0001$) (Table 16). The standardized estimate for perceived organisational support is 1.18, thus indicating the strength of this relationship. This illustrates the strong positive (beta=4.83) relationship that exists between these variables. Moreover findings indicated a significant moderator effect of intersender conflict by perceived organisational support on job satisfaction ($t(1)=2.33$, $p=0.02$) which explained 66% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 16). Moreover the R^2 increased by 0.03 between the basic ($R^2=0.63$) and interaction ($R^2=0.66$) models. Thus the moderated model explains an additional 3% of the variance found in scores between perceived intersender conflict, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction scores. The standardized estimate for the interaction term is 0.51, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship. The relationship is positive (beta=0.09) and therefore as the interaction term increases, job satisfaction increases, thus illustrating that perceived organisational support is likely to moderate the negative presence of experienced intersender conflict.

Table 16: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on intersender conflict and perceived organisational support (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
IntersenderCon	1.4	0.20	1.19	0.23
Pos	4.83	1.18	5.95	**<.0001**
IntersenderCon*Pos	0.09	-0.51	2.33	**0.02**

R-Square = 0.66
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 97.29$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto intrasender conflict and perceived organisational support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of intrasender conflict with perceived organisational support. Findings indicated that this model yielded a significant main effect of perceived organisational support on job satisfaction ($t(1)=8.09$, $p<0.0001$) (Table 17). The standardized estimate for perceived organisational support is 1.10, thus indicating the strength of this relationship. This is again indicative of the strong positive (beta=4.5) relationship that exists between these variables. Moreover findings indicated a significant moderator effect of intrasender conflict by perceived organisational support on job satisfaction ($t(1)=3.06$, $p=0.02$) which explained 68% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 17). Moreover the R^2 increased by 0.03 between the basic ($R^2=0.65$) and interaction ($R^2=0.68$) models. Thus the moderated model explains an additional 3% of the variance found in scores between perceived intrasender conflict, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction scores. The standardized estimate for the interaction term is 0.51, indicating the moderate strength of this relationship. The relationship is positive (beta=0.14) and therefore it can be concluded that as the interaction term increases, job satisfaction increases, thus illustrating that perceived organisational support is likely to moderate the negative presence of experienced intrasender conflict.

Table 17: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on intrasender conflict and perceived organisational support (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
IntrasenderCon	2.04	0.24	1.53	0.12
Pos	4.5	1.10	8.09	**<0.0001**
IntrasenderCon*Pos	0.14	-0.50	3.06	**0.002**

R-Square = 0.68
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 105.62$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto person role conflict and perceived organisational support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of person role conflict with perceived organisational support. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of person role conflict by perceived organisational support on job satisfaction (t(1)=-0.72, p=0.46) (Table 18). However, perceived organisational support yielded a positive (beta=3.39) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores (t(1)=5.87, p<0.0001), explaining 63% of the variance in job satisfaction. The standardized estimate for perceived organisational support is 0.82, indicating the strength of this relationship. The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of perceived organisational support are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction.

Table 18: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on person role conflict and perceived organisational support (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
PersonRC	-0.04	-0.007	-0.04	0.96
Pos	3.39	0.82	5.87	**<0.0001**
PersonRC*Pos	-0.02	-0.11	-0.72	0.46

R-Square = 0.63
Overall model significance: F(3,148) = 85.64, p < 0.0001

Job satisfaction was regressed onto role overload and perceived organisational support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of role overload with perceived organisational support. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of role overload by perceived organisational support on job satisfaction (t(1)=-0.65, p=0.51) (Table 19). However perceived organisational support yielded a positive (beta=3.6) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores (t(1)=4.29, p<0.0001), explaining 64% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 19). The standardized estimate for perceived organisational support is 0.87, indicating the strength of this relationship. The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of perceived organisational support are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction.

Table 19: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on role overload conflict and perceived organisational support (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
RoleOL	-0.02	-0.03	-0.16	0.87
Pos	3.6	0.87	4.29	**<0.0001**
RoleOL*Pos	-0.02	-0.16	-0.65	0.51

R-Square = 0.64
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 88.87$, $p < 0.0001$

Job satisfaction was regressed onto interrole conflict and perceived organisational support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of interrole conflict with perceived organisational support. Findings indicated a non significant interaction of interrole conflict by perceived organisational support on job satisfaction ($t(1)=-1.89$, $p=0.06$) (Table 20). However perceived organisational support yielded a positive (beta=4.83) significant main effect on job satisfaction scores ($t(1)=6.08$, $p<0.0001$), explaining 65% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 20). The standardized estimate for perceived organisational support is 1.07, indicating the strength of this relationship. The direct nature of the relationship indicates that higher scores of perceived organisational support are associated with higher scores of job satisfaction.

Table 20: Moderated multiple regression for job satisfaction on interrole conflict and perceived organisational support (main effects) (N=152)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Estimate	t	p value
InterroleCon	1.73	0.14	0.84	0.4
Pos	4.38	1.07	6.08	**<0.0001**
InterroleCon*Pos	-0.13	-0.40	-1.89	0.06

R-Square = 0.65
Overall model significance: $F(3,148) = 94.10$, $p < 0.0001$

4.6.3 Summary of MMR results

- Horizontal individualism had a negative moderating effect on the relationship between person role conflict and job satisfaction
- Horizontal individualism had a negative moderating effect on the relationship between intersender conflict and job satisfaction
- Total collectivism was positively related to increases in job satisfaction
- Horizontal collectivism was positively related to increases in job satisfaction
- Vertical collectivism was positively related to increases in job satisfaction
- Perceived organisational support had a positive moderating effect on the relationship between intersender conflict and job satisfaction
- Perceived organisational support had a positive moderating effect on the relationship between intrasender conflict and job satisfaction
- Perceived organisational support was positively related to increases in job satisfaction

4.7 Secondary Analyses of Biographic Variables

It is possible that biographical variables such as age, hours worked per week, length of employment, language, gender and race were significantly related to the main variables in the study. Therefore it was important to assess their relationship with role conflict, the cultural dimensions, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction. ANOVAs were run on the following variables: hours worked per week, language and length of employment (more than three categories). T-tests were run on the following variables: age category, gender and racial grouping. Results are indicated and discussed below (only two categories). The significant results reveal that some of the biographic data do have some effect on the main research variables.

4.7.1 One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

ANOVAs were run on hours worked per week, language and length of employment for all variables in the study. Both hours worked per week and language produced no significant results and it was therefore concluded that they did not impact responses to variable scales in any way. However, length of employment yielded significant results for role overload ($F(4,147)=9.26$, $p<0.0001$) and interrole conflict ($F(4,147)=4.54$, $p=0.0017$) (Table 21).

Table 21: One-way analysis of variance for length of employment and role conflict

Variables		Length of employment
RoleOL	**F**	9.26
	df	4/147
	p	**< 0.0001**
InterroleCon	**F**	4.54
	df	4/147
	p	**0.0017**

In order to perform an ANOVA, equality of variance needs to be established through Levene's test for homogeneity of variance. ANOVA results are only significant if the p value is greater

than 0.05 on Levene's test so that homogeneity of variance can be confirmed. Upon examination of Levene's test for both significant results it was found that homogeneity of variance could only be established for interrole conflict (F(4,147)=0.17, p=0.58) (Table 22). Therefore no further analysis was carried out on the significant role overload result (F(4,147)=3.25, p=0.01).

Table 22: Equality of variance for one way ANOVAs on biographic variables

Variable	Biographic variable	DF	F value	P Value
RoleOL	**Length of employment**	4/147	3.25	**0.01**
InterroleCon	**Length of employment**	4/147	0.71	0.58

A post hoc test needed to be carried out on the significant interrole conflict result to determine which mean scores contributed to the significant results. The variable length of employment had more than four categories and therefore a conservative post hoc test was used – specifically the Bonferroni (Dunn) test. The only significant result was found between participants who had been employed for 11 or more years and those who had been employed for less than one year (Table 23). None of the other length of employment categories revealed any significance.

Table 23: Bonferroni post hoc test of mean length of employment and interrole conflict

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by * **				
Comparison of length of employment	**Difference between means**	**Simultaneous 95% Confidence limits**		
11+yrs - less than 1yr	2.45	0.14	4.80	***

The results indicate that participants who have been employed for 11 or more years by the same organisation, experience greater interrole conflict than employees who have been working for an organisation for less than one year (mean difference=2.45). This result is surprising as one would expect that this type of conflict would be reduced with time, as individuals learn to cope and adapt to the different roles they are expected to perform. However, it is also possible that the

participants who reported being employed in their current job for less than one year may also fall in the below 30 age group, indicating that they are young and therefore do not have major home domain responsibilities (spouse, children) which are cause for such conflict. Moreover the effect size, as calculated by Cohen's D was 0.95, which is extremely high.

4.7.2 Independent Sample T-tests

Independent sample t-tests were run on age category, gender and racial grouping category. Gender did not yield any significant results. However age and race both revealed significant results. Age as a nominal variable revealed no significance and therefore age was categorised into participants below 30 and participants over 30 to explore whether any significant relationships could be found. Participants below 30 are considered to be younger workers while those over the age of 30 are considered to be older workers. This age categorisation revealed a significant relationship with job satisfaction ($t(150)=1.98$, $p=0.04$), while race created a significant difference for individualism ($t(150)=6$, $p<0.0001$) and collectivism ($t(150)=-5.3$, $p<0.0001$) (Table 24).

Table 24: Two independent sample t-test between main variables and biographic variables (N=152)

Variable	Biographic Variable	Method	Variance	DF	t value	p value
JobSatis	**Age**	pooled	equal	150	1.98	**0.04**
TotalInd	**Race**	pooled	equal	150	6	**<0.0001**
TotalCol	**Race**	pooled	equal	150	-5.3	**<0.0001**

In order to perform a T-test, equality of variance needs to be established through Levene's test for homogeneity of variance. Results are only considered significant if the p value is greater than 0.05 on Levene's test so that homogeneity of variance can be confirmed. Therefore before mean differences can be interpreted for these significant results it is necessary to interpret Levene's test for all significant results (Table 25). All p values were confirmed to be above 0.05 and homogeneity of variance was confirmed which therefore allowed for the interpretation of the difference between the significantly identified mean groupings.

Table 25: Equality of variance for independent sample t-test on biographic variables

Variable	Biographic variable	DF	F value	P Value
JobSatis	**Age**	73/77	1	0.99
TotalInd	**Race**	58/92	1.50	0.08
TotalCol	**Race**	92/58	1.50	0.09

The significant difference between the means of the two age groups (mean difference=10.57) revealed that younger employees (M=132.1) experience greater job satisfaction than older employees (M=121.6) (Table 26). The effect size as calculated by Cohen's D was 0.32 which is considered to be a medium effect size.

Table 26: Means for age categories and job satisfaction

Variable	Age	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
JobSatis	**>30**	74	132.1	32.85	53	205
JobSatis	**<30**	78	121.6	32.84	59	201

The significant difference between the means of the racial groups (mean difference=13.88) for total individualism suggests that white employees (M=82.96) are more individualist than their black counterparts (M=69.08) (Table 27). The effect size as calculated by Cohen's D was 0.99 which is extremely strong. Moreover the significant difference between the means of racial groups (mean difference=13.05) for total collectivism further indicates that black employees (M=83.64) are more collectivist than their white counterparts (M=70.59) (Table 27). The effect size as calculated by Cohen's D was 0.88, which is also an extremely strong effect size.

Table 27: Means for race and total individualism and total collectivism

Variable	Race	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
TotalInd	**White**	93	82.96	12.71	40	108
TotalInd	**Black**	59	69.08	15.57	41	104
TotalCol	**Black**	59	83.64	12.94	48	107
TotalCol	**White**	93	70.59	15.85	33	104

These results tend to highlight the characteristic cultures that are stereotypically associated with both these racial groups in South Africa (Robbins et al, 2007) and could therefore have implications for future research addressing the moderating effect of cultural orientation. The implications of both the statistically significant and insignificant results will now be explored in greater depth in chapter 5.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This section aims to critically address the results of this study in the context of the conceptual and theoretical framework explored in chapter 2. The current study was designed to investigate the possible existence of moderating effects of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support, on the relationship between role stress and job satisfaction. For the purposes of this discussion, each research question will be discussed independently. Then the results of the secondary analyses will be considered before discussing the limitations, recommendations and concluding remarks of the research.

5.1 Key Findings

With constant advances in technology and employee intellectual know-how, organisations are tasked with a desire to successfully direct and manage organisational competitiveness. This results in more demanding work roles and responsibilities being imposed on organisational members (Faragher et al., 2004). The current study predicted, based on in-depth analysis of the literature, that role stressors caused by these increased demands, would be inversely related to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a personal evaluation of the quality of work life according to a person's subjective measure of what constitutes well-being and satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985). Consequently, the current study endeavoured to understand if personal evaluations based on individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support would moderate this stressor-satisfaction relationship. Within each moderator analysis, results revealed that horizontal individualism had a negative moderating effect on the relationships of the role stressor variables of person role conflict and intersender conflict with job satisfaction; while perceived organisational support was found to have a positive moderating effect on the relationships of intersender and intrasender conflict with job satisfaction. All other MMR models failed to yield significant moderator results however certain models identified main effects which will also be discussed.

5.1.1 Research Question 1

The first research question examined whether individual cultural orientation moderated the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction. Individual cultural orientations of individualism and collectivism have been clarified as aspects of the individual that guide one's sense of identity and subsequent interaction with other people (Hofstede, 1983; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). This impacts on how individuals relate to and assess situations that arise in their immediate environment (Robert & Wasti, 2002), which have been found to influence perceptions of both role stressors and satisfaction (Markus & Kityama, 2001). Furthermore role stressors have been determined to have differing causes and impacts for people of diverse cultures (Liu, 2003) while cultural orientation has also been linked to changes in job satisfaction (Suh et al., 1998). The results of the current research identified that horizontal individualism interacting with person role conflict ($t(1)=-2.0$, $p=0.04$) and intersender conflict ($t(1)=-2.41$, $p=0.01$) (respectively) had inverse moderating effects on job satisfaction. Results further highlighted that total collectivism ($t(1)=2.4$, $p=0.01$), horizontal collectivism ($t(1)=2.4$, $p=0.01$) ($t(1)=2.08$, $p=0.03$) ($t(1)=2.3$, $p=0.02$) and vertical collectivism ($t(1)=1.85$, $p=0.05$) all had main effects on job satisfaction. All other regression analyses with ICO variables revealed insignificant results. Thus the results support the researcher's proposition that the relationships that exist between stressors, individual cultural orientation and job satisfaction vary as a consequence of the form of role stress and cultural dimension, creating different dynamics for each scenario. Therefore the major findings of the current research, in answering question one, indicated that an individualist orientation, interacting with role stressors caused by person role conflict and intersender conflict, are actually associated with decreases in job satisfaction. Moreover findings revealed that a collectivist orientation is positively related to increases in job satisfaction. Explanations of these findings are discussed in the context of the literature below.

Higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction have been reported in more individualist societies than in collectivist societies (Liu & Spector, 2005). Surprisingly, the current study found the opposite; only collectivism was positively related to job satisfaction, while individualism negatively moderated the relationship between certain role stressors and job satisfaction. The correlations between job satisfaction and the individualism and collectivism subscales only

revealed significant results for the relationships between job satisfaction and the three collectivism subscales (total collectivism ($r=0.29$, $p=0.0003$), horizontal collectivism ($r=0.36$, $p<0.0001$) and vertical collectivism ($r=0.19$, $p=0.01$)). No significant relationships were found to exist between any individualism subscales and job satisfaction. These results highlighted that a collectivist orientation is associated with increases in job satisfaction in this sample. This conclusion was further enhanced when the collectivism subscales revealed significant main effects when regressed onto job satisfaction. As a positive consequence of collectivist culture, individuals are socialised to extract enjoyment from participating in work and general life roles because of the cultural value placed on interpersonal relationships and collective work (Triandis, 1995). From this, it stems that collectivists should have experienced greater job satisfaction because they perceive additional satisfaction that developed through human interaction and other such valuable collectivism qualities. Moreover, Cross (1995) explained that individuals with an interdependent self-construal and cultural orientation are inclined to change and adapt themselves to stressful situations. Thus collectivists are more likely to accept the situation and align their expectations with those of the organisation. Stemming from this, the researcher proposes that high collectivism was found to be related to increases in job satisfaction as a consequence of a collectivist ICO allowing individuals to adapt to be more satisfied with their job roles and responsibilities. Consequently, the lack of correlation between the individualist orientation and job satisfaction may be a consequence of the sample organisations subscribing to more collective work environments.

Triandis (1967) and Triandis and Gelfand (1998) explicated that the different cultural orientations (individualism and collectivism) may have both valuable and damaging outcomes for job satisfaction and well-being and that these outcomes are context dependent. In the current study, horizontal individualism was found to have a damaging impact on the relationship between person role conflict and job satisfaction, as findings indicated a reduction in job satisfaction scores. Person role conflict arises from clashes between one's personal identity and deviations from this identity in the roles and responsibilities one is expected to fulfil at work (Hennington et al., 2011). Horizontal individualism is indicative of a cultural orientation characterised by self-directedness, self-reliance, uniqueness, distinctiveness and separation from others (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). These characteristics influence the interpretation of assigned

work roles and duties (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Consequently these characteristics lead to person role conflict when people are expected to perform roles that are contradictory to their beliefs and values (Albert & Triandis, 1985). Therefore based on such theory, the researcher speculated that the inverse moderating effect of horizontal individualism and person role conflict on job satisfaction is the result of the nature of work tasks conflicting with participants' personal identities. It is likely the consequence of valued independence being subjected to role tasks that are centred by teamwork, indicating the more collective nature of the job, which has exacerbated the harmful correlation of person role conflict and job satisfaction outcomes.

The second significant interaction model that was supported by the current research identified a moderating effect of horizontal individualism and intersender conflict on job satisfaction. The results indicated this interaction was coupled with decreases in job satisfaction. It is logical to assume that this finding is the result of contradictory orders inhibiting personal initiative and ability; qualities which have been linked to increased job satisfaction in individuals who identify with an individualist orientation (Hui et al., 1995; Markus & Kityama, 1991). Individualism has most commonly been associated with the values of personal independence and self-interest (Oyserman et al., 2002). This personal independence branches off to embrace behaviours that augment self-reliance and dependence, greater self-esteem, uniqueness and exclusive responsibility (Shulruf et al., 2007). Individualists strive to achieve uniqueness through expression of their independent opinions and further avoid conformity and adaption to social conventions (Markus & Kityama, 1991). In addressing stressful situations, individualists are believed to take direct steps to challenge others and to take control of their environment (Cross, 1995). Consequently the researcher speculated that individualists lose their independence and personal responsibility when they have to constantly reconfirm roles and responsibilities with supervisors and those with whom they work, or are required to fulfil conflicting goals by different people at work. Moreover it is proposed that the notions of personal accountability and dependability that inspire individualism, were linked to experiences of sent-role conflict. The researcher speculated that the participants scoring high in individualism, who were left uncertain about their performance expectations and responsibilities, experienced lower job satisfaction in the presence of role conflict because endeavours to sustain control of their job were blocked by a

plethora of divergent instructions and directives. This provides a possible explanation for the negative moderating effect of horizontal individualism and sent-role conflict on job satisfaction.

Wasti (2003) argued that individualists place greater significance on the completion of work tasks while collectivists maintain a focus on the quality of personal relationships in the workplace. This argument provides support for the researcher's speculation that horizontal individualism interacting with intersender conflict is related to reduced job satisfaction as the conflicting nature of orders and expectations from role senders prohibits individualists from successfully achieving their goal of completing work tasks efficiently and autonomously. Fulfilment of such a goal would lead to a positive relationship between individualism and job satisfaction (Markus & Kityama, 1991), indicating that intersender conflict creates frustration and barriers to realisation of satisfaction on the job for individuals when combined with high individualism. Additionally Liu and Spector (2005) identified that interpersonal conflict leads to the existence of stressors for those with an individualist ICO as they are less likely to conform and adapt to expectations and desires of others. Sent-role conflict has its roots in interpersonal conflict because of its relationship with communication and collaboration efforts (Lambert et al., 2004). This provides further impetus for intersender conflict and individualism having a negative relationship with job satisfaction outcomes.

Bhagat et al. (2010) highlighted that individualists typically applied a problem solving coping strategy to stressful situations to alleviate negative reactions. They elaborated on this finding by explaining that individualism propels people to adjust their circumstances by acknowledging the stressor and initiating direct action to eliminate features of the environment that contribute to the stressor's persistence. However, in the face of intersender conflict, removing the stressor is likely to prove problematic. The nature of having to work with different role senders in a collective manner by approaching them to reiterate or change expectations (when individualists prefer autonomy and independence) could potentially exacerbate the stressor, which is proposed as a likely reason for the negative moderating effect of an individualist ICO on the relationship between intersender conflict and job satisfaction.

Individualists tend to follow their own unique intuition and perspectives of a situation (Triandis, 1995). Therefore this is speculated to have had the consequence of exacerbating person role and intersender conflict when impulses contradicted workplace responsibilities and roles. Moroever individualists assign enormous value to fulfilling roles and duties autonomously (Triandis, 1995). Thus when work roles, expectations and demands (such as working in a team or questioning one's ability to effectively work independently) were in conflict with individualist tendencies, consequences were linked to a decrease in job satisfaction.

Theory stipulates that individualism and collectivism at the individual level are driven by the following psychological processes: a) individual perceptions of the self b) how the self relates to others c) what type of goals are deemed important to perceptions of success and d) what determines social behaviour and interaction (Triandis, 1995). The above discussion highlights how each of these processes could be responsible for the significant main and interaction effects found in the attempt to understand if ICO moderated the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction.

5.1.2 Research Question 2

The second research question examined whether perceived organisational support moderated the relationship between role stressors and job satisfaction. The results of the statistical analysis revealed that perceived organisational support had a positive moderating effect ($t(1)=2.33$, $p=0.02$) on the relationship between intersender and intrasender conflict and job satisfaction. Therefore as the interaction term increased, job satisfaction increased, thus illustrating that perceived organisational support moderated the negative presence of experienced intersender and intrasender conflict. The correlations between role stressors and job satisfaction revealed negative significant results across all five relationships (person role conflict ($r=-0.44$, $p<0.0001$), role overload ($r=-0.28$, $p=0.0005$), intersender conflict ($r=-0.40$, $p<0.0001$), intrasender conflict ($r=-0.46$, $p<0.0001$) and interrole conflict ($r=-0.19$, $p=0.02$)). These inverse associations, of increased role stressors correlating to decreased job satisfaction, provided the basis for perceived organisational support having a positive moderator effect on job satisfaction by increasing job satisfaction scores in the presence of role conflict and its subsequent stressors. The moderated

multiple regression results of the current research confirmed that perceived organisational support had a positive moderating effect on the relationship between intersender conflict ($t(1)=2.33$, $p=0.02$) and intrasender conflict ($t(1)=3.06$, $p=0.02$) and job satisfaction outcomes. All other regression analyses with POS and role stressor interaction terms revealed insignificant results. However every model revealed significant main effects of POS on job satisfaction scores, highlighting a link between increased POS and a subsequent increased job satisfaction (intersender conflict ($t(1)=5.95$, $p<0.0001$), intrasender conflict ($t(1)=8.09$, $p<0.0001$), person role conflict ($t(1)=5.87$, $p<0.0001$), role overload ($t(1)=4.29$, $p<0.0001$) and interrole conflict ($t(1)=6.08$, $p<0.0001$)). Therefore the major findings of the current research, in answering question two, indicated that perceived organisational support is positively related to increases in job satisfaction and further identified that POS interacting with role stressors caused by intersender and intrasender conflict are actually associated with increased job satisfaction. Explanations of these findings are discussed in the context of the literature below.

Procedural justice theory, in the context of perceived organisational support, explains that if work roles and responsibilities are conveyed to organisational members through acceptable means, employees should be more inclined to perceive treatment as fair and supportive (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This could explain the interactive effect that exists between intersender conflict and perceived organisational support on increased job satisfaction. The researcher speculated that even if employees received conflicting or inconsistent instructions, if they also perceived the process to be fair and consequently experienced feelings of organisational support, the outcome should be linked to increased job satisfaction, regardless of the negative experience of intersender conflict. Social interpersonal justice, another component of perceived organisational support, requires that employees be able to question roles and responsibilities (Eisenberg et al., 1986). It is therefore suggested, in light of the significant interaction results, that the freedom to do this in the face of conflicting orders from superiors allowed employees to feel empowered to overcome the typically negative associations of sent-role conflict, thus allowing for a link to increased job satisfaction.

Moreover if employees are allowed to play a part in the role making process and are encouraged to approach role senders when given conflicting orders, it should enhance perceived

organisational support (Rhoades & Eisenberg, 2002). This helps explain the variance in job satisfaction when accounting for perceived organisational support in the presence of sent-role conflict. Employees feel more validated through being included in the process (Rhoades & Eisenberg, 2002) and through feeling comfortable in approaching role senders who have sent contradictory orders. This indicates how theory supports the finding; that perceived organisational support moderated the identified harmful relationship between these sent-role conflict stressors and job satisfaction.

According to organisational support theory, employees evaluate fair organisational treatment on the basis of interaction with so called agents of the organisation (Hochwater et al., 2003). Agents of the organisation are supervisors and work colleagues with whom employees interact. Therefore it stands to reason that even in the presence of intersender and intrasender conflict, employees experienced increased job satisfaction as a consequence of perceived organisational support, which is enhanced through support from these organisational members (Eisenberg et al., 1986). It was, therefore, inferred that the current research appeared to adhere to traditional theory. This theory proposes that agents of the organisation convey sentiments to employees about how the organisation values them as workers (Hochwater et al., 2003; Rhaodes & Eisenberg, 2002). Additionally, research on social support further encourages this explanation of current findings; when employees are afforded the opportunity to utilise social support, they are likely to appraise their work environment and accompanying roles as less threatening (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This has been found to lead to job security and other aspects of job satisfaction (Fenalson & Beehr, 1994; Judge & Church, 2000). Consequently it seems logical to assume (based on prior research – elaborated in chapter two (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Fenalson & Beehr, 2004)) that despite having been given contradictory work responsibilities, if supervisors are supportive and approachable employees feel confident enough to clarify work roles with them, without fear of penalisation, chastisement or embarrassment. If perceived organisational support was enhanced through supportive supervisors and colleagues it is probable that such support and mutual respect alleviated tension caused by both forms of sent-role conflict. This could explain how intersender and intrasender conflict did not result in reductions in job satisfaction when accounting for perceived organisational support. Therefore it is proposed that even if role senders give mixed

orders, if they are perceived to be helpful and encouraging of employee growth and goal achievement, this can moderate the harmful effects associated with sent-role conflict. This has practical implications for the management of employees; indicating how a supportive environment can improve job satisfaction outcomes even in the presence of sent-role conflict. This highlights the potential gain to both the employee and organisation if an agenda of organisational support is encouraged by practitioners.

High levels of social exchange are often related to increased perceived organisational support (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Stamper & Johlke, 2003). It was therefore reasoned by the researcher, that when a high social exchange was combined with perceived organisational support, employees experienced less negative feelings towards their job. Presumably this could be attributed to beliefs that the organisation will support their efforts to reconcile ambiguous expectations. This speculation reinforces the results that perceived organisational support encouraged a positive outcome for job satisfaction in relation to experienced sent-role conflict. This further highlights the positive practical implications of promoting a workplace that is conducive to organisational support.

Perceptions that organisations care about employee satisfaction and value active participation in all work roles, facilitate more positive appraisals of stress (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Positive appraisals, and their subsequent lowering of perceived stressors, have been linked to decreases in psychological ill-health (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This highlights how perceived organisational support could be an antecedent to the creation of role stressors. This provides an explanation as to why no interaction effects were found within the other POS and role stressor interaction terms (POS and person role conflict ($t(1)=-0.72$, $p=0.46$), POS and role overload ($t(1)=-0.65$, $p=0.51$) and POS and interrole conflict ($t(1)=-1.89$, $p=0.06$)). It is possible that the perceived organisational support is associated with a lessening of the initial perception and experience of role stress within the work organisation. Therefore, it is proposed that organisational support structures have the potential to be utilised as primary stress interventions, aimed at changing the work environment to eliminate the presence of stressors.

Perceived organisational support is formed on the basis of three organisational antecedents: fairness, supervisor support, and organisational rewards and favourable job conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These constructs have been linked to increases in job and life satisfaction (Shore & Wayne, 1993). Stemming from this it can be concluded that the antecedents of perceived organisational support have also been identified as elements that contribute to job satisfaction (Spector, 1985; Wanous & Lawler, 1992). Therefore the current research stands to augment prior research by highlighting the consistent positive relationship that existed between perceived organisational support and job satisfaction across all five regression models. Moreover the study found that perceived organisational support was highly correlated to elevated levels of job satisfaction ($r=0.79$, $p<0.0001$) which previous research has linked to both positive organisational and individual outcomes (Judge & Church, 2000; Skalli et al., 2008) thus further highlighting the important role organisational support could play in reducing turnover and maintaining a more satisfied and committed workforce that achieves higher performance outcomes.

5.2 Secondary analyses findings

In addressing the relationships between the biographical variables and the independent and dependent variables of the study, most analyses yielded insignificant results. However, there were a few variables that did reveal significance. It is important to address this significance in order to understand how biographic features of the participants may have impacted on the results. The only ANOVA that returned significant results after accounting for both Levene's test and the Bonferroni (Dunn) post hoc test was length of employment and interrole conflict. Results highlighted that the only groups that revealed a significant difference was between employees who had been employed by the organisation for 11 or more years and those that had been employed for less than one year. Results indicated that individuals who had been employed for over 11 years experienced moderately higher levels of interrole conflict (mean difference=2.45), than their recently employed counterparts. This finding is surprising as one would assume that the ability to create a balance between work and home life would increase over time, as the employee adjusts to work roles and responsibilities, through adapting to the dynamics that exist within each domain (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). However the researcher speculated that this result

could be attributed to those individuals employed for over 11 years being more likely to have a spouse and children. Family obligations have been found to contribute to an increase in interrole conflict because of expectations in the home domain being more demanding (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Moreover, those participants who have been employed for less than one year could be younger new entrants to the South African workforce, and likely had no family obligations. This could provide an explanation for their lower experiences of interrole conflict. It must be noted that this is merely a speculation and could have been better confirmed had there been a significant interaction of age on interrole conflict. Interrole conflict arises from experienced pressure within one role being incompatible with pressure from another role (Kopelman et al., 1983). Therefore, alternatively, interrole conflict may also refer to conflict between different roles that employees are expected to fulfil at work. It is possible that employees with a longer length of employment are given greater responsibilities and more roles at work, which may have caused conflict in terms of the demands made on these employees. While younger and less experienced employees were likely to have narrower and more focused roles, which could explain the difference in experienced interrole conflict between these two groups.

T-tests were conducted on data for age category, gender and racial grouping with all independent and dependent variables. Gender revealed no significant results. The sample had an even spread of both males (47.37%) and females (52.63%) and therefore the lack of significance can be assumed to validly indicate that gender specification does not influence any of the found relationships in the current research. Age was found to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction. The results revealed that younger employees experience greater job satisfaction than older employees (mean difference=10.57). The mean difference indicates a fairly large divergence in scores between workers younger than 30 years and those who are older than 30 years. This is an unpredicted result as research consistently indicates that older workers derive greater satisfaction from their jobs than younger employees (Belcastro & Koeske, 1996; Birdi et al., 1995; Jones et al., 2000). Therefore it was speculated that this significance is a consequence of younger workers being more enthusiastic about their jobs, as opposed to older workers who have been more jaded by aspects of the job that typically contribute to job satisfaction and well-

being. It is also possible that younger workers are given less roles and responsibilities at work, which may alleviate pressures that would otherwise reduce job satisfaction.

The results of the t-tests between racial grouping and the independent and dependent variables revealed significant results for total individualism and total collectivism. Findings highlighted that white participants identified more strongly with an individualist orientation while black participants identified more strongly with a collectivist orientation (Table 27). The comparison of white and black people on the individualism scale indicated that there was a mean difference of 13.88, thus revealing how white employees rated themselves much higher on individualist qualities. The comparison of black and white people on the collectivist scale indicated that there was a mean difference of 13.05, thus revealing how black employees rated their behaviour much higher on collectivist qualities. The outcome of these results and the almost identical mean differences tend to reinforce one another in highlighting the different cultural orientations of black and white people within the context of the current study. This could have implications for the practice of human resource management within the South African workplace and could contribute to the body of knowledge pertaining to diversity management in the South African context.

5.3 Limitations of the study

In order to prevent overgeneralizations of the results of this study, limitations need to be considered when drawing final conclusions. The research design adopted was cross sectional, correlational, non-experimental and ex post facto in nature. The non probability sampling did not ensure that all elements of the population had an equal chance of participating in the study (Leedy, 1989) and may therefore limit the generalisability of the results. However, all members of the organisations who met the inclusion criteria were given an equal opportunity in choosing to participate in the study; participation was not limited to certain departments within each organisation. Moreover, the criteria for inclusion in the study were broad enough to include most organisational members. Santrock (2005, p.56) explained that "non-experimental research methods (descriptive and correlational research) cannot establish cause and effect because they do not involve manipulating factors in a controlled way". The non-experimental nature of the current study does not allow for causal conclusions to be drawn and is therefore limited in only being able to describe the relationships and associations that exist between role stressors, individual cultural orientation, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction.

Individuals' abilities to appraise, reappraise and deal with stressors are dependent upon individual personality characteristics as well as the nature of the environment in which the stressor occurs (Baker et al, 1996; Bhagat, 1983; DeLongis et al., 1988). This highlights how numerous factors are at play in research addressing the topic of stress and its subsequent outcomes. In using a non-experimental design, there was no way for the researcher to control, manipulate or account for the impact of extraneous variables on the participants' responses (Leedy, 1989). Therefore it is possible that personality as well as other environmental factors may have influenced participants' responses on the scales for all variables.

The possible threat of the halo effect may be a further limitation. The halo effect (or faking good) refers to the idea that participants' responses may be distorted by the desire to meet social expectations or to please the researcher (Berg & Latin, 2008). In the current study it is possible that subjects may have distorted responses on the job satisfaction and role conflict measures, if they believed their organisation would have access to their responses. However, the researcher

attempted to eliminate this threat through ensuring anonymity and confidentiality (discussed in the research procedure section). Moreover the researcher speculated that participants could have faked good on the individualism and collectivism scale as numerous items were based on treatment towards colleagues, parents and family members. It is possible that participants may have indulged their responses on these items to appear more favourably to the researcher. However the results of t-tests on the significance between black and white participants on individualism and collectivism offer evidence that participants more than likely did not fake good because results are aligned with traditional thought on both black and white South African cultural attributes.

Often the statistical techniques utilised to address moderation fail to adequately support the existence of a moderating effect, even when such a relationship does exist (Helm & Mark, 2010). This is a potential limitation of the current research as further moderating effects may have existed but as a consequence of MMR being afflicted with what is criticised as too low a statistical power, the statistical technique may have incorrectly concluded that no additional moderating effects were present (Aguinis & Pierce, 1999). Therefore it is possible that the use of MMR as the prominent statistical tool in this research has masked significance that could have been identified by an alternative statistical technique. Nonetheless MMR has been identified as the most popular statistical tool for addressing moderating effects, especially in organisation and management studies (Helm & Mark, 2010) and was thus deemed the most appropriate statistical analysis for this research. Moreover, sample size may impact on the ability of a chosen statistical analysis to reveal significant results (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In terms of regression, a larger sample size will reduce the standard error, thereby increasing the possibility of finding a significant association (Miles & Mueller, 2001). The current sample had 152 participants, and even though Cohen and Cohen (1983) maintain that a minimum sample size of 100 participants is required for MMR, it should be noted that the sample size may have impacted on certain regressions revealing no interacting effects between the independent variables and moderator variables on job satisfaction, even in the presence of such a moderator effect.

5.4 Recommendations for future research

The current study did not directly challenge any theoretical points of view regarding the variables that were explored. Nonetheless this research may have important practical implications for future research. In light of the limitations identified above, this section will begin by making recommendations for improving on those limitations. It will then discuss avenues for future research that are based on the key findings of the current research.

The current research was unable to make causal inferences as a direct consequence of the non-experimental nature of the research design. Future research, attempting to highlight causation between the variables explored within the content of this research should follow procedures of an experimental design. This would further allow for the control or manipulation of extraneous variables that may have influenced results of the current research. The sample size, although adequate for the purposes of this research, should be improved on in order to allow for better generalisations to the South African population. Moreover an enhancement of the sample size could also reveal further significant results that were hidden as a result of the low statistical power of MMR. Lastly a different moderator analysis could be implemented to reveal if further statistical significance exists. However MMR is considered to be the best method for assessing moderator effects of this nature in organisation studies (Helm & Mark, 2010).

Although the job satisfaction survey in the current study provided both global and facet measures for job satisfaction, only the global score was utilised in the current study because of length limitations. Therefore it is recommended that future research assess the facet components of job satisfaction. This will allow for exploration of whether the moderators have a stronger impact on the different components of job satisfaction. This could provide organisations with insight into which aspects of job satisfaction are more deeply impacted by role stress and could have further practical implications for pinpointing which aspects of job satisfaction organisations should attempt to improve.

The current study chose to maintain a specific focus on role conflict and subsequent role stressors. Therefore a study addressing different forms of stress could open different avenues for

exploration. Addressing stress, as caused by bullying for example, could provide deeper insight into how people from different cultures adapt to different stressful situations as well as how perceived organisational support may moderate these different forms of stressors. Moreover, this study attempted to operationalise cultural orientation as an inherent unique coping strategy. However, it may be beneficial to conduct a study that explores how cultural orientation is related to coping strategies employed by organisational members. Such a study would serve to identify whether people with different cultural orientations are more inclined to respond with particular coping strategies when facing stressors in the workplace. This could have practical implications for the type of stress interventions implemented by organisations to help alleviate the harmful consequences of experienced stress for their employees.

Stress is a subjective experience and as mentioned above, individuals appraise stress differently depending on their personality, culture or environment (Baker et al, 1996; Bhagat, 1983; DeLongis et al., 1988). Therefore it may be helpful to explore the potential antecedent qualities of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support, as these variables could potentially impact on the initial appraisal of stress, as opposed to having a moderating effect that is more likely responsible for a secondary appraisal of stress. A final recommendation is that instead of assessing job satisfaction as an outcome related to stress, rather address psychological strain or general health to understand if the variables may play a stronger moderating role for an outcome more directly related to the experience of role stress.

5.5 Conclusion

The current research undertook to explore the possible moderating effects of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support on the relationship that exists between role stressors and job satisfaction. As analysis of the data revealed, horizontal individualism interacting with person role conflict and intersender conflict (respectively) had inverse moderating effects on job satisfaction, while perceived organisational support interacting with intersender and intrasender conflict (respectively) had positive moderating effects on job satisfaction. These findings allowed the researcher to accept hypothesis one and hypothesis two, as both individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support were found to have some moderating effect on the role-stressor and job satisfaction relationship. These findings have practical implications for the manner in which organisations and management approach and handle the issue of stress within the diverse South African workplace.

In conjunction to exploring the moderating effects of individual cultural orientation and perceived organisational support, the current study also addressed the significant main effects of these variables on job satisfaction outcomes. Results indicated that a collectivist cultural orientation was related to increases in job satisfaction. Findings also revealed that perceived organisational support was consistently related to increased job satisfaction across all regression models. These results highlight the importance of providing employees with an environment that encourages participation and demonstrates appreciation of employee effort. Accounting for these relationships, in the workplace, should allow practitioners to improve employees' job satisfaction, with positive outcomes for the individual and organisation.

In summation, the current research provided evidence of the relationships that exist between role stressors, individual cultural orientation, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction, which has practical implications for employing organisations that wish to assist and facilitate their employees in issues regarding workplace stress and its subsequent outcomes.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A
Access request letter





Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

Good day

My name is Jenna Solarsh and I would like to invite your organisation to participate in a research study I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters in Industrial Psychology at the University of Witwatersrand. I have chosen to explore how people's cultural orientation interacts with stress at work and job satisfaction. This holds relevance in a country as diverse as South Africa.

Participation in this research will involve completing a questionnaire which will take approximately 20 minutes. Participation is voluntary and your organisation will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way whether you participate or not. Responses are anonymous and your name and that of your company will not be mentioned in any reports. Only group trends will be examined and not individual responses.

On completion of the research, feedback of general trends will be available online from February 2012. An executive summary of the results will be posted on a blog upon completion of the research. Once it has been posted I will send you details of the blog address, to please be distributed to participants in your organisation. A full report will be provided upon request. Should you require further information please feel free to contact me or my supervisor, Fiona Donald. Thank you for taking time to read this letter and should you agree to grant access, thank you for your assistance.

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Appendix B
Organisational Access Letters

Appendix C1
Participant information sheet





Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

Good day

My name is Jenna Solarsh and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of our course we are required to perform supervised research in a particular area of Industrial Psychology. For my research project I have chosen to explore how people's cultural orientation interacts with stress at work and job satisfaction. This holds relevance in a country as diverse as South Africa.

In order to participate you need to be currently employed in a South African organisation. Participation in this research will involve completing the attached questionnaire which will take approximately 20 minutes. Participation is voluntary and you will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way whether you participate or not. Participation in this study will not put you at any risk. Responses are anonymous and your name and that of your company will not be mentioned in any reports. Only group trends will be examined and not individual responses.

If you fulfil the criteria for participation and are willing to participate in the study please complete the attached questionnaire as honestly and carefully as possible. You may discontinue participation in the study at any time, prior to the submission of the questionnaire. Completion of the questionnaire is regarded as consent to participate in the study. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please put it in the envelope before placing it in the sealed box.

At the completion of the research, feedback of general trends will be available online from February 2012. An executive summary of the results will be posted on a blog upon completion of the research. Once it has been posted I will send details of the blog address to your organisation, to be distributed to participants. A full report will be provided upon request. Should you require further information or assistance in completing the form please feel free to contact me or my supervisor, Fiona Donald, telephonically or by email (details below). Thank you for taking time to read this letter and should you participate, thank you for your assistance.

Jenna Solarsh (0829234457)
jennasolarsh@hotmail.co.za

Fiona Donald (011) 717 4507
Fiona.Donald@wits.ac.za

Appendix C2
Participant information sheet





Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

Good day

My name is Jenna Solarsh and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of our course we are required to perform supervised research in a particular area of Industrial Psychology. For my research project I have chosen to explore how people's cultural orientation interacts with stress at work and job satisfaction. This holds relevance in a country as diverse as South Africa.

In order to participate you need to be currently employed in a South African organisation. Participation in this research will involve completing the attached questionnaire which will take approximately 20 minutes. Participation is voluntary and you will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way whether you participate or not. Participation in this study will not put you at any risk. Responses are anonymous and your name and that of your company will not be mentioned in any reports. In addition, the questionnaire is submitted through a secure and encrypted website which only my supervisor, Fiona Donald, and myself will have access to. Only group trends will be examined and not individual responses.

If you fulfil the criteria for participation and are willing to participate in the study please complete the attached questionnaire as honestly and carefully as possible. You may discontinue participation in the study at any time, prior to the submission of the questionnaire. Completion of the questionnaire is regarded as consent to participate in the study.

At the completion of the research, feedback of general trends will be available online from February 2012. An executive summary of the results will be posted on a blog upon completion of the research. Once it has been posted I will send details of the blog address to your organisation, to be distributed to participants. A full report will be provided upon request. Should you require further information or assistance in completing the form please feel free to contact me or my supervisor, telephonically or by email (details below). Thank you for taking time to read this letter and should you participate, thank you for your assistance.

Jenna Solarsh (0829234457)
jennasolarsh@hotmail.co.za

Fiona Donald (011) 717 4507
Fiona.Donald@wits.ac.za

Appendix D

Biographic Questionnaire

Please fill in the relevant information below by placing a tick in the relevant block and where applicable by writing in the appropriate detail. These details will only be used to describe the overall sample for the study.

1. Gender

Male	Female

2. Age: _____

3. Home language: _____

4. Racial group

White	Black	Coloured	Indian	Asian

(Required for descriptive purposes only)

5. Are you employed full time or part time?

Full Time	Part Time

6. How many hours do you typically work per week?

20-25 hrs	26-30 hrs	31-35 hrs	36-40 hrs	40-45 hrs	46-50 hrs	51+ hrs

7. Duration of employment in current organisation

Less than 1 yr	2 - 4 yrs	5 - 7 yrs	8 - 10 yrs	11+ yrs

8. Marital Status

Never Married	Married	Divorced	Widowed	Cohabiting

Appendix E

Multidimensional Role Conflict Questionnaire

Below are 24 statements about your job with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-5 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing a cross over the appropriate number for each item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

The 5-point scale is as follows: 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=disagree, 5=strongly disagree.

1. I have to do things at work which are against my better judgment

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

2. I have to compromise my own views in doing this job

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

3. I have to implement formal policies and guidelines which I disagree with in my job

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

4. I have to do things that should be done differently

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

5. I am confronted with work demands that I find hard to accept

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

6. I frequently have more work to do than I can handle during the time available at work

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

7. I have difficulty in satisfying work demands of all the people I deal with because of time limitations

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

8. I have to put some things off longer than I should

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

9. I am not given enough time to do what is expected of me in my job

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

10. The amount of work I do interferes with how well it gets done

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

11. I often feel I have caught up with my work and have everything under control

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

12. I work with 2 or more groups of people who have quite different expectations of me

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

13. I am subjected to conflicting demands from people with whom I deal at work

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

14. I find myself in situations where different groups claim my allegiance

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

15. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

16. The people with whom I deal at work have similar ideas on what I should be doing

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

17. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person but not others

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

18. The expectations and behaviour of individual people with whom I have dealings with are inconsistent

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

19. I don’t get the authority to fulfil my work responsibilities

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

20. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

21. I have to buck rules and policies in order to carry out an assignment

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

22. I have no difficulties in reconciling my interests in the different areas of work and home life

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

23. I get caught between pressures of my work and those coming from other areas of my life

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

24. I have divided loyalties to different parties at work

1	2	3	4	5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

Appendix F

Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scale (IND-COL)

Below are 32 statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing a cross over the appropriate number for each item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

The 7-point scale is as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5=slightly agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree.

1. I prefer to be direct and forthright when I talk with people

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

2. My happiness depends very much on the happiness of those around me

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

3. I would do what would please my family, even if I detested that activity

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

4. Winning is everything

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

5. One should live one's life independently of others

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

6. What happens to me is my own doing

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

7. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

8. It annoys me when other people perform better than I do

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

9. It is important to maintain harmony within my group

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

10. It is important that I do my job better than others

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

11. I like sharing little things with my neighbours

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

12. I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

13. We should keep our aging parents with us at home

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

14. The well-being of my co-workers is important to me

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

15. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

16. If a relative were in financial difficulty, I would help within my means

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

17. Children should feel honoured if their parents receive a distinguished award

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

18. I often “do my own thing”

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

19. Competition is the law of nature

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

20. If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

21. I am a unique individual

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

22. To me, pleasure is spending time with others

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

23. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

24. I would sacrifice an activity that I enjoy very much if my family did not approve of it

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

25. I like my privacy

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

26. Without competition it is not possible to have a good society

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

27. Children should be taught to place duty before pleasure

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

28. I feel good when I cooperate with others

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

29. I hate to disagree with others in my group

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

30. Some people emphasize winning; I'm not one of them

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

31. Before taking a major trip, I consult with most members of my family and many friends

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

32. When I succeed, it is usually because of my abilities

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

Appendix G

Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS)

Below are eight statements about the organisation you work for, with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-5 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing a cross over the appropriate number for each item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

The 5-point scale is as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

1. The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

2. The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

3. The organisation would ignore any complaint from me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

4. The organisation really cares about my well-being.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

6. The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

7. The organisation shows very little concern for me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

8. The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree

Appendix H

Job Satisfaction Scale

Below are 36 statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-6 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing a circle around the appropriate number for each item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

The 6-point scale is as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=slightly agree, 5=moderately agree, 6=strongly agree.

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Strongly disagree / Moderately disagree / Slightly disagree / Slightly agree / Moderately agree / Strongly agree
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix I

Ethics approval forms

University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

Faculty of Humanities – Postgraduate Office

Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa • Tel: +27 11 717 8202• Fax: +27 11 717 4037

Student Number: 0610216X

MISS JENNA SOLARSH
P O Box 694
Strathavon
2031

18 August 2011

Dear Miss Solarsh

APPROVAL OF PROPOSAL FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS BY COURSEWORK AND RESEARCH REPORT

I am pleased to be able to advise you that the readers of the Graduate Studies Committee have approved your proposal entitled "*Role stress, individual cultural orientation, perceived organisational support and job satisfaction.*" I confirm that Mrs Fiona Donald has been appointed as your supervisor in the Psychology Department.

The research report is normally submitted to the Faculty Office by 15 February, if you have started the beginning of the year, and for mid-year the deadline is 31 July. All students are required to RE-REGISTER at the beginning of each year.

You are required to submit 2 bound copies and one unbound copy plus 1 CD in pdf (Adobe) format of your research report to the Faculty Office. The 2 bound copies go to the examiners and are retained by them and the unbound copy is retained by the Faculty Office as back up.

Please note that should you miss the deadline of 15 February or 31 July you will be required to submit an application for extension of time and register for the research report extension. Any candidate who misses the deadline of 15 February will be charged fees for the research report extension.

Kindly keep us informed of any changes of address during the year.

Note: All MA and PhD candidates who intend graduating shortly must meet your ETD requirements at least 6 weeks after your supervisor has received the examiners reports. **A student must remain registered at the Faculty Office until graduation.**

Yours sincerely

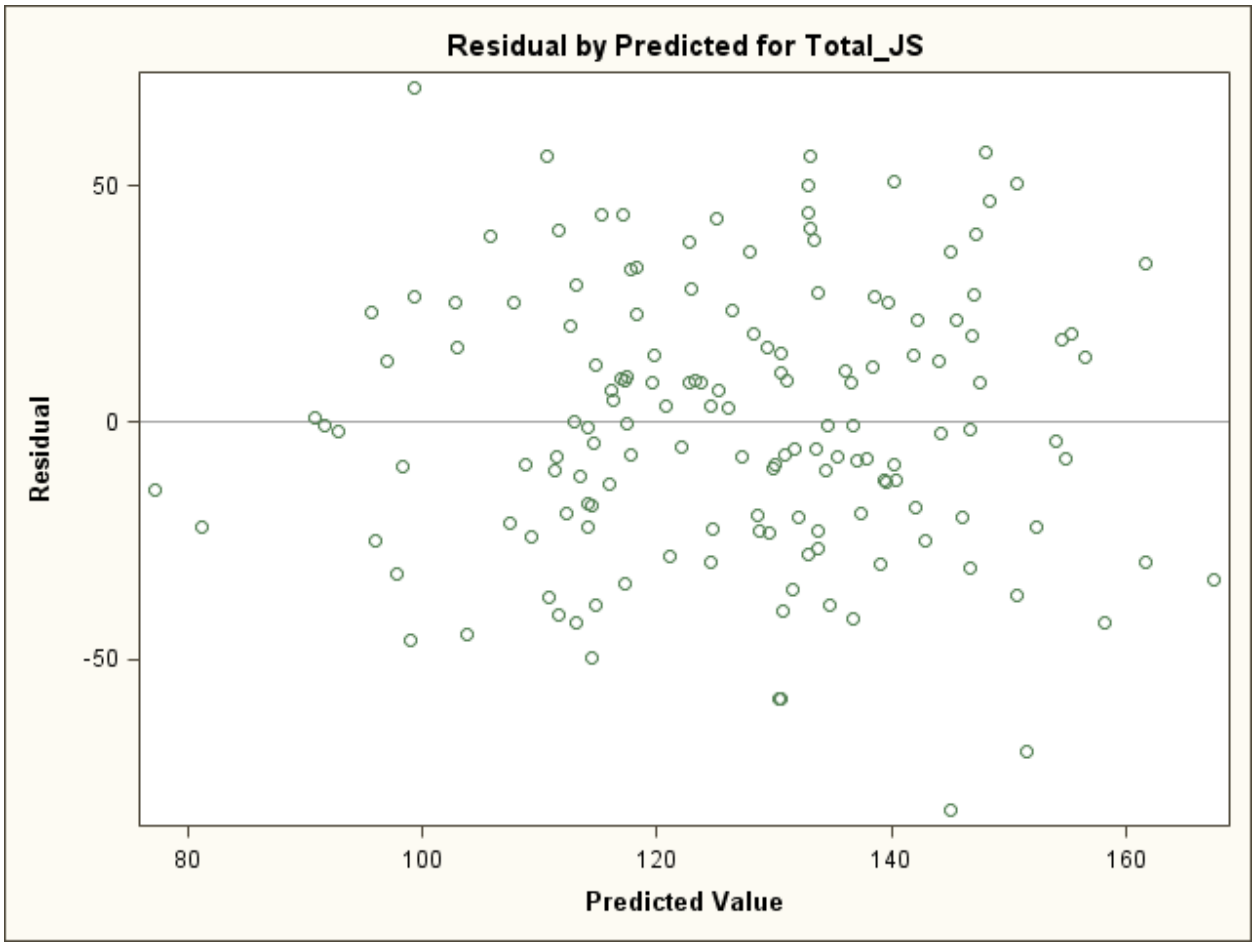
HA MODAU

Hale Modau
Postgraduate Division
Faculty of Humanities
Private Bag X3
Wits, 2050
Tel: +27 11 717 4008
Fax:+27 86 553 4699

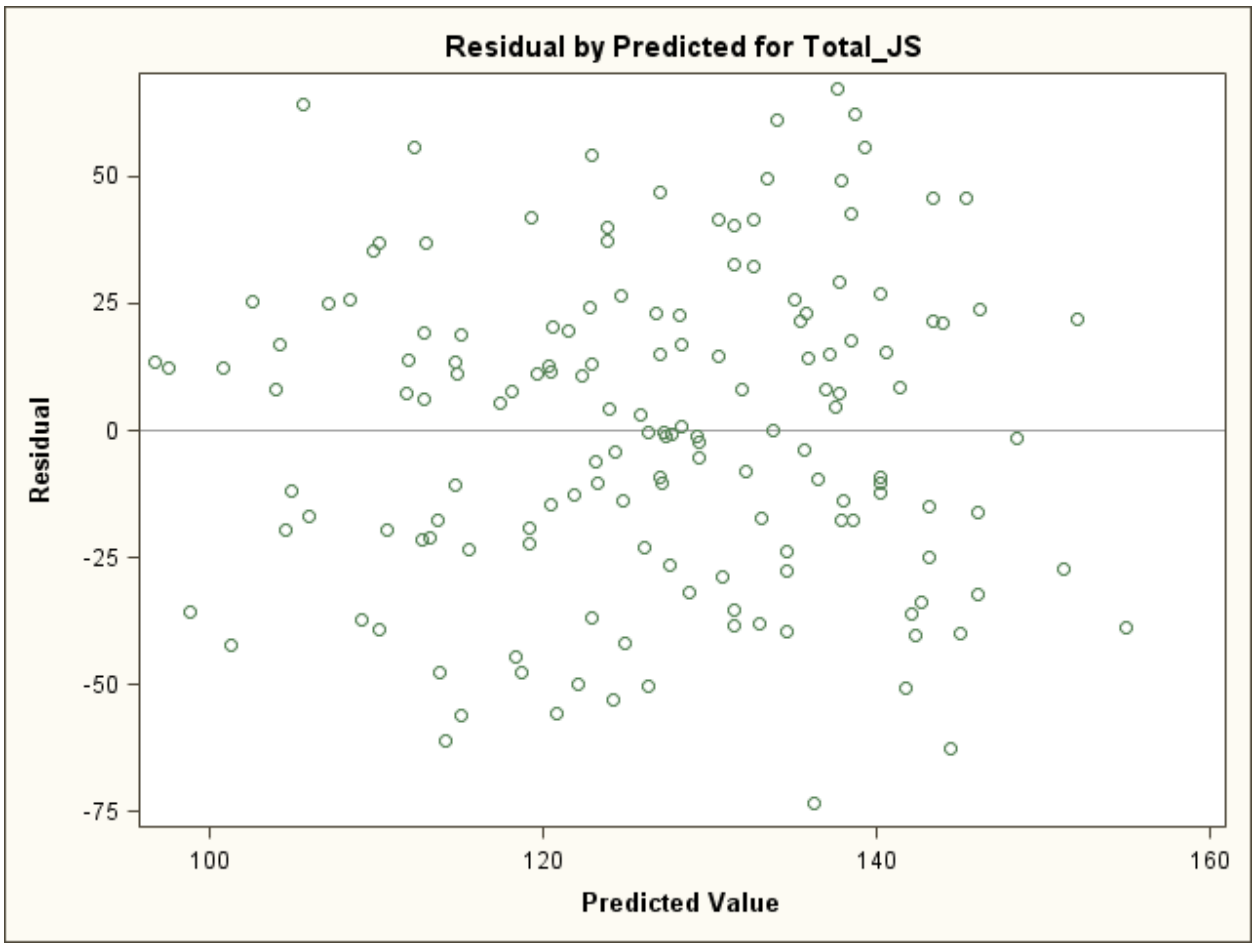
Appendix J

Residual plot graphs for linearity

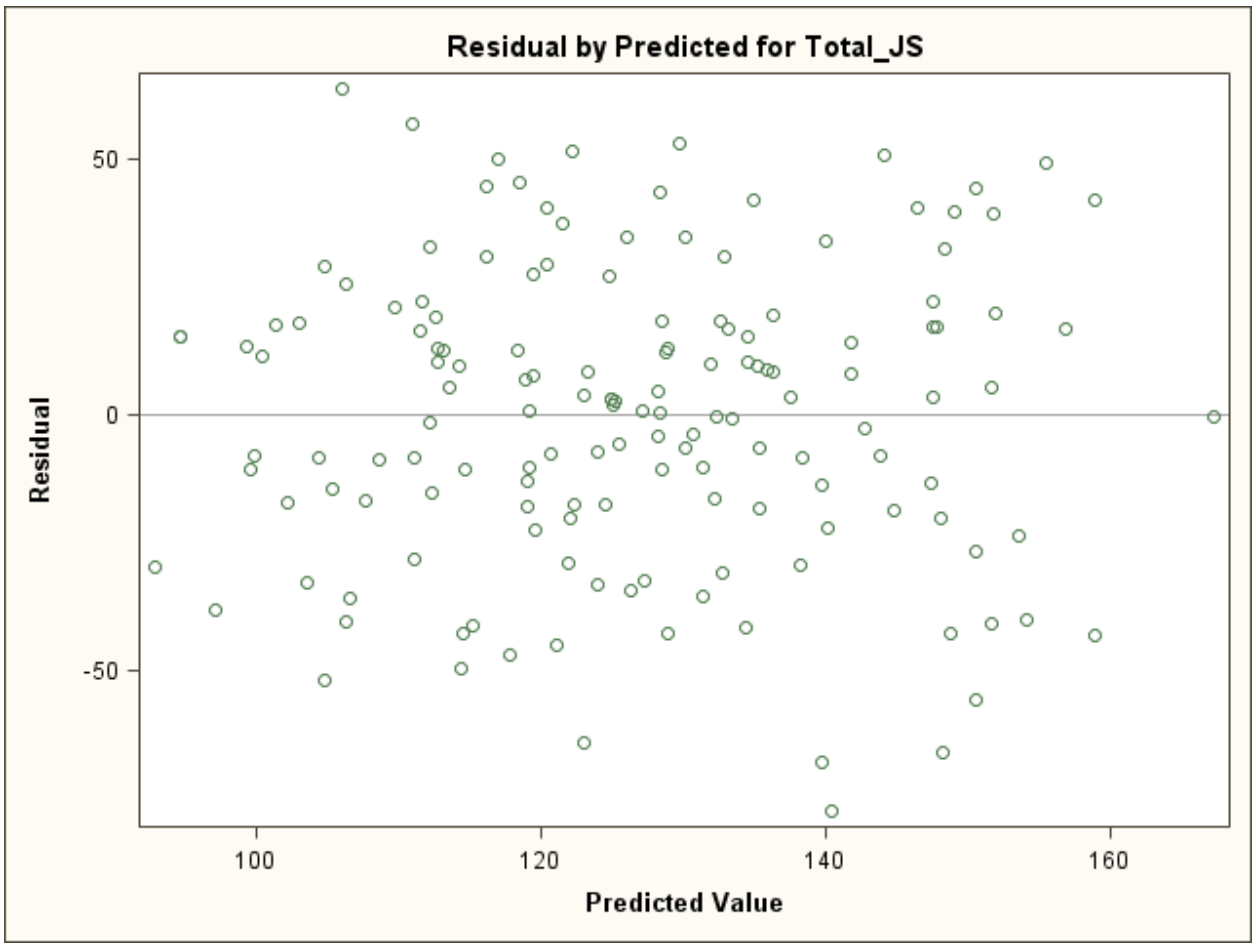
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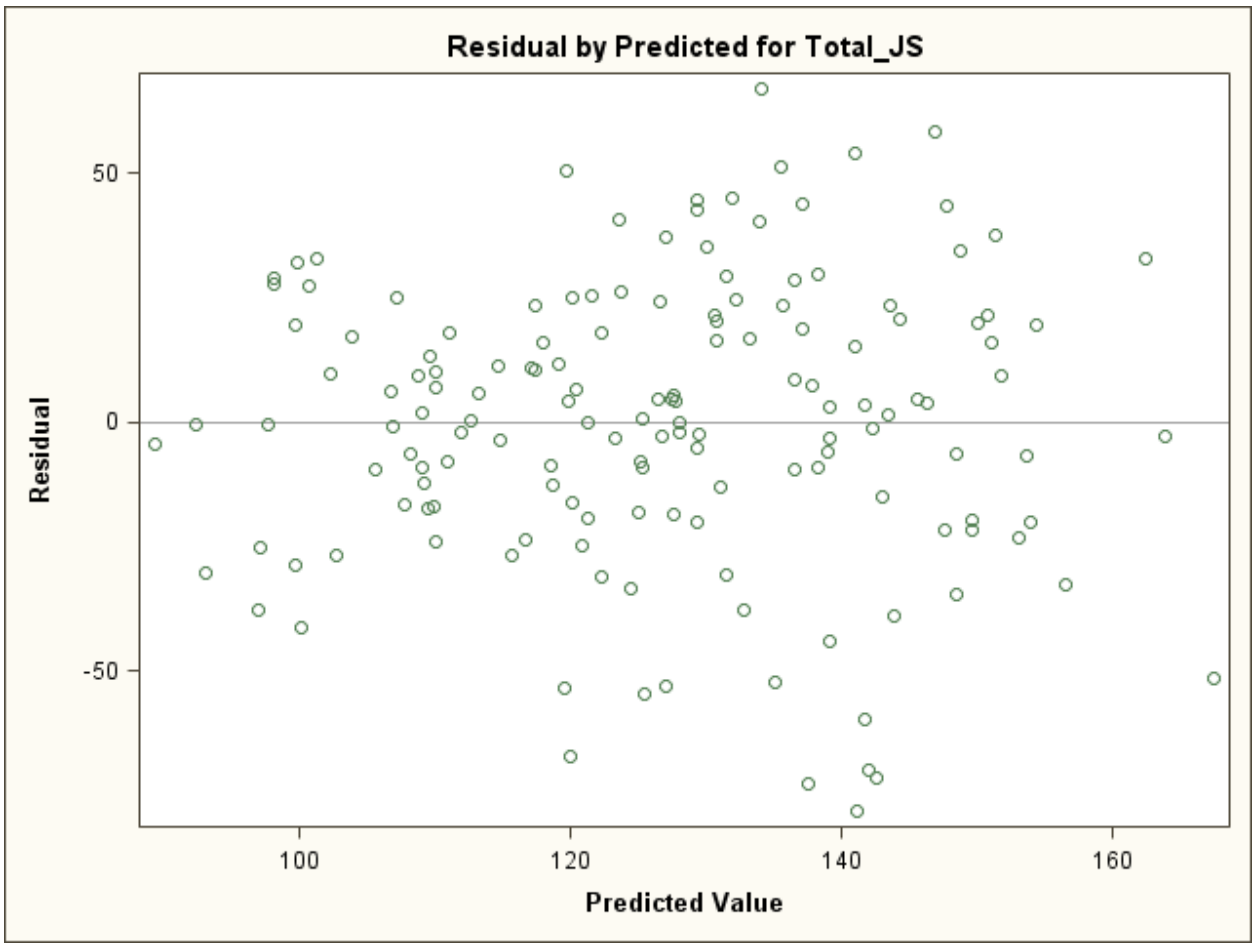
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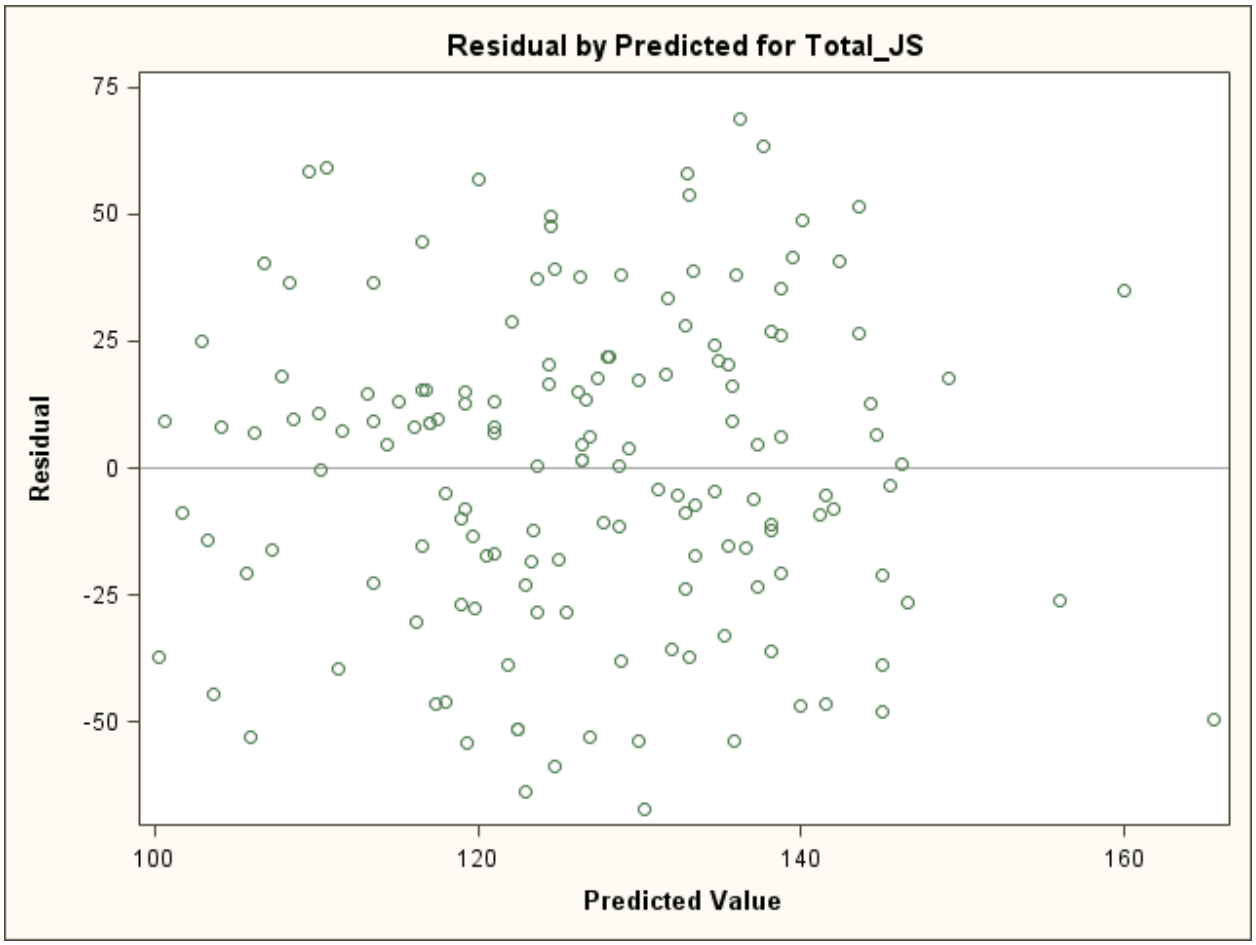
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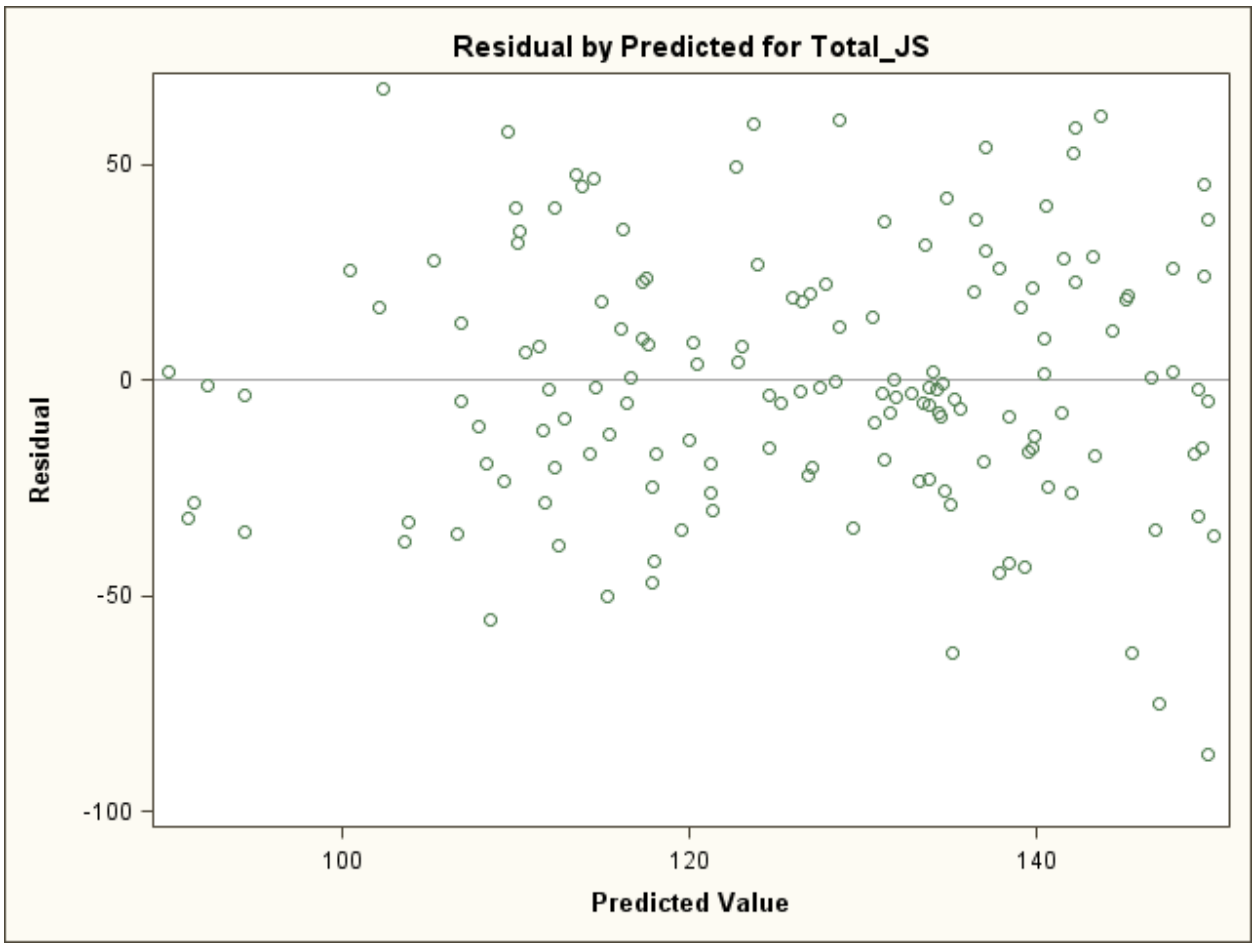
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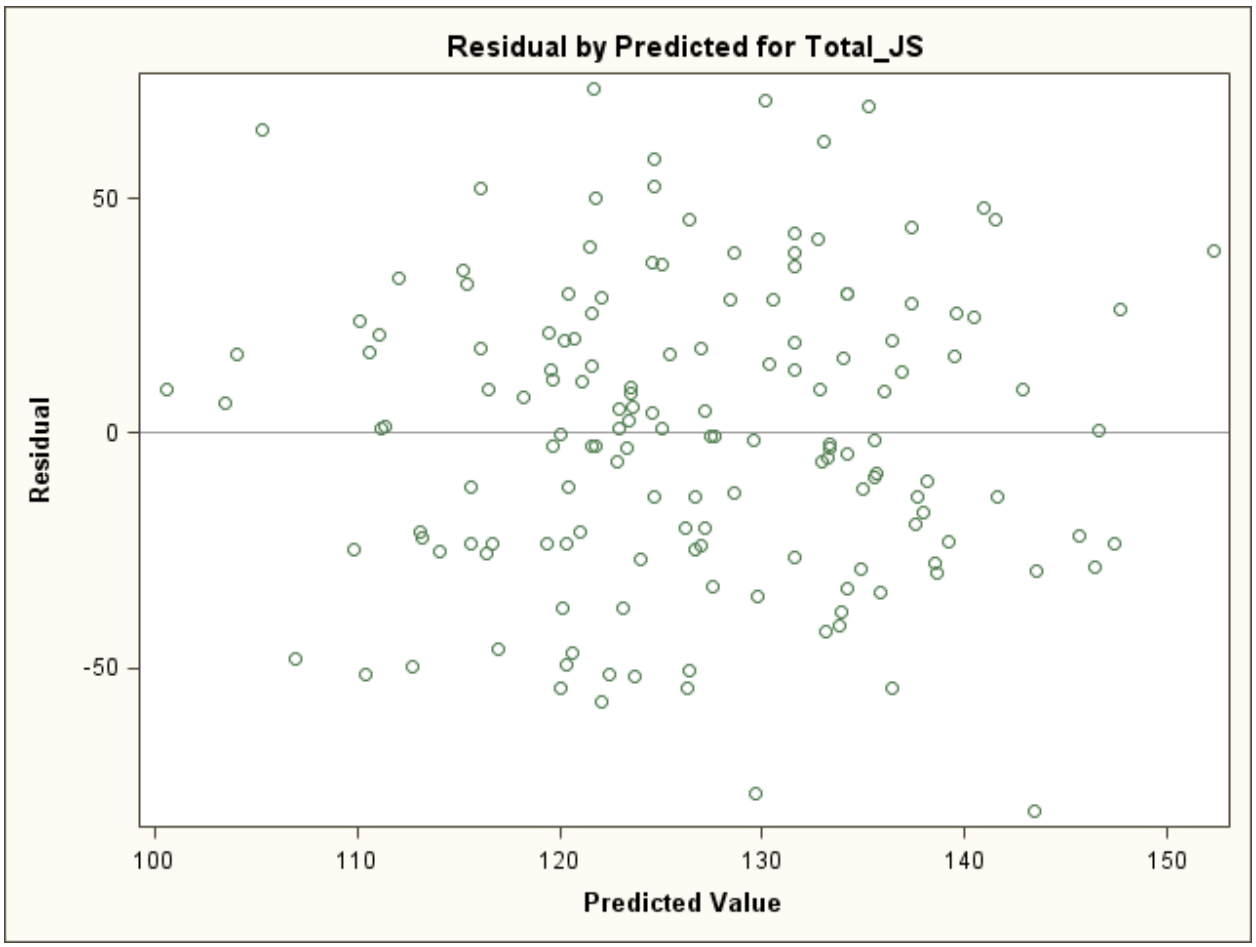
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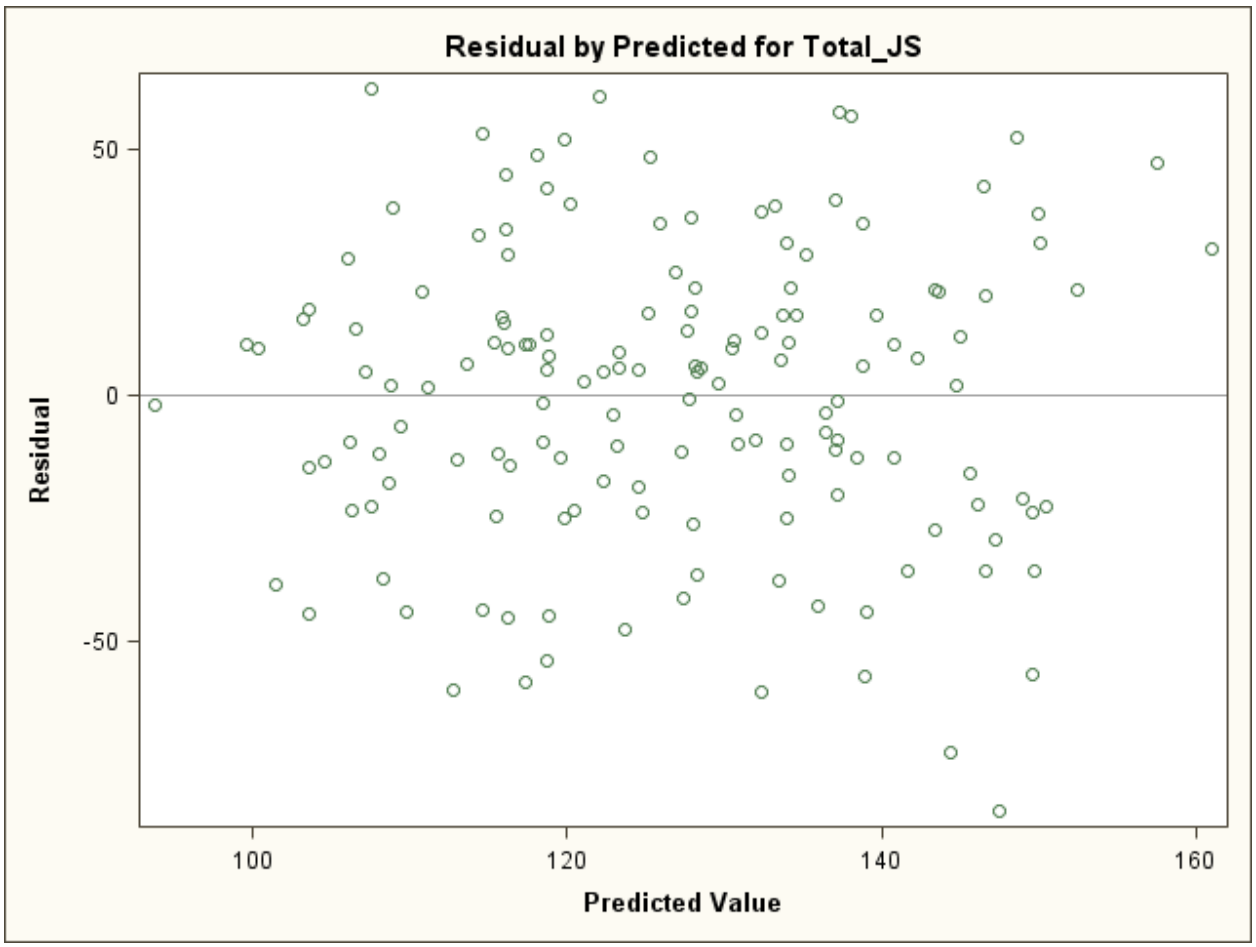
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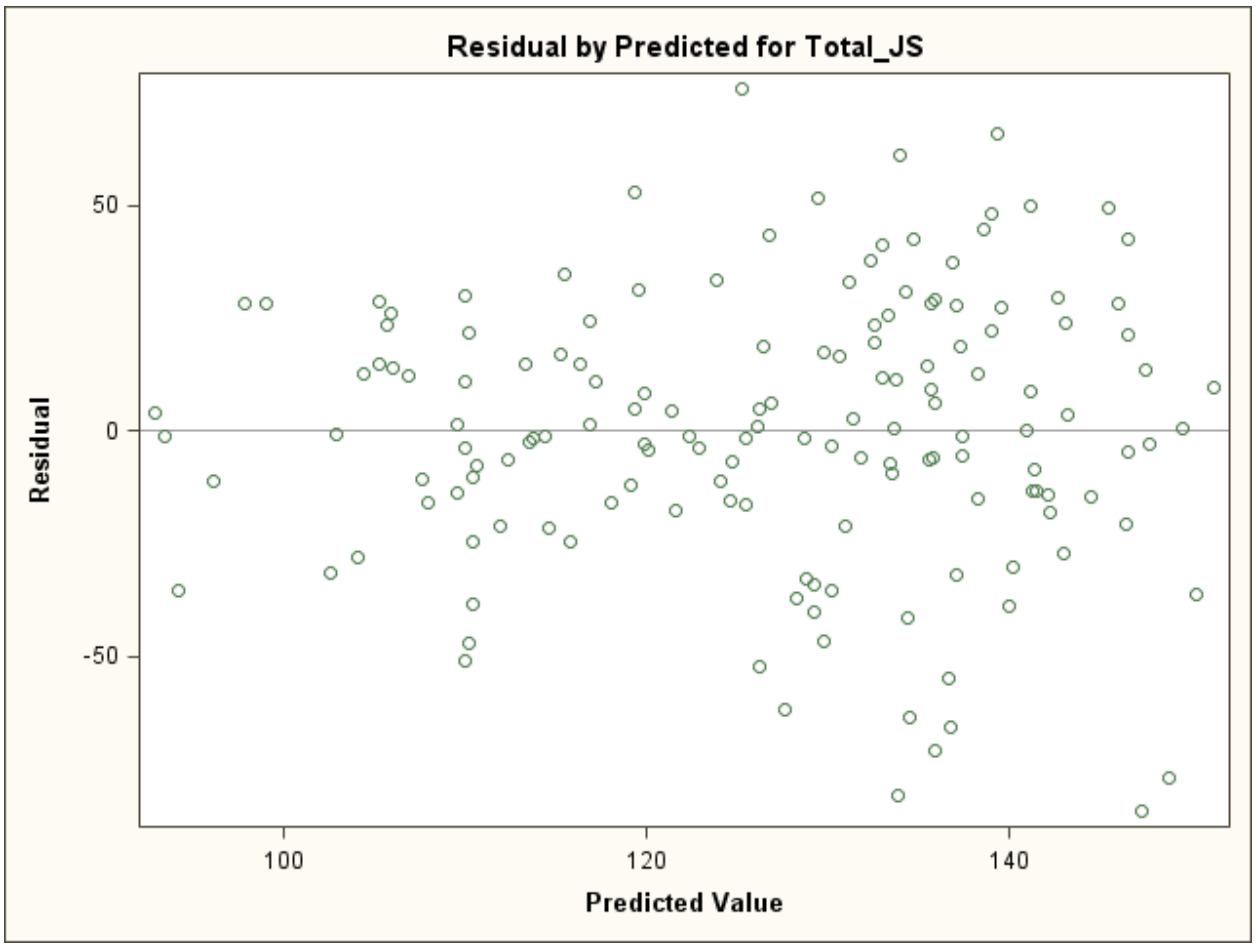
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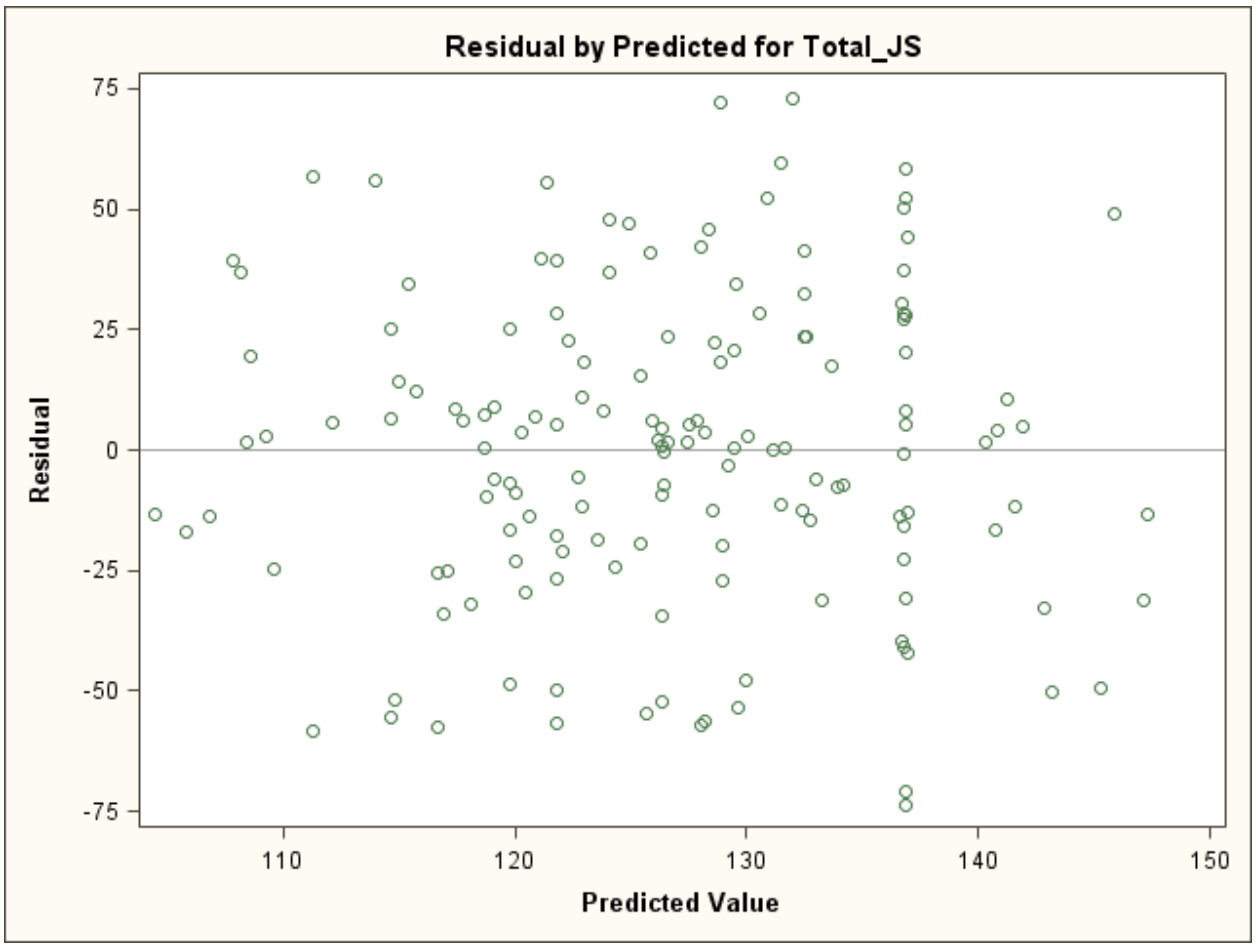
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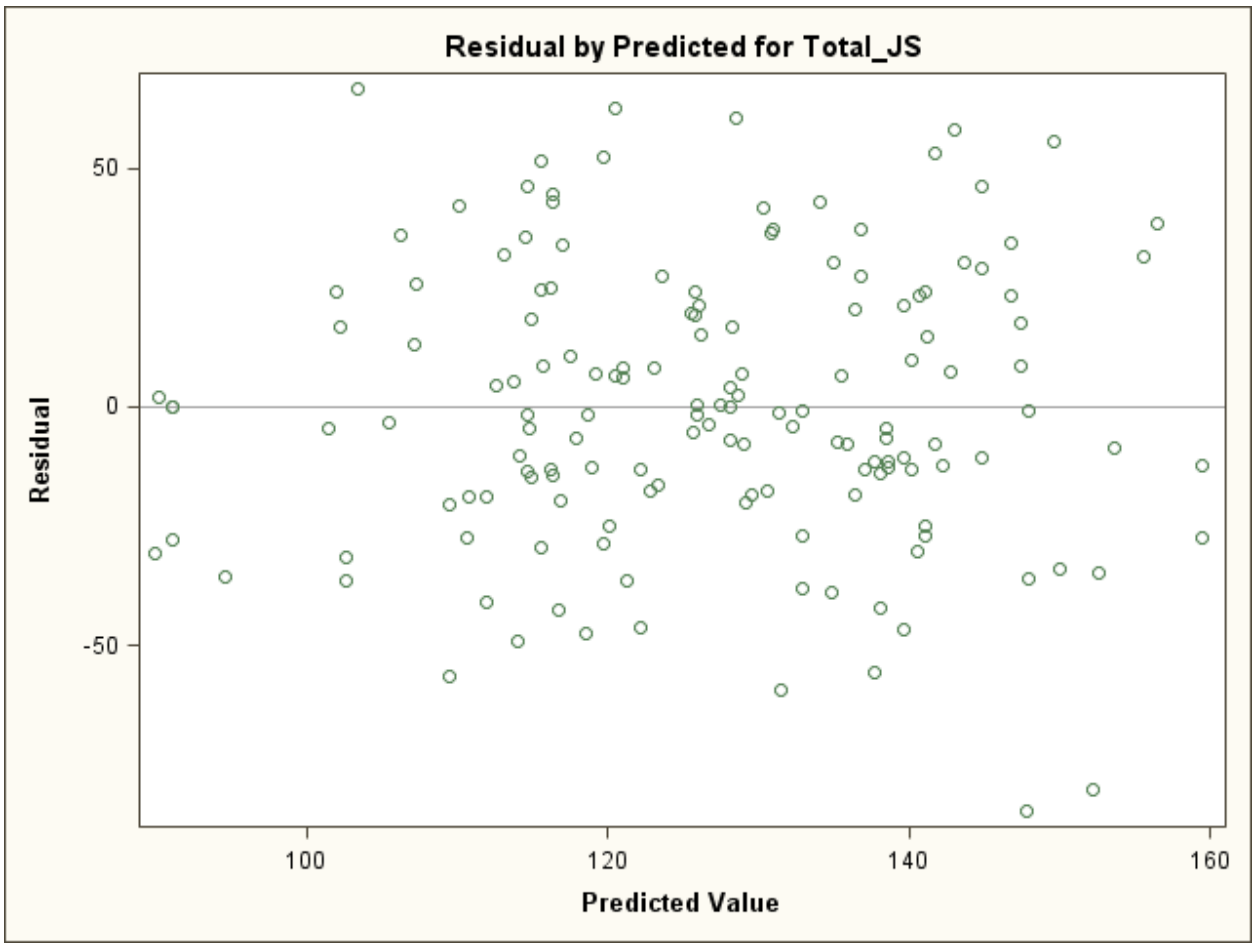
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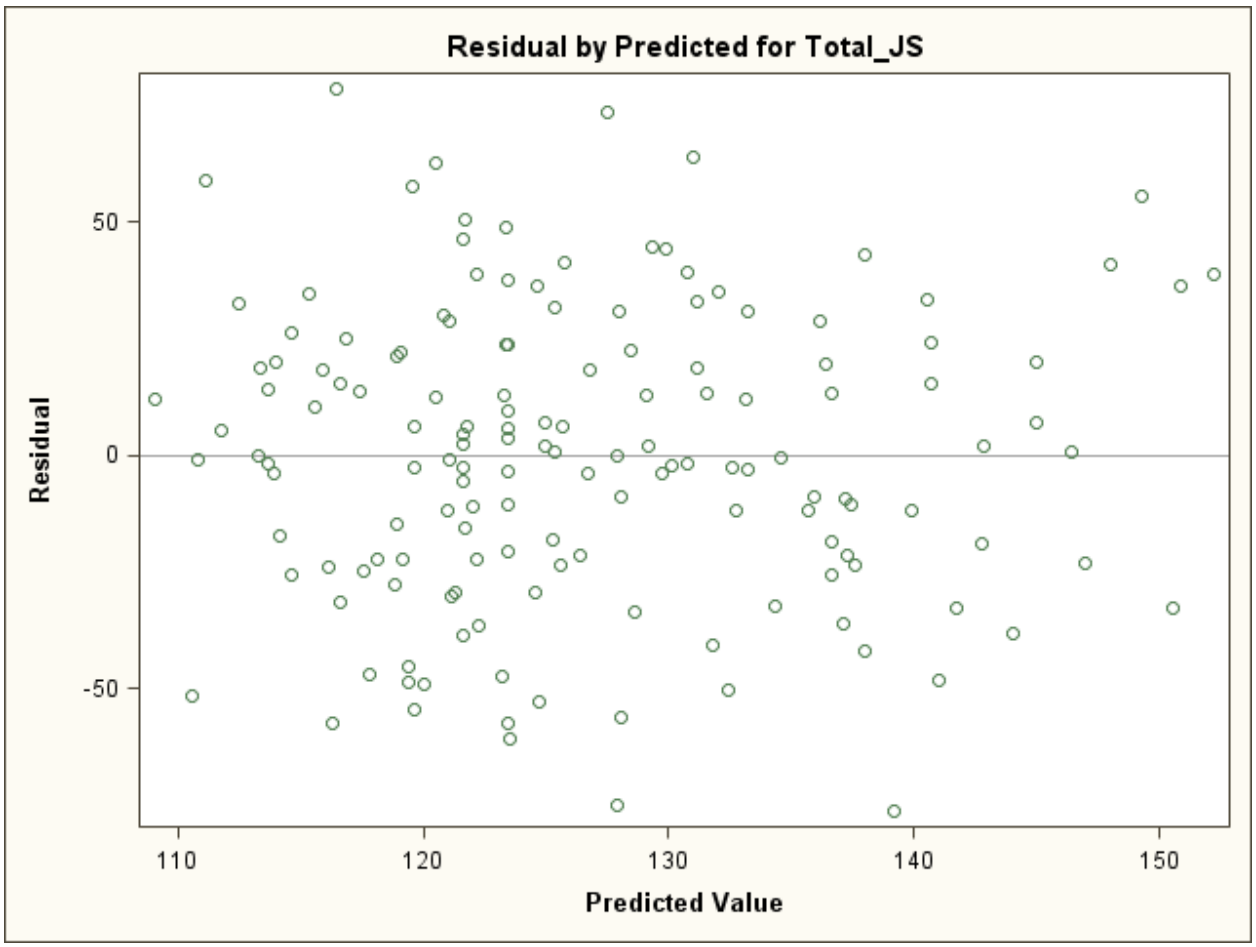
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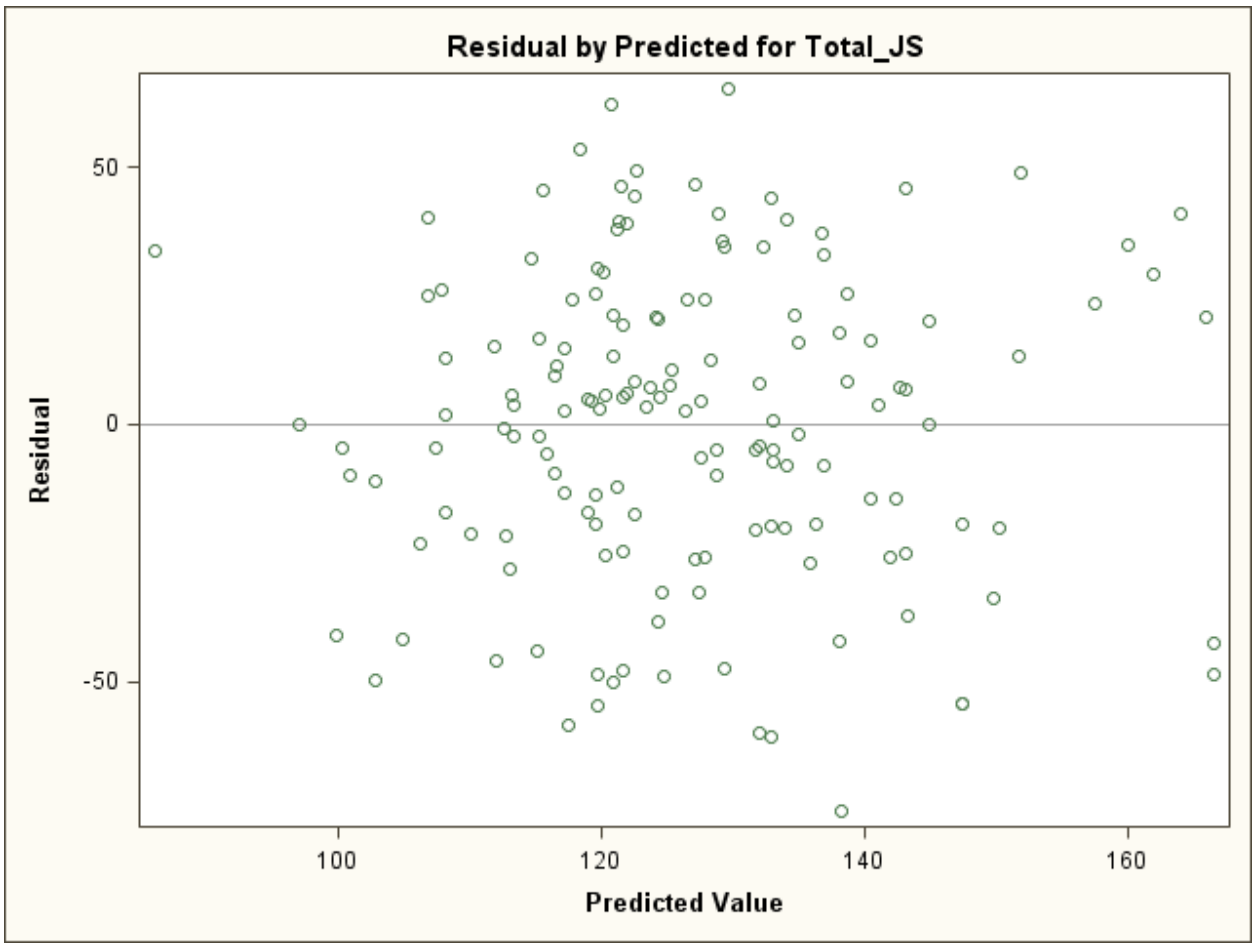
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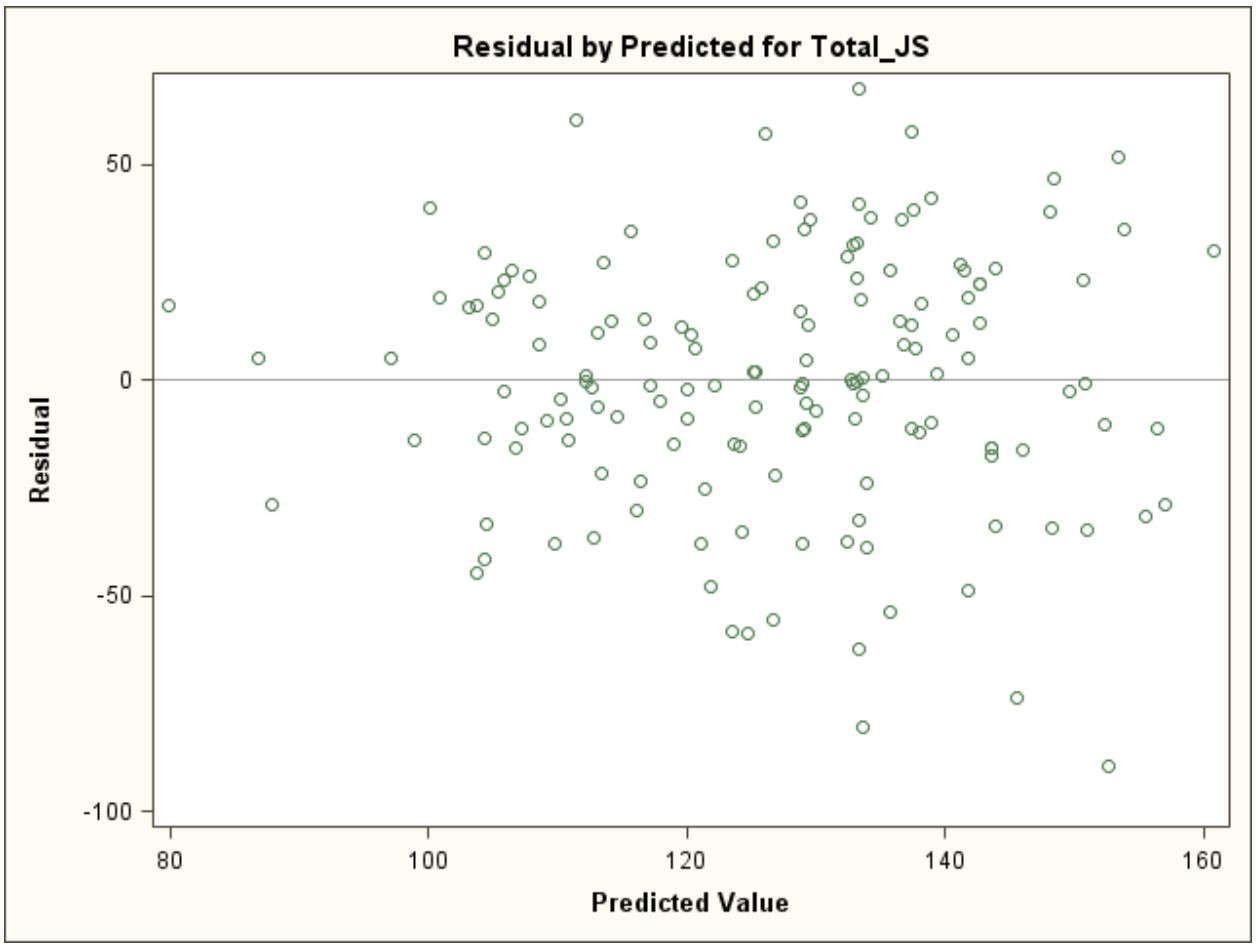
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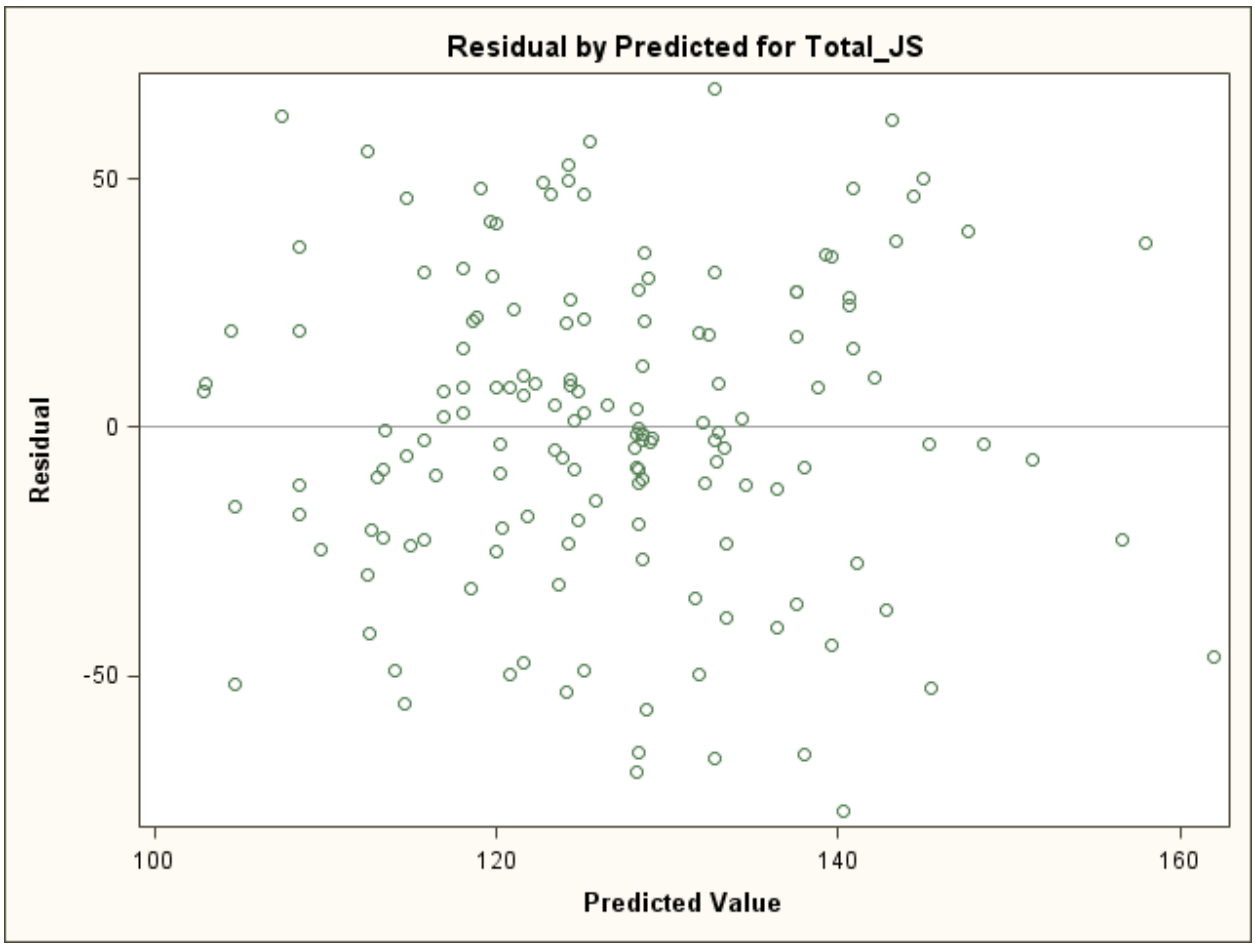
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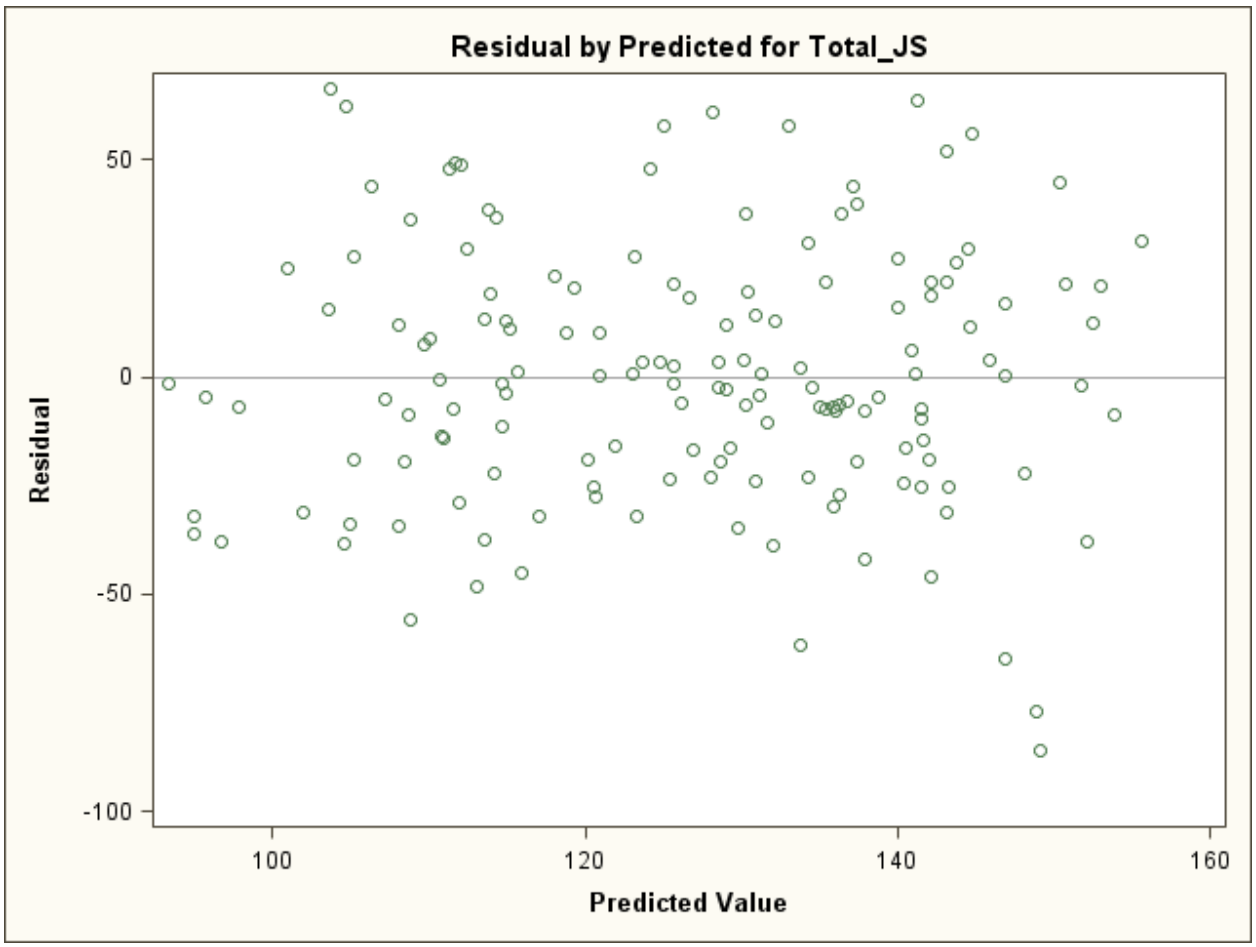
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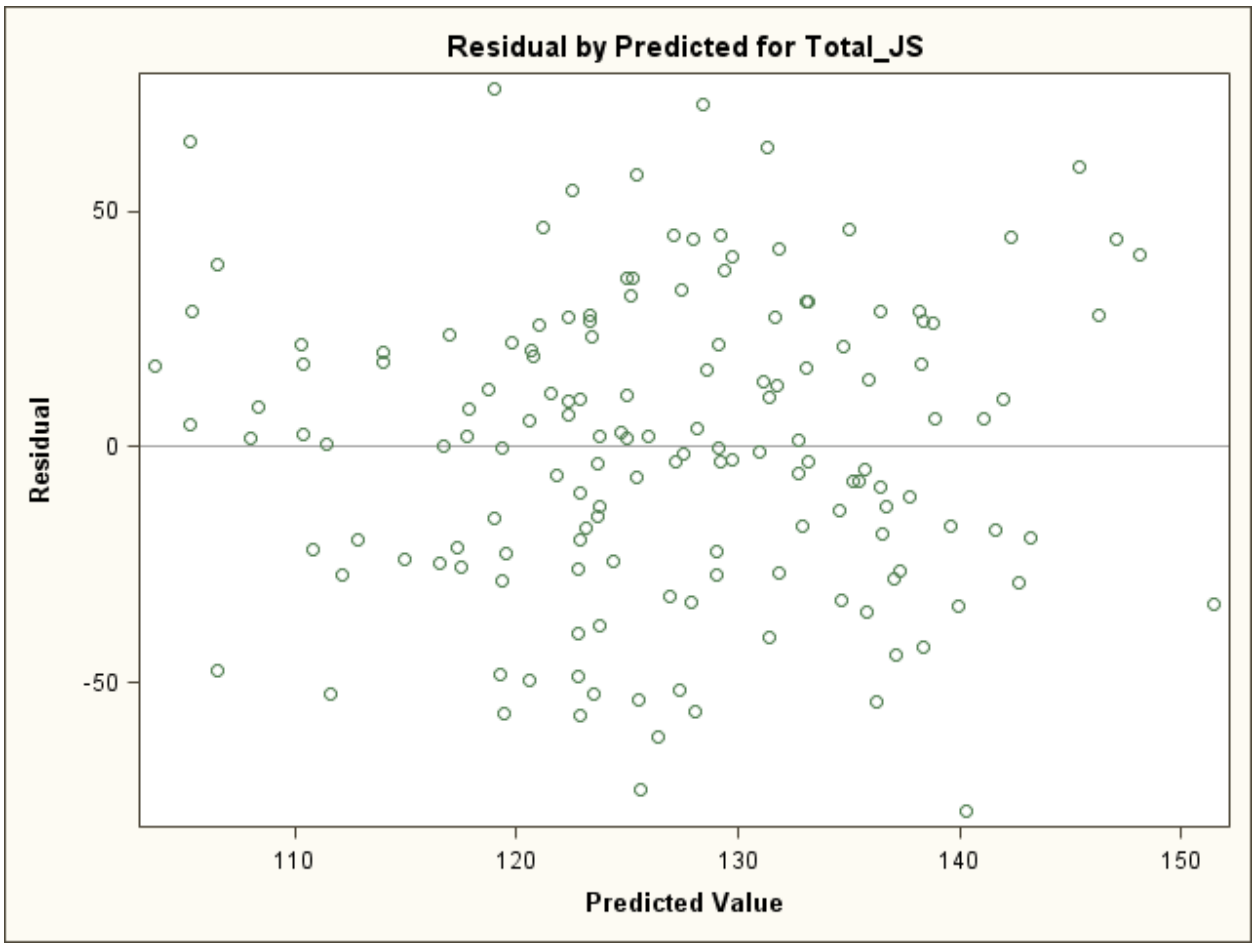
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for HOR_IND and Inter_RC



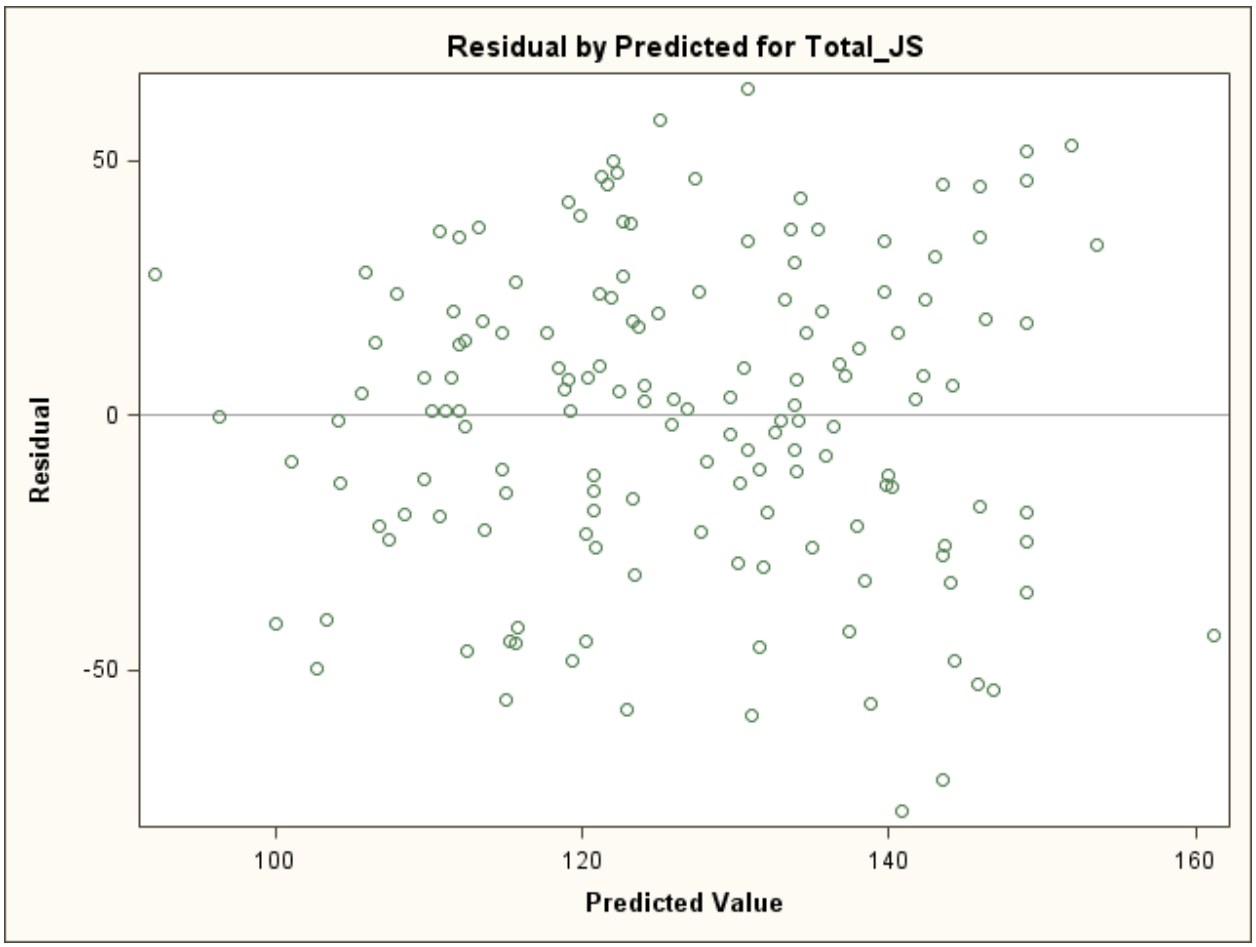
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_IND and Person_RC



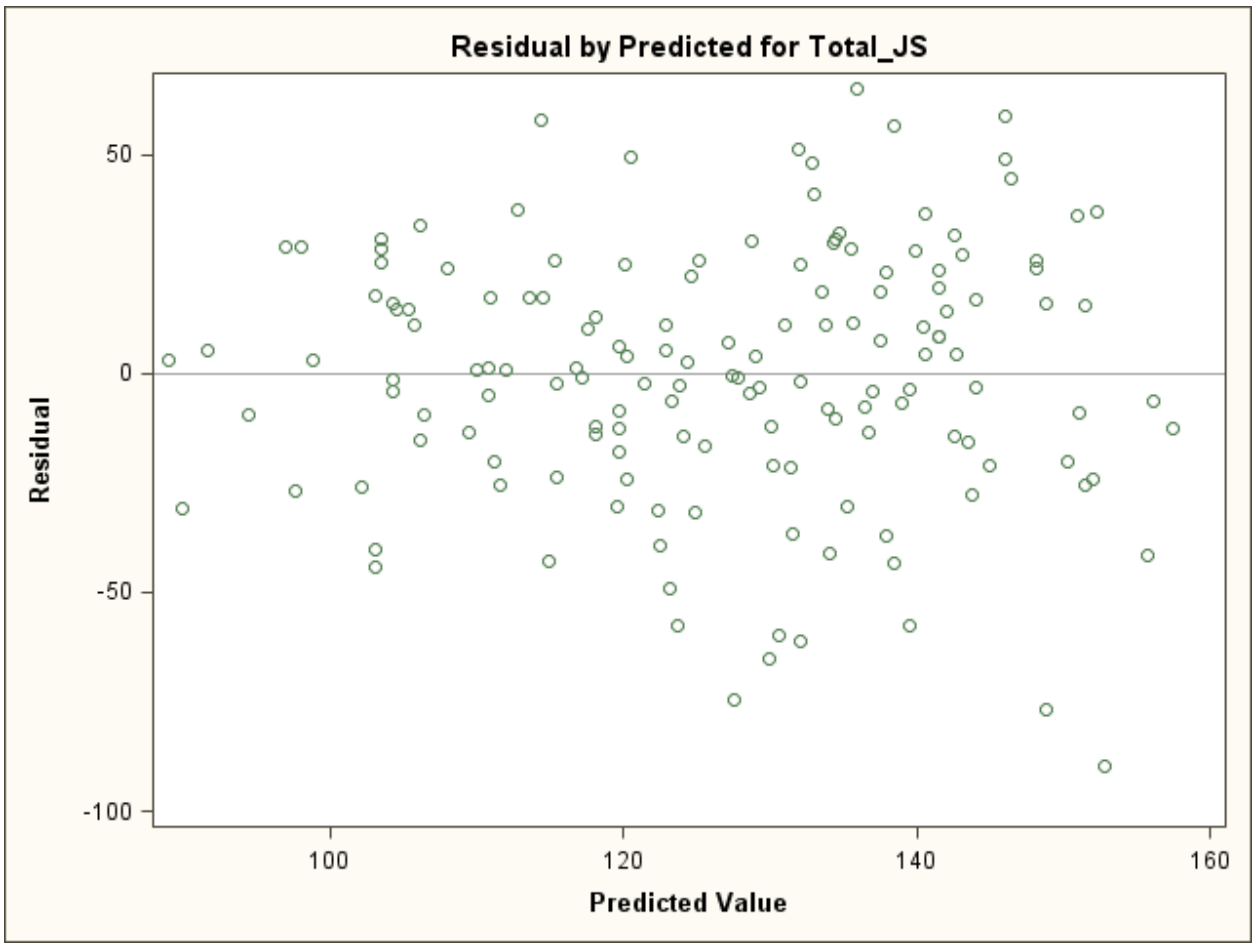
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_IND and Role_OL



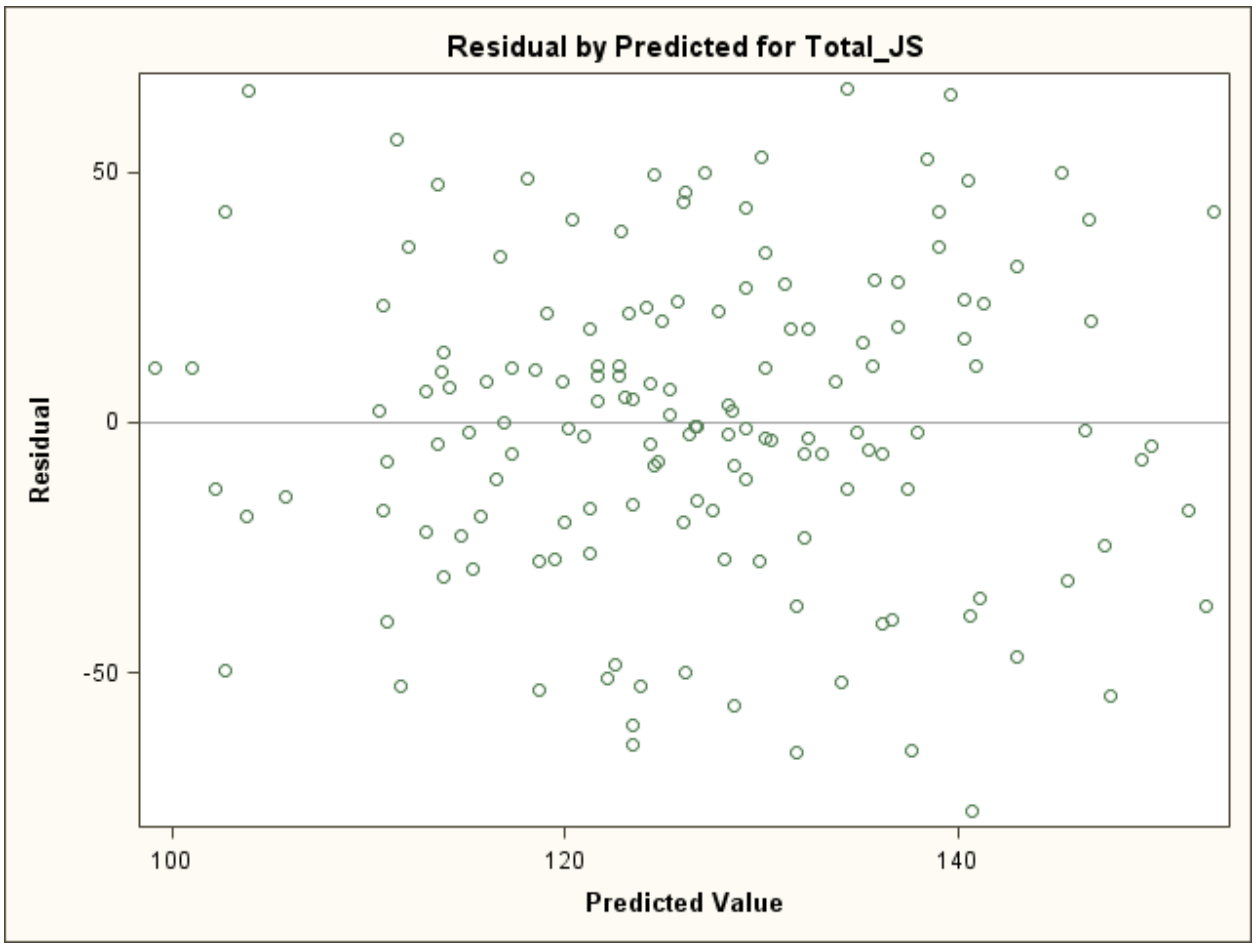
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_IND and Inter_SC



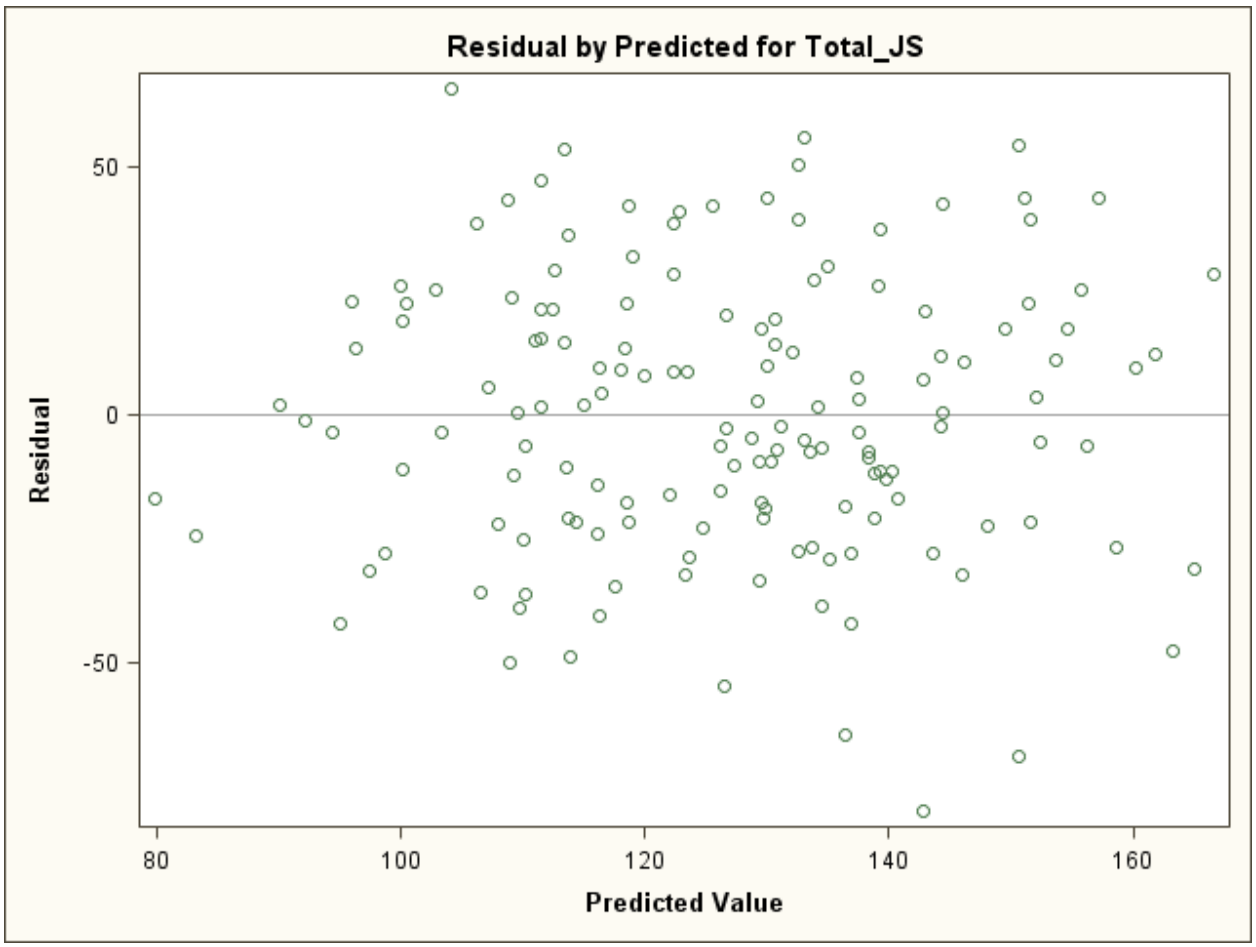
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_IND and Intra_SC



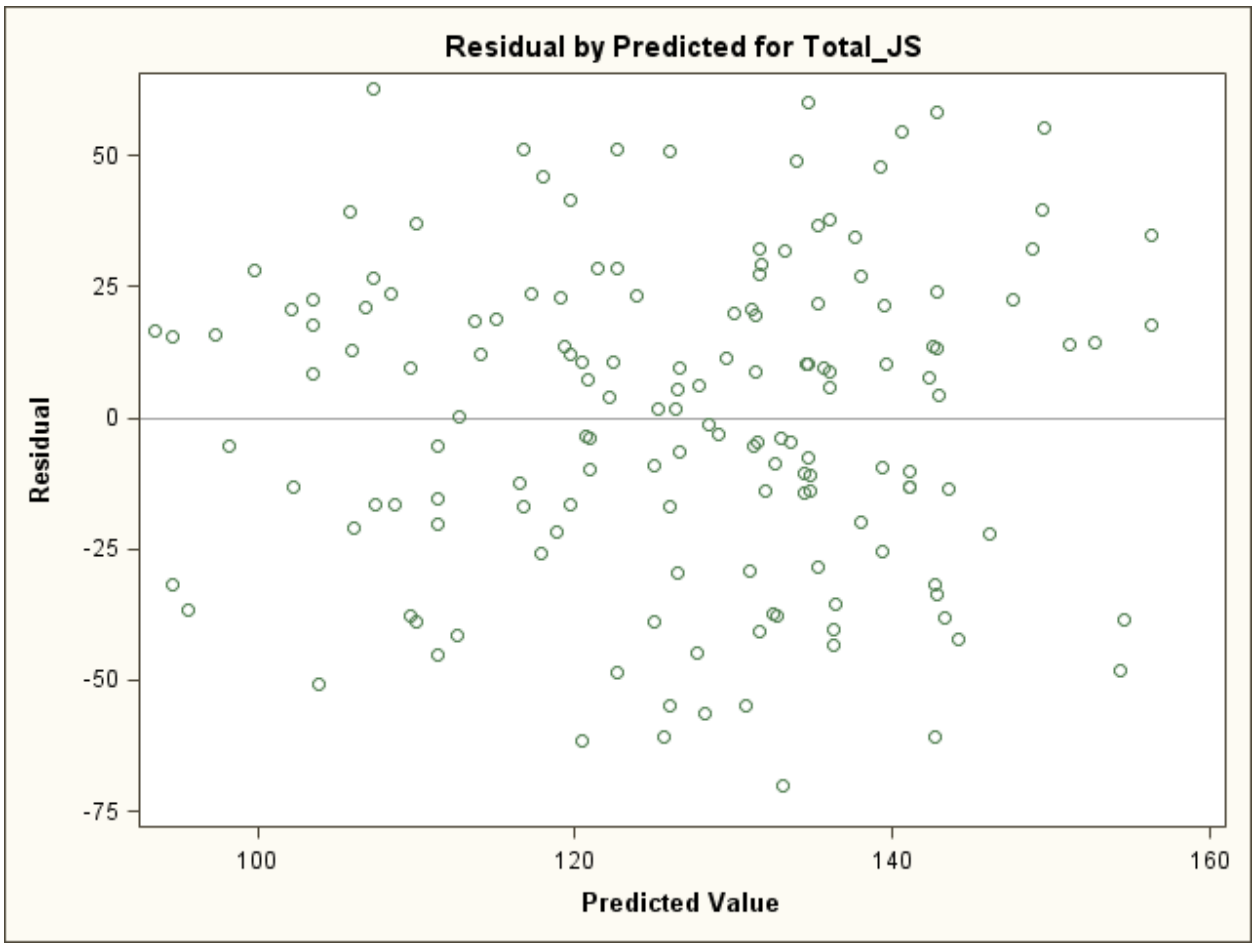
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_IND and Inter_RC



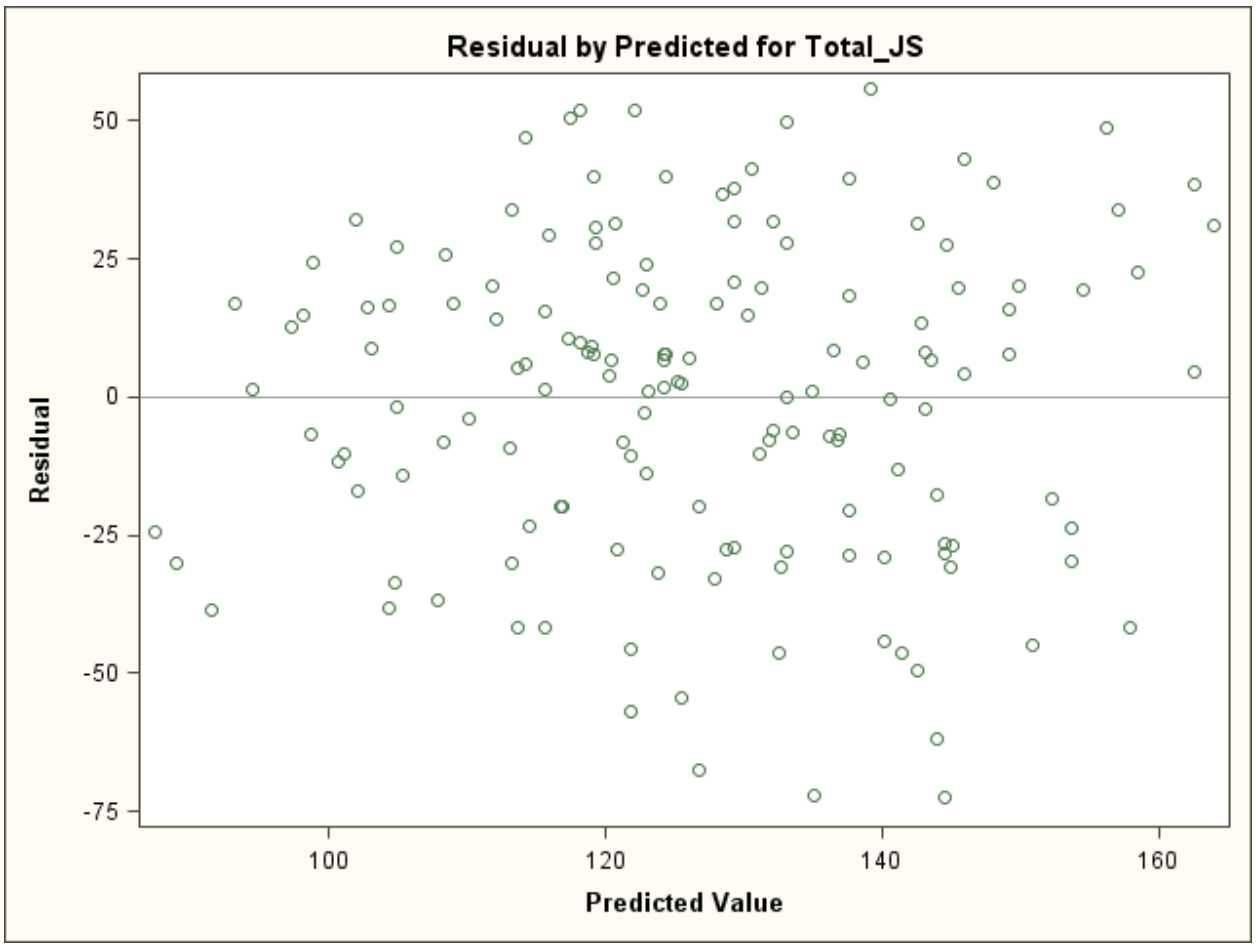
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for HOR_COL and Person_RC



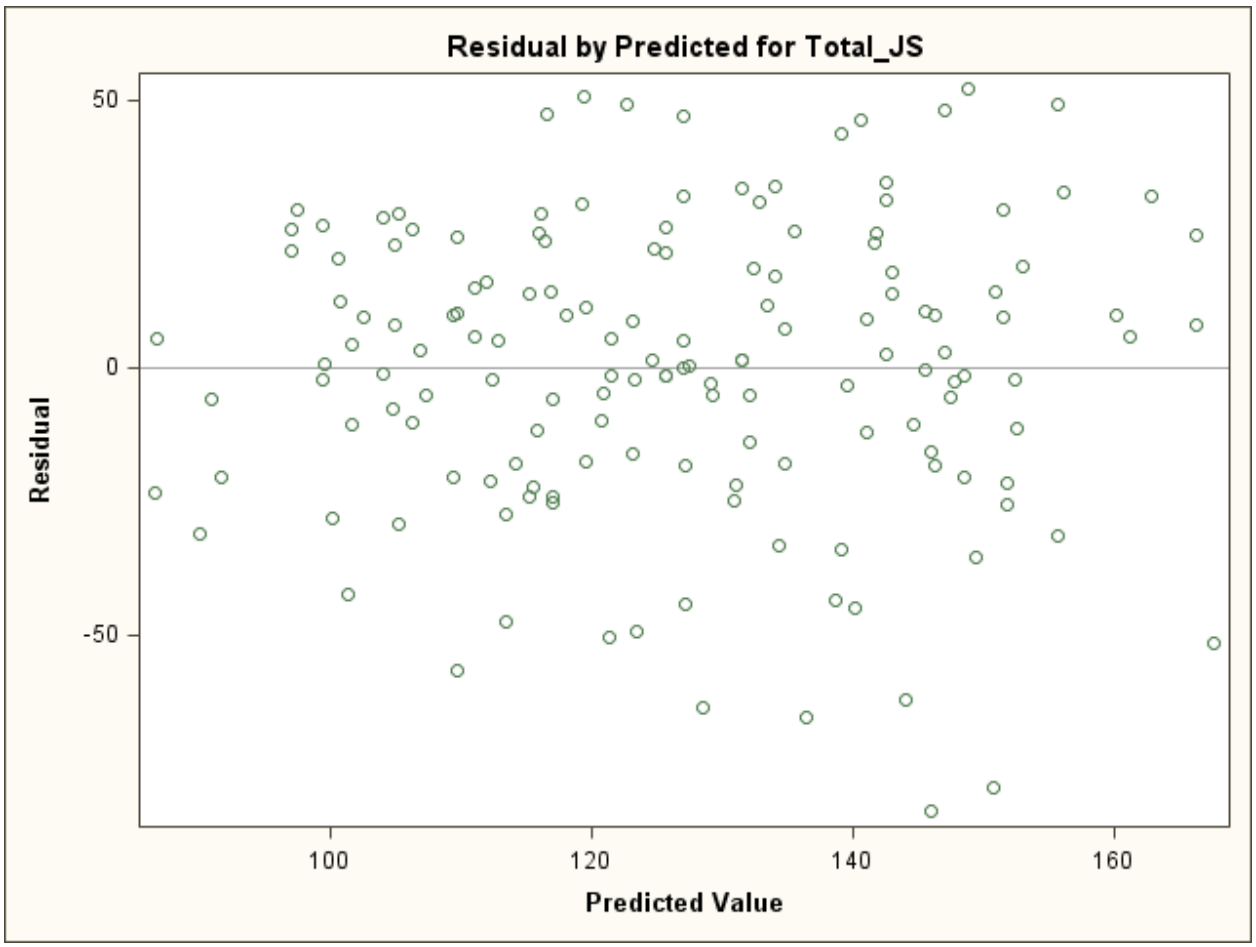
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for HOR_COL and Role_OL



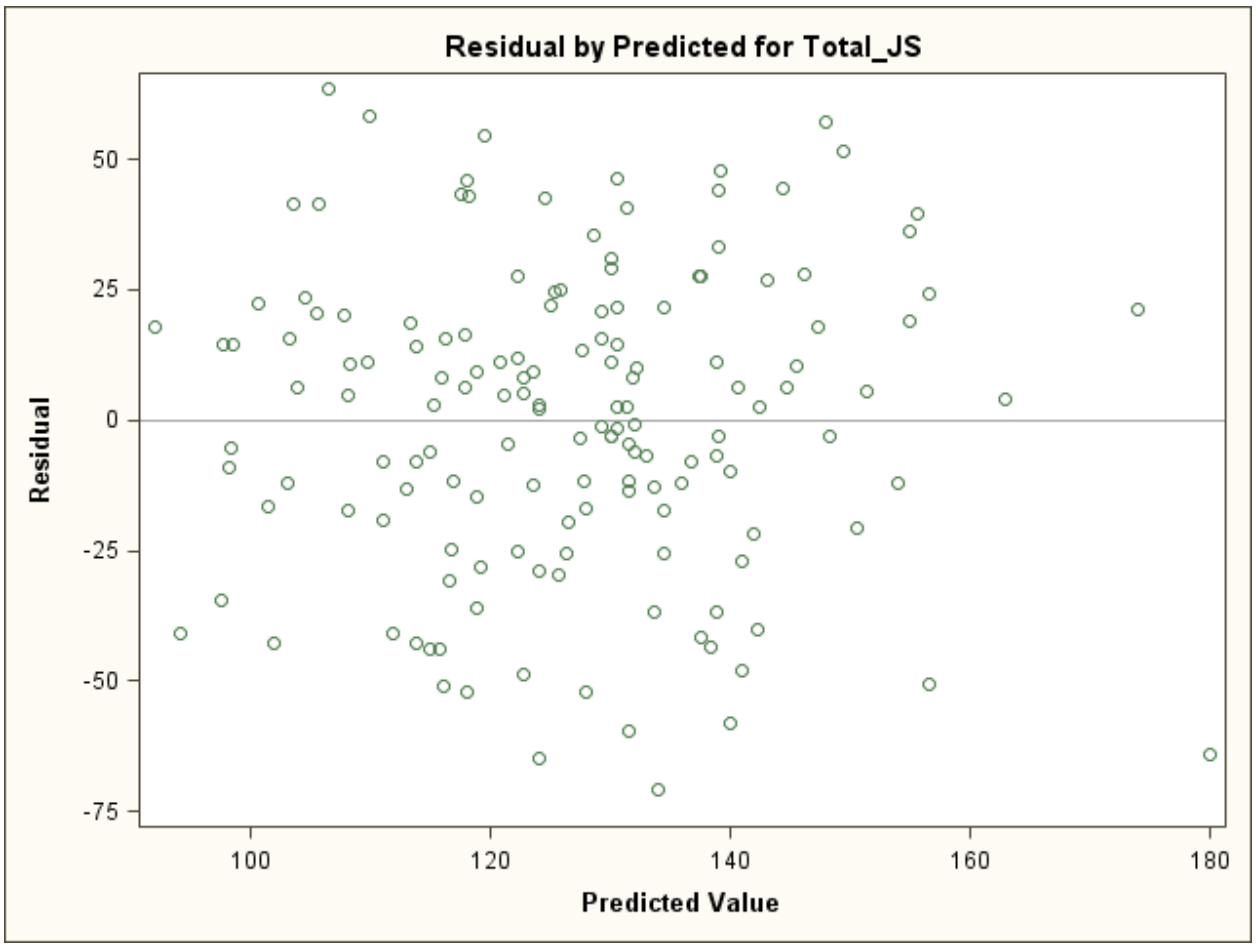
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for HOR_COL and Inter_SC



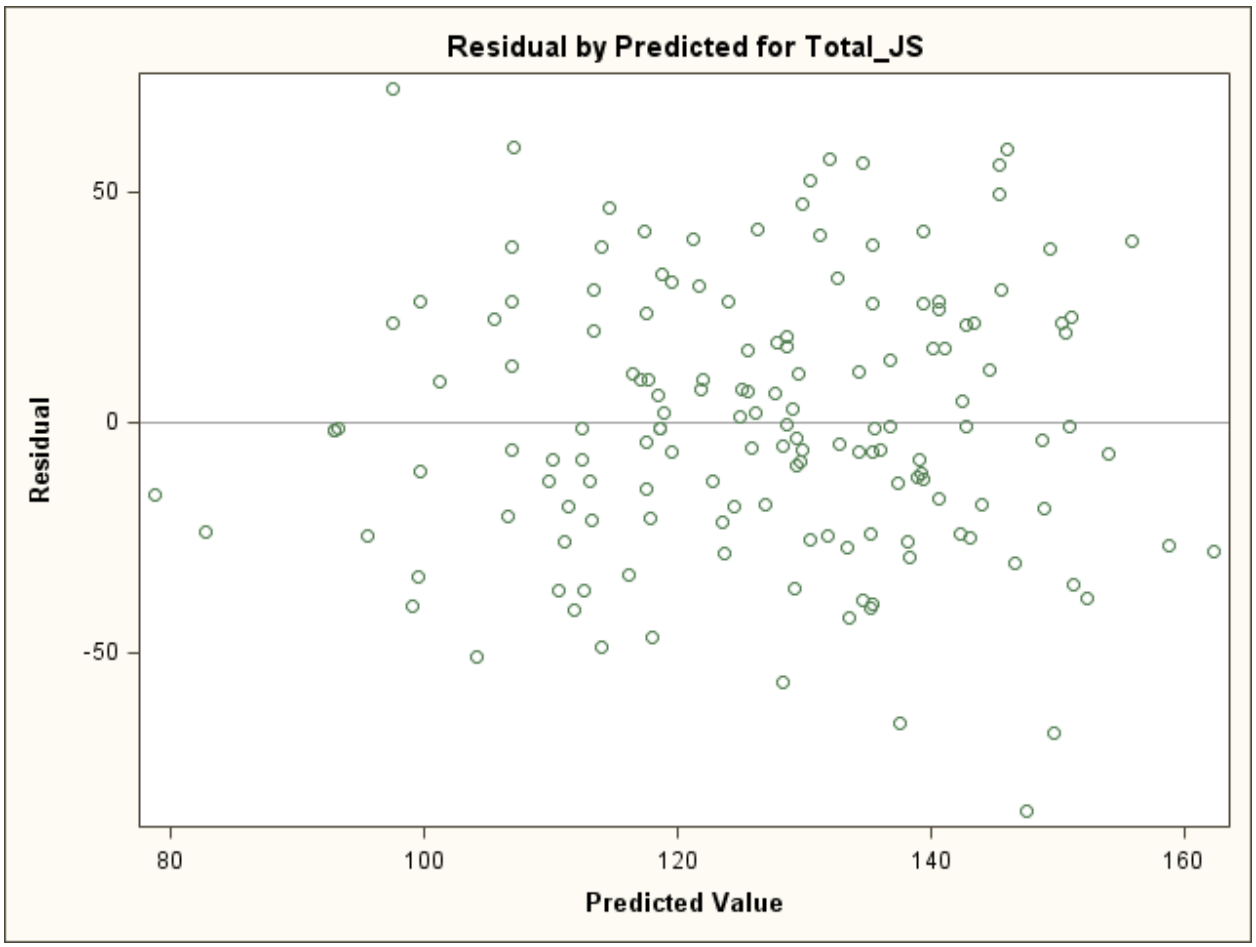
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for HOR_COL and Intra_SC



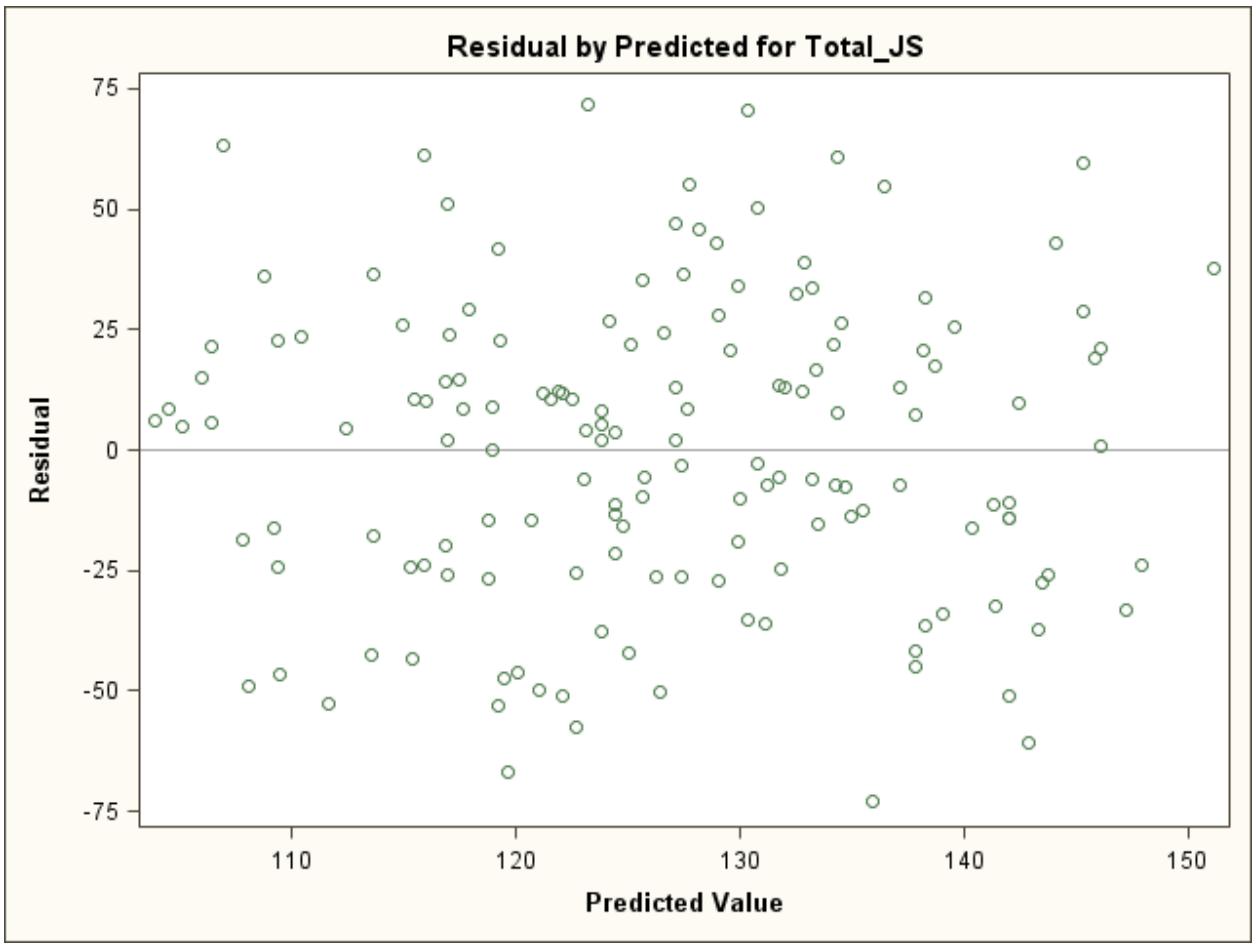
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for HOR_COL and Inter_RC



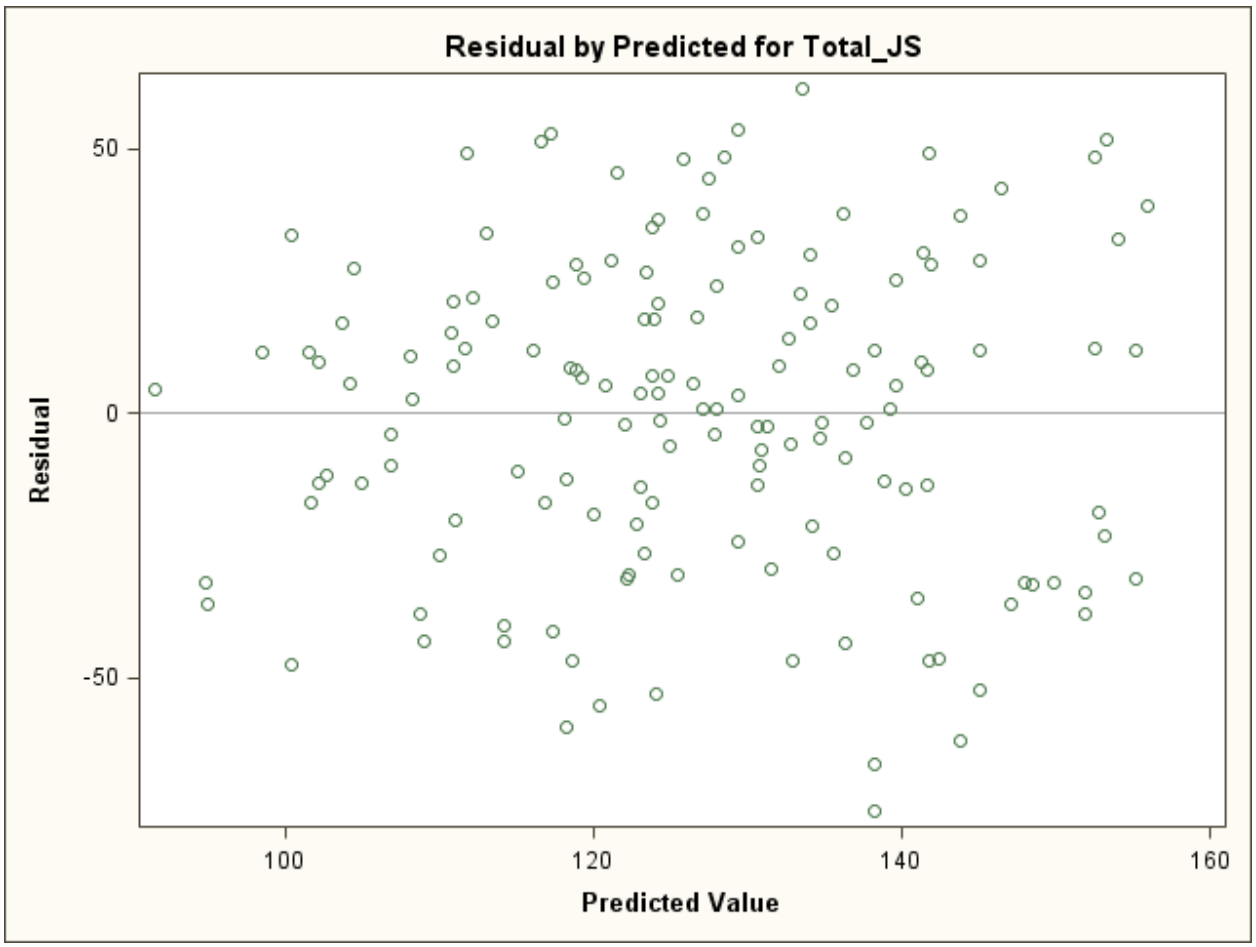
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_COL and Person_RC



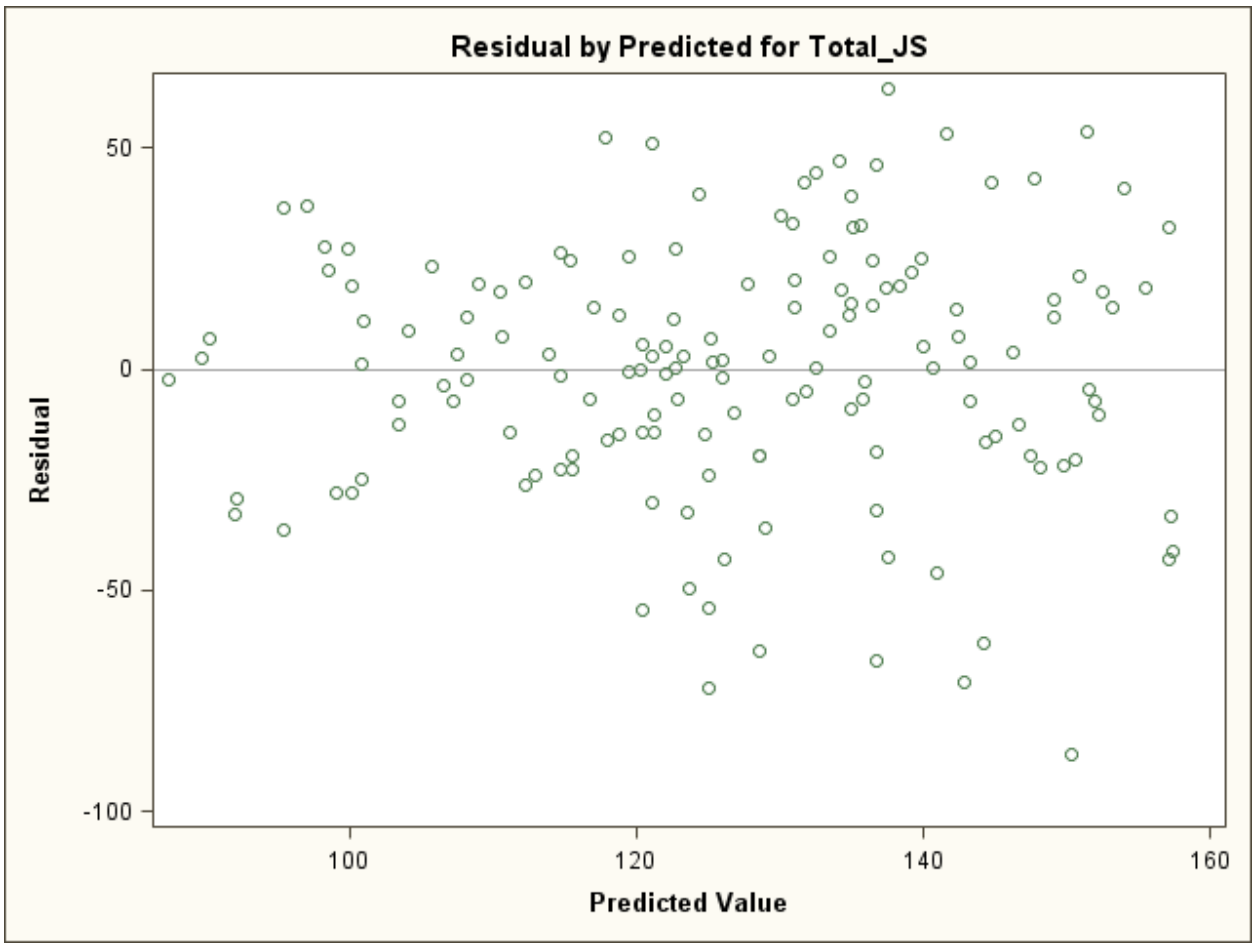
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_COL and Role_OL



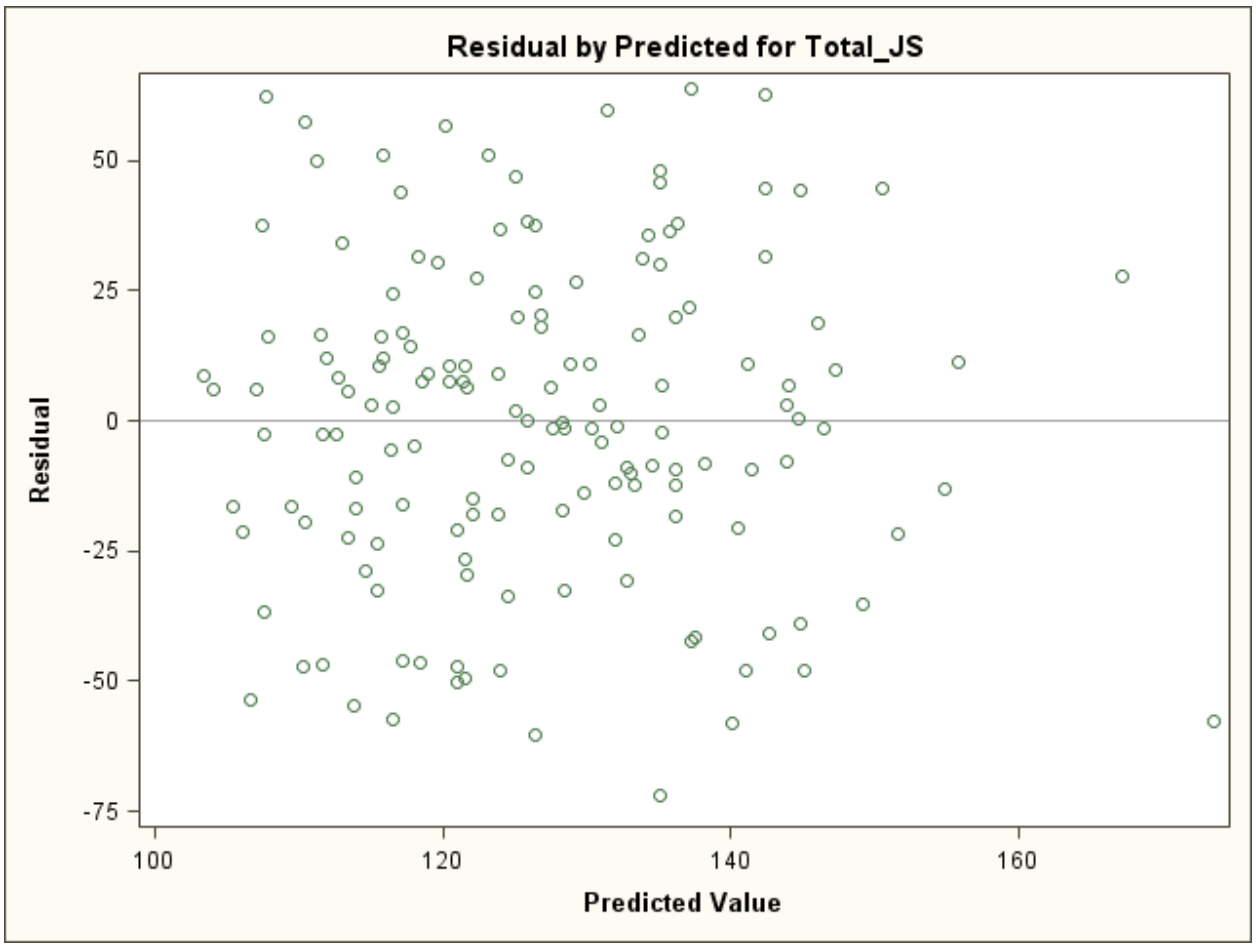
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_COL and Inter_SC



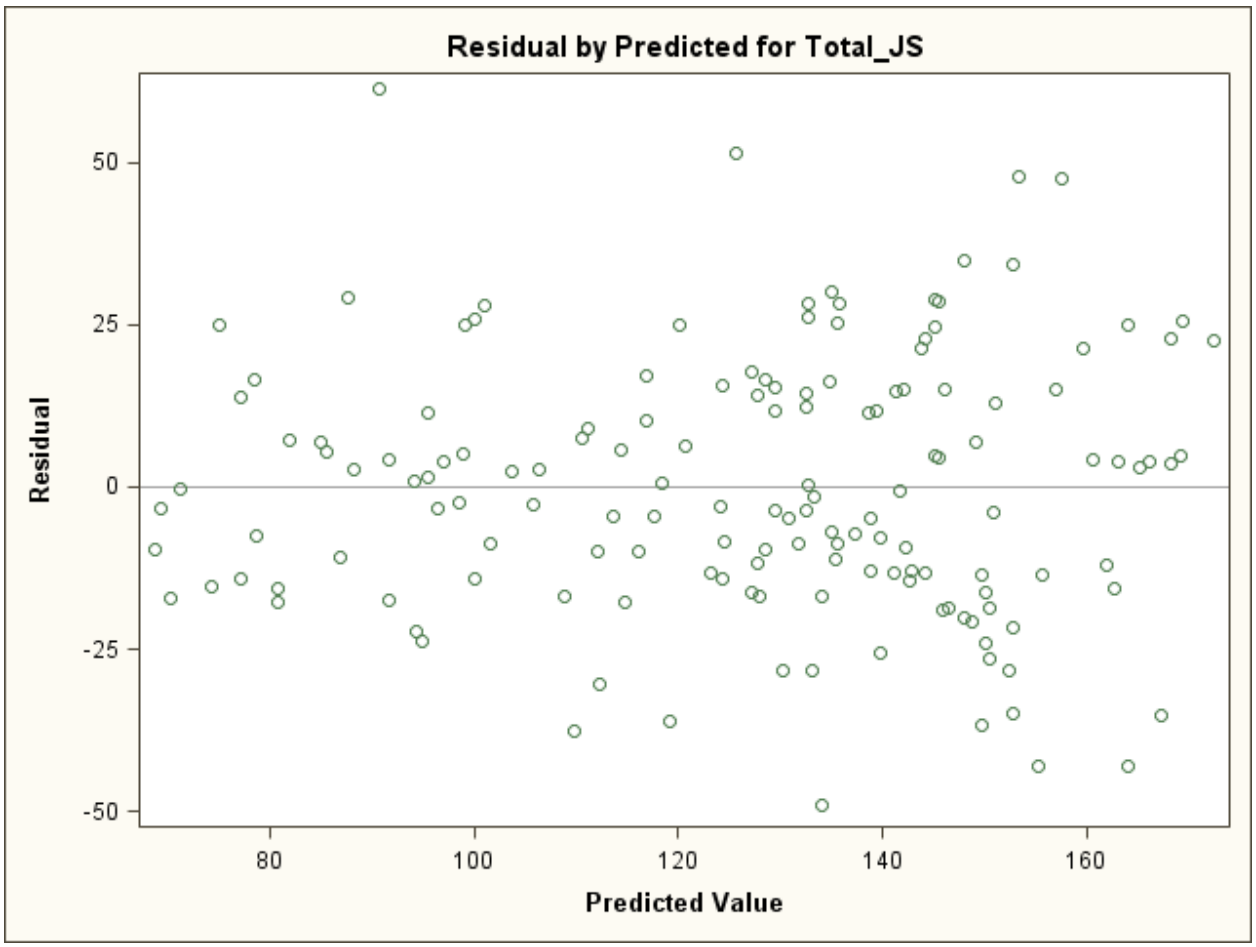
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_COL and Intra_SC



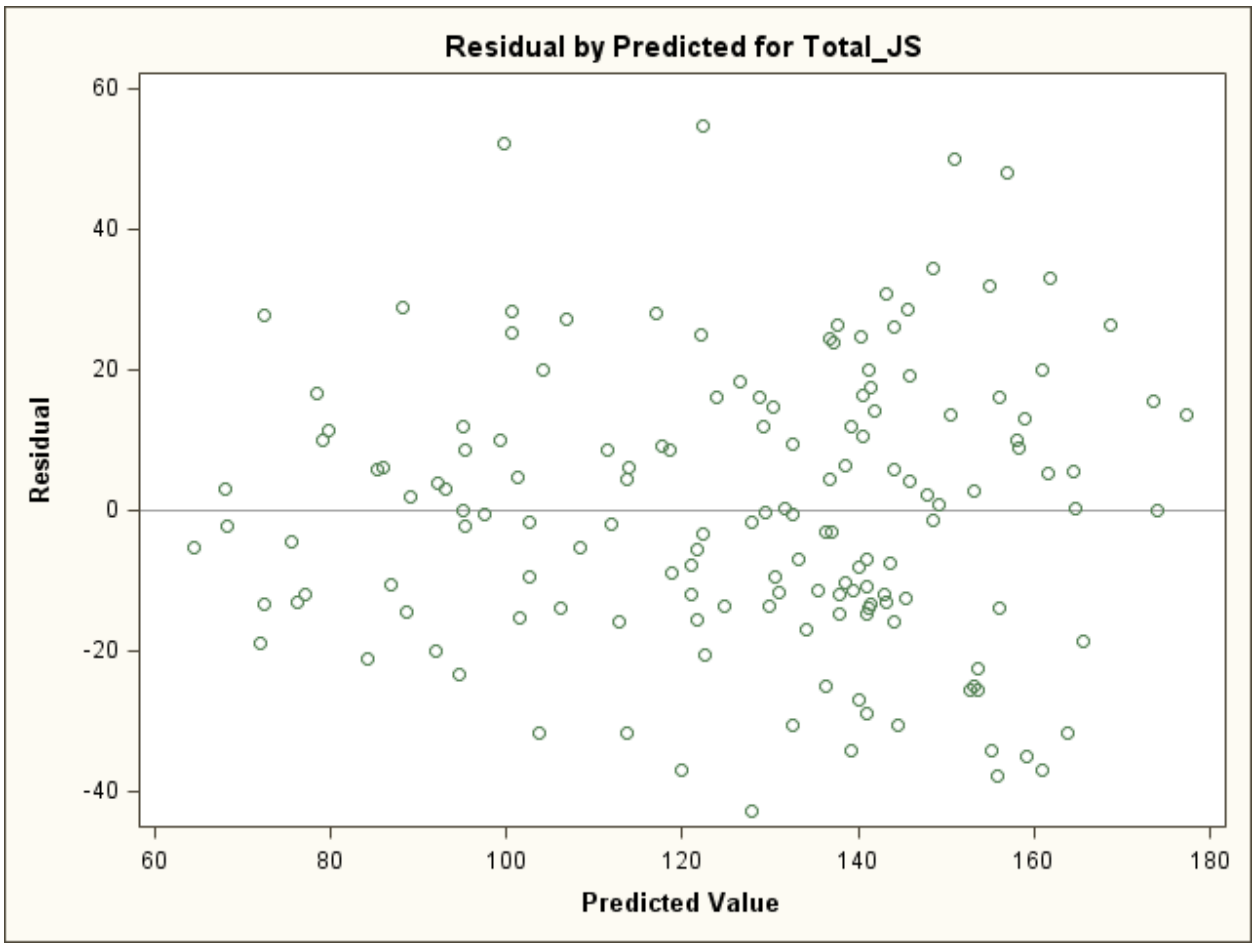
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for VER_COL and Inter_RC



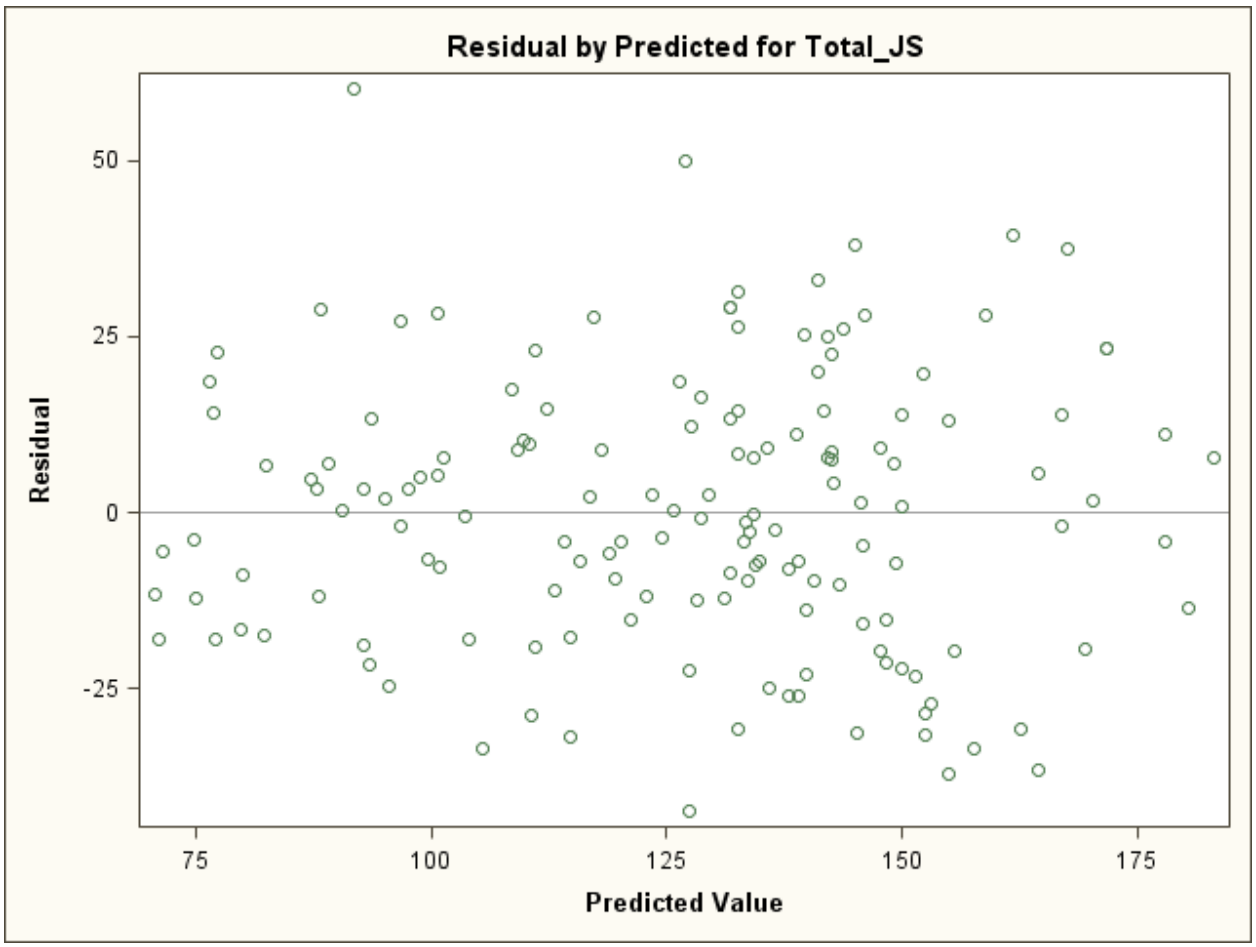
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for POS and Person_RC



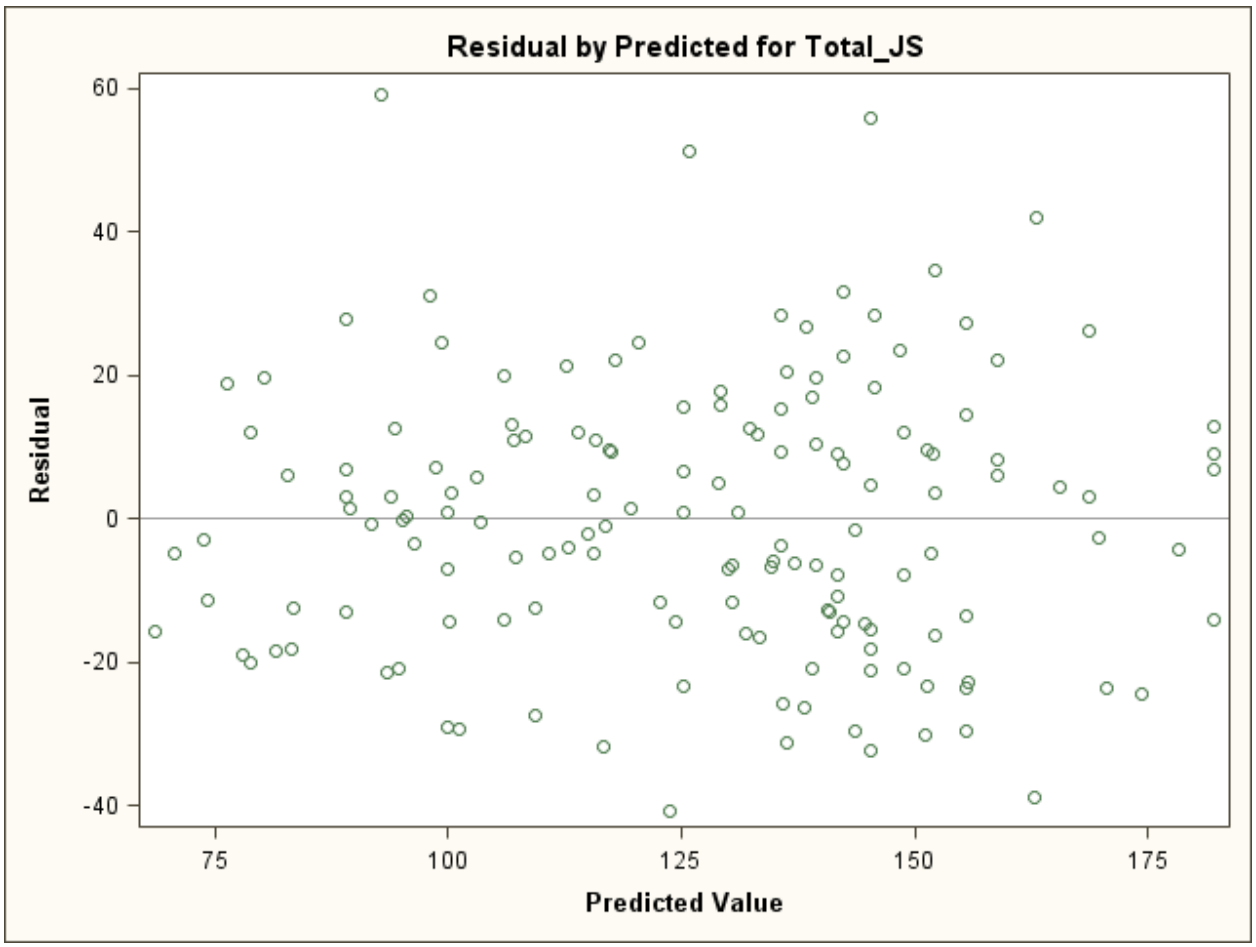
Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for POS and Role_OL



Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for POS and Inter_SC



Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for POS and Intra_SC



Standardized Residuals by Standardized Predicted Values Graph for POS and Inter_RC

