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Psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment among employees in Botswana.



"A research report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of MA by coursework and Research Report in the field of Organisational Psychology in the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 26 May 2017"

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Declaration

I declare that this research project is my own unaided work. All information taken from other sources has been rightfully acknowledged. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

_____

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate associations of employee psychological well-being, job satisfaction, psychological well-being and organisational commitment among public service employees in Botswana. The study was cross-sectional in nature. A total of 138 participants were recruited but only the responses of 129 participants were used in the final analysis after excluding the responses of 9 participants due to missing data. Of the 129 participants, there were 73 female participants and 55 male participants. The participants were recruited from Gaborone, Botswana and they voluntarily participated in the study. The instruments that were used to collect data were the General Health Questionnaire 12 (GHQ-12), the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale, and the Organisational Commitment Scale. Data were analysed using Pearson's Product-Moment correlation, simple regression and chi-square test of association. The results of the study showed that significant relationships were between psychological well-being and job satisfaction, and between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Additionally, psychological well-being significantly predicted job satisfaction but not organisational commitment. Directions for future studies could focus on investigating the intricate relationships between the variables to assess their impact on employee and organisational performance, and to guide the utilisation of wellness programmes in the workplace.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Botswana is one of the countries in Africa that have excelled in moving from being poor and under-developed to an upper middle class income country since gaining independence in 1966 (Hope & Edge, 1996). In 2005, it had an 8.4% annual growth rate of per capita income (Siphambe, 2007). The country has developed through a flourishing mining sector and agriculture; and attempts at diversifying the economy through other sectors such as manufacturing, tourism and construction (Siphambe, 2007). It has invested in providing free health care services and free education to its citizens (Hope & Edge, 1996). However, the cost of private medical care has continued to escalate (Gbadamosi, 2009). The health sector has not been without trouble due to the global HIV/AIDS epidemic; in 2008, the HIV incidence was 1.45% but has since dropped to 1.35% and in 2013 the HIV prevalence was estimated at 18.5% for the population that is 18 months old and above (National AIDS Coordinating Agency, 2015). This is slightly higher than the 2008 and 2003 prevalence rates which were 17.6% and 17.1%, respectively (National AIDS Coordinating Agency, 2015). Further, it is stated that "Botswana has also followed coherent policies since independence and has had democracy in the sense of having had election every five years that were assessed as free and fair even though there has been no change of government" (Siphambe, 2007, p. 1).

In employment, the public sector, that is the Botswana government, has been reported to be the largest employer, at 47.7% in September 2015 (Statistics Botswana, 2016). However, the current unemployment rate, standing at 17.8%, is one of the most burdensome economic and social situations which mostly affects the youth (World Bank, 2016b). Related to the formal sector employment in Botswana, "overall employment decreased by 0.2 per cent (892 persons) from 404, 461 persons in September 2014 to 403, 681 persons in September 2015" (Statistics Botswana, 2016, p. 2). Despite the country having a high unemployment rate, it has remained an upper middle class income country as per the classifications of the World Bank (World Bank, 2016a). This is a result of the reduction in poverty rates from 59% in 1985 to 19.3% in 2009, and poverty eradication initiatives targeted at unemployed citizens such as financial models of providing start up financing for entrepreneurship projects in manufacturing and other sectors (Government of Botswana, 2012).

The economic climate has an impact on the lives of Batswana in general, including their workplace and social environments. There are a number of social and workplace issues that have been reported to improve or hamper health and well-being among Batswana. Social issues include death and illness or injury of family members or friends, financial constraints, arguments with spouse or children, and child care problems (Gbadamosi, 2009). In the workplace, issues stated included unfair treatment, unrealistic supervisor expectations, boring work, isolations from co-workers, unsatisfactory pay, promotion uncertainties, and less control over one's own work (Agolla, 2008; Gbadamosi, 2009). There are also cross-cutting issues that can impact on the well-being of employees such as problems with balancing work and home responsibilities (Gbadamosi, 2009).

These economic, political, social and workplace issues can influence the well-being of employees directly through social pressures and workplace issues, and indirectly through policy development and resource allocation. The psychological well-being of employees, and how organisations directly focus on improving it, can be guided by these issues. Policies and approaches aimed at improving psychological well-being will be influenced by the stated issues and resources available within organisations (Zhang, Kandampully, & Choi, 2014). For example, the development of policies and programmes may take a democratic approach as per the country's political system; the cost of private medical care may impact on the employees' satisfaction with pay; personal social problems could affect one's level of productivity. Therefore, organisations find themselves carrying the burden from both external and internal factors that may affect employees.

1.2. Rationale for the study

Organisations play a significant role in reducing social and workplace issues experienced by employees through enhancing employees' well-being. This is commonly done through employee wellness programmes. They aim at improving workers' lifestyles "through a combination of efforts that enhance their awareness, change their behaviour, and develop supportive environments for positive health practices" (Zhang et al., 2014, p. 46). Most programmes follow any of the following in an attempt to motivate employees towards behaviour change: education, health coaching, physical health screenings and free medical care (Merrill, Aldana, Garrett, & Ross, 2011). Others tend to choose conventional wellness activities such as voluntary HIV/AIDS

testing, aerobics, diabetes and hypertension screening, and encouragement of healthy eating through provision of fruit to employees during wellness days. Nonetheless, organisations commonly develop wellness programmes based on pressure exerted on the developing team to appear effective, which can lead to a lack of proper planning of activities and consideration of employees' needs (Merrill et al., 2011).

Although these activities appear relevant, it is important to consider the criterion on which the choice of activities is based, their relevance and effectiveness, and evaluation of their contribution as wellness programmes have implication for employees and the organisation at large (Zhang et al., 2014). It is important to carry out this study as there is evidence among Botswana public service employees, of social and workplace issues that can affect employees' psychological well-being such as marital problems and unsatisfactory pay, which can eventually have an impact on employee work attitudes (Agolla, 2008; Gbadamosi, 2009).

In relation to psychological well-being, this study investigated two workplace attitudes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment which are associated with employee performance and productivity (Connolly & Myers, 2003). The investigation was directed at wellness programme coordinators to promote psychological well-being in a way that addresses job satisfaction and organisational commitment. From the findings of this study, organisations would be aware of whether or not psychological well-being is related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the Botswana context as the findings from other studies suggest (Connolly & Myers, 2003; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Siu, 2002). The findings are instrumental in guiding organisations in developing and upgrading wellness programs to address the psychological well-being of employees and for their employees to achieve optimal levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Additionally, relationships between these variables have not been investigated in the Botswana population at large and among Botswana public service employees. With previous studies having focused only on whether job satisfaction and organisational commitment predicted employee well-being, this study aimed at investigating the predictive effect of psychological well-being on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.3. Theoretical Framework

The Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) developed by Rene Dawis and Lloyd Lofquist (1984) guided the study. It is a person-environment theory that focuses on the interaction and fit between a person and their work environment (Brown & Lent, 2013). The TWA states that in order for an employee to adjust well into the workplace, the environment should be conducive for work. This theory has two models; the predictive model which focuses on individuals being satisfied with and satisfactory to their work environment. Its emphasis is on reciprocal interaction suggesting that workers need something from the work environment and vice versa (Patton & McMahon, 2014). Therefore, correspondence is achieved when the worker is both satisfied (with working environment) and satisfactory (to that environment). There are various factors that contribute to one being satisfied and satisfactory. Most relevant to the current study is the satisfaction that employees obtain from the correspondence between their personal values and reinforcers presented by the organisation. Values include autonomy, comfort, safety, status, achievement, and altruism, and these can be gratified through the various reward mechanisms that the organisation provides (Brown & Lent, 2013). As an example, an individual who strongly believes in having control over their work environment and freedom to initiate and direct will be satisfied in an autonomous environment. Additionally, for an employee to be perceived by the organisation as satisfactory his/her abilities (such as skills, experience and attitude) should correspond with the requirements of the role s/he plays in the organisation (Brown & Lent, 2013). The correspondence commonly influences employees to perform well on their jobs.

Secondly, the "process model focuses on how a fit between individuals and work environments is achieved and maintained" (Patton & McMahon, 2014, p. 47). Patton and McMahon (2014) suggest that there are reinforcers, which are factors that maintain or increase behaviour. They consist of "conditions in which the worker performs the job. Reinforcer factors can include employee benefits, rewards, and other facets of the job environment" (Harper & Shoffner, 2004, p. 276).

As per the predictive model of the TWA which emphasises reciprocity, workers may require good working conditions in order to be satisfied with their jobs and certain aspects of their jobs such as pay and supervision. The work environment also expects workers to be skilled, productive, committed and to perform excellently. Additionally, for employees values such as

comfort can be fully met by relevant workplace wellness programmes (reinforcer). The environment's contribution to employee well-being is reciprocated by employees' productivity and achievement of work targets. This productivity comes about as employees become and remain satisfied and committed to their jobs (Zhang et al., 2014). One of the strengths of the TWA is that it focuses beyond the congruence between an employee and his/her job; it looks into more meaningful relationships between an employee's needs and abilities, and his/her entire working environment, such as relationships and the job (Harper & Shoffner, 2004).

A study conducted by Eggerth and Flynn (2012) aimed at determining "if the TWA might meaningfully be used to describe the work experiences of Latina immigrant workers, a group living with severe constraints and having very limited employment opportunities" (p. 76). In this study, three theories, i.e., psychology of work (PW), Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and TWA, were utilised and their convergence suggests the relevance of the TWA in work experiences. The PW "conceptualises both career choice and the resulting work life as occurring within a complex network of influences [such as] interests,...personal and family obligations, financial means,...and government policies" (Eggerth & Flynn, 2012, p. 78). Maslow's theory presents human needs in a hierarchy and suggests that they motivate behaviour; the level of needs that an individual is at determines their behaviour aimed at satisfying the need (Eggerth & Flynn, 2012). The result "suggests that TWA reinforcers are descriptive of important aspects of how Latino immigrant workers conceptualize their jobs", suggesting applicability of the TWA for this population (Eggerth & Flynn, 2012, p. 77). The most prominent reinforcers highlighted were compensation and security, which are classified under the comfort work value dimension, suggesting that those who value comfort will be satisfied if they are content about the compensation they receive and job security (Eggerth & Flynn, 2012).

The results of the above-mentioned study may guide the applicability of the TWA in assessing motivation to stay at a job. Therefore, employees will draw motivation from certain reinforcers, suggesting that satisfaction and commitment will result from the organisation providing programmes that address all core values, including those values that are incorporated in psychological well-being such as a comfort. Through the use of the TWA values, organisations can also be able to tailor their programmes to address the specific needs and values highlighted

by its employees. The TWA is applicable in the African context as can be implied based on the results of the study presented.

The structure of this research report is as follows: Chapter 2 Literature review, Chapter 3 Methodology, Chapter 4 Results, Chapter 5 Discussion, and Chapter 6 Conclusion and Recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This section provides a conceptual background on the variables that underpin the current study: psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. It also highlights the important studies that have been conducted on these variables and presents the findings related to the study. It is worth noting that most of the studies were conducted in Europe, Asia and the United States of America, making their findings difficult to generalise to the Botswana context due to differences in culture, workplace situations, economic and social issues (Pfau, 1991).

2.2. Psychological Well-Being

"Psychological well-being is usually defined in terms of the overall effectiveness of an individual's psychological functioning...[and it] measures the hedonic or pleasantness dimension of individual feelings" (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000, p. 85). More clearly, it refers to the absence of distress, an experience of positive mental states, feelings, mood and affect (McDowell, 2006). This is a broad concept that encompasses thoughts, feelings and emotions associated with work and various other aspects of one's life. Some researchers report that psychological well-being is characterised by three dimensions; firstly, it is a phenomenological event, which means that it is a subjective experience (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). This suggests that even in similar situations under the same factors, each individual's psychological well-being may not be comparable to that of other individuals. Secondly, psychological well-being entails some emotional outcomes (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). People with higher levels of psychological well-being are more likely to experience positive emotions, such as happiness and trust, than negative ones such as anger and sadness. Lastly, it is a global evaluation of one's life as a whole as it is dependent upon a variety of factors from all facets of one's life (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Despite it not being the only contributing factor to the quality of employees' lives, psychological well-being has been reported to negatively correlate with depression, low self-esteem, hypertension, alcoholism, and drug use (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). In addition, it has been associated with occupational stress (Siu, 2002). It is, therefore, of relevance for researchers to be concerned about the psychological well-being of employees as they contribute greatly to productivity within organisations.

2.3. Psychological Well-Being and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is "an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs…as well as about various aspects of them" (Spector, 2003 as cited by Mogotsi, Boon & Fletcher, 2011, p. 44). It has also been defined as "the feelings a worker has about his or her work experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives" (Balzer et al., 1997 as cited by McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010, p. 425). A study conducted by Connolly and Myers (2003) aimed to determine the variance in job satisfaction that could be explained by holistic wellness and mattering. It was undertaken under the cross-sectional study design on eighty-two respondents in the U.S. Initially, one hundred and thirty questionnaire packages were distributed to organisations through their human resources departments. Only eighty-three were filled in, with one not included in the analysis due to missing data, resulting in a 64% response rate (Connolly & Myers, 2003). No details were provided by the authors regarding research ethics such as voluntary participation and confidentiality; however, they refer to volunteer participants, which may suggest that participants knowingly volunteered. 55% of the sample were women while the rest (45%) were men. 82% (n=67) of the respondents reported their ethnic/cultural background as Caucasian, and the remaining 18% were ethnic minorities, primarily African American (10%) (Connolly & Myers, 2003). The ages of the respondents ranged from twenty-one to sixty-two years (mean=38.2, SD=10.33) (Connolly & Myers, 2003). The sample consisted of employees in different types of jobs including "customer service representative (27%); manufacturing machine operator (21%); accountant and city employees (such as planners and inspectors) (10% each); and miscellaneous positions, such as clerical, sales, truck drivers, and social workers (32%)" (Connolly & Myers, 2003, p. 154). In operationalising the variables under study, Connolly and Myers (2003) used the Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle (Myers, Sweeney, & Witmer, 2000 as cited in Connolly & Myers, 2003) to measure wellness, and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to measure job satisfaction (Connolly & Myers, 2003). The Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle (WEL) measures individual functioning on five life tasks as per Adler's theory of individual psychology, which include spirituality, friendship, work, love, and leisure (Connolly & Myers, 2003). It has one hundred and five statements responded to on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Despite measuring five dimensions, only one sample item was provided, 'I am an active person', and it was not specified which dimension it belongs to. This poses a challenge

regarding knowledge about whether the measure accurately represents the concept of wellness; more sample items would have assured the researcher of face validity (Babbie, 2013). For the presented study, only the total score achieved from summing up responses on all statements was used to obtain a holistic wellness score. Having been normed in over 3500 people at different developmental stages, the WEL boasts test-retest reliabilities between 0.90 and 0.96 on all scales, and internal consistency reliabilities between 0.60 and 0.90 (Connolly & Myers, 2003). For the JDI, there are five scales that measure common facets of job satisfaction which include satisfaction with work on present job, pay, supervision, promotion opportunities and co-workers (McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010). The JDI also consists of the Job-In-General scale as a global measure of job satisfaction (Connolly & Myers, 2003). The reliability coefficient for the JDI was reported as 0.92, and "convergent validity has been demonstrated by correlations with other global measures of job satisfaction such as the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) Index of Job Satisfaction. These correlations ranged from 0.66 to 0.80" (Balzer et al., 1997 as cited by Connolly & Myers, 2003, p. 155). It can be concluded that the instruments used were satisfactory and excellent in measuring wellness and job satisfaction, respectively.

The findings showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and well-being, with a medium effect ($r=0.37$, $p<0.01$), and wellness was found to be the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, $ß=0.24$, $t(2, 81) = 2.09$, $p= 0.03$. This is an interesting finding that highlights that workplace variables such as job satisfaction are not only influenced by factors within the workplace, such as the clarity of one's task, but also by factors resulting from personal factors, such as well-being resulting from personal relationships (Karsh, Booske, & Sainfort, 2005). Connolly and Myers (2003) reported that job satisfaction has been associated with better physical and psycho-somatic health of employees. They also reported research suggesting the importance of optimising job satisfaction so as to improve employee psychological health and overall wellness. With the sample having been made up of employees from different types of jobs and industries, the results could enlighten on the importance of employees being physically and psychologically well regardless of the work they do or their level within an organisation. This can be concluded as such due to the sample having been populated by various job types in a rather balanced manner, that is, there was an almost equal distribution of job types within the sample.

Another similar study was conducted on the relationship between psychological well-being and job satisfaction in the U.S., which "analyzed data from the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce" (Thompson & Prottas, 2005, p. 100). The national cross-sectional study investigated 3,504 paid employees aged eighteen years and older. However, for this study only 2,810 wage and salaried employees were included in the sample, excluding employees who are self-employed. No details were provided by the authors regarding research ethics such as voluntary participation and confidentiality. A US$25 cash incentive was used to influence participation, which may have led to increased participation. Of the investigated sample, 51% were females, 64% were either married or living in a similar arrangement, 72% were responsible for the care of children, the elderly or a disabled dependent, and 9% were single parents (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Majority of the participants were employed in non-managerial or non-professional positions (59%), and 19% were in manufacturing.

In order to collect data on stress and well-being, nine items were used. The sample items and their response formats include "'In the last month, how often have you felt nervous and stressed?'... (rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1= never to 5 = very often, 'How stressful has your personal and family life been in recent months? (rated on 5-point scale that ranged from1 = extremely stress to 2 = not stressful at all), and… "During the past month, have you been bothered by feeling down, depressed, or hopeless? ... were rated 1 = Yes and 2 = No" (Thompson & Prottas, 2005, p. 105). The total score was achieved by averaging the scores on the items. The self-made instrument had an excellent reliability coefficient of 0.82 (Thompson & Prottas, 2005; Field 2009). Job satisfaction was measured by the use of three items which were also self-developed, e.g., 'All in all, how satisfied are you with your job', measured on a 4-point scale from 1= very satisfied to 4 = not satisfied at all (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). The average was used as the score for job satisfaction and the items proved to be reliable with a coefficient alpha of 0.71 (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). In collecting data from the participants, telephone interviews were undertaken (Thompson & Prottas, 2005).

The results suggest that as stress and well-being increase, job satisfaction decreases, $r = -0.31$, $p<0.01$, with the relationship being of medium effect (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). This finding is due to the measuring of stress rather than a rating of well-being as a positive attribute. The result, therefore, suggests that an experience of well-being would be associated with an increase

in job satisfaction. As much as the results of the study support the previously reported study conducted by Connolly and Myers (2003), the sample was much narrower as it excluded high level jobs. This suggests the importance of well-being for employees across various levels. Finally, due to the sample size of this study, the results can be interpreted and findings concluded with confidence.

In addition to the previous studies that indicate that job satisfaction relates with the well-being of employees, another study conducted by Ho (1997) addressed the relationship between corporate wellness programmes and job satisfaction in a sample of 188 workers aged between twenty-five and thirty-four years. This cross-sectional study was conducted on six organisations: three with and three without wellness programmes (Ho, 1997). Organisations participated voluntarily; however, the researchers may have failed to justify confidentiality as they reported that the organisations that did not participate stated grounds of confidentiality. The study was conducted on a sample of white-collar participants from Singapore organisations. For data collection, a questionnaire containing eleven items on employee satisfaction, stress and absenteeism was used. Interval scales were used to measure participants' level of employee satisfaction and stress, while for absenteeism the participants had to record the number of days they were absent from work due to illness in the past twelve months (Ho, 1997). For this questionnaire, no psychometric properties were reported.

The results showed a significant difference in overall job satisfaction between employees in organisations with and without wellness programmes: $t(186) = 4.06$, $p = 0.00$ (Ho, 1997). In addition, overall job satisfaction was higher among employees from organisations with wellness programmes ($M = 3.7474$, $SD = 0.684$) than those from organisations without wellness programmes ($M = 3.3011$, $SD = 0.818$). "Employees in organisations with wellness programmes express a higher level of job satisfaction than those without wellness programmes, thus implying wellness programmes may well have a positive impact on employees' job satisfaction" (Ho, 1997, p. 186). With coping strategies for work stressors having been found to be helpful in maintaining employee wellbeing, wellness programmes may be beneficial as a result of the coping strategies included, such as employees training programs and exercising (Agolla, 2008). Employee training programs may include training of employees who can provide psycho-social support as and when needed (Agolla, 2008). This indicates that efforts by employees and

organisations to improve well-being have positive outcomes and wellness programmes contribute to enhanced job satisfaction. The results also showed a significant negative relationship between employee satisfaction and stress ($r = -0.251$, $p<0.01$), with a small effect. The results suggest that wellness programmes do have a contributing factor towards employee well-being. Therefore, wellness programmes may contribute positively to employee job satisfaction. However, Parks and Steelman (2008) reported that this positive contribution can be expected when employees participate in those wellness programmes, not just their existence within an organisation. As expected, enhancing job satisfaction will reduce an experience of stress, which suggests that corporate wellness programmes may also be related to employee well-being through improved job satisfaction (Ho, 1997). Although this study was conducted years ago, it shed light towards a specific relationship of interest to the current study, hence its inclusion. It paves way for research in this field and to will help highlight any developments through comparison with the results of the current study.

This study differed from the previously reported one by Connolly and Myers (2003) as the sample was made of non-professional workers while this study by Ho (1997) focused on white-collar employees. However, the relationships among the various variables show that employee well-being, as a result of workplace wellness programmes, may be associated with job satisfaction.

With regards to well-being and job satisfaction, a positive relationship has been found on a number of studies. The results were similar across different racial populations, job types, ages and organisations (Thompson & Prottas, 2005; Connolly & Myers, 2003; Ho, 1997). Although the strength of the relationship differed from one study to the other, it can be concluded that there is a substantial relationship between the two variables across different populations. This is inclusive of psychological well-being as it forms a reasonable part of overall well-being.

2.4. Psychological Well-Being and Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is one of the most investigated organisational variables; it has been associated with job satisfaction and employee health and well-being (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). It has been defined as an employee's willingness to exert effort towards an organisation, a strong desire to remain part of the organisation and feelings of

obligation to do so (Field & Buitendach, 2011). According to Meyer et al. (2002), commitment has three components: affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC). These components have been defined as follows; AC "reflects an emotional attachment and desire to remain with the organisation", CC "reflects an awareness of the costs associated with leaving" and NC "is experienced as a sense of the obligation to remain" with the organisation (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012, p. 1). Organisational commitment is, therefore, a psychological state that characterises the relationship between an employee and the organisation s/he works for, and has implications regarding the employee's decision to stay within the organisation or leave (Jaros, 2007). Some studies have shown an association between psychological well-being and organisational commitment (Field & Buitendach, 2011; Siu, 2002).

Field and Buitendach's (2011) study aimed "to determine the relationship between happiness, work engagement and organisational commitment and to determine whether happiness and work engagement hold predictive value for the organisational commitment of support staff" (p. 1). The cross-sectional survey design study was used on a sample of 123 support staff members from the University of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. They were aged twenty-four years and younger (14.6%), 25 to 35 years (35.0%), 36 to 45 years (22.0%), 46 to 55 years (22.0%), and 56 years and older (6.5%) (Field & Buitendach, 2011). The sample was selected using non - probability convenience sampling method. Although no information was provided regarding research ethics such as confidentiality, the researchers highlighted that the study was approved as it fulfilled ethical requirements. In this study, they emphasise the subjectivity of well-being and the variable was operationalised through employees' self-perceptions. The Well-Being Questionnaire (WBQ) was used to operationalise psychological well-being by measuring energy, depression, anxiety, and positive well-being on a 5-point Likert type scale (Field & Buitendach, 2011). Sample items provided include 'what I do matters to society'. Having been validated in various samples across countries, the WBQ has been reported to have excellent reliability coefficients between 0.92 and 0.95 (Field & Buitendach, 2011; Field, 2009). The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was also utilised to measure the three facets of organisational commitment previously defined. The items were measured on a 7-point scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. The reliability coefficients for the OCQ as a whole were good, ranging between 0.79 and 0.87 for South African populations. One of the sample items provided include 'I would be very

happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation' (Field & Buitendach, 2011). The number of items on each instrument was not stated.

The results showed that affective organisational commitment related with well-being ($r = 0.33$, $p \leq 0.01$) with a medium effect; and that subjective well-being can predict affective organisational commitment ($ß = 0.167$, $p \leq 0.05$). Firstly, the results suggest that well-being is significantly associated with employees' emotional attachment and desire to stay within the organisation. Field and Buitendach (2011) did not consider continuance commitment and normative commitment separately because an exploratory factor analysis they conducted on the data showed that a 1-factor model was most suitable. The factor analysis showed that the NC and CC items loaded on AC; they further explain that this was expected as past research has emphasised the tendency for these dimensions to overlap (Field & Buitendach, 2011). In conclusion, employees who perceive themselves as healthy or well will feel more emotionally attached to their organisations. The association is supported as employees faced with stress emanating from the workplace, such as role conflict and ambiguity in one's work role, will feel less inclined to committing to their organisation due do the discomfort of working in an environment posing such challenges (Gatchel & Schultz, 2012). It is worth noting that the results of this study should be interpreted with caution as the sample was small and came from a single institution. There may be homogenous factors among employees that may have influenced the results.

Another study supporting the results found by Field and Buitendach (2011) is a cross-sectional study by Siu (2002). The sample was made up of 158 white-collar participants from Hong Kong (mean age = 33 years, SD = 12.96), 138 blue-collar workers from Hong Kong (mean age = 33 years, SD = 14.47) and 372 blue-collar workers from China (mean age = 25.5 years, SD = 12.24) (Siu, 2002). The white-collar sample consisted of participants from the property management field, computer professionals and a commercial bank, and blue-collar workers were from the manufacturing sector. For the study presented, no details were provided by the authors regarding research ethics such as voluntary participation. The instrument that was used to measure well-being was the Occupational Stress Indicator-2 (OSI-2), which measured stress, physical well-being, mental well-being and job satisfaction (Siu, 2002). Similar to the previously reported study by Field and Buitendach (2011), organisational commitment was operationalised through the use of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). Both the OSI-2 and the OCQ

have been reported to have demonstrated reliability and validity among Western and Chinese societies (Siu, 2002).

For the Hong-Kong white-collar sample, the results of this study suggested a positive and significant relationship between organisational commitment and physical well-being ($r=0.52$, $p<0.01$) with a medium effect. Additionally, a positive and significant relationship between organisational commitment and mental well-being ($r=0.35$, $p<0.01$) was found (Siu, 2002). For Hong Kong blue-collar workers there were no significant relationships between the variables but these were reported for Chinese blue-collar workers: significant positive relationships between organisational commitment and physical well-being ($r=0.17$, $p<0.01$) with a small effect, and between organisational commitment and mental well-being ($r=0.30$, $p<0.01$) with a medium effect (Siu, 2002). These results suggest that highly committed workers report both physical and mental well-being. The inconsistency in significant relationships among blue-collar workers in Hong Kong and China may result from other factors not considered under the study. It is unknown whether those factors may be associated with the decline in the manufacturing sector resulting from organisations relocating from Hong Kong to China (Siu, 2002). If this is accurate, it could suggest that there were challenges with operating in Hong Kong. Moreover, it is worth noting that these blue-collar workers had around the same experience of physical well-being, mental well-being and organisational commitment as the other samples; they even reported experiencing less occupational stressors (mean = 59.08) than Hong-Kong white collar workers (mean = 65.80) (Siu, 2002).

2.5. Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

As a workplace variable, job satisfaction is commonly investigated alongside other workplace attitudes, including organisational commitment. A number of studies have reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for various professions and employment groups. An example is a study conducted by Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989), which was aimed at investigating the relationship between performance and affective commitment, continuance commitment, and job satisfaction among "first-level managers in a large food service company" (p. 152). The participants of this study were unit (first-level) managers and their district managers. The data collection materials were sent through to twenty-seven district managers for distribution to unit managers throughout Canada.

The materials included for the variables of interest were work attitude inventories comprising "a personal data sheet and measures of verbal and numeric aptitude, personality, vocational interest, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction" (Meyer et al., 1989, p. 153). Two to six unit managers were selected per district, making a total of 114 (Meyer et al., 1989). Participants were assured of confidentiality and voluntary participation. 65 unit managers (57%) returned the work attitude inventory. The participants had an average age of 36.7 years, 6.3 years average tenure with the company, 4.1 years average tenure in the unit manager position. 63% were married and 65% had at least 12th grade education. A majority of the sample (55%) were men (Meyer et al., 1989). In measuring the variables, organisational commitment was operationalised through the use of the eight-item Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment scales by Meyer and Allen (Meyer et al., 1989). The responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from agree to disagree, with the total score obtained by averaging item scores. The internal consistency estimated for the Affective Commitment Scale ranged from 0.84 to 0.88, and from 0.70 to 0.84 for the Continuance Commitment Scale. Job satisfaction was measured using the Index of Organisational Reactions with 42 items and 8 subscales "assessing satisfaction with supervision, company identification, kind of work, amount of work, co-workers, physical working conditions, financial rewards, and career future" (Meyer et al., 1989, p. 153). However, the company identification scale was excluded from the analysis due to its overlap with affective commitment. Although this instrument is comprehensive in measuring a variety of sub-constructs that constitute job satisfaction, its psychometric properties were not reported.

The results of the study showed significant positive relationships between job satisfaction and continuance commitment ($r=0.53$, $p<0.01$), and job satisfaction and affective commitment ($r=0.30$, $p<0.01$), both with medium effects (Meyer et al., 1989). This suggests that when employees are satisfied with supervision, type and amount of work, co-workers, physical working conditions, pay, and future of their careers, there is a moderate possibility that they would feel emotionally attached to their organisations. They will also be aware of the costs associated with leaving. As a result they will feel the need to stay within the organisation. However, due to the small sample size of unit managers, the unjustified psychometric rigour and the fact that the study is out-dated, these results should be interpreted with caution.

On the other hand, a more recent study was conducted by Karsh et al. (2005) on job and organisational determinants of nursing home employee commitment, job satisfaction and intent to turnover. 108 nursing homes were invited to participate in the study and 76 agreed, suggesting that participants volunteered to take part; out of 15 013 questionnaire packets sent through, 6584 were returned usable (44% response rate) (Karsh et al., 2005). The characteristics of the sample were as follows: 89.7% females, 90% white, 37.5 mean hours worked per week (SD = 11.5), mean tenure of 8 years (SD = 7.6), 708 participants under 25 years of age (10.8%), 1191 participants between 25 and 34 years (18.1%), 1794 participants between 35 and 44 years (27.2%), and 2853 participants were 45 years and older (43.3%) (Karsh et al., 2005). The majority of the sample (3604) had an education level between high school and some college (54.7%). The sample was also made up of certified nursing assistants, registered nurses/licensed practical nurses, other care staff and non-care staff. Karsh et al. (2005) used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire which measures intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and total job satisfaction. Although the measure was not specifically defined, the researchers provided some sample items for intrinsic satisfaction as "'being able to keep busy', 'the chance to work alone', 'chance to use my abilities'", and for extrinsic satisfaction as "'the way my boss handles his/her workers', 'competence of my supervisor'" (Karsh et al., 2005, p. 1265). For organisational commitment, modified versions of the 1980 organisational identification and organisational involvement measures by Cook and Wall were used; these measure affective organisational commitment (Karsh et al., 2005). For both instruments, reliability coefficients were not reported.

From their analysis, they found a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction ($r=0.59$, $p<0.05$), and between organisational commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction ($r=0.60$, $p<0.05$), both with a large effect (Karsh et al., 2005). These results show an even stronger relationship between the two variables than those of the study reported previously, which was conducted at an earlier time. There could be a myriad of reasons such as the meaning of satisfaction and commitment to different professionals and population groups, and the development of workplaces and workplace variables with time. Age and education level may also have a great contribution to the relationship between the variables, with older participants and higher qualifications strengthening the relationship as evidenced in the study presented when compared to the earlier study. This can be explained by Taormina

(1999), who found that the higher the participant's education, the more satisfied they were with pay and work. However, Taormina (1999) found no significant relationship between age and both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In conclusion, the literature reviewed in this section provides insight into the relationships between the variables under the current study. However, it is vital to take into account that most of these studies were conducted on populations outside Botswana and Africa, the measures used in the studies were normed for those populations, some studies may be out-dated and there may be changes due to the emergence of other factors in the workplace setting such as advanced technology, work-life balance and decentralisation (Morris, & Madsen, 2007). However, these studies have been selected for their specificity in addressing the relationships between the variables. It is also interesting that relationships were found in diverse population groups, which gives confidence in the possible results of the current study. The presented studies relate to the current study as they investigated variables among populations of employees and their results may be relevant to the current study. It is at this juncture that literature specific to the Botswana context will be outlined.

2.6. The Botswana Context

It is important to provide some relevant research findings about the Botswana context in which the current study was carried out. Most studies conducted in Botswana do not directly address the variables under study and their relationships with each other. However, the studies still provide an opportunity to understand workplaces and workplace issues in Botswana, and to be aware of the differences that may present as a result of the type of industry/sector and profession in which a study is carried out.

Pfau (1991) conducted a study aimed at providing information regarding workplace characteristics and values of Botswana public service employees. The study was conducted on a non-random sample of 158 Batswana government employees who attended a variety of courses at the Institute of Development Management (IDM) Botswana between 1985 and 1989. About half were males, and most of the sample was aged between 25 and 49 years (Pfau, 1991). Also, 47% had between 11 and 14 years of formal education, while 27% had 10 years or less. They worked in "offices doing either (a) non-managerial work for which no higher-level professional

training is normally required (31%), (b) first line management (28%), or (c) management of at least one other person (25%)" (Pfau, 1991, p.1).

The results of this study suggest Botswana public service employees' general perceptions of an ideal job included employment security, patriotism through serving the country, good working relationships with supervisors and other superiors, and having clearly defined requirements and expectations for one's job (Pfau, 1991). Where there is job insecurity, conflict commonly erupts (Moeti-Lysson, Sokro, Courvisanos, & Shao, 2015). This is evidenced in temporary workers who are engaged by an organisation for a specified amount of time for a job without continuity. The resulting conflict leads to strained working relationships with superiors (Moeti-Lysson et al., 2015). However, good working relations with supervisors and supervisor support are vital as they are known to contribute towards effective productivity among the public sector (Forcheh, & Fako, 2007). Therefore, job security is perceived to be of paramount importance in contributing towards good working relationships for both public and private sector employees (Pfau, 1991; Moeti-Lysson et al., 2015).

Moreover, in terms of decision making and management, Batswana preferred managers who made consultations with subordinates before making a decision, or those who considered the majority's decision as the final outcome (Pfau, 1991). Batswana employees also preferred group decisions and management consultations; this is characteristic of an efficient government institution (Hope, 2003). In addition, the findings suggest that Batswana employees are collectivistic as they favour "tightly knit social framework in which individuals can expect their relatives, clan, or other group to look after them, in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Pfau, 1991, p. 7). Both of these are supported as nurses employed within the public service reported that they prefer involvement in policy making (Forcheh, & Fako, 2007).

This is related to Batswana's value of harmony and agreement that good personal relations at work are more important than high income. "Most organisations would be better off if conflict could be eliminated forever", and "conflicts with our opponents are best resolved by both parties compromising a bit" (Pfau, 1991, p. 7). However, 54% of Batswana did not agree with the statement that 'competition between employees usually does more harm than good' and 51% did not agree that 'most people can be trusted'. With Batswana being collectivistic and valuing amicable interpersonal relationships, it is almost a surprise that they also believe competition is

good and that some people cannot be trusted. In addition, Botswana was found to have a large power distance. Power distance refers to "the extent to which the members of a society accept that power in organisations is distributed unequally. People in large power distance societies accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has his or her place which needs no further justification" (Pfau, 1991, p. 6). In such societies, people in positions of authority view themselves differently as they believe that authority is ascribed rather than achieved (O'Rourke & Tujela, 2009). Batswana participants were concluded to be a large power distance society as they reported occasionally and frequently being afraid to express disagreement. They do so as a response to the behaviour of those in authority as power distance in this regard is a result of a bi-directional relationship between those in authority and the ones without power (O'Rourke & Tujela, 2009). Therefore, this result is relevant considering their need to maintain peace and harmony as they value friendly relations. Interestingly, more recently Botswana public service employees have been perceived as lazy and indifferent (Hope, 2003). This may be a redirection of negative feelings towards their jobs as they cannot express directly towards those in authority due to their need to maintain their jobs. They are then pressured to consciously or subconsciously behave negatively towards their work, leading to them being perceived as lazy.

The results of the abovementioned study by Pfau (1991) show that Botswana employees were very much patriotic in serving their country without immensely valuing pay but because of their need for job security. Also because of their belief in job security they tended to be fearful and less expressive of their concerns within the work place, which may also signal a need to maintain employment regardless of unsatisfactory conditions. However, they did not compromise good working relationships and consultations in order for decisions to be made in the workplace (Pfau, 1991). This has been inferred from the study results as the researchers were more descriptive and did not thoroughly explain the possible meaning of their results. Although out-dated, this study gives a general overview of public service employees and what they value within the workplace. It is relevant and necessary as the current study was conducted among public service employees in Botswana.

In addition, one efficient public service institution has been characterised by good leadership that makes an effort towards strategic and operational re-engineering for improved service delivery. However, employees at this organisation report work-overload, work that is not challenging, job

placement without consideration for ability and previous performance, and most importantly, lack of promotion opportunities (Hope, 2003). This leads to low job satisfaction despite other positive aspects within an organisation. Hope (2003) reports that the Botswana public service had rigid structures with regards to promotions, such as basing promotion on seniority, time period pre-requisites for the level one is to be promoted to, and lengthy promotion procedures. It has been concluded, therefore, that positive job outcomes (e.g., employee involvement in decision making) can be associated with organisational commitment (Hope 2003; Pfau, 1991).

To look further from the perceptions of Botswana public service employees, there is one study conducted by Mogotsi, Boon and Fletcher (2011) that is worth presenting. The study investigated the interrelationships of knowledge sharing behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and organisational commitment among secondary school teachers in and around Gaborone, Botswana. The study was a cross-sectional quantitative survey on a sample of 280 participants from nine senior secondary schools in and around Gaborone. 52.5% were females and the remaining 47.5% were males. Of the 720 questionnaires distributed, 283 were returned and 280 were used in the analysis (39% response rate) (Mogotsi et al., 2011). No information regarding voluntary participation and confidentiality of information provided by participants was presented. To measure job satisfaction, the widely used six-item Brayfield and Rothe (1951) Scale was used with sample items including 'I find real enjoyment in my job' and 'I feel fairly well satisfied with my job' (Mogotsi et al., 2011). Its reliability for the population under investigation was 0.86 after removing items 'I am seldom bored with my job' and 'I would not consider taking another kind of job' following item analysis results (Mogotsi et al., 2011). Meyer and Allen's Affective Organisational Commitment Scale was used to measure organisational commitment (Mogotsi et al., 2011). For the sample under study, the reliability coefficient was 0.79 after excluding the item 'I think I could easily become as attached to another school as I am to this one'. Both measures had a response category of 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), and an average score was used to represent the participants' levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. One of their hypotheses stated that there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This hypothesis was confirmed ($r=0.45$, $p<0.01$), with a medium effect (Mogotsi et al., 2011). The researchers did not explain this relationship further; however, their findings confirmed the results of studies conducted in foreign populations (Meyer et al., 1989; Karsh et al., 2005). This study did not specify the

average levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for the sample which could have been insightful regarding the general level of these job attitudes among employees in the Botswana public service.

Motshegwa (2011) also investigated job satisfaction and organisational commitment in another study. The overall purpose of the study was to "investigate the relationships between equity, pay satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to turnover among junior and senior secondary school teachers in Botswana" (Motshegwa, 2011, p. 1). Invitation letters, information sheets about the project, consent forms and questionnaires were sent to randomly selected schools and those that returned signed consent forms from principals who participated in the study. Questionnaires were dropped off and collected the next day from the participating schools. The sample consisted of 232 teachers from various schools, with 121 teachers from Community Juniors Secondary Schools and 111 from Senior Secondary Schools (Motshegwa, 2011). No other characteristics of the population, such as average age and gender distribution, were reported in this study. Although this study did not intend to directly investigate the relationship between pay satisfaction and affective commitment, a relationship was found between the variables among Senior Secondary School teachers ($r=0.33$) and Community Junior Secondary School teachers ($r=0.34$) as has been observed in many other studies (Meyer et al., 1989; Lumley et al., 2011). The researcher did not specify the confidence interval but significance is implied in the interpretation of results. However, the result suggests that satisfaction with pay among secondary school teachers has a moderate positive relationship with their emotional attachment and interest to remain within the organisation (Motshegwa, 2011; Meyer et al., 2012). This confirms the results found by Meyer et al. (1989) where pay was among the variables under job satisfaction that were related to organisational commitment. However, the results of this study suggest that interest to remain in an organisation is related to how content one is with pay; this result contradicts what Pfau (1991) found regarding employees valuing having secure jobs over pay. The difference may be a result of the time lapse between the studies, leading to changes within the workplace environment and employees' characteristics with time.

In another study, Fako and Forcheh (2000) investigated job satisfaction among nurses in Botswana. The researchers investigated nurses because they constitute the majority of health workers and their job dissatisfaction has been of concern to the Botswana government (Fako &

Forcheh, 2000). They examined "the extent of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in a national sample of 325 nurses working in hospitals, clinics and health posts in Botswana" (Fako & Forcheh, 2000, p. 10). The study was part of a national survey on nurses in Botswana and the questionnaire method was used. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed, 425 were returned (71% response rate) but 325 were used in the analysis after 100 were excluded due to missing responses. However, no information regarding voluntary participation and confidentiality was presented. The sample consisted of females only, aged between 20 and 66 years across 15 health regions. The sample was composed of 11 community health nurses, 17 family nurse practitioners, 21 registered nurses, 37 enrolled nurse midwives, 70 registered nurse midwives, and 169 enrolled nurses (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). Of the sample's education levels, 210 had a junior certificate, 100 had a secondary school leaving certificate, and 12 had a tertiary education qualification. The income level of 30.1% of the participants was high, for 43.7% of the participants it was medium, and it was low for 26.2% of the participants. It was not specified how these categories were determined and whether the participants stated their actual income or reported how they perceive it in terms of the categories. 96% of the participants worked in different kinds of clinics while only 4% worked in hospitals (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). 60.3% were single and had never been married, 32.4% were currently married, and 7.4% were divorced or widowed. In addition, 20.6% had no children, 32.5% had one child, 26.0% had two children, and 20.9% had three or more children. The study was exploratory in that it did not test hypotheses but explored the strength and direction of the association between "job satisfaction and background variables, work context variables, resources variables, recognition and support variables, and union membership" (Fako & Forcheh, 2000, p. 10).

"Job satisfaction was measured by asking nurses to indicate how satisfied they were with their current position" (Fako & Forcheh, 2000, p. 13). This variable was measured on a scale ranging from highly satisfied (1) to highly dissatisfied (5) (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). One challenge is that the psychometric properties of the instruments or items used to measure the constructs under study were not reported. Therefore, the appropriateness of these instruments or items is unknown. Their study did not look into satisfaction in general or the facets commonly investigated such as pay, supervision, co-worker relationships, type of work, and opportunities for promotion (McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010); it focused on the workers' satisfaction with their current position.

Their findings show that the job satisfaction of nurses in Botswana is generally low (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). This is so because only eight participants reported being highly satisfied; Others reported being satisfied (84), neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (49), a majority were dissatisfied (111), some highly dissatisfied (60), while thirteen did not mention their satisfaction level (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). Job satisfaction showed a significant association with academic education ($X(2) = 29.85$, $p = 0.00$), professional training ($X(10) = 72.98$, $p = 0.00$), age [$F(2, 296 = 7.62$, $p = 0.00)$], level of income ($X(4) = 42.03$, $p = 0.00$), type of health facility ($X(6) = 20.50$, $p = 0.00$), satisfaction with salary ($X(4) = 78.76$, $p = 0.00$), perception of health after posting ($X(4) = 18.99$, $p = 0.00$), perception of health before posting ($X(4) = 9.52$, $p = 0.05$), adequacy of telecommunication ($X(4) = 27.47$, $p = 0.00$), and recognition from supervisors ($X(4) = 11.75$, $p = 0.02$).

Satisfaction was higher for nurses with higher academic education, professional training and income (Fako & Forcheh, 2000; Lumley et al., 2011). Therefore, the fact that majority of the sample had a junior school certificate as their highest qualification may explain why the general level of job satisfaction for the sample was low. In addition, older nurses were more satisfied with their jobs (mean age = 33.8 years) while the younger ones tended to be dissatisfied (mean age = 29.4 years) than satisfied (only 2.2%). This relationship was also found in a study investigating nursing home employees in the USA (Karsh et al., 2005). Fako and Forcheh (2000) elaborate that a possible explanation is that "older nurses tend to command higher incomes by virtue of seniority and rank. Such nurses usually belong to the same age cohort as supervisors from whom they receive considerable support and recognition" (p. 18). This also partially explains how job satisfaction is related to academic education and training; nurses with higher qualifications assume higher ranks which are associated with higher pay. This also contributes to the nurses' elevated job satisfaction. Contrary to these findings, the extrinsic satisfaction of a different sample of nurses was lower for those with higher education qualifications such as a degree (Karsh et al., 2005). This highlights that other factors, which may include characteristics of a population or location, contribute to satisfaction. Moreover, nurses who experienced higher satisfaction are those employed in facilities that are higher in the Primary Health Care hierarchy such as hospitals which are better resourced, rather than clinics and health posts (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). Most nurses may have shown dissatisfaction or low satisfaction due to the majority of the sample working in clinics instead of hospitals as clinics are not as well-resourced

as hospitals (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). Both adequacy of equipment and telecommunication within a health facility are positively related to job satisfaction. This makes sense considering that when there are enough relevant and up-to-date resources for one to do their work at ease, much work can be undertaken successfully without delays. Workers are then allowed the opportunity to be satisfied as they are able to do the tasks assigned within the appropriate times. It is also worth noting that inadequate resources have been associated with workplace stress (Agolla, 2008). In general, work environment factors have been reported to have predicting effects on the satisfaction of nurses (Karsh et al., 2005).

Finally, there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and variables such as number of children, marital status, religious affiliation, satisfaction with workstation, perceived workload, consistency of work with training, adequacy of equipment, attendance of workshops/seminars, and professional self-reliance. To conclude, this study was also specific to a single occupation and gender, and the results cannot be generalised to the rest of the nursing population. The findings resonate mostly for nurses with lower qualifications and working in less resourced workstations such as clinics.

In addition to investigating job satisfaction among nurses, another study was conducted to address the wellbeing of nurses within the public service in Botswana. The study by Fako, Forcheh and Linn (2004) was conducted to examine the extent of stress experienced by nurses employed in the Botswana government clinics and health posts. The nursing profession is known to naturally expose one to continuous stressful situations and crises, which can have detrimental effects (Karsh et al., 2005). "The effects of prolonged stress and burnout can therefore be quite severe to both the nurse and the patient, resulting in low morale, reduced job performance, increased tardiness and absenteeism, somatic complaints, staff conflicts, requests for transfers, high turnover, and alcohol and drug abuse" (Fako et al., 2004, p. 107). The results of the study suggested that workplace stress was indicated by a decline in a nurse's overall health after being posted to the current workstation. This was observed as the difference between the reported overall health of an individual before and after posting. 43.8% (137) of the participants that responded to the workplace stress item "had experienced workplace stress since being posted to their new station" (Fako et al., 2004, p. 111).

Workplace stress was significantly associated with the extent of satisfaction with work station, satisfaction with salary, and satisfaction with current position. Workplace stress was also significantly associated with a resource related variable of adequacy of telecommunication facilities, and the extent of attending workshops and seminars (Fako et al., 2004). The findings also showed that only 5.3% of the participating nurses reported being satisfied with their workplace, income and jobs while 14.5% reported dissatisfaction with all these aspects of their jobs (Fako et al., 2004). The majority (54.8%) reported dissatisfaction with the jobs with 69.5% reporting income as the main cause of dissatisfaction. This is relevant as most conceptualisations of job satisfaction incorporate satisfaction with pay (Lumley et al., 2011).

Finally, there were negative relationships between workplace stress and workplace satisfaction, and between workplace stress and job satisfaction. Specifically, "nurses who were dissatisfied with their jobs were 1.90 time more likely to experience workplace stress ($p=0.02$) than nurses who were satisfied with their jobs" (Fako et al., 2004, p. 115). Also, nurses who were dissatisfied with their workstations were 4.06 times more likely to experience workplace stress than those who were satisfied with their workstations. Workplace stress has been associated with the development of serious conditions such as Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) if employees are also exposed to traumatic events and the burden of other stresses at their workplaces. In this manner, workplace stress is associated with job dissatisfaction, low performance, errors in their work, and absenteeism, among others (Agolla, 2008). Having a negative experience of one's workplace will contribute to how effective they become towards their work and their jobs in general. It, therefore, becomes challenging for an employee to perform to their level best due to the stress (McDowell, 2006). Additionally, among the variables that predicted workplace stress, satisfaction variables were also present; that is, satisfaction with workstation ($X(2)= 24.272$, $p<0.00$) and satisfaction with income ($X(2)= 7.717$, $p=0.02$) (Fako et al., 2004). Similar findings were reported; nurses who were dissatisfied with their salaries were 2.58 times highly likely to experience workplace stress than those who were satisfied with their salaries (Fako et al., 2004). In addition, nurses who did not attend any workshop or seminar at all per year were 2.46 times more likely to experience workplace stress than nurses who attended three or more seminars per year ($p=0.02$) (Fako et al., 2004). The reason for this is that discontentment with salaries and training opportunities is a stressor on its own; this can lead one to feel disgruntled and stressed.

These findings have been reported for police officers, who have similar characteristics as nurses due to the stressful nature of their work (Agolla, 2008).

In an attempt to only take into account workplace stress, nurses who experienced stress as a result of sources external to the workplace were not considered to have experienced work-related stress (Fako et al., 2004). However, two problems may have been posed. Firstly, the use of single items to measure overall health instead of a comprehensive scale that could tap into the different facets of the construct may prove insufficient (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Secondly, the qualifying criteria used to consider a nurse as having experienced work-related stress was not thorough as it disregarded the possibility of an individual experiencing a co-morbidity of internal and external workplace stressors. Additionally, to measure satisfaction, an unspecified number of ordinal variables, which were not elaborated or sampled, were used (Fako et al., 2004). Also, the psychometric properties of the instruments or items used were not reported. Therefore, the appropriateness of these instruments or items is unknown.

Similar to the study by Fako and Forcheh (2000), the study being reported had the same focus on job satisfaction. The results suggest a notable relationship between some facets of job satisfaction and psychological well-being. Workplace stress, like stress in general, forms a significant part of one's psychological well-being (Fako et al., 2004). Therefore, the results of these studies are relevant to the current study. There is a clearly addressed difference between satisfied and dissatisfied nurses, with the latter experiencing more workplace stress when compared to their satisfied counterparts (Karsh et al., 2005). Interestingly, it also appears that being satisfied with one's workstation can reduce the impact of job dissatisfaction on stress (Fako et al., 2004). This suggests the importance of being content with their daily work environments. Despite nurses being continuously exposed to stressful work, no association was found between workplace stress and perceived workload. This could be explained by the fact that nurses in Botswana have accepted the job as demanding, and have devised ways of dealing with the workload and other pressures by seeking and gaining support from peers and family.

The findings of the study by Fako et al. (2004) support those of studies conducted in other populations and contexts (Connolly & Myers, 2003; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). It is worth mentioning that in most of the reported studies, income played a significant role in the investigation of job satisfaction; and also in the relationships between job satisfaction and other

variables. This was evidenced in most of the samples from the studies presented regarding different professionals within the Botswana public service (Motshegwa, 2011; Fako & Forcheh, 2000; Fako et al., 2004). The studies conducted by Fako and Forcheh (2000) and Fako et al. (2004) provide thorough findings that enlighten about the situation in the Botswana context, however, they are specific to the healthcare sector, specifically nurses. It may not be appropriate to generalise them to other professions and sectors as employees elsewhere and their workplace environments have different characteristics.

With Fako and Forcheh (2000) having found an association between job satisfaction and age, it is important to report on another study that focuses on a distinct group of employees who are commonly of young age; graduates. Most recently, Makambe, Ndlovu, Rudhumbu and M'kali (2016) conducted a study aimed at determining the level of employment satisfaction of graduates from 2007 to 2014 from a selected higher education institution in Botswana. The researchers intended to find out "if these graduates were happy with certain aspects of their careers such as job specialisation, job designation and whether they intended to remain in their employment for a long time" (Makambe et al., 2016, p. 39). This study is of great importance considering the current unemployment rate that has led to the youth facing challenges in securing employment, and a resultant mismatch between available career options and qualifications obtained (Makambe et al., 2016). The study was quantitative and the questionnaire method was used to collect data; due to time constraints and the geographical dispersion of graduates, convenience sampling method was employed (Makambe et al., 2016). However, the researchers did not further provide information regarding the instruments used to collect data and their psychometric properties. They also did not highlight any information regarding voluntary participation and confidentiality of information provided by participants.

The sample for this study was a total of 250 participants, which was obtained through the use of a list of organisations that employed the university's graduates between 2007 and 2014, and a list of graduates (former full-time students only) from the institution under study for the same time period. Participants reached were based in Maun, Selibe-Phikwe, Mahalapye, Serowe, Palapye, Lobatse, Gaborone and Francistown (Makambe et al., 2016). The participants were employed at different levels within organisations, with the majority being employed at assistant level (49.8%) and the rest at operational (38.5%), supervisory (10.6%), and executive (1.1%) levels. Although

most graduates believed that they were employed in fields of specialisation relevant with their qualifications (60.5%), only 59.8% were actually employed in their areas of specialisation while 40.2% were not (Makambe et al., 2016). "Across gender, most graduates (79.5%) were not contented with their current employment while only 20.5% showed contentment. Out of those who did not show contentment, 47.1% were female graduates and 32.4% were male graduates" (Makambe et al., 2016, p. 46). Degree graduates tended to be more dissatisfied than Diploma graduates. Makambe et al. (2016) propose that Diploma graduates may be content with entry level and operational level jobs while Degree graduates may have expected to assume more senior roles, leading to their dissatisfaction. This differs with the higher level of dissatisfaction found among employees with lower qualifications in a previously reported study by Fako et al. (2004). This may suggest that satisfaction is subject to many other confounding variables over and above education level. Additionally, most graduates (84.5%) believed that their qualifications were relevant with the kind of employment they wanted to pursue. The majority of these (50.8%) were graduates of a degree qualification, while fewer graduates of other qualifications including Diploma believed in the relevance of their training. This perception of the relevance of qualification is believed to be associated with satisfaction with the convergence of one's training to their job (Makambe et al., 2016). This is typically referred to as career commitment, which shows that employees can be contented with the succession direction that their qualifications will lead to (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). On the other hand, in terms of organisational commitment, 64.6% of the graduates of the institution "did not intend to stay at their current jobs while 35.4% indicated that they would stay. Of those who indicated that they would not stay, 41.5% were female graduates while 23.1% were male graduates" (Makambe et al., 2016, p. 49). Despite most degree graduates believing their qualifications are relevant to their jobs, a majority of them (41.4% and 11.03% for two separate degree qualifications) do not intend on staying in their current jobs; this suggests both lack of commitment and satisfaction.

Makambe et al. (2016) further explain that employees tend to be satisfied in environments that allow for maximum utilisation of one's skills and good opportunities for succession. This could be a contributing factor to the incongruence that presented regarding the relevance of training to the current job and commitment to the same job. In the study presented, gender dynamics play a significant role with both satisfaction and organisational commitment. Not only is gender a factor but qualifications also show some differences with regards to these variables, suggesting that

different levels of training contribute to graduates' expectations of employment. However, in totality most graduates showed discontentment with and low commitment towards their jobs across genders and qualifications. This is possibly due to the graduates being employed at low levels where the pay is most likely low and responsibilities are fewer if not mundane. "Therefore, their job did not provide an opportunity to learn, progress and contribute to the organisation; their work environment did not constitute a teamwork-oriented environment that empowers employees to create and take initiatives; the job did not ensure the skills of the employee were utilised to the maximum and allowed him/her to grow within the organisation, and the job was not one where the employee could use his/her creative abilities to support, aid and mentor other professionals" (Makambe et al., 2016, p. 51). This is an explanation of the possible reasons surrounding the overall dissatisfaction and expressed lack of commitment by the graduates to their jobs and organisation. It further suggests that getting the right job that matches one's qualifications is only a start, other factors within the job, such as responsibilities, will certainly influence how one perceives the job. It is at this point that it is important to acknowledge that commitment is a multifaceted construct, not only organisational.

Commitment can be observed at various levels including job, career, goal, strategy, and organisational change (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The explanation is that one can be committed to the actual day-to-day tasks comprised in their job due to their relevance to their qualification (Makambe et al., 2016; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). They can also show a commitment towards the career they belong to, such as being an accountant, to their goal of development and growth within the career, to change by behaving in a manner that influences the change, and to a strategy through action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This explains the different levels of commitment towards the careers and organisations of the young graduates investigated. It, therefore, implies that because they are aiming at developing themselves as professionals in their careers, they may seek to commit to their goals and career paths. However, despite this and being content with the relevance of their current jobs, they may intend to exit the organisation as an approach to career development (Brown & Lent, 2013).

There is little research addressing psychological well-being as well as its relationship to job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Botswana. Although Fako et al. (2004) investigated workplace stress and not complete psychological well-being, their study shed some

light into the psychological well-being of nurses in the Botswana public sector. In addition, Mogotsi et al. (2011) and Motshegwa (2011) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Botswana. The results of both studies reflect a relationship that was found in other contexts. Makambe et al. (2016) also provide most recent findings and investigated a unique population with regards to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. With the presented studies making a contribution to research, there is a challenge as some of the researchers did not report on the instruments they used to collect data. This is a challenge as the validity and reliability of the instruments cannot be determined; it is therefore unknown whether they were satisfactory in measuring the variables under study. Moreover, the studies reported are also insightful in helping the reader understand the Botswana public service context.

2.7. Aim of the study

The aim of the study is to find out if there is an association between employee psychological well-being with job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

2.8. Hypotheses

1. There is a relationship between psychological well-being and job satisfaction.
2. There is a relationship between psychological well-being and organisational commitment.
3. There is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
4. Psychological wellbeing predicts job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1. Introduction

The methodology section constitutes the methods that were employed when conducting this study, including the research design that was adopted in guiding the type of study, sampling procedure and descriptive information about the sample. Also included in this section are the psychometric instruments that were used to collect data on the variables psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, procedure underwent to conduct the study, the method of data analysis employed, and the ethical issues considered in carrying out the study.

3.2. Research Design

The study conducted was quantitative in nature. A cross-sectional design was employed in data collection for this study, that is, the participants' characteristics were measured at a single point in time. This method is easier and cost effective as it only involves once-off contact with the sample (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). However, this design does not allow for comparison between the sample's experiences on certain variables at different points in time, which is possible through the use of longitudinal studies (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). On the other hand, the design is appropriate, because the proposed study is not focused on investigating the life course of the variables, but the participants' report of their experience of psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment at a single point in time (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008).

This study design was non-experimental as the variables were investigated without intervention and/or control for the effects of other factors. There was also no random assignment of participants to treatment and control groups as they were all investigated at once to obtain current opinions and feelings regarding the variables under study (Creswell, 2003).

3.3. Participants and Sampling

To select the sample, non-probability convenience sampling method was used. Non-probability sampling implies that the sample was selected with methods that do not involve random selection or the probability theory (Babbie, 2013). It selects potential participants that are readily available

(Neuman, 2014). Although this can potentially result in a sample that misrepresents the characteristics of the population, probability sampling methods could have been difficult to implement due to lack of access to the entire population from which the sample was selected, hence the choice of a non-probability sampling method (Neuman, 2014). Additionally, convenience sampling saves time and resources by utilising any available participant (Neuman, 2014).

A total of 170 questionnaires were distributed, and only 138 were returned. The response rate was, therefore 81.2%. Of the 138 questionnaires received, 9 were completely excluded from the analysis due to missing data and central tendency response bias (Herkenhoff & Fogli, 2013). With central tendency, participants choose to remain neutral or respond quickly without paying attention to the actual subject matter and questions or items (Herkenhoff & Fogli, 2013). Some had extreme negative or positive responses (extremity bias), which may also signal responding without paying much attention (Herkenhoff & Fogli, 2013). For questionnaires with missing data, participants were only completely excluded from the analysis if two or more instruments within the questionnaire had 50% or more responses missing. The remaining 129 participants were included in the analysis, and their demographic information is presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

The sample was drawn from the public sector in Botswana, specifically from the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, Ministry of Agriculture, and Ministry of Minerals, Energy and Water Resources. However, representation from these ministries varied greatly, with only one (1) dominating the sample in composition. The sample size was appropriate considering that the presented literature had study samples mostly ranging from 82 to 372 participants (Connolly & Myers, 2003; Makambe et al., 2016). Moreover, the sample size was sufficient in terms of conducting statistical analyses of correlations and regressions on the variables under study as it was above 50 participants (Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007). The relationships presented in the literature review were generally of medium effect; this suggested the suitability of the sample sizes in those studies. Therefore, the effect size was used to give confidence regarding the sample size of the current study and that strong significant relationships can be achieved without sample size disadvantage.

Table 1: Demographic information of the sample

Demographic variable	**Variable category group**	**N**	**%**
Gender	Male	55	42.6
	Female	73	56.6
	Missing	1	0.8
	Total	129	100
Marital status	Single	73	56.6
	Married	47	36.4
	Divorced	3	2.3
	Widowed	2	1.6
	Separated	0	0
	Living with partner	4	3.1
	Total	129	100
Education background	Tertiary education	115	89.1
	Vocational training	3	2.3
	Secondary education	8	6.2
	Primary education	2	1.6
	Never went to school	0	0
	Missing	1	0.8
	Total	129	100
Job category	Chief officer	6	4.7
	Experts	7	5.4
	Principal officer	35	27.1
	Senior officer	10	7.8
	Officer	30	23.3
	Assistant officer	21	16.3
	Low skilled worker	11	8.5
	Missing	9	7.0
	Total	129	100
Years on current job	2 years or less	19	14.7
	Between 2 and 5 years	26	20.2
	Between 5 and 10 years	36	27.9
	Over 10 years	43	33.3
	Missing	5	3.9
	Total	129	100
Children	Yes	105	81.4
	No	19	14.7
	Missing	5	3.9
	Total	129	100
Other dependents	Yes	101	78.3
	No	22	17.1
	Missing	6	4.7
	Total	129	100

Table 2: Age

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Age	122	38.6	8.758	21	58
Missing	7				
Total	129				

3.4. Instruments

The questionnaire consisted of three psychological measures and demographic questions. Its completion time ranged between fifteen and twenty-five minutes. The constituent instruments and demographic questions were as follows:

3.4.1. Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJSS)

To measure job satisfaction, the OJSS which was developed by Warr, Cook and Wall in 1979 was used (see Appendix A). It has 15 items, with 8 items measuring extrinsic job satisfaction and 7 items measuring intrinsic factors (Stride, Wall, & Catley, 2007). The current version also has an additional item "assessing the overall satisfaction the participant has for their job" (Heritage, Pollock, & Roberts, 2015, p. 122-123). Summation of the OJSS items derives an overall score of job satisfaction, with possible scores ranging from 15 to 105 (Stride et al., 2007). It can also be scored to provide scores for both the extrinsic and intrinsic factors (Stride et al., 2007). To avoid summation problems of missing items the additional item score will be used as the overall job satisfaction score. The items were measured on a 7-point scale from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 7 (extremely satisfied) and none of the items of the OJSS were reverse scored.

Both the intrinsic and extrinsic items showed sufficient reliability with coefficients ranging from 0.79 to 0.85 and 0.74 to 0.78, respectively (Heritage et al., 2015). The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the OJSS for the pilot study was 0.880, and 0.925 for the entire sample of the current study. Previous studies reported by Heritage et al. (2015) demonstrated construct validity and external validity. Sample items include how satisfied one is with 'the physical work conditions', 'your opportunity to use your abilities', 'your hours of work' and 'the amount of variety in your work'. Completion of the OJSS was approximately 5 minutes.

3.4.2. The General Health Questionnaire - 12 (GHQ - 12)

Psychological well-being was operationalised through the use of the GHQ – 12 (see Appendix B). It is a self-administered screening instrument developed by David Goldberg in 1972 to measure the severity of psychological distress experienced by individuals within the past few weeks (McDowell, 2006; Zulkefly & Baharudin, 2010). It was "designed to identify two main classes of problems: inability to carry out one's normal 'healthy' functions, and the appearance of new phenomena of a distressing nature" (Goldberg, & Hillier, 1979 as cited by McDowell, 2006, p. 259). This suggests that it focuses on breaks of normal functioning. The GHQ - 12 has 12 items measured along response categories ranging from 0 (less than usual) to 3 (much more than usual) (McDowell, 2006). In other studies the cut-off of three positive scores was used to represent the absence of psychological well-being, with three or more positive scores showing the presence of psychological distress (McDowell, 2006). However, for this study the mean of the sample was used as the cut off score to determine psychological well-being (Zulkefly & Baharudin, 2010). The completion time of the GHQ-12 was approximately four to five minutes.

The split-half reliability coefficient for the GHQ-12 was 0.83 and internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged from 0.82 to 0.90 across 15 studies (McDowell, 2006). The reliability coefficient for the pilot study was 0.669 and 0.685 after removing item 6 of the scale. For the entire sample the coefficient was 0.851 with all items included, therefore, the analysis included all items. The average sensitivity and specificity on general practice patients and hospital outpatients were 83.7% and 79.0% (McDowell, 2006). The GHQ-12 was correlated with both measures of well-being and of distress such as the Mental Health Inventory (r=0.64) and Beck's Depression Inventory (r=0.49) (McDowell, 2006). The sample items of the GHQ-12 include 'able to concentrate', 'couldn't overcome difficulties', 'enjoy normal activities', and 'losing confidence in yourself' (McDowell, 2006). Half of the items were negatively-worded and were recoded for analysis.

3.4.3. Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

This instrument was designed by Meyer and Allen in 1990 (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane, & Ferreira, 2011) to measure mutually exclusive components of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (see Appendix C). The instrument has 24 items and takes about 10 minutes to complete. The three subscales consist of 8 items each, and Lumley et

al. (2011) reported their internal consistency reliability estimates as 0.82 (AC), 0.74 (CC), and 0.83 (NC). Additionally, the reliability coefficients for the pilot study are in Table 3 and for the entire sample have been presented in Table 4.

Table 3: Internal consistency reliability coefficients of the OCS from the pilot study

Instrument	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**N of items**
Organisational Commitment Scale	0.791 *0.840	24 23
Affective Commitment subscale	0.637 **0.792	8 7
Continuance Commitment subscale	0.711 ***0.751	8 7
Normative Commitment subscale	0.498 ****0.651	8 7

*coefficient after removing item 24
**coefficient after removing item 4 from the AC subscale (item 4 of OCS)
***coefficient after removing item 4 from the CC subscale (item 12 of OCS)
**** coefficient after removing item 8 from the NC subscale (item 24 of OCS)

Table 4: Internal consistency reliability coefficients of the OCS from the actual study sample

Instrument	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**N of items**
OCS	0.672 *0.713	24 23
AC subscale	0.715	8
CC subscale	0.650 **0.713	8 7
NC subscale	0.498 ***0.651	8 7

*coefficient after removing item 24
**coefficient after removing item 4 from the CC subscale (item 12 of OCS)
*** coefficient after removing item 8 from the NC subscale (item 24 of OCS)

The above stated were derived from an analysis of the pilot sample and the entire sample under investigation in the current study. The internal consistency reliabilities of the scale and subscales required the removal of certain items in order to improve the reliability. From the complete OCS scale, the items that were then excluded from the analysis were items 4 which was also negatively correlated, 12, and 24 which was also negatively correlated. Therefore, the results of the study were derived with these three items excluded, and the internal consistency reliability coefficient for the OCS was 0.740.

The responses were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree and their average scores were used to produce a composite commitment score for each respondent. Sample items for the AC subscale include 'I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it' and 'I do not feel "emotionally" attached to this organisation', for the CC subscale 'too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation right now' and 'it wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organisation now', and for the NC subscale 'I think that people these days move from company to company too often' and 'I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man or 'company woman' is sensible anymore'. However, 8 of the items across all the subscales have been recoded as they were negatively-worded. Only the Affective Commitment Scale has been used in Botswana by Mogotsi et al. (2011). The reliability coefficient was 0.71, which was a drop from 0.79 due to item 4. This item was then removed from the scale as it also had a negative correlation (r= -0.18) (Mogotsi et al., 2011). In many studies, the Affective Commitment Scale (AC) is often used to obtain an overall score of organisational commitment due to NC and CC items loading on this subscale (Mogotsi et al., 2011; Field & Buitendach, 2011).

As the GHQ, OJSS and the CC and NC subscales of the OCS have not been used in Botswana, a pilot study was conducted to ensure their suitability for the Botswana context and to examine the completion time required for each questionnaire. Twenty participants were selected through non-probability convenience sampling to respond to the questionnaires. The participants were assured of confidentiality, anonymity and that participation was voluntary. Observations were also made regarding the time spent filling in the questionnaire.

The results obtained from the pilot study informed the instruments' applicability in the Botswana context; and confirmed that they were easily understood by the participants, the items were not

too highly correlated (multicollinearity), and their reliability coefficients were satisfactory (above 0.60) (Neuman, 2014). Multicollinearity can result in misleading regression coefficients (Connolly & Myers, 2003).

3.5 Demographic information

The questionnaire also contained questions aimed at collecting biographical information about the participants (see Appendix D). These included gender, age, marital status, and educational background. Previous research suggested their associations with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Makambe et al., 2016; Fako & Forcheh, 2000; Karsh et al., 2005, Thompson & Prottas, 2005), hence their inclusion in the questionnaire. The questionnaire also prompted job related aspects such as the participant's job title and years spent on the current job. It is of interest for this study to find out their role in the participants' experience of the variables under study. One demographic item, job titles, was qualitative. Therefore, to score this item, the job titles of the participants were rank ordered according to seniority from Chief Officer to low-skilled workers. The Botswana government structures were used to determine the appropriate rank order (Botswana Governement, 2016). Also, participants who were enrolled for the National Internship Programme and the Government Volunteer Scheme were categorised with assistant officers as they are graduates; the graduate entry level is at assistant officer (Botswana Government, 2016). Additionally, managers and chief officers were both categorised under chief officer due to the similarity in their roles as executive level jobs with higher decision-making capacity.

Although Fako and Forcheh (2000) and Fako et al. (2004) found no association between the number of children and a participant's job stress and job satisfaction, participants were asked whether they had a responsibility towards their children and other dependents. This was because having dependents has a contribution to one's general stress levels and their decision to remain in a job that does not satisfy them (Gbadamosi, 2009). Additionally, Thompson and Prottas (2005), found that family demands had a positive association with life satisfaction and family satisfaction. It was, therefore, of interest to establish the association of family demands (including being responsible for children and other dependents) with job satisfaction. This, on the other hand, does not suggest that childless individuals and those not responsible for other dependents may experience any less stress as a result.

3.6 Procedure

Ethics clearance was obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) before data collection (see Appendix E). An application for a research permit (see Appendix F) was then submitted to the Office of the President in Gaborone, Botswana to seek permission to conduct this study within the various government ministries in Botswana. For the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, an additional permit was required and the researcher applied for it and permission was granted (see Appendix G). With permission to conduct the study having been granted, a pilot study was conducted to ensure the usability of the psychometric instruments selected for data collection that had never been used on the population of Botswana public service employees. Twenty participants were selected through convenience sampling and the internal consistency reliabilities of the measures were generated. Following the pilot study, more participants were approached on the basis of convenience and told about the study and its purpose; they were also supplied with an accompanying participant information sheet providing information about the study (see Appendix H). Participants were assured of confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary participation, that is, the right to withdraw from participation up until they have handed in their questionnaires. Confidentiality and anonymity were upheld and communicated with the participants to make them aware that their responses will not be made available to anyone else, and since they did not provide their names, the results would not be traceable to them. These were also specified on the participant information sheet and both organisation and participant consent forms. An informed consent form was provided to the participants to sign upon agreeing to take part in the study (see Appendix I). The questionnaires were administered within the participants' work environment and took not more than twenty-five minutes to complete. The sampling procedure and ethics were maintained during both the pilot study and the actual study.

The participants responded to the OJSS first, followed by the GHQ-12 and the OCS, and finally the demographic questions. This order did not affect participants' responses to the next instrument. Participants had the choice of responding to and submitting the questionnaire immediately or within 2 days at their convenience. Completed questionnaires were collected directly from the participants to ensure that no one but the researcher had access to them. The data collected was then analysed, collated and discussed to address the research hypotheses of

the study. The data is stored on a password-protected computer which is only accessible to the researcher and supervisor.

3.7 Data Analysis

The data collected from the sample was captured on Microsoft Excel and analysed using quantitative techniques and the SPSS version 23 statistical software, where descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were conducted.

Prior to the analysis, frequency tables were generated to present the demographic information of the participants. The analysis section also involved testing of the psychometric instruments used to collect data, to determine their reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Additionally, assumptions were tested to ensure that the inferential statistics selected to be used were applicable and appropriate (Field, 2009).

The main inferential statistics utilised in hypothesis testing to assess the associations and their strengths between the variables under investigation were simple correlations, specifically, the Person's Product Moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). The correlation matrix was used to determine variables that had significant associations. Chi-square test was also utilized to investigate associations between variables that were categorical. In addition, simple regression was used to assess the predictive effect of psychological well-being on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

This study got ethics clearance from the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical). It was a low-risk study as it exposed participants to little if no psychological harm. There was no manipulation of the participants as they were rightfully informed of what the study was about and were provided with a participant information sheet with contact details of the researcher and supervisor. The participants were made aware that they can communicate, before, during or after data collection, regarding any harm that may have resulted from their participation, and/or the results of the study. The participation was strictly voluntary, and any participant that did not want to continue participating was allowed to do so freely. Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained as participants' names were not requested, and the questionnaires could only be accessed by the researcher. The collated data

were kept on a computer that is password-secured and accessed only by the researcher and supervisor. The results of the study were reported in a research report and feedback availed in the form of an executive summary to any participant or organisation that had an interest in the overall outcomes of this study. The research report will be available at the University of the Witwatersrand library on completion of the study.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1. Introduction

Before hypothesis testing was undertaken basic assumption testing was done to ensure the usability of the selected tests. The appropriate tests selected for hypothesis testing are Pearson's Product Moment correlation and regression analysis. These were selected because the independent and dependent variables were interval. For the independent variable, well-being, the total score was used to generate the mean. The mean was then used to determine the presence and absence of psychological well-being. The dependent variable, job satisfaction, is interval and the mean score was used to determine the sample's level of satisfaction. The overall job satisfaction was determined by the additional item on the OJSS. For organisational commitment, the mean scores for each subscale and that of the entire scale were used to determine level of commitment. Finally, additional analyses conducted included the Chi-square test of association which was used to investigate the association between demographic variables and other variables under study. For all the analyses conducted, the significance value observed was the 95% confidence interval (0.05).

"We also know from the central limit theorem that in big samples the sampling distribution tends to be normal anyway – regardless of the shape of the data we actually collected (and remember that the sampling distribution will tend to be normal regardless of the population distribution in samples of 30 or more. As our sample gets bigger then, we can be more confident that the sampling distribution is normally distributed" (Field, 2009, p. 134). Despite this fact, the skewness and kurtosis values for the variables were still generated to ensure that they were within range as seen in the output table below:

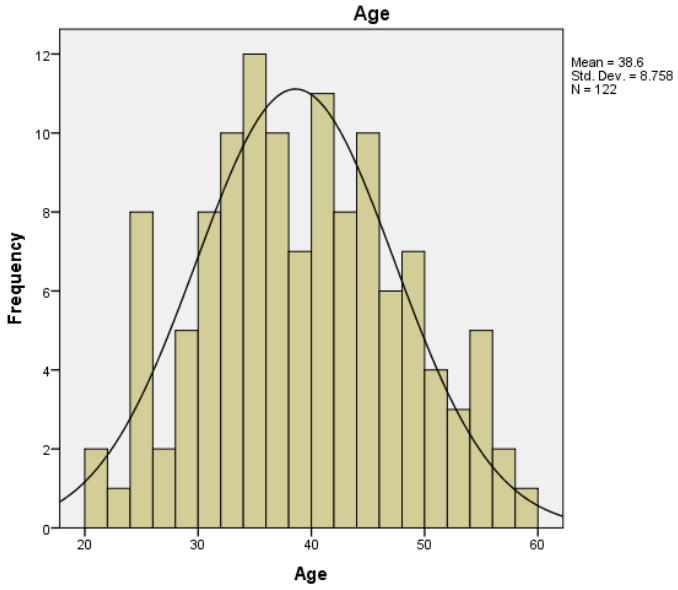
Table 5: Descriptive Statistics

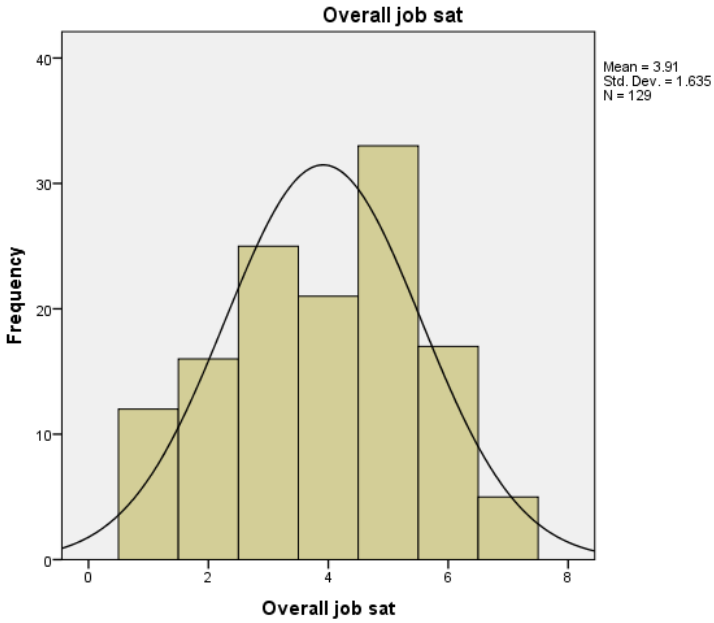
Descriptive Statistics

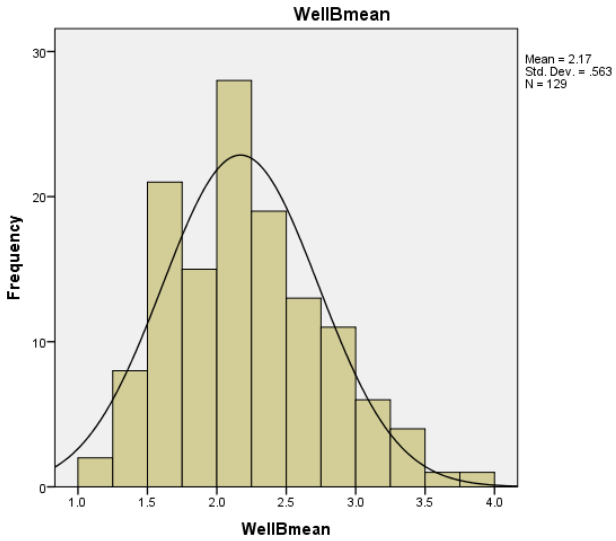
	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Age	122	.097	.219	-.652	.435
Overall job sat	129	-.155	.213	-.872	.423
WellBmean	129	.538	.213	.095	.423
JobSatMean	129	-.020	.213	-.500	.423
OrgCommitMean	129	.099	.213	.669	.423
ACMean	129	-.305	.213	-.008	.423
CCMean	129	-.396	.213	.477	.423
NCMean	129	.324	.213	-.320	.423
Valid N (listwise)	122				

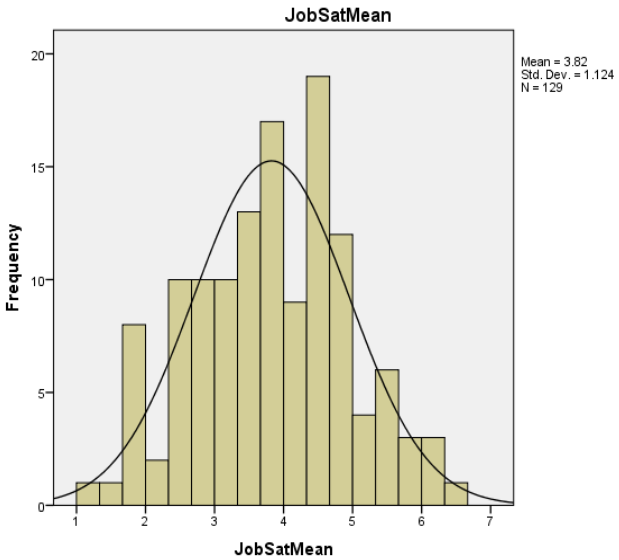
In addition, the histograms for the variables have been presented below:

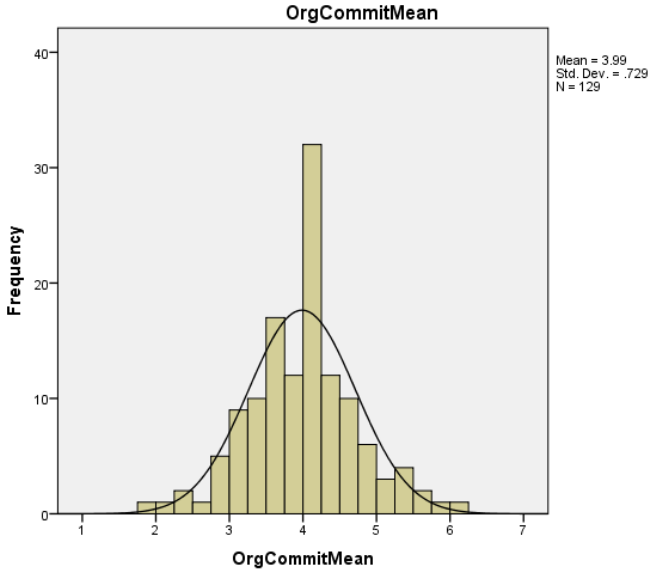
Figure 1: Histograms

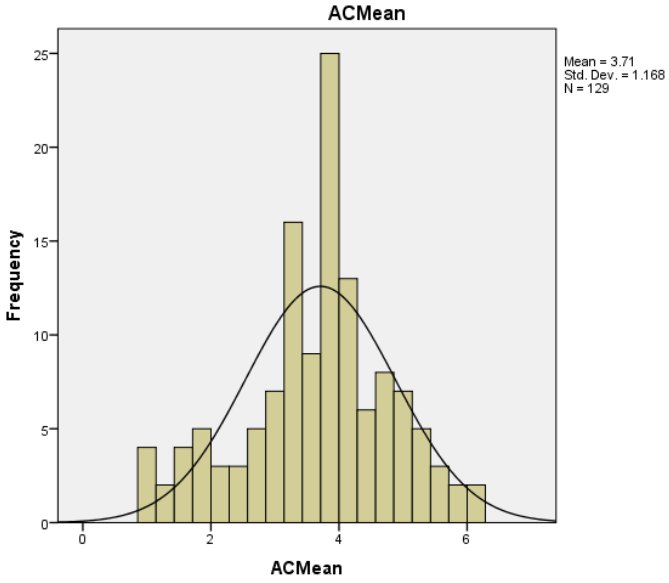


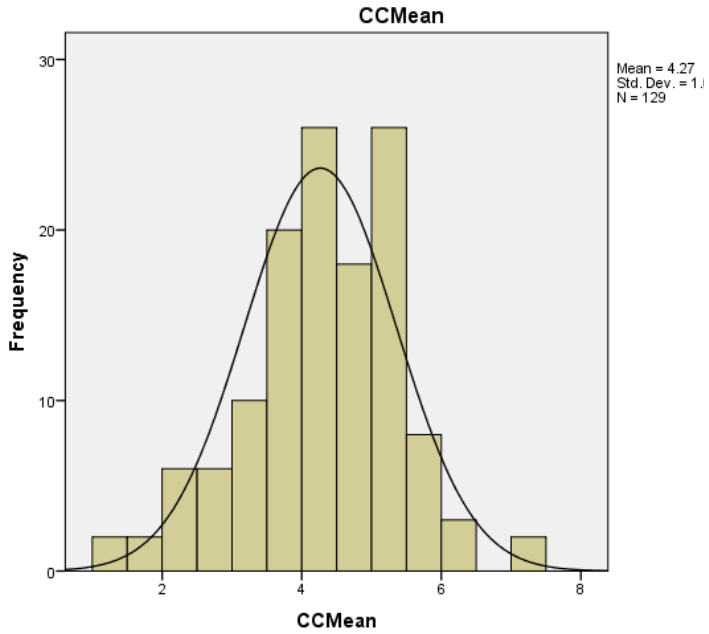


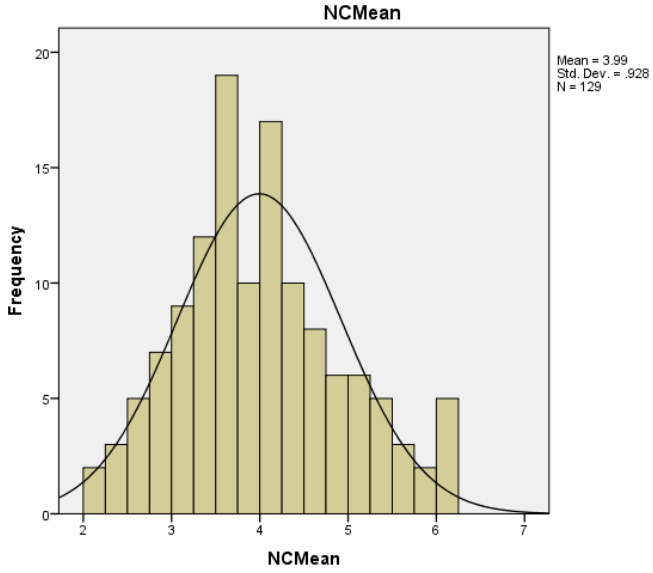

WellBmean
Mean = 2.17
Std. Dev. = .563
N = 129
Frequency
WellBmean


JobSatMean
Mean = 3.82
Std. Dev. = 1.124
N = 129
Frequency
JobSatMean


OrgCommitMean
Mean = 3.99
Std. Dev. = .729
N = 129
Frequency
OrgCommitMean


ACMean
Mean = 3.71
Std. Dev. = 1.168
N = 129
Frequency
ACMean





4.2. Descriptive Statistics

Table 6: Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sample description
Age	122	21	58	38.60	8.758	
Overall job sat	129	1	7	3.91	1.635	
WellBmean	129	1	4	2.17	.563	
JobSatMean	129	1	6	3.82	1.124	Moderate
OrgCommitMean	129	2	6	3.99	.729	Moderate
ACMean	129	1	6	3.71	1.168	Moderate
CCMean	129	1	7	4.27	1.089	Moderate
NCMean	129	2	6	3.99	.928	Moderate
Valid N (listwise)	122					

Overall job satisfaction mean is 3.91, SD= 1.635. The possible scores ranged from 1 to 7. This suggests that the overall job satisfaction for the sample was moderate. Mean scores from 1 to 2.3 – low overall job satisfaction, 2.4 to 4.7 – moderate overall job satisfaction, and 4.8 to 7 – high overall job satisfaction. The mean score for well-being is 2.17, SD= 0.563. This suggests that employees with scores below the mean had psychological well-being, while those with scores above the mean have no psychological well-being. Mean organisational commitment is 3.99, SD= 0.729. Commitment subscale means were as follows: affective commitment m=3.71, SD= 1.168; continuance commitment m=4.27, SD=1.089; and normative commitment m=3.99, SD=

0.928. Similarly, the possible scores ranged from 1 to 7, suggesting that low commitment is 1 to 2.3, moderate commitment is 2.4 to 4.7, and high commitment is 4.8 to 7. This suggests that this sample had moderate levels of organisational commitment, affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Table 7: Psychological well-being

PsycWelB

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	psychological wellbeing present	51	39.5	39.5	39.5
	psychological wellbeing absent	78	60.5	60.5	100.0
	Total	129	100.0	100.0	

The majority of the sample reported an absence of psychological well-being (60.5%).

4.3. Correlation Matrix

Table 8: Correlations

		Age	Overall job sat	WellBmean	JobSatMean	OrgCommitMean	ACMean	CCMean	NCMean
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-.079	.186*	-.169	.057	.083	-.037	.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.388	.040	.063	.536	.363	.686	.399
	N	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122
Overall job sat	Pearson Correlation	-.079	1	-.282**	.747**	.400**	.507**	.078	.210*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.388		.001	.000	.000	.000	.380	.017
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129

WellBmean	Pearson Correlation	.186*	-.282**	1	-.412**	-.068	-.287**	.118	.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.040	.001		.000	.442	.001	.183	.459
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129
JobSatMean	Pearson Correlation	-.169	.747**	-.412**	1	.397**	.574**	.035	.168
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	.000	.000		.000	.000	.697	.058
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129
OrgCommitMean	Pearson Correlation	.057	.400**	-.068	.397**	1	.710**	.641**	.710**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.536	.000	.442	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129
ACMean	Pearson Correlation	.083	.507**	-.287**	.574**	.710**	1	.080	.313**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.363	.000	.001	.000	.000		.365	.000
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129
CCMean	Pearson Correlation	-.037	.078	.118	.035	.641**	.080	1	.239**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.686	.380	.183	.697	.000	.365		.006
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129
NCMean	Pearson Correlation	.077	.210*	.066	.168	.710**	.313**	.239**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.399	.017	.459	.058	.000	.000	.006	
	N	122	129	129	129	129	129	129	129

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlations above provide the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables under study. The highlighted correlations are significant at a 95% confidence interval (p= 0.05). For correlations, the *r* coefficient is also the effect size, which shows the strength of the relationship between the variables. They are interpreted as weak relationship (small effect; r=0.10), moderate relationship (medium effect; r=0.30) and strong relationship (large effect; r=0.50) (Field, 2009).The significant relationships are as follows:

4.3.1 Well-being

Well-being was positively related to age (*r*=0.186, *p*=0.04). The relationship was weak or of low effect, and direct, suggesting that as age increases well-being increases.
It was negatively related to overall job satisfaction (*r*=-0.282, *p*=0.00). The relationship was weak or of moderate effect, and inverse, suggesting that as age increases overall job satisfaction decreases. This confirms hypothesis 1.

4.3.2 Organisational commitment

Hypothesis 2 was not confirmed as organisational commitment was not significantly related to psychological well-being.

Organisational commitment was positively related to overall job satisfaction as per the overall job satisfaction item (*r*=0.40, *p*=0.00) and as evidenced in the mean job satisfaction score (*r*=0.397, *p*=0.00). These are both valid metrics for overall job satisfaction. Therefore, the relationship was moderate or of medium effect, and direct, suggesting that as organisational commitment increases overall job satisfaction also increases. This confirms hypothesis 3.

Organisational commitment subscales

4.3.3 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment was positively related to overall job satisfaction (*r*=0.507, *p*=0.00). The relationship was strong or of high effect, and direct, suggesting that as affective commitment increases overall job satisfaction also increases. It was also negatively related to well-being (*r*=-0.287, *p*=0.00). The relationship was weak or of low effect, and inverse, suggesting that as affective commitment increases psychological well-being decreases. It was also positively related to organisational commitment (*r*=0.71, *p*=0.00) with the relationship being strong or of

high effect, and direct, suggesting that as affective commitment increases organisational commitment also increases.

4.3.4 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment was positively related to organisational commitment (r=0.641, p=0.00) and the relationship was strong or of high effect, and direct. This suggests that as continuance commitment increases organisational commitment also increases.

4.3.5 Normative commitment

Normative commitment was positively related to overall job satisfaction (r=0.21, p=0.02). The relationship was weak and direct, which suggests that as normative commitment increases overall job satisfaction also increases. In addition, it was positively related to organisational commitment (r=0.71, p=0.00). The relationship was strong or of high effect, and direct, suggesting that as normative commitment increases organisational commitment also increases. It was also positively related to affective commitment (r=0.31, p=0.00) with the relationship being moderate or of medium effect, and direct, suggesting that as normative commitment increases affective commitment also increases. Normative commitment was also found to positively relate to continuance commitment (r=0.24, p=0.01). The relationship was weak or of low effect, and direct, suggesting that as normative commitment increases continuance commitment also increases.

4.4. Regression Assumptions

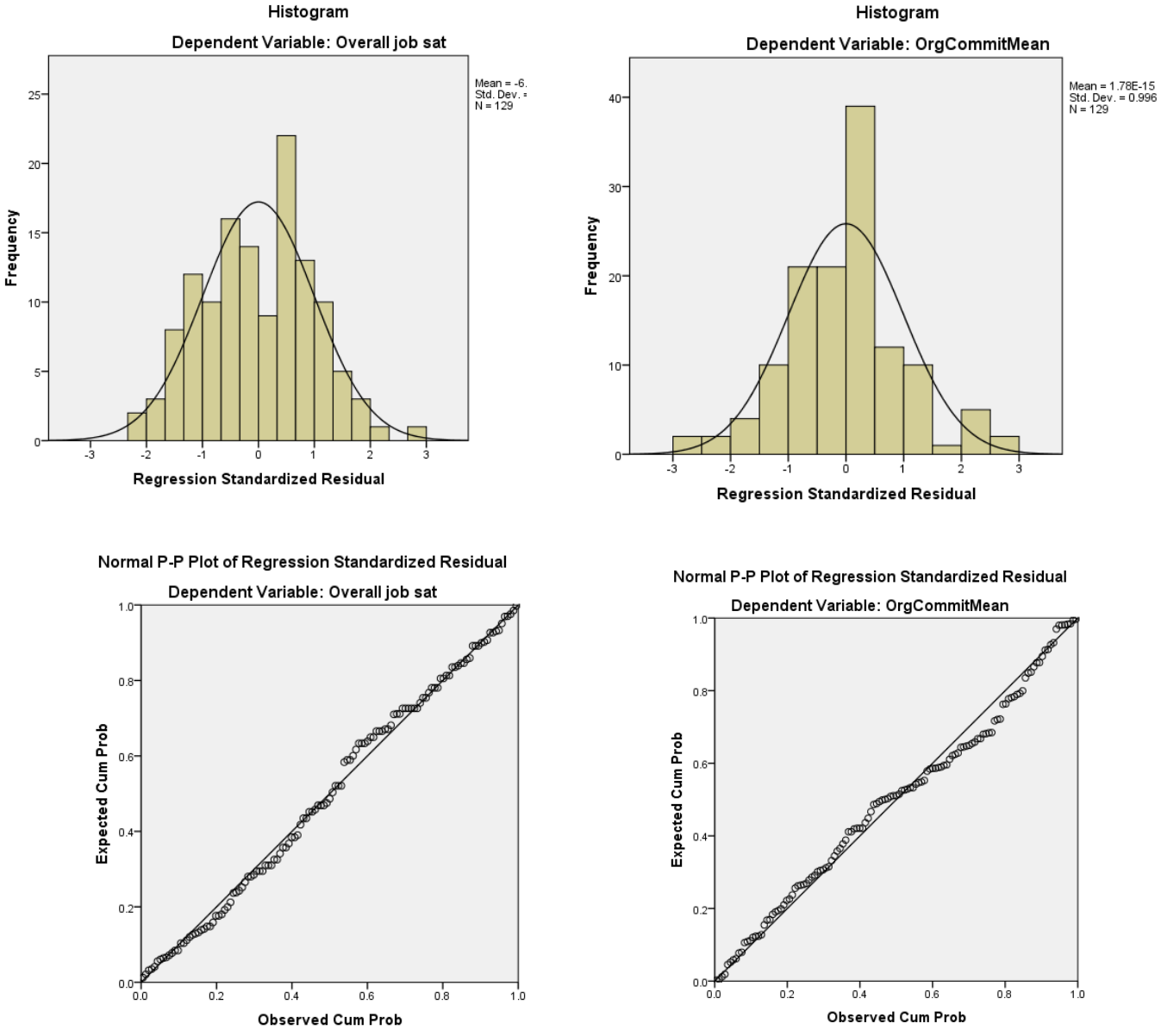
Prior to running the regression and presenting the results, the regression assumptions were checked to ensure that the analysis is appropriate to test the hypothesis.

4.4.1 Assumption 1: normality of residuals

To check for normality of residuals, histograms and P-P Plots were generated. As seen in the 2 P-P Plots below, there are no outliers that can suggest the absence of normality; all scores are on or close to the line of best fit. The observed residuals for the data do not deviate from normality (Field, 2009). Therefore, both histograms and P-P Plots show normal distribution of data. When checking for normality of residuals additional variables were created in the dataset and they were

referred to as SRE_1 and SRE_2. Normality was not violated as the residual values were lower than 3, with the highest being 2.773 and 2.995 for the independent variable psychological well-being. Standardized residual values greater than 3 are problematic as they highlight the presence of outliers (Field, 2009).

Figure 2: Histograms and P-P Plots

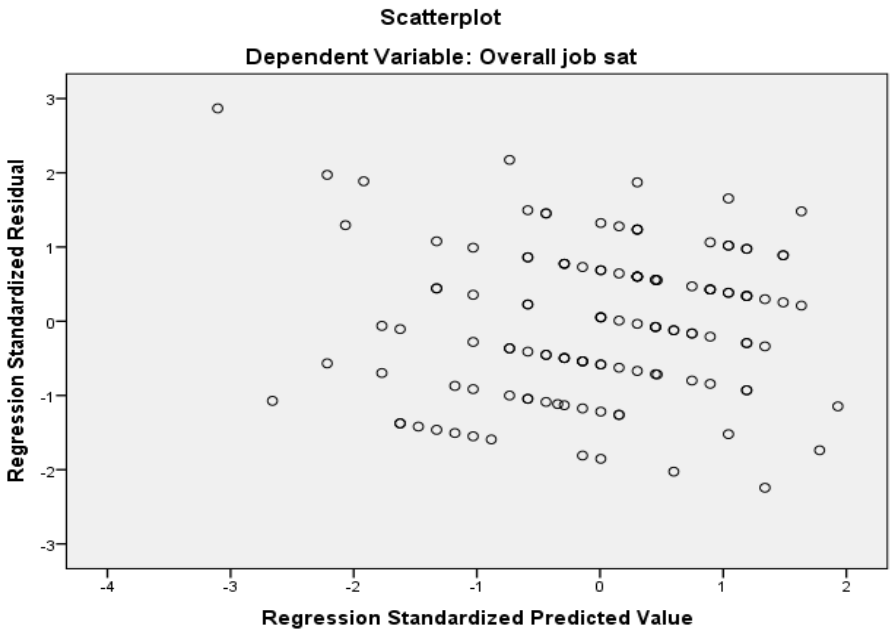


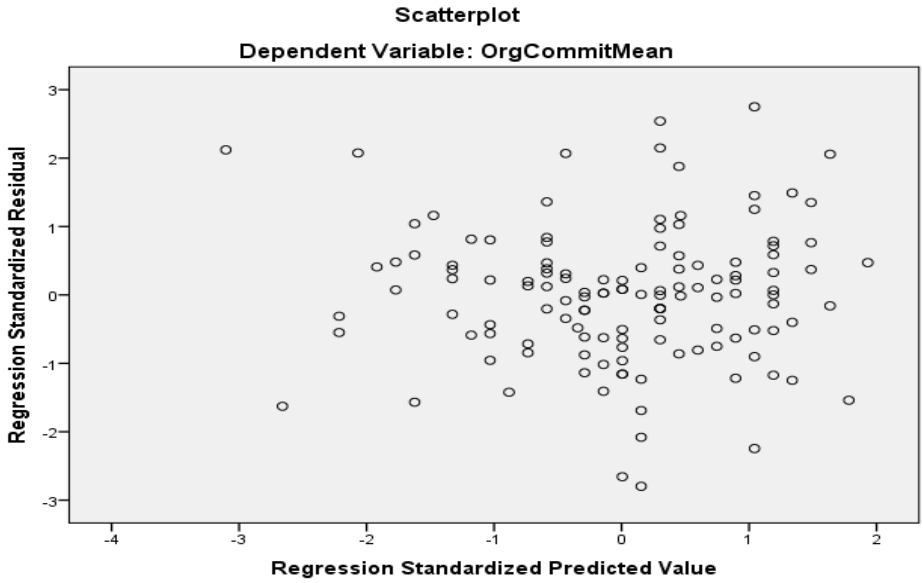
4.4.2 Assumptions 2 and 3: linearity and homoscedasticity

The relationship between the dependent and independent variables should be linear, and scatterplot are commonly used to assess for linearity (Field, 2009). In Figure 3 below, the job satisfaction plot does not sufficiently suggest linearity. For the variable organisational commitment, the plot shows a curved pattern which suggests a violation of linearity. Therefore it may be concluded that linearity has not been adequately met. This suggests that for each increment of the independent variable, the mean values of the dependent variable do not lie along a straight line (Field, 2009).

Homoscedasticity suggests that "at each point along the predictor variable, the spread of residuals should be fairly constant" (Field, 2009, p. 787). This is seen when the data points are rectangular in shape. Data points that are funnel / triangular shaped or curvilinear are problematic. For the scatterplots on Figure 3, the plots show both a funnel shape (job satisfaction) and curvilinear pattern (organisational commitment). Homoscedasticity is, therefore, also violated as the residuals along each level of the dependent variable have unequal variances. As a result of these violations, the validity of the model is questionable; this suggests that the results of this study will only be relevant for the sample under study and may not be used to depict the population that the sample was drawn from.

Figure 3: Scatterplots for the dependent variables





4.4.3 Assumption 4: autocorrelation

Table 9: Model Summary – Job satisfaction (Autocorrelation)

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.282[a]	.079	.072	.542	1.260

a. Predictors: (Constant), Overall job sat

b. Dependent Variable: WellBmean

Table 10: Model Summary – Organisational commitment (Autocorrelation)

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.068[a]	.005	-.003	.564	1.201

a. Predictors: (Constant), OrgCommitMean

b. Dependent Variable: WellBmean

Residual terms of any two observations should be independent (Field, 2009). The Durbin-Watson test is used to test for serial correlations between errors. The test statistic can vary between 0 and 4 but the values commonly range between 1 and 3. Values less than 1 or greater than 4 are worrisome (Field, 2009). The values show an independence of errors for job satisfaction (1.260) and organisational commitment (1.201) in Table 9 and Table 10, respectively. The assumption of autocorrelation has, therefore, not been violated.

4.4.4 Assumption 5: influential cases

Table 11: Residual Statistics

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.48	4.80	3.91	.461	129
Std. Predicted Value	-3.104	1.931	.000	1.000	129
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.139	.454	.188	.057	129
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.08	4.87	3.91	.472	129
Residual	-3.532	4.516	.000	1.568	129
Std. Residual	-2.243	2.868	.000	.996	129
Stud. Residual	-2.268	2.995	.001	1.007	129
Deleted Residual	-3.610	4.925	.002	1.604	129
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.306	3.094	.001	1.014	129
Mahal. Distance	.000	9.636	.992	1.425	129
Cook's Distance	.000	.406	.011	.038	129
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.075	.008	.011	129

a. Dependent Variable: Overall job sat

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.83	4.08	3.99	.050	129
Std. Predicted Value	-3.104	1.931	.000	1.000	129
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.064	.210	.087	.026	129
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.69	4.11	3.99	.055	129
Residual	-2.043	2.008	.000	.727	129
Std. Residual	-2.798	2.751	.000	.996	129
Stud. Residual	-2.809	2.773	.001	1.005	129
Deleted Residual	-2.059	2.041	.001	.741	129
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.889	2.850	.001	1.016	129
Mahal. Distance	.000	9.636	.992	1.425	129
Cook's Distance	.000	.222	.010	.025	129
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.075	.008	.011	129

a. Dependent Variable: OrgCommitMean

To ensure that there are no influential outliers that negatively affected the data, additional variables SRE_1 and SRE_2 were created in the data set. These are the Studentized Residual (Stud. Residual) values seen in the above Residual Statistics tables. In these variables, univariate outliers are evidenced by values greater than 3. For the dependent variable job

satisfaction, the maximum value was 2.995 and 2.773 for the dependent variable organisational commitment. Additionally, the following tests were run and their results were as follows:

1) Cook's Distance: it is evident that there are no influential values that affected the model as the Cook's Distance values are less than 1 (Field, 2009):
    - Job satisfaction – maximum value of 0.406
    - Organisational commitment – maximum value of 0.222
2) Leverage (Centered Leverage Value as observed in the Residual Statistics above): this value should not be three times more than the average value (Field, 2009).

Average = $\frac{k+1}{n}$, with 'k' being the number of independent variables and 'n' being the sample size. For both job satisfaction and organisational commitment, 'k' was 1 and 'n' was 129, therefore, the average was 0.016. The leverage value for both variables was 0.075. The assumption is met as the leverage value is not three times more than the average, that is,

0.016 x 3=0.048. This value is less than 0.075.

At this point regarding the above mentioned assumptions, there is sufficient confidence in interpreting the regression results because most of the regression assumptions have been adequately met. Only linearity and homoscedasticity signalled minor problems with the data, however, the rest of the assumptions were met sufficiently. The results of the regression can still be interpreted, however, the results cannot be generalized beyond the sample (Field, 2009).

4.5. Regression Results

Table 12: Model Summary – Job satisfaction

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.282[a]	.079	.072	1.575

a. Predictors: (Constant), WellBmean

b. Dependent Variable: Overall job sat

Table 12 shows that there is some relationship between psychological well-being and job satisfaction (R=0.282), with psychological well-being accounting for 7.9% of the variation in job satisfaction.

Table 13: ANOVA Table – job satisfaction

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	27.184	1	27.184	10.964	.001[b]
	Residual	314.878	127	2.479		
	Total	342.062	128			

a. Dependent Variable: Overall job sat

b. Predictors: (Constant), WellBmean

The model is statistically significant F(1,127) = 10.964, p = 0.00, therefore psychological well-being predicts job satisfaction significantly. This confirms the first part of hypothesis 4 that psychological well-being predicts job satisfaction.

Table 14: Coefficients Table – job satisfaction

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.692	.554		10.268	.000
	WellBmean	-.819	.247	-.282	-3.311	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Overall job sat

Table 14 suggests that a 1 unit increase in psychological well-being is associated with a 5.692 increase in job satisfaction.

Effect Size

$\mathbf{f^2} = \frac{R^2}{1-R^2} = \frac{0.079}{1-0.079} = 0.09$, medium effect.

Table 15: Model Summary – organisational commitment

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.068[a]	.005	-.003	.730

a. Predictors: (Constant), WellBmean

b. Dependent Variable: OrgCommitMean

Table 15 shows that there is some relationship, though very small, between psychological well-being and organisational commitment (R=0.068), with psychological well-being accounting for 0.5% of the variation in organisational commitment.

Table 16: ANOVA Table – organisational commitment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.318	1	.318	.596	.442[b]
	Residual	67.698	127	.533		
	Total	68.016	128			

a. Dependent Variable: OrgCommitMean

b. Predictors: (Constant), WellBmean

The model is not statistically significant $F(1,127) = 0.596$, $p > 0.05$, therefore psychological well-being does not predict organisational commitment significantly. This disputes the last part of hypothesis 4 that psychological well-being predicts organisational commitment.

4.6. Additional Analyses

Additional analyses were conducted to test for association between demographic variables and the variables under study. The aim of this was to uncover any interesting associations that can help understand the sample and its characteristics. Chi-square test for association was used to generate these results. The assumptions of this test include having categorical data, and that the variables should each consist of two or more categorical groups which are independent (Field, 2009). These were sufficiently met as will be seen in the results presented below. It should be noted that interpreting the percentages in the cells reflects the patterns better than the frequencies; therefore, percentages will be used to interpret associations (Field, 2009).

Table 17: Crosstab and chi-square test – Educational background and overall job satisfaction

Crosstab

			Overall job sat							
			extremely dissatisfied	very dissatisfied	slightly dissatisfied	neutral	slightly satisfied	very satisfied	extremely satisfied	Total
Edu	Tertiary	Count	7	14	23	21	31	14	5	115
		% of Total	5.5%	10.9%	18.0%	16.4%	24.2%	10.9%	3.9%	89.8%
	Vocational training	Count	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
		% of Total	0.0%	0.8%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.3%
	Secondary	Count	3	0	0	0	2	3	0	8
		% of Total	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	2.3%	0.0%	6.3%
	Primary	Count	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
		% of Total	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%
Total		Count	11	16	25	21	33	17	5	128
		% of Total	8.6%	12.5%	19.5%	16.4%	25.8%	13.3%	3.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.142[a]	18	.028
Likelihood Ratio	29.529	18	.042
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.990	1	.084
N of Valid Cases	128		

a. 22 cells (78.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .08.

Educational background is significantly associated with job satisfaction, $x(18) = 31.142$, $p=0.028$. The majority of participants had tertiary education and were slightly satisfied with their jobs.

Among the demographics investigated (gender, job tenure, job category, number of children, having other dependents, and age), only educational background showed significant results with job satisfaction. This suggests that other demographic variables are not statistically significantly associated with overall job satisfaction which has been predicted by psychological well-being.

The results presented in this chapter are thoroughly explained in the following chapter, with reference made to the presented literature and theory in an effort to facilitate an understanding of the results.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results were extensively discussed in order to facilitate understanding. It is worth noting that, as presented in the results chapter, only significant results were of main focus. These results were discussed in relation to the literature presented earlier in the study as well as the theory in which the study was grounded. The sequence followed was guided by the hypotheses, which was also evident in the results section. The aim of the study was to investigate the association between employee psychological well-being and the dependent variables, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

As a result of psychological well-being previously being found to positively relate to job satisfaction, it was hypothesised that the results would confirm the relationship for the sample under study (Connolly & Myers, 2003). It was also hypothesised that psychological well-being was related to organisational commitment. This was a result of numerous studies among employees of different levels having found this relationship (Meyer et al., 2002; Field & Buitendach, 2011). Thirdly, it was hypothesised that job satisfaction was related to organisational commitment. This has become commonly known that the two job attitudes are strongly positively related so much that interventions have been designed to address both at the same time (Karsh et al., 2005). For example, Parks and Steelman (2008) reported that employee wellness programmes improve job satisfaction as employees feel cared for, and organisational commitment as satisfied employees tend to be inclined towards committing to their jobs and the organisation. Psychological well-being was also hypothesised to predict job satisfaction as per the finding of a study conducted by Connolly and Myers (2003). Field and Buitendach (2011) also found results that influenced the last hypothesis that psychological wellbeing predicts organisational commitment. These hypotheses and findings will be discussed further.

5.2. Discussion of the research findings

The majority of the participants reported an absence of psychological well-being (60.5%). This may be explained by the earlier findings that highlighted that Batswana employees tend to value job security and make efforts towards maintaining peace and harmony in the workplace (Pfau, 1991; Hope, 2003). Therefore, negative feelings, especially towards those in positions of authority, cannot be expressed. This has a negative impact on one's feelings

and emotions as they are not addressed through expression and discussion, leading to disturbed psychological well-being.

The overall job satisfaction for public service employees in Botswana was found to be moderate. This disputes previous findings that showed the majority of employees reporting dissatisfaction (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). However, this was a specific sample of nurses, whose results may be influenced by shared characteristics such as working conditions. The results can be explained by the fact that employees in the public service from years ago valued job security (Pfau, 1991). The current findings could then show a stricking balance between being dissatisfied with their job yet appreciating the job security of being employed by government. This balance could then be portrayed as moderate satisfaction. However, other issues such as improved technology, systems, benchmarking from best practices and other developments within government may be a contributing reason to improved working environment and other job factors (Siphambe, 2007). For example, from 1980 to 2003 there have been reports of annual growth rate for wages in various sectors including agriculture (1.61%), education (3.91%), and mining and quarrying (2.38%) (Siphambe, 2007). These, among other developments, may have contributed to the reported moderate job satisfaction level in comparison with previous findings.

Similar to overall job satisfaction, overall organisational commitment, affective, continuance and normative commitment levels for the sample were moderate. These results are not surprising as a number of studies have found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Meyer et al. (1989) found this relationship on a sample of unit managers and district managers, while Karsh (2005) found a similar relationship on a sample of certified nursing assistants, registered nurses/licensed practical nurses, other care staff and non-care staff. This sample, similarly to the sample that was investigated in the current study, was made up of a large number of employees with tertiary education qualifications. It, therefore, offers an understanding of why the sample could experience moderate levels of organisational commitment.

Psychological well-being is positively related to age. The relationship is weak and direct, suggesting that as age increases well-being increases. This relationship is very weak, which may explain why there are no studies that found a relationship between the two variables. Additionally, Taormina (1999) found no relationship between the two variables in a study conducted on a sample of full-time employees in Hong Kong. However, it is worth noting

that the two studies differ in that the current study has the majority of the sample having tertiary education qualifications, while the sample from the previous study had the majority (86%) with no college degree. This might suggest a mediating effect of qualifications. It may also be understood that employees with higher qualifications tend to progress in terms of job promotion, which means that by the time they are older they are more content with their jobs and job characteristics, which then elevates their psychological well-being (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). Psychological well-being is also significantly related to job satisfaction; however, the relationship is negative. This suggests that as psychological well-being increases overall job satisfaction decreases. This result does not support previous findings that suggested that employees who are dissatisfied with jobs are more likely to experience workplace stress (Fako et al., 2004). An interesting observation is that the result may suggest that employees who experience psychological well-being may begin to feel less satisfied with their jobs due to the conscious decision to put their well-being first; meaning that one begins to notice their lack of satisfaction with various job aspects as a response to their decision to begin caring for themselves better. This incredibly contradicts the inclusion of job satisfaction in other definitions of employee well-being, suggesting that satisfaction contributes substantially to well-being (Meyer et al., 2012). This also contradicts the premise of the TWA by suggesting that reinforcers aimed at improving psychological well-being will contribute to lower levels of job satisfaction and will result in low satisfaction with the work environment. However, as the TWA model suggests, the relationships may be altered by the inclusion of a reinforcer aimed at satisfying employee values; that is, reinforcers may act as moderators, which can change the direction of the relationship (Brown & Lent, 2013). Despite this result, hypothesis 1 has been confirmed as a relationship was found between psychological well-being and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2 was not confirmed as organisational commitment was not significantly related to psychological well-being. This suggests that for the sample under study, no relationship exists between their psychological well-being and the need to remain in their organisations and at their jobs. Moreover, it is of surprising discovery to find out that affective commitment is negatively related to well-being. The weak and inverse relationship suggests that as affective commitment increases psychological well-being decreases.

Nonetheless, hypothesis 3 was confirmed as organisational commitment was positively related to overall job satisfaction. The relationship is direct and of medium effect, suggesting

that as organisational commitment increases overall job satisfaction also increases. This result is supported by a number of previous studies including Mogotsi et al. (2011), Karsh (2005), Motshegwa (2011) and Meyer et al. (2012). It has been found that intrinsic job satisfaction was high among employees who were fully committed (Meyer et al., 2012). Additionally, Motshegwa (2011) specifically found that when one is satisfied with their pay they will feel the need to remain in the organisation. This is relevant because among other attributes, pay satisfaction forms a significant part of job satisfaction. It also suggests that pay acts as a reinforcer for employees valuing compensation (comfort), which leads to them feeling content as explained by the TWA. Furthermore, the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment suggests that extends the employees' satisfaction to commitment to their jobs and organisations. These variables have also been shown to both predict turnover intentions, which also suggest that they may have characteristics that align them together, hence their relationship (Karsh, 2005). These results, therefore, strongly signify the association between one's values and their satisfaction level, suggesting that a reinforcer enhancing job satisfaction may indirectly positively influence commitment.

Similar to previous research findings, job satisfaction has been related to affective commitment and normative commitment, but not to continuance commitment (Meyer et al., 2012). The results of the current study showed the same results; affective commitment is positively related to overall job satisfaction. The relationship is strong and direct, suggesting that as affective commitment increases overall job satisfaction also increases. With affective commitment reflecting "commitment based on emotional ties the employee develops with the organisation primarily via positive work experiences", this relationship is justified (Jaros, 2007, p. 7). This is so because job satisfaction directly resonates with one's positive work experiences. Normative commitment was also positively related to overall job satisfaction, with a weak and direct relationship. Therefore, as one's overall job satisfaction increases, their perceived obligation towards their organisation of employment also increases (Jaros, 2007). Although this relationship is weak, it suggests that it is not uncommon for a satisfied employee to feel under pressure to remain in an organisation due to the perception that one will be reciprocating for what the organisation does that leads to his/her satisfaction. Additionally, job satisfaction is similarly weakly related to normative commitment. However, this is not an unexpected revelation considering that in other studies normative commitment and continuance commitment items have loaded on the AC subscale leading to the AC subscale being used to investigate overall organisational commitment (Mogotsi et al., 2011).

Therefore, the similar results of both affective commitment and normative commitment on job satisfaction may stem from their close association. Moreover, despite being of low effect, the positive relationships between normative commitment and affective commitment, and normative commitment and continuance commitment confirm the coexistence of these constructs in the broader organisational commitment construct (Jaros, 2007). Essentially, all the three variables are related to organisational commitment. It is worth noting that all the relationships are strong and positive, which is firm evidence that they are the main components of organisational commitment. Although each of them represents a unique component of commitment and can be investigated on its own, they combine to influence organisational behavior (Meyer et al., 2012). It is worth noting that job satisfaction is not associated with continuance commitment, which may be due continuance commitment being measured as one's awareness of the costs associated with leaving. Suggesting that being aware of the costs is more cognitive and does not guarantee action to be contemplated or taken. Therefore, one requires more than being aware in order for their satisfaction to be influenced (Meyer et al., 2012).

With the established relationship between psychological well-being and job satisfaction, psychological well-being has been found to account for 7.9% of the variation in job satisfaction. The model is statistically significant (with a medium effect), therefore psychological well-being predicts job satisfaction significantly. This confirms the first part of hypothesis 4 that psychological well-being predicts job satisfaction. This is supported by Karsh (2005) who reports that work stress, among other variables, has predicting effects on job satisfaction. Work stress forms a significant part of psychological well-being as its presence is associated with the absence of psychological well-being (McDowell, 2006). This is a positive result regarding the implementation of workplace wellness programmes in the Botswana public sector as comprehensive programmes focusing on employee psychological well-being, among other factors, may contribute positively towards the level of contentment with job and job aspects by public service employees. For employees valuing conditions that encourage lack of stress (comfort), satisfaction will be achieved through wellness programmes that address psychological well-being (Brown & Lent, 2013). This is so as the environment would have put measures in place that can sufficiently address employees' needs and values, leading to a level of contentment with the work environment. As psychological well-being may also be considered a representation of the effects of workplace wellness programmes, it can act as a reinforcer. Psychological well-being results from a

variety of factors including those emanating from the self, others and work environment (Eggerth & Flynn, 2012). Moreover, the support provided to employees through workplace wellness programmes addressed employee challenges that stem from all the various aspects of their lives. Therefore, these programmes can act to reinforce employees' satisfaction with their work environment, which includes their jobs and aspects of those jobs. With the prediction confirmed, it can be indicated that the presence of psychological well-being underpins and acts to strengthen the presence of job satisfaction. It is also important to note that a one unit increase in psychological well-being is associated with a 5.692 increase in job satisfaction; this shows that a small increase in psychological well-being will greatly increase job satisfaction and interventions targeted at enhancing psychological well-being will enhance job satisfaction more substantially.

Nonetheless, psychological well-being does not significantly predict organisational commitment. This disputes the last part of hypothesis 4 that psychological well-being predicts organisational commitment. This is despite Field and Buitendach (2011) having found psychological well-being to predict organisational commitment. However, a deeper perspective may suggest that job satisfaction, as related to both well-being and commitment, has a mediating effect on the relationship between psychological well-being and organisational commitment. This would mean that this prediction would be significant if job satisfaction was included in the model. If this is true, employee wellness programmes would still benefit organisations greatly as their contribution to employees' job satisfaction will have a resultant effect on their organisational commitment as previously explained (Parks & Steelman, 2008).

Demographic variables also have a role to play as they may contribute to the presence and/or absence of the variables under study within the sample. Educational background is significantly associated with job satisfaction, that is, how educated one is relates to how satisfied one will be with their job. The higher the education level or qualification, the higher the overall job satisfaction. The majority of participants had tertiary education qualification and are slightly satisfied with their jobs. This is supported by the findings that suggest that educational background contributes towards promotion opportunities and, as a result, higher pay. This is so because as one progresses up the job ranks they benefit from increasing remuneration. A substantial number of employees consider pay as an important aspect of their jobs, therefore, pay satisfaction is of paramount importance. Thus, as one becomes satisfied with the pay that comes as a result of possession of higher qualifications, one also

becomes satisfied with their jobs (Fako & Forcheh, 2000). The TWA supports by suggesting that an individual with a higher qualification may perform well given the right job due to the learning acquired. This in turn will make the employee satisfactory to the work environment, which will be reciprocated by an increased level of job satisfaction through resulting reinforcers (rewards such as higher pay, promotion, etc).

However, not all employees with higher qualifications achieve this person-environment correspondence. In addition to the above, Makambe et al. (2016) found that employees with higher qualifications who were recent graduates were not satisfied with their jobs. It was then explained that most entry level jobs are assistant level jobs and employees with higher qualifications were not content with the jobs as they may have hoped that their qualifications will warrant them higher level jobs (Makambe et al., 2016). This then suggests that the entry level into a job has a contribution to whether one will be satisfied or not considering the level of qualification they possess. This depicts an employee valuing autonomy, achievement and most importantly status. These values are then not sufficiently met when this employee is engaged at low level where there is less control and recognition. This leads to low satisfaction, and in most cases low commitment. In this instance, there is a possibility that the employee will be content with the requirements of the job and will not be satisfactory to his/her work environment. The reciprocity then becomes negative; low satisfactoriness and low satisfaction (Patton & McMahon, 2014).

Among the demographics investigated (gender, job tenure, job category, number of children, having other dependents, marital status, and age), only age was significantly related to employee psychological well-being. This is despite psychological well-being being associated with personal stressors such as having children and dependents to take care of physically, psychologically, and most commonly, financially (McDowell, 2006). Marital status was also expected to play a role in the associations and prediction, with having a partner or spouse leading to either enhanced psychological well-being as they may be a source of social support or deflated psychological well-being as they pose as stressors. In relation, Thompson and Prottas (2005) found that individuals who were single (without a partner or unmarried) tended to be more satisfied. This similarly applies in relation to children and other dependents as their presence may be either contributory or detrimental to one's psychological well-being. However, the result regarding having children is supported with Fako and Forcheh (2000) having found no relationship between having children and

one's level of satisfaction. In addition, educational background showed significant results with job satisfaction. On the other hand, Fako and Forcheh (2000) had found a relationship between age and job satisfaction. This finding has also not been supported in the current study.

In conclusion, only hypothesis 1, 3 and the first part of hypothesis 4 were confirmed. That is, psychological well-being and job satisfaction were related, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were related, and psychological well-being predicted job satisfaction. On the other hand, psychological well-being was not related to organisational commitment and, therefore, did not predict it. There is evidence of more complex interrelations between the variables under study. Additionally, the TWA generally provides an accurate depiction of the interaction between person and environment, and the role played by each to achieve the desired states of satisfactoriness and satisfaction.

5.2.1 Limitations of the study

The current study was not without hindrances during data collection, analysis and interpretations. It is vital to highlight the challenges as they may have had a direct or indirect impact on the results of the study. Firstly, the literature used to understand the extent of the problem and to substantiate the accuracy of the current results is mostly out-dated and from foreign populations with possibly different cultures, characteristics and beliefs. As a result of the differing characteristics of the populations to the sample of the current study, the rationale supporting the results may not be similar for all samples. Nevertheless, the literature offered a foundation in understanding the relationships between the variables under study.

Another challenge experienced was gaining access to government organisations to collect data. The processes required were contradictive as there were many authorising offices that were not aware of the duplicated functions assumed. However, this was eventually overcome as access was gained at the government organisations that had structured procedures, and a response was availed as per the stipulated time, which was a week. Nonetheless, another challenge was faced as some employees in management levels required the researcher to pass the data collection responsibility to one of their subordinate employees instead of allowing the researcher to personally collect data directly from the potential participants. This denied some of the participants the opportunity to get a formal introduction of the researcher and the study; however, participant information sheets were still availed to the participants.

Additionally, the psychometric instruments utilised in those studies had compromised properties as some of the scales had one item only and also because they were developed for a different group of people and normed in a different setting and country. Similarly, the tools used in the current study to operationalise the variables were not constructed and normed for the Botswana population. Therefore, despite the tools having been piloted prior to conducting the study, the sample of Botswana public service employees may have had unique interpretations and understanding of the items due to influential cultural background, type of education received, English proficiency, and other factors. Therefore, the results may have been subject to the influence of the understanding of the sample.

The study was cross-sectional in nature, which does not allow for participants to be observed over time. This poses a challenge as the participants' responses at the time of collecting data may have been influenced by any experience they may have been going through at the time (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). In addition, non-probability convenience sampling was utilised due to its ease (time and financial cost), however, the results may be influenced by the unknown factors that may be dominant or absent in the participants who agreed to participate in the study. That is, there may be common factors that led to them agreeing to participate, and these may have affected the results.

In data analysis, two regression assumptions were not sufficiently met; this may lead to inaccurate regression results (Field, 2009). With linearity and homoscedasticity not being met, it is clear that the data was not linear and the variances among residuals were unequal. While this could have been corrected through the use of non-parametric test equivalents, the knowledge required to utilise non-parametric multivariate tests was insufficient, leading to the use of the results with caution. Therefore, the results of the study cannot be generalised to the population but only to the investigated sample.

5. 3 Conclusion

This study poses a rich contextual background of the Botswana public service and highlights its evolution over the years. The current findings provide useful information about the intricacies surrounding the variables under study, with other variables contributing to the ultimate psychological well-being in rather interesting ways.

The study mainly addressed workplace attitudes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which are of significant contribution to the effectiveness of employees at their

jobs and workplaces. These are commonly investigated factors and are vital to any workforce as they are associated with organisational behaviour, such as turnover intentions and turnover.

It is interesting to note that the findings of the current study engaged thoroughly with previous research by confirming some of the results and highlighting the differences of the various samples from the current sample where the findings differed. Also, the theory supporting the study briefly highlighted the usefulness of organisations' provision of conducive work environment as this may encourage reciprocity from employees. Employees then reciprocate by enhanced performance, job satisfaction and eventually organisational commitment.

The importance of the results emanates from their relevance to the current Botswana public service sphere with regards to implementation of workplace wellness programmes; the findings are well-positioned to contribute and form a basis for future research with regards to how productivity and performance can be achieved and maintained through caring for employees' psychological well-being.

Having discussed in detail, it is important to note that the findings of this study should only be generalised to the investigated sample due to the challenges encountered during the course of undertaking the study. Therefore, despite the results being related to the implementation of workplace wellness programmes in the Botswana public service, the recommendations to be presented can only offer guidance. It can then be concluded that the study undertaken offers great contribution to both research and practice in Botswana.

5.3.1 Recommendations

It may be recommended that a study of this nature utilises mixed method approaches to account for the details that employees can provide regarding the rich constructs under study. The exploratory nature of the design could uncover narratives of the participants that could offer major themes that can contribute to knowledge about the current workforce and could provide their recommendations regarding how their issues of concern may be addressed. Additionally, with the observed implications of job satisfaction, it is worth investigating how job satisfaction could be utilised to improve employee productivity.

With job satisfaction and organisational commitment being commonly investigated workplace attitudes; it is relevant for the development of culture specific psychometric tests

that can be used to operationalise these variables. Therefore, researchers and practitioners should participate in test development as those tests would directly investigate variables as they are understood by and reflected within the population. They would be more applicable for use than those developed in different populations and cultures.

The variables investigated in the current study should be further investigated for the possible associations with each other as they appear to have intricate relationships rather than just bidirectional relationships. This is to say that job satisfaction should be investigated as a mediating variable between employee psychological well-being and organisational commitment. This investigation could help determine the potential contribution of job satisfaction in relation to other variables in the study of employee well-being.

Future research should also utilise statistical analysis more rigorously, such as the use of non-parametric tests where necessary, to ensure the applicability of the findings to the entire population represented by the investigated sample. This could build knowledge relevant to the practical contribution of the recommendations and the production of tangible results.

It is important to note that research in Botswana is still lacking, leading to policies and programmes being based on foreign literature which may not resonate with the characteristics of the Botswana population. It can, therefore, be recommended that productive structures be put in place to allow research opportunities to be seized. It would also be a positive development when Batswana are encouraged to take part in studies being conducted as they have the potential to influence the current state of employees, organisations, and the economy at large.

With psychological well-being having shown predictive effects on job satisfaction, it can be recommended that wellness programmes should be structured to address all facets of well-being, including psychological well-being, through relevant activities. In addition, the activities should be relevant to the employees, the type of work they do and the lifestyles they lead. The benefits to the public sector will not only be a satisfied human capital, but also improved productivity.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJSS)

How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your job?

	Extremely dissatisfied (1)	**Very dissatisfied (2)**	**Slightly dissatisfied (3)**	**Neutral (4)**	**Slightly satisfied (5)**	**Very satisfied (6)**	**Extremely satisfied (7)**
1) The physical working conditions.							
2)The freedom to choose your own method of working.							
3)Your fellow workers.							
4)The recognition you get for good work.							
5)Your immediate boss.							
6)The amount of responsibility you are given.							
7)Your rate of pay.							
8)Your opportunity to use your abilities.							
9)Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm.							
10)Your chance of promotion.							
11)The way your firm is managed.							
12)The attention paid to suggestions you make.							
13)Your hours of							

work.							
14)The amount of variety in your job.							
15)Your job security.							
16)Taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job as a whole?							

Appendix B

The General Heath Questionnaire (GHQ)

Please mark with a cross (X) the response that you feel best suits the way that you have felt, thought or behaved in the past few weeks. Please make sure that you answer all twelve questions below.

Have you recently…

	Better than usual (1)	**Same as usual (2)**	**Worse than usual (3)**	**Much worse than usual (4)**
1.been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?				

	Not at all (1)	**No more than usual (2)**	**Rather more than usual (3)**	**Much worse than usual (4)**
2.lost much sleep over worry?				

	More so than usual (1)	**Same as usual (2)**	**Less useful than usual (3)**	**Much less useful (4)**
3.felt that you are playing a useful part in things?				

	More so than usual (1)	**Same as usual (2)**	**Less so than usual (3)**	**Much less capable (4)**
4.felt capable of making decisions about things?				

	Not at all (1)	**No more than usual (2)**	**Rather more than usual (3)**	**Much worse than usual (4)**
5.felt constantly under strain?				

	Not at all (1)	No more than usual (2)	Les able than usual (3)	Much less able than usual (4)
6.felt that you could not overcome your difficulties?				

	More so than usual (1)	Same as usual (2)	Less so than usual (3)	Much less than usual (4)
7.been able to enjoy your day-to-day activities?				

	More so than usual (1)	Same as usual (2)	Less able than usual (3)	Much less able (4)
8.been able to face up to your problems?				

	Not at all (1)	No more than usual (2)	Rather more than usual (3)	Much worse than usual (4)
9.been feeling unhappy and depressed?				

	Not at all (1)	No more than usual (2)	Rather more than usual (3)	Much worse than usual (4)
10.been losing confidence in yourself?				

	Not at all (1)	No more than usual (2)	Rather more than usual (3)	Much worse than usual (4)

11.been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?				

	More so than usual (1)	**About the same as usual (2)**	**Less so than usual (3)**	**Much less than usual (4)**
12.been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?				

Appendix C

Organisational Commitment Scale

Affective Commitment Scale

1.I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.

1-strongly disagree	2-disagree somewhat	3-disagree	4-neutral	5-somewhat agree	6-agree	7-strongly agree

2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.

1-strongly disagree	2-disagree somewhat	3-disagree	4-neutral	5-somewhat agree	6-agree	7-strongly agree

3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

1-strongly disagree	2-disagree somewhat	3-disagree	4-neutral	5-somewhat agree	6-agree	7-strongly agree

4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)

1-strongly disagree	2-disagree somewhat	3-disagree	4-neutral	5-somewhat agree	6-agree	7-strongly agree

5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)

1-strongly disagree	2-disagree somewhat	3-disagree	4-neutral	5-somewhat agree	6-agree	7-strongly agree

6. I do not feel "emotionally" attached to this organization. (R)

1-strongly disagree	2-disagree somewhat	3-disagree	4-neutral	5-somewhat agree	6-agree	7-strongly agree

7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

Continuance Commitment Scale

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R)

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (R)

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

6. I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

7. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice: another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

Normative Commitment Scale

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R)

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

1-	2-	3-	4-	5-	6-	7-

strongly disagree	disagree somewhat	disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	agree	strongly agree

5. If l got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R)

1- strongly disagree	2- disagree somewhat	3- disagree	4- neutral	5- somewhat agree	6- agree	7- strongly agree

Appendix D

Demographic questions

32. What is your gender?
    [ ] male
    [ ] female

33.How old are you? _____ years

34.Marital status

    [ ] Single
    [ ] Married
    [ ] Divorced
    [ ] Widowed
    [ ] Separated
    [ ] Living with partner

35.Educational background
    [ ] tertiary education
    [ ] vocational training
    [ ] secondary education
    [ ] primary education
    [ ] never went to school

36.Job title
_____
_____

37.Years on current job
    [ ] 2 years or less
    [ ] between 2 and 5 years
    [ ] between 5 and 10 years
    [ ] over 10 years

38. Responsible for own children Yes / No

39. Responsible for other dependents Yes / No

Appendix E

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (SCHOOL OF HUMAN & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	PROTOCOL NUMBER: MORG/16/004 IH
PROJECT TITLE:	Psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment among employees in Botswana.
INVESTIGATORS	Baruti Thuso
DEPARTMENT	Psychology
DATE CONSIDERED	29/06/16
DECISION OF COMMITTEE*	Approved

This ethical clearance is valid for 2 years and may be renewed upon application

DATE: 29 June 2016

CHAIRPERSON
(Professor B. Bowman)

cc Supervisor:

Dr Calvin Gwandure
Psychology

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR (S)

To be completed in duplicate and **one copy** returned to the Secretary, Room 100015, 10th floor, Senate House, University.

I/we fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure, as approved, I/we undertake to submit a revised protocol to the Committee.

This ethical clearance will expire on 31 December 2018

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix F

LEGRAMS: PULA
LEPHONE: 3950800
LEX: 2655 BD

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
PRIVATE BAG 001
GABORONE

Ref: OP 5/59/8 IX (16)

12th July, 2016

Ms Thuso Tsalona Baruti
P.O. Box 3588
Mahalapye

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH PERMIT

You are herewith granted permission for research permit to conduct a study titled: **"Psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment among employees in Botswana."**

i. Copies of any report/papers written as a result of the study are directly deposited with the Office of the President.

ii. The permit does not give authority to enter any premises, private establishment or protected area. Permission for such entry should be negotiated with those concerned.

iii. You conduct the project according to the particulars furnished in the approved application taking into account the above conditions.

iv. Failure to comply with any of the above stipulated conditions will result in the immediate cancellation of the permit.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

F.J. Ramsay
For/PERMANENT SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT

cc. **Director, Botswana National Library Services**
Director, National Archives and Record Services

Appendix G

TELEPHONE (027) 3655469
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD
FAX: 3185167

REF: DPRS 7/1/5 XXVII (15)

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE

31st August 2016

Thuso Tsalona Baruti
P O Box 3385
Mahalapye

Dear Madam

RE: PERMIT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

This serves to grant you permission to conduct your study in the sampled areas in Botswana to address the following research objectives/questions /topic:

Psychological well- being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees in Botswana

It is of paramount importance to seek **Consent** from the Ministry of Education and Skills Development Headquarters, Central Region (Mahalapye and Palapye) and Department of Tertiary Education Financing staff that you are going to collect data from. We hope that you will conduct your study as stated in your proposal and that you will adhere to research ethics. Failure to comply with the above stated, will result in immediate termination of the research permit. The validity of the permit is from **31st August 2016 to 31st August 2017.**

You are requested to submit a copy of your final report of the study as stated in the Research Guidelines (para 4.5 - 4.6, 2007) to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, in the Department of Educational Planning and Research Services, Botswana.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Sir Wonder Masebola
For/Permanent Secretary

BOTSWANA
Our pride, your destination

Appendix H

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development

University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050

Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

My name is Thuso Baruti and I am currently conducting a research study for the purposes of obtaining my Masters of Arts Organisational Psychology degree at the University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa. The research intends to study psychological well-being, satisfaction and commitment of employees in Botswana. I would like to request your participation in the study by responding to the provided questionnaires.

Workplace wellness programmes have become popular in organisations and have mostly been implemented to enhance employee health and well-being. However, their main focus has been on physical health, neglecting other important areas such as psychological well-being. Also of concern is how workplace wellness programmes are developed and whether they fully address issues pertinent to the organisation and, especially, employees. This study, therefore, aims to investigate the relationship between psychological well-being, satisfaction and commitment.

From the findings of this study, organisations will be aware of whether or not psychological well-being is related to satisfaction and commitment in the Botswana context as per literature from other countries. The findings of the proposed study will also be instrumental in guiding organisations in developing and upgrading wellness programs to address the psychological well-being of employees and to achieve optimal levels of satisfaction and commitment for their employees. This is important as both satisfaction and commitment contribute to employee performance and productivity. Therefore, your valued participation will contribute to building knowledge in the field of human resources regarding employee well-being, satisfaction and commitment in Botswana.

Participation in this research study will involve completing three questionnaires. It should take no more than 20 to 30 minutes to complete. Participation in this study is completely voluntary; you are free to withdraw from participation any time before submission of the questionnaires. Furthermore, whilst some questions relate to the personal circumstances of individuals, no identifying information such as the name, ID number or place of work is required, hence anonymity is guaranteed. In addition, the completed questionnaires will only be accessible to the researcher and responses will be kept confidential.

Completed questionnaires are to be placed in an envelope provided, sealed and placed in a box which will be placed in an area agreed upon by the researcher and organisation. This ensures that no one but the researcher will have access to the completed questionnaires. The results of the study will be reported in a research report and feedback will be made available in the form of a summary to any participant or organisation that has interest in the overall outcomes of this study. The summary will be available in summary form by March 2017 and may be requested via the emails provided below.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact either myself, or my supervisor, Dr. Calvin Gwandure.

Yours Sincerely,

_____

Thuso Tsalona Baruti (Miss)
Cell: 079 250 7760
Email: 718634@students.wits.ac.za

_____

Dr. Calvin Gwandure (Supervisor)
Email: Calvin.Gwandure@wits.ac.za

Appendix I

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development

University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050

Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

RESEARCH PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in the research project of Thuso Tsalona Baruti on psychological well-being, satisfaction and commitment. I understand that the researcher is a student conducting the research as part of the requirements for a Masters degree at University of the Witwatersrand. The researcher may be contacted at 718634@students.wits.ac.za. The research project has been approved by the relevant ethics committee, and is under the supervision of Mr. Calvin Gwandure in the Psychology Department at University of the Witwatersrand, who may be contacted at Calvin.Gwandure@ wits.ac.za.

You will be asked a few questions on a questionnaire which will take no more than 30 minutes to complete. You may be asked to answer questions of a personal nature, but you can choose not to answer any questions that you are not willing to answer. You are invited to let the researcher know of any concerns you have about your participation in the study, or consequences you may experience as a result of your participation, and have these addressed to your satisfaction. You are free to leave the study at any time before submitting the questionnaire.

The report on the project may contain information about your personal experiences, attitudes and behaviours, it will be designed in such a way that it will not be possible for you to be identified by the general reader. Your participation in this study will not affect your job in any way but rather you will be contributing to knowledge in the field of human resources, which could help relevant authorities when there is a need to assess and address psychological well-being, satisfaction and commitment.

Any information you provide will be treated with utmost anonymity and confidentiality. If interested in the overall outcomes of this study, they will be available in summary form by March 2017 and may be requested via the emails provided above.

Participant Signature: _____ Researcher: _____

Date: _____