

**WORKPLACE WELLNESS, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND RETENTION
IN AN INSURANCE COMPANY IN SOUTH AFRICA.**

by

SMANGALISO NCUBE

submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF ADELE BEZUIDENHOUT

CO-SUPERVISOR: MRS ELIZABETH RUDOLPH

NOVEMBER 2018

DECLARATION

Name: Smangaliso Ncube

Student number: 41177894

Degree: Master of Commerce in Human Resource Management

Title:

Workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in an insurance company in South Africa.

I declare that the above dissertation is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means for complete references.

SIGNATURE

DATE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- I owe this piece of work to my late parents Situbeni and Shirley Dube. I know you would have been very proud of me.
- I would like to thank “God” who has seen me through this project and made it possible to complete through so many challenges.
- My supervisor, Professor Adele Bezuidenhout, for her unconditional support, guidance and encouragement.
- My co-supervisor Mrs Elizabeth Rudolph, for her continuous support and guidance.
- My employer, who made this research possible; specifically the Employee Relations Department and the Information Technology Department.
- The statistician who assisted with the data analysis.
- The language editor who assisted in ensuring that the document meets the required standard.
- My family Dee, Bonggi and Pauline for looking after my children while studying, and children Bayanda, Zandisiwe, Keith and Kyle for understanding and supporting me to work on my dissertation.
- My husband Mxolisi Ncube who supported me to complete the dissertation.
- Lastly a bursary from the University of South Africa that afforded me to achieve this qualification. I owe it to the University of South Africa.

ABSTRACT

Workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention play a phenomenal role in organisations. Insurance companies form part of the organisations affected by retention of employees. Employees need to be physically, spiritually, socially, emotionally, intellectually, occupationally and environmentally well to perform, commit and remain in the organisation for longer. The objective of the study was to (i) establish a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention among employees of an insurance organisation in Johannesburg, (ii) to establish whether a relationship exists between the variables and the demographics age, gender, race groups, marital status and education levels. A deductive quantitative research method with systematic sampling was utilized to gather and evaluate the data in a sample of 726 randomly selected participants. A 22.59% response rate was obtained.

The findings indicate significant relationships between the respondents', workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention, also between workplace wellness, retention and education level. This is an indication that workplace wellness and organisational commitment has an influence on retaining employees and that employees with a level of education attest to that. No significant relations found between variables workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the biographical variables age, gender, marital status, employment levels. No significant relations were found between organisational commitment and education level. The findings of this research contribute to the existing body of knowledge by providing human resource managers and practitioners with insights on specific commitment and retention strategies that will make employees commit and remain longer in the organisation. An important understanding gained on retention strategies will assist human resource managers to design relevant interventions to have committed employees and retain them.

Key terms

Workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention

KAFUSHANE NGOCWANINGO

Impilonhle emsebenzini, ukuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kanye nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi kudlala indima enkulu ezinhlanganweni. Izinkampani zomshwalense ziyingxenye yezinhlango ezithintekayo ekugcinweni kwabasebenzi. Abasebenzi kumele babe sesimweni esihle ngokomzimba, ngokomphefumulo, ngokwemizwa, ngokwengqondo, ngokomsebenzi kanye nangokwesimo semvelo abaphila kusona ukuze bakwazi ukwenza umsebenzi wabo kahle futhi bahlale isikhathi eside enhlanganweni. Injongo yalolu cwaningo kwabe (i) kuwukubheka nokuthola ubudlelwano phakathi kwempilonhle emsebenzini, ukuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kanye nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi ezinhlanganweni zomshwalense eGoli, (ii) ukuthola ukuthi bukhona yini ubudlelwano phakathi kwezimo ezintathu ezishiwo ngenhla (impilonhle emsebenzini, ukuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kanye nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi) kanye nezici eziphathelele nabantu ezinjengeminyaka yobudala, ubulili, uhlanga/ibala lomuntu, isimo somshado kanye namazinga emfundo. Kwasetshenziswa i-deductive quantitative research method ehambisana ne-systematic sampling ukuqoqa nokuhlola idatha kubabambiqhaza bocwangino abangama-726 ababeqokwe ngaphandle kokulandela indlela ethile ehlelekile. Kwatholakala izinga lokuphendula (response rate) elingama-22.59%.

Imiphumela yocwaningo ibonisa ukuba khona kobudlelwano obukhulu phakathi kwempilonhle emsebenzini, ukuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kanye nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi; futhi bukhona ubudlelwano phakathi kwempilonhle emsebenzini nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi kanye nezinga lemfundo. Lokhu kuyinkomba yokuthi impilonhle emsebenzini kanye nokuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kunawo umthelela ekugcinweni kwabasebenzi futhi abasebenzi abanezinga elithile lemfundo bawubufakazi balokho. Abukho ubudlelwano obuphawulekayo obatholakala phakathi kwezimo ezinjengempilonhle emsebenzini, ukuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kanye nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi kanye nezici eziphathelele nabantu ezinjengeminyaka yobudala, ubulili, isimo somshado kanye namazinga okuqashwa.

Futhi abukho ubudlelwano obuphawulekayo obatholakala phakathi kokuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni kanye nezinga lemfundo. Imiphumela yalolu cwaningo ifaka isandla olwazini olukhona njengamanje ngokuhlinzeka abaphathi kanye nabasebenzi beminyango yezindaba zabasebenzi ngolwazi oluzobalekelela ukuthi bakwazi ukuqonda kahle amaqhingasu athile aphantelene nokuzibophezela kwabasebenzi kanye nokugcinwa kwabo emsebenzini okuyinto ezokwenza ukuthi abasebenzi bazibophezele futhi bahlale isikhathi eside enhlanganweni. Ukuqonda amaqhingasu okugcinwa kwabasebenzi kuzolekelela abaphathi beminyango yezindaba zabasebenzi ukuthi bakwazi ukwenza izinhlelo zokungenelela ezifanelekile ukuze babe nabasebenzi abazibophezele futhi babagcine emsebenzini.

Amagama asemqoka

Impilonhle emsebenzini, ukuzibophezela kwabasebenzi enhlanganweni, ukugcinwa kwabasebenzi.

MANWELEDZO

Mutakalo mushumoni, u dikumedzela ha tshiimiswa na u dzudza zwi shela mulenzhe nga huhulu kha tshiimiswa. Khamphani dza ndindakhombo dzi vhumba tshipiḁa tsha zwiimiswa zwo khwameaho zwa u dzudza vhatholwa mushumoni. Vhatholwa vha tea u vha vhe na mutakalo muvhilini, muyani, matshilisano, mielekanyo, vhuḁali, mushumo na vhupo havhuḁi u kona u shuma, u dikumedzela, na u dzula kha tshiimiswa lwa tshifhinga tshilapfu. Ndivho ya ngudo ho vha u (i) thoma vhushaka vhukati ha mutakalo mushumoni, u dikumedzela ha tshiimiswa na u dzudza vhukati ha vhatholwa vha tshiimiswa tsha ndindakhombo ngei Johannesburg, (ii) u vhona arali hu na vhushaka vhukati ha zwishanduwaho na vhukale ha tshandukisatshivhumbeo, mbeu, zwigwada zwa mirafho, nyimele ya mbingano na vhuimo ha pfunzo. Kuitele kwa ḁhoḁisiso dzo no itwaho nga vhanwe kwa khwaḁithethivi na vkhukethatsumbonanguludzwa kwo shumiswa u kuvhanganya na u ela data kha tsumbonanguludzwa dza 726 dza vhadzheneli vho nangwaho nga ndila ye zwa itea ngayo. Ho waniwa phimo ya u fhindula ya 22.59%.

Mawanwa a sumbedzisa vhushaka ha ndeme vhukati ha vhafhinduli vha mutakalo mushumoni, u dzudza na u dikumedzela ha tshiimiswa; na vhukati ha mutakalo mushumoni, u dzudza na vhuimo ha pfunzo. Heyi ndi tsumbo ya uri mutakalo mushumoni na u dikumedzela ha tshiimiswa zwi na ḁhuḁhuwedzo kha u dzudza vhatholwa na uri vhatholwa na vha re na vhuimo ha pfunzo vho zwi khwaḁhisedza.

A huna vhushaka ha ndeme he ha wanala vhukati ha zwishanduwaho zwa mutakalo mushumoni, u dikumedzela ha tshiimiswa na u dzudza, vhukale ha zwishanduwaho

zwa nganeavhutshilo, mbeu, nyimele ya mbingano na vhuimo ha mushumo. Mawanwa a t̄hoḁisiso iyi o shela mulenzhe kha ndivho ya tshiimiswa i re hone nga u ḁetshedza ndivho vhalanguli vha zwiko zwa vhashumi na vhashumeli nga ha u ḁikumedzela ho tiwaho na zwiḁirathedzhi zwa u dzudza zwine zwa ḁo ita uri vhatholwa vha ḁikumedzele nga vhone vhaḁe kha, na u dzula tshifhinga tshilapfu kha tshiimiswa. U pfesesa zwi tshi elana na zwiḁirathedzhi zwa u dzudza zwi ḁo thusa vhalanguli vha zwiko zwa vhashumi u dzudzanya u dzhenelela ho teaho u vha na vhatholwa vho ḁikumedzelaho na u vha dzudza.

Maipfi a ndeme

Mutakalo mushumoni, u ḁikumedzela ha tshiimiswa, u dzudza

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND AND CONTEXTUALISATION OF THIS STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Research background and motivation	1
1.2.1 Workplace wellness	2
1.2.2 Organisational commitment.....	4
1.2.3 Employee retention	5
1.3 Problem statement	7
1.4 Research question	7
1.4.1 Literature research questions.....	7
1.4.2 Empirical study research questions.....	8
1.5 Research aims and objectives	8
1.5.1 General research aims	8
1.5.2 Specific research aims.....	8
1.5.1.1 Literature review aims	8
1.5.2.2 Empirical study objectives	9
1.6 Hypotheses	9
1.7 Paradigm perspective	10
1.8 Research design and approach	12
1.8.1 Reliability and validity	13
1.8.1.1 Reliability.....	13
1.8.1.2 Units of analysis	14
1.8.1.3 Validity.....	14
1.8.2 Ethical considerations.....	14
1.8.3 Limitations of the study	15
1.9 Research method	16
1.10 Chapter layout	16

1.11 Chapter summary	17
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW OF WORKPLACE WELLNESS	18
2.1 Introduction	18
2.2 Definition of wellness programmes and wellness	18
2.3 Definition of employee well-being	20
2.4 Conceptualisation of workplace wellness	21
2.5 Workplace wellness and health	22
2.6 Overview of wellness dimensions	24
2.7 Wellness dimensions	27
2.7.1 Emotional dimension	27
2.7.2 Spiritual dimension	28
2.7.3 Physical dimension.....	29
2.7.4 Social dimension	29
2.7.5 Occupational dimension	30
2.7.6 Intellectual dimension.....	30
2.7.7 Environmental dimension	31
2.7.8 Cultural dimension.....	32
2.7.9 Community dimension.....	32
2.8 Demographic variables	32
2.8.1 Age.....	33
2.8.2 Gender	33
2.8.3 Different ethnic groups	34
2.8.4 Marital status.....	34
2.8.5 Education level	34
2.8.6 Employment/job level	34
2.9 Chapter summary	35
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT	36

3.1 Introduction	36
3.2 Organisational commitment definitions.....	37
3.3 Definitions of commitment	38
3.3.1 Affective commitment	41
3.3.2 Continuance commitment	42
3.3.3 Normative commitment.....	42
3.4 Factors affecting organisational commitment.....	43
3.4.1 Type and variety of work.....	43
3.4.2 Degree of autonomy	44
3.4.3 Level of responsibility	44
3.4.4 Quality of social relationships at work.....	45
3.4.5 Remuneration	45
3.4.6 Opportunities for training and development	46
3.4.7 Career opportunities	46
3.5 Variables influencing organisational commitment.....	46
3.5.1 Age	47
3.5.2 Gender.....	47
3.5.3 Ethnic group.....	48
3.5.4 Marital status	48
3.5.5 Education level	48
3.5.6 Employment/job level.....	49
3.6 Organisational commitment and workplace wellness	49
3.7 Chapter summary.....	50
CHAPTER 4: LITERATURE REVIEW OF EMPLOYEE RETENTION.....	51
4.1 Introduction	51
4.2 Constructs that are linked with retention.....	52
4.2.1 Definitions of employee retention.....	53
4.2.2 Employee turnover.....	53

4.3 Conceptualisation of employee retention	53
4.4 Overview of theoretical retention framework	57
4.4.1 Work environment.....	57
4.4.2 Compensation.....	58
4.4.3 Training and development	58
4.4.4 Supervisor support.....	58
4.4.5 Wee’s tri-dimensional theoretical retention framework	59
4.4.6 Career development	61
4.4.7 Person-job fit.....	61
4.4.8 Work-life balance	61
4.5 Demographic variables influencing retention factors.....	61
4.5.1 Qualification/education	62
4.5.2 Race	62
4.5.3 Gender.....	62
4.5.4 Age	63
4.5.5 Tenure	63
4.6 Retention strategies.....	64
4.6.1 Rewards and recognition	65
4.6.2 Work-life balance programmes	65
4.6.3 Career opportunities	66
4.6.4 Compensation.....	66
4.6.5 Management style	66
4.6.6 Opportunities for training and development	67
4.7 Employer of choice	68
4.8 Development plans	68
4.9 Integration of the three literature chapters	68
4.9.1 Workplace wellness and retention	69
4.9.2 Organisational commitment and retention	69
4.9.3 The relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment.....	70

4.9.4 Workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.....	70
4.10 Chapter summary	71
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	72
5.1 Introduction	72
5.2 Research design.....	73
5.2.1 Research approach	73
5.2.2 The paradigm perspective	74
5.3 Research methodology.....	74
5.3.1 Population and sampling strategy	75
5.3.2 Data collection	76
5.3.3 Survey questionnaires	77
5.3.3.1 Demographic survey	78
5.3.3.2 Workplace wellness survey	78
5.3.3.3 Organisational commitment survey	78
5.3.3.4 Retention survey	79
5.3.4 Pre-testing and content validity.....	79
5.3.5 Selection of and motivation for using the measuring instruments	80
5.3.5.1 Workplace wellness measuring instrument	80
5.3.5.2 Organisational commitment measuring instrument	81
5.3.5.3 Retention measuring instrument.....	81
5.3.6 Research procedure: Ethical considerations.....	81
5.4 Formulation of the research hypotheses	82
5.5 Statistical analysis	83
5.5.1 Descriptive analysis	84
5.5.2 Measuring instrument validity	85
5.5.3 Reliability: Cronbach's alpha coefficient	85
5.5.4 Inferential analysis	86
5.5.4.1 Normality testing.....	86

5.5.4.2 Non-parametric data.....	87
5.5.4.3 Correlational analysis	87
5.6 Summary.....	88
CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION.....	89
6.1 Introduction	89
6.2 Demographic results.....	89
6.2.1 Gender composition of the sample	89
6.2.2 Age composition of the sample.....	90
6.2.3 Culture composition of the sample.....	92
6.2.4 Marital status composition of the sample	93
6.2.5 Education level composition of the sample	94
6.2.6 Employment level composition of the sample	96
6.2.7 Employment Equity Plan.....	98
6.3 Item descriptives of the research constructs	98
6.3.1 Workplace wellness	99
6.3.2 Workplace wellness measuring instrument.....	101
6.3.2.1 Physical wellness	102
6.3.2.2 Emotional wellness.....	102
6.3.2.3 Spiritual wellness.....	103
6.3.2.4 Social wellness.....	104
6.3.2.5 Occupational wellness.....	104
6.3.2.6 Intellectual wellness	105
6.3.2.7 Environmental wellness.....	105
6.3.3 Organisational commitment	107
6.3.4 Organisational commitment measuring instrument.....	110
6.3.4.1 Affective commitment	110
6.3.4.2 Normative commitment	111
6.3.4.3 Continuance commitment.....	112

6.3.5 Retention	114
6.3.6 Retention measuring instrument	117
6.3.6.1 Compensation	117
6.3.6.2 Supervisor support	118
6.3.6.3 Work environment	118
6.3.6.4 Training and development	119
6.4 Integration of descriptive research results	120
6.5 Validity	121
6.5.1 PCA – workplace wellness.....	122
6.5.2 PCA – organisational commitment.....	123
6.5.3 PCA – retention	125
6.6 Reliability: Cronbach’s alpha scores	126
6.6.1 Reliability of the sub-dimensions of workplace wellness.....	127
6.6.2 Reliability of the sub-dimensions of organisational commitment.....	127
6.6.3 Reliability of the sub-dimensions of retention.....	128
6.7 Inferential statistical analysis	129
6.7.1 Shapiro-Wilk test for normality	129
6.7.2 Skewness and kurtosis for workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention	130
6.7.3 Correlation analysis	131
6.7.3.1 Pearson scatterplots	134
6.7.4 Relationships among the sub-dimensions of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.....	138
6.7.5. Conclusion with regards to objective 1	148
6.7.6 Correlation analysis for demographic variables	148
6.7.6.1 Age.....	151
6.7.6.2 Gender	151
6.7.6.3 Ethnic group	152
6.7.6.4 Marital status	152

6.7.6.5 Education levels	153
6.7.5.6 Employment level	153
6.7.7 Conclusions with regard to research objective 2.....	153
6.8 Chapter summary	154
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	155
7.1 Introduction	155
7.1.1 Conclusions relating to literature review	155
7.1.1.1 First objective	155
7.1.1.2 Second objective	159
7.1.2 Conclusions relating to empirical research	164
7.1.2.1 Research objective 1	164
7.1.2.2 Research objective 2.....	166
7.1.3 Conclusions regarding central hypothesis.....	168
7.2 Limitations	168
7.2.1 Limitations with regard to the literature review	168
7.2.2 Limitations with regard to the empirical study	169
7.3 Recommendations	169
7.3.1 Recommendations for workplace wellness	169
7.3.2 Recommendations for organisational commitment	170
7.3.3 Recommendations for retention of employees.....	170
7.3.4 Recommendations for further research	170
7.4 Application of the research	171
7.5 Summary.....	171
References.....	173

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Qualitative versus quantitative approaches	12
Table 5.1: Target population	75
Table 5.2: Survey questionnaire overview.....	80
Table 5.3: Research hypotheses.....	82
Table 5.4: Cronbach's alpha coefficient rules of thumb	86
Table 6.1: Sample distribution by gender.....	90
Table 6.2: Sample distribution by age	91
Table 6.3: Sample distribution by culture	92
Table 6.4: Sample distribution by marital status	93
Table 6.5: Sample distribution by level of education	95
Table 6.6: Sample distribution by level of employment	96
Table 6.7: Workforce profile as at 14 January 2017	98
Table 6.8: Item descriptive statistics for workplace wellness: Likert scale items	100
Table 6.9: Mean average scores for workplace wellness dimensions	106
Table 6.10: Item descriptives for organisational commitment: Likert scale items	108
Table 6.11: Organisational commitment component model scores.....	113
Table 6.12: Item descriptives statistics for retention: Likert scale items	115
Table 6.13: Retention dimensions.....	120
Table 6.14: Factor loadings for workplace wellness scale.....	122
Table 6.15: Factor loadings for organisational commitment.....	123
Table 6.16: Factor loadings for retention.....	125
Table 6.17: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for variables	126
Table 6.18: Cronbach's alpha scores for organisational commitment sub-dimensions	127
Table 6.19: Cronbach's alpha scores for retention sub-dimensions	128
Table 6.20: Testing normal distribution	129
Table 6.21: Workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention skewness and kurtosis.....	130
Table 6.22: Spearman's rank correlation for variables.....	132
Table 6.23: Spearman's correlation for demographic variables.....	150

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Flow diagram of research method.....	16
Figure 2.1: Workplace wellness dimensions model.....	25
Figure 2.2: Swarbrick's workplace wellness dimensions model.....	26
Figure 3.1: Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment model.....	40
Figure 4.1: Theoretical framework of retention.....	57
Figure 4.2: Tri-dimensional theoretical retention framework.....	59
Figure 4.3: Retention factors framework for existing employees.....	60
Figure 5.1: Steps to be followed in the design and methodology of the research	72
Figure 6.1: Steps in the data analysis process	89
Figure 6.2: Sample distribution by gender.....	90
Figure 6.3: Sample distribution by age.....	91
Figure 6.4: Sample distribution by culture	92
Figure 6.5: Sample distribution by marital status.....	94
Figure 6.6: Sample distribution by education level	95
Figure 6.7: Sample distribution by level of employment	97
Figure 6.8: Scree plot for workplace wellness	123
Figure 6.9: Scree plot for organisational commitment	124
Figure 6.10: Scree plot for retention.....	126
Figure 6.11: Correlation between OC and retention.....	133
Figure 6.12: Workplace wellness and organisational commitment scatterplot	135
Figure 6.13: Workplace wellness and retention scatterplot	136
Figure 6.14: Organisational commitment and retention scatterplot	137
Figure 6.15: Relationship between WW sub-dimensions and OC sub-dimensions.....	138
Figure 6.16: Relationship between WW sub-dimensions and RET sub-dimensions ...	142
Figure 6.17: Relationship between RET sub-dimensions and OC sub-dimensions	146

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND AND CONTEXTUALISATION OF THIS STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the theoretical background of the research. Coetzee, Schreuder and Clinton-Baker (2015) mention talent attraction, managing, motivating, developing and retaining employees as critical success factors to sustain organisational performance. Ho (2017) emphasises the importance of organisations investing in wellness programmes and initiatives. The study aimed to identify the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in an insurance company in South Africa. Establishing these relationships will enable organisations to tailor-make wellness programmes that will enhance benefits such as health care costs, increased productivity, absenteeism and realising their profits (Sabharwal, Douglas & Hijal-Moghrabi, 2019).

1.2 Research background and motivation

According to various authors, a significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention exists (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Dockel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006). Cinman (2014) is adamant that employee wellness is not a luxury but a requisite aimed at organisations looking to attract and retain top talent. Cinman (2014) further states that numerous organisations have acknowledged the importance of this investment by creating an environment that resonates with employees. However, spending on workplace wellness programmes has been increasingly questioned in recent years. Halls (2005) is of the view that organisations constantly have to justify the existence and cost-effectiveness of wellness programmes as they are not realising immediate benefits. The controversial views of various authors on this topic necessitate further exploration.

According to American research on best practices in local government wellness

programmes by Sabharwal et al (2019), workplace wellness has a positive bearing on the financial well-being of an organisation. An awareness of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention is therefore important to enable organisations to design and implement interventions that will encourage employee wellness (Els & De la Rey, 2006).

1.2.1 Workplace wellness

Organisations have observed increasing challenges relating to employees' well-being (Sieberhagen, Pienaar & Els, 2011) and an increased demand by the public to integrate wellness programmes (Hooper, 2004). Workplace wellness programmes have traditionally been instituted to examine the concerns regarding the wellness of employees in terms of domestic problems, substance abuse and health risks that could potentially undermine employees' performance in the workplace (Abe, Fields & Abe, 2016; Conradie, Van der Merwe Smit & Malan, 2016). Since then, the concept of employee wellness has evolved significantly by adopting a holistic nature to promote both health and productivity and to encourage the employer to be accountable for the health and welfare of employees (Conradie et al, 2016).

In the South African context workplace wellness programmes are often limited to occupational safety training, employee assistance and awareness, and management of HIV/AIDS, and hence are not as wide-reaching as they could be in terms of coverage and prevalence in the workplace (Conradie et al, 2016). At present, the holistic nature of workplace wellness includes emotional, spiritual, physical, social, occupational, intellectual, environmental, cultural and community wellness of individuals (Robbins, Powers & Burgess, 2004; Robinson & McCormick, 2011; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013) and therefore organisations have to consider these programmes as they are intended to alleviate underlying situations such as psychological and medical issues which may affect employees' work performance (Abe et al, 2016).

Organisations have resorted to changing the scope and quality of wellness programmes offered to employees and focusing on the total well-being of employees (Conradie et al, 2016) due to their increasing dependency on employees who are willing to take on multiple in-role and extra-role work activities (Becker, De Bruin, Györkös, Rossier & Massoudi, 2016).

Research reveals that workplace wellness programmes can produce benefits such as reduced health care costs, turnover and absenteeism as well as productivity improvements (Sabharwal et al, 2019). Dawad and Hoque (2016) place considerable emphasis on employee health if organisations are to survive the competitiveness of business across the globe. It is for this reason that maintaining workplace wellness programmes that have an element of employee health is a business imperative.

Higher wages, prospects of ascending the organisational hierarchy and job security may no longer be sufficient to ensure employee satisfaction. Employees regard the additional support provided by employers in the form of wellness programmes as a key factor pertaining to job satisfaction (Abe et al, 2016). In support, Geldenhuys, Laba and Venter (2014) dispel the notion that money is the main motivator of job satisfaction. Therefore workplace wellness as a cognisant and constant integrative process leads towards enhancement of individuals, or organisations and community health and well-being (Van der Merwe, 2008).

Robbins et al (2004) view workplace wellness as playing a pivotal role in employees' ability to perform optimally. There needs to be a mind shift of positive behaviours, attitudes and self-responsibility by individuals to enhance health and wellness habits of an individual (Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Zula (2014) highlights the major benefits of workplace wellness programmes as the reduction of health risks, improvement in work-life quality and enhancement of personal effectiveness, all of which would subsequently enhance the organisation's financial position.

1.2.2 Organisational commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) explain organisational commitment as an individual's strong feeling about the organisation, and association and identification with the organisation. In support, Jacobs and Roodt (2007) describe organisational commitment as the involvement of employees in their organisation. Furthermore, Geldenhuys et al (2014) associate organisational commitment with having a strong belief and accepting the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to do extraordinary activities for the organisation and possessing a strong aspiration to remain in the organisation.

South African organisations today face business functioning challenges such as organisational commitment resulting from technological economic trends (Manetje & Martins, 2009). Furthermore, organisations have noted that organisational commitment is of strategic importance due to potential financial returns in the long term (Geldenhuys et al, 2014). Therefore they need to put in place commitment strategies that will align psychological relationships and the goals of employees with those of the organisation to achieve positive future returns (Geldenhuys et al, 2014).

In order to fully comprehend the duration for which and extent to which employees dedicate themselves to a given organisation, considerable focus has been placed on the concept of organisational commitment (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011). To understand the organisational commitment concept, three types of organisational commitment need to be defined. Meyer and Allen (1997) explain them as affective commitment, which is a person's association and involvement with the organisation. Continuance commitment, which is a person's awareness of the costs coupled with leaving the organisation and/or responsibility to continue employment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Lesabe & Nkosi 2007). Normative commitment, which refers to a sense of duty to the organisation due to resonance with organisational values and beliefs (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Furthermore, Geldenhuys et al (2014) state that workplace commitment has developed gradually to incorporate engagement, attachment, commitment and involvement, all of which results in meaningful work. Beukes and Botha (2013) point out that it has become vital that employees understand and appreciate the benefits derived from their work. When a degree of meaningful work exists, it contributes to the greater good of an employee, which then leads to employee satisfaction and commitment (Geldenhuys et al, 2014). Also, meaningful work brings about satisfied, happy and engaged employees, as well as improved performance, which then leads to employees being committed to the organisation (Beukes & Botha, 2013).

According to Geldenhuys et al (2014) highly committed employees are generally inclined to make a greater effort to display more determination in executing their organisational duties. Therefore commitment to the organisation can be considered as a fundamental component for both individuals and organisations as it benefits both parties. Employees will be content and increase performance, and the organisations will increase profitability and have enhanced employee retention (Beukes & Botha, 2013; Geldenhuys et al, 2014).

1.2.3 Employee retention

Allen (2008) describes employee retention as the organisation's possession of the means to retain its employees. According to Dockel et al (2006) retention of employees include measures by organisations such as employee rewards, harmonious work relations, a safe and healthy environment to prevent its employees from leaving the organisation.

Ayobami, Wallis and Karodia (2016) acknowledge the complexity of employee retention, adding that there are several techniques for organisations to explore in attempting to realise the goal of retaining employees. Literature has shown that retention is driven by many key aspects, such as benefits and pay, flexible work

schedule, career development, organisational culture, strategy, communication, work-life balance and best company to work for (Hill & Weiner, 2003; Logan, 2000).

Organisations worldwide are experiencing workforce management challenges (Ayobami et al, 2016). South African organisations are not immune from similar challenges to retain employees (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Employees are attracted to various organisations due to various benefits; therefore success in retaining employees is dependent on the organisation's ability to adapt its behaviours to innovation, creativity and flexibility (Ayobami et al, 2016).

South African organisations continue to face retention challenges as competition for talent is increasing tremendously (Ayobami et al, 2016). Employees are attracted to one or more organisations due to various kinds of incentives offered by different organisations (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). Therefore, employers need to understand employees' expectations to enable organisations to adopt targeted retention initiatives for retaining the right talent (Selesho & Naile, 2014).

As indicated by Phillips and Connell (2011), the concept of employee retention has received considerable attention in recent times. Many books have been published and articles written on this concept, leading to its widespread visibility to managers and specialists alike. Workshops and seminars held on the topic, the increase in the amount of literature available, the rise in popularity of the concept of "employer of choice" or "best company to work for" are all phenomena that have arisen from organisations' realisation that sound employee retention programmes have a positive impact on employee turnover.

According to Hill and Weiner (2003:448), work-life programmes have been established to enhance employees' ability to manage their work and personal responsibilities effectively. These programmes are seen as integral to the ability of

companies to attract and keep good talent, as indicated by Galinsky and Johnson (1998). Phillips and Connell (2011) highlight the importance of retention even during economic decline; hence it has increased the awareness of the business, financial and executive community as a strategic challenge within organisations. Allen (2008) emphasises retention as a strategy rather than an outcome.

1.3 Problem statement

Sieberhagen et al (2011) found minimal investigation relating to best practices for managing workplace wellness programmes and this constitutes major challenges for benchmarking the effectiveness of an organisation's workplace wellness programme. A comprehensive understanding of the interrelationship between organisational commitment and workplace wellness would enable organisations to implement interventions that will meet their workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention needs. This is in line with Els and De la Rey (2006), who state that introduction of focused and targeted interventions based on a thorough understanding of the interrelationship between workplace wellness programmes, organisational commitment and retention would enable organisations to get the best out of such interventions. Conradie et al (2016), in agreement with Sieberhagen et al (2011), also emphasise the need for further empirical research on employee wellness programmes in South African organisations.

1.4 Research question

1.4.1 Literature research questions

- How does the literature conceptualise workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention?
- What are the relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in terms of theoretical models?
- Do specific demographic factors influence workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention?

1.4.2 Empirical study research questions

- Does any relationship exist between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention of employees in a South African insurance company?
- What is the nature of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention of employees in a South African insurance company?
- What is the relationship between demographic variables such as age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level, education level and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention?

1.5 Research aims and objectives

1.5.1 General research aims

In general, the study aimed to establish whether there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and whether diverse individuals from different ages, genders, ethnic groups, marital statuses, employment levels and education levels differ with regard to the above variables within a South African insurance company.

1.5.2 Specific research aims

The following are the specific aims formulated for the literature review and the empirical study:

1.5.2.1 Literature review aims

1. Conceptualise workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention from a theoretical perspective.
2. Conceptualise the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in terms of theoretical models.
3. Conceptualise the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and demographic factors.

1.5.2.2 Empirical study objectives

1. To determine the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention among employees in a South African insurance company.
2. To determine the significance of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level among employees within a South African insurance company.

1.6 Hypotheses

The central hypothesis for this study is articulated as follows:

There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Organisational commitment and retention are positively and significantly influenced by workplace wellness. Persons from different ages, genders, ethnic groups, marital statuses, employment levels and education levels differ statistically and significantly with regards to workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

H1_o. There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a sample of participants from a South African insurance organisation.

H1_a. There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a sample of participants from a South African insurance organisation.

H2_o. There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention with regards to demographic variables (age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level) as demonstrated in the sample.

H2_a There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in terms of demographic variables (age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level) as demonstrated in the sample.

1.7 Paradigm perspective

Paradigm perspective refers to three components, namely ontology, epistemology and methodology (Scotland, 2012). Ontology pertains to the nature or reality and what there is to know about the world (Metzler, 2014). Epistemology pertains to the type and practices of knowledge (Scotland, 2012). Methodology is the strategy of action that identifies particular practices to attain knowledge (Krauss, 2005; Scotland, 2012).

According to the research aims, this study followed all three components of the paradigm perspective. From an ontological perspective the relevance of this research pertains to the reality of the relationships between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Ontology is a system of beliefs that reflects an interpretation of an individual about what constitutes a fact (research methodology). The ontological position is one of realism (Scotland, 2012). Realism refers to the difference between reality and people's perceptions (Krauss, 2005). Ontological realism was applied in terms of the theory that relationships are significant or not between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention, and that various demographics have a significant influence or not on the variables being tested. Therefore the empirical research is considered as the evidence of the truth in this research (Allori, 2017).

Epistemology seeks to address how we come to know about reality (Krauss, 2005), and interpret information and knowledge within the process of learning (Kampa, Neumann, Heitmann & Kremer, 2016). Epistemology informed the study of the truth about the research. The research was conducted through survey

questionnaires to obtain knowledge of the correlation between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The knowledge acquired through the survey was interpreted to form the truth and reality about the relationships.

Krauss (2005) indicates that methodology ascertains particular practices used to attain knowledge. In a positivist paradigm perspective, the methodology seeks to test or verify the hypothesis in quantitative methods (Soleimani, 2017). The hypotheses of whether or not relationships exist between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention, and whether demographic variables have an effect were tested utilising a quantitative method.

The world view that guided this research is positivism. Positivism concerns a single concrete reality that identifies and assesses the causes that influence the outcomes found in experiments (Creswell, 2009). It seeks to understand causal relationships and therefore investigation and correlational studies are utilised. The positivism paradigm perspective seeks to discover knowledge and verify it through measuring the phenomena (Krauss, 2005). An investigation was therefore conducted to seek knowledge if relationships exist between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The investigation included data collection and participants' perspectives and therefore predicted or generalised the information obtained through quantitative data methods (Scotland, 2012).

Patten and Newhart (2017) mention that research involves an empirical approach, meaning acquiring knowledge directly or indirectly through observation or experience. Furthermore, they divide the empirical research approach into research designs and approaches such as quantitative and qualitative methods. Creswell (2009) posit the qualitative and quantitative approaches as follows in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Qualitative versus quantitative approaches

Tend to or typically	Qualitative approach	Quantitative approach
Use these philosophical assumptions	Constructivist/advocacy /participatory knowledge claims	Post-positivist knowledge claims
Employ these strategies	Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study and narrative	Survey and experiments
Employ these methods	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data	Closed questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data
Use these practices of research as the researcher	<p>The researcher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positions himself or herself • Collects participants' meanings • Focuses on a single concept or phenomenon • Brings personal values into the study • Studies the context or setting of participants • Validates the accuracy of findings • Interprets the data • Creates an agenda for change or reform • Collaborates with the participants 	<p>The researcher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tests or verifies theories or explanations • Identifies variables to study • Relates variables in questions or hypotheses • Uses standards of validity and reliability • Observes and measures information numerically • Uses unbiased approaches • Employs statistical procedures

Source: Creswell (2009)

1.8 Research design and approach

A quantitative design focusing on a descriptive, correlational cross-sectional approach was utilised to achieve the objectives of the research and test the hypotheses (Salkind, 2015). According to Vogt, Haeffele and Gardner (2012), a quantitative descriptive design focuses on collecting evidence such as surveys, experiments and observations. In addition, Creswell (2014) explains that research

design is a type of inquiry or strategy that provides specific direction in a research design. A survey was conducted within a South African insurance company to collect data that measured participants' attitudes and opinions with regard to workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The opinions were then collated and analysed to determine the existence of a correlation between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. A correlational research design determines the extent to which factors are related. The factors that were tested were workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

1.8.1 Reliability and validity

1.8.1.1 Reliability

According to Clark (2007:1296), the concept of reliability denotes the fact that repetitive, identical different measurements produce the same results. Reliable measurements are not necessarily valid, whereas valid measurements must be reliable. English (2006:1047) refers to reliability as consistency of measures. Reliability testing is essential for validity, whereas validity is an adequate condition for reliability (Vito, Tewksbury & Kunselman, 2014).

Reliability was ensured in all the aspects of the study by means of the following:

- Accessing current literature sources;
- Using a representative sample of the units of analysis;
- Using a Cronbach's alpha value close to or greater than 0.7 as reliable.

According to Goldstein, Carpenter, Kenward and Levin (2009) the higher the value of Cronbach's alpha, the less random the response error. Tavakol and Dennick (2011:53) describe internal consistency as the degree to which all items in a test measure the same concept or construct and hence it is connected to the interrelatedness of the items within the test. Values of alpha ranging from 0.70 to 0.95 are recommended (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

1.8.1.2 Units of analysis

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) refer to units of analysis as members of elements of the population. The unit of analysis for the study was individuals permanently employed within a South African insurance company.

1.8.1.3 Validity

According to Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao (2004:1171), validity is generally defined as the point to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Clark (2007) indicates that validity refers to the difference between a measurement of a subject and its “true” value established otherwise. English (2006:1047) is of the opinion that validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure and the legitimacy or appropriateness of inferences made based on test scores. Reliability measurement was done to gauge the accuracy of the measuring instrument utilised to test the significance of the concepts of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

Internal validity ensures that accurate conclusions are drawn around cause and effect and other relationships with the data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). For the internal validity to be maximised, current literature, theories and models relevant to the research topic and meaningful measuring instruments were utilised. The theories found relating to workplace wellness programmes have been structured sequential and systematically to ensure validity. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), the significance of external validity is the extent to which the conclusions drawn from the research can be generalised to other contexts.

1.8.2 Ethical considerations

Ethical clearance was acquired from the University of South Africa, as the conducting of ethically informed research should be a goal of all social researchers (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010:161). Well-versed consent was requested from the

participants. They were notified of the type of research and the manner in which the study would be done. They were also advised that participation was voluntary and anonymous. They were notified of their rights to withdraw at any time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101). The communication was emailed to the participants and confidentiality was maintained at all times.

1.8.3 Limitations of the study

This research was limited to workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Although there might be other facts relating to broader aspects of the organisation, this study focused solely on and was limited to facts that related to workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention within a South African insurance company.

The research restricted the focus to identifying possible relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The research also included identifying the relationships between the variables workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographics age, gender, ethnic groups, marital status, employment levels and educational level. This will assist future researchers in addressing issues relating to the retention of employees in relation to workplace wellness and organisational commitment within a South African insurance company. The research will also provide value add to human resource consultants with regards to implementing appropriate wellness programs suitable for employees wellbeing in an insurance company.

The following section addresses the steps that will be followed on the research method such as literature review, research methodology, statistical analysis, interpretation of the research findings, conclusion and recommendations. Figure 1.1 refers to the detailed research method steps.

1.9 Research method

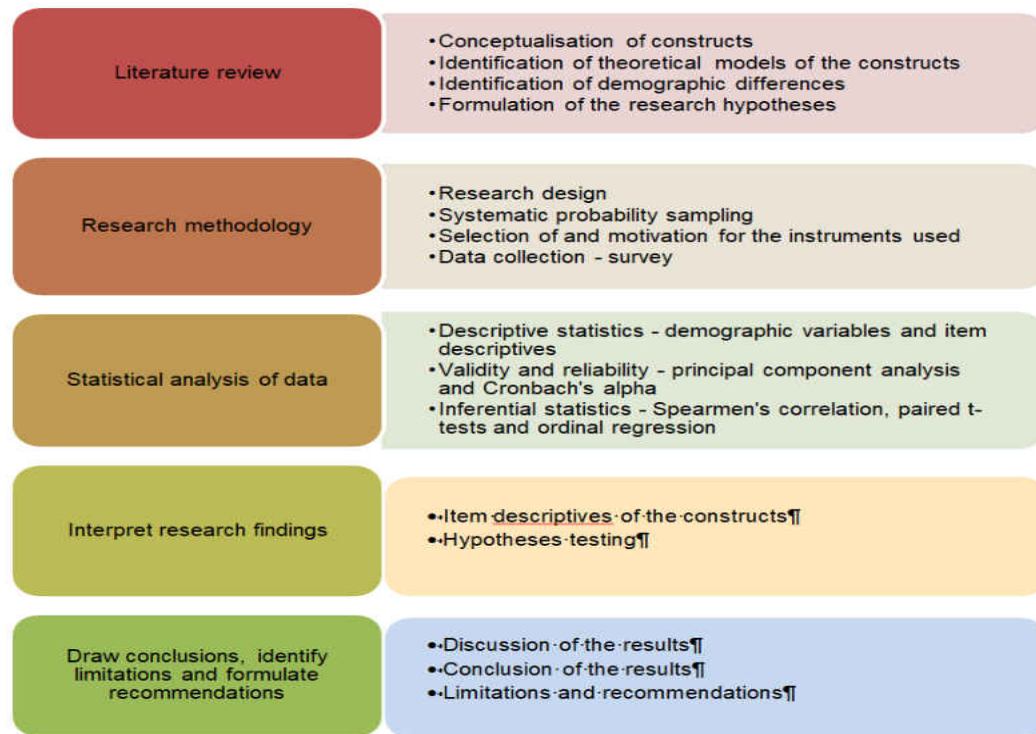


Figure 1.1: Flow diagram of research method

The above flow diagram Figure 1.1 indicated the steps to be followed with regards to the research. Literature review will be explored in the context of variables workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention theoretical perspectives. Research methodology will follow explaining the research design to be adopted for the research. Data will then be statistically analysed followed by explanation of the research findings. Finally the results deliberated, conclusion drawn and recommendations will be formulated.

1.10 Chapter layout

Chapter 1 provided a scientific overview of the study by presenting the background to and motivation for the research, problem statement, research aim, objectives and questions and the paradigm perspective that guided the research and the research method.

Chapter 2 conceptualises the construct of workplace wellness and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective.

Chapter 3 conceptualises the construct of organisational commitment and the multidimensional model from a theoretical perspective.

Chapter 4 conceptualises the construct of retention and various models of retention are identified and discussed from a theoretical perspective.

Chapter 5 provides the rationale for the choice of research design and the processes followed for data collection and choice of measuring instruments.

Chapter 6 the results and the interpretation of the results are presented.

Chapter 7 contains the limitations, conclusions and recommendations.

1.11 Chapter summary

The chapter provided an overview of the research study which included motivation to conduct the study, problem statement, aim, research objectives, methodology and the paradigm perspective. The study's limitations were also discussed in this chapter. The chapter also included an outline of the remaining chapters.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW OF WORKPLACE WELLNESS

2.1 Introduction

In this section workplace wellness is conceptualised. For the purpose of this study, workplace wellness and employee well-being will be defined and distinguished, the concept of employee wellness will be interpreted and workplace wellness and health will be explained. The theory and dimensions of workplace wellness, namely emotional, physical, spiritual, environmental, social, occupational, cultural, community and intellectual wellness, will be discussed. Finally, the demographics of age, gender, marital status, ethnic group, education level and employment level will be discussed as they impact on workplace wellness.

2.2 Definition of wellness programmes and wellness

According to Cooper (2013), wellness programmes may be challenging as there is no one-size-fits-all and various processes are applied in the wellness programmes that are operational. Some employers doubt the financial benefit of workplace wellness programmes and using the holistic wellness approach (Murdoch, 2012). Cooper (2013) defines wellness programmes as programmes designed for employees to assist them in resolving or controlling work-related difficulties such as performance through behavioural knowledge and enabling them to function better physically and emotionally.

Robinson and McCormick (2011:31) define wellness as a way of including behaviours into a person's daily life to positively impact on their health. Wellness is considered as a lifestyle that gives personal power over health. It involves not only preventive health behaviours, but also a change in mind-set and approach (Robinson & McCormick, 2011; Robbins et al, 2004). Wellness aims to develop a way of life that enhances health (Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Robbins et al (2004:7) add that wellness is an individual's responsibility aimed at increasing their potential in any aspects of their lives.

Van der Merwe (2008:24) mentions that wellness provides quality of life to individuals and groups as they become aware of wellness offerings and make correct choices towards their well-being. Olivier, De Jager, Grootboom and Tokota (2005) describe wellness as an all-inclusive self-development method designed for individuals and communities who are determined about and cognisant of their health and well-being. Van der Merwe (2008) adds that wellness is a long-term commitment of individuals, family and communities with the support of wellness professionals to enhance their health and well-being.

Robbins et al (2004) illustrate workplace wellness as a constant continuous dynamic method intended to increase a person's capabilities. Workplace wellness is a strong commitment choice to move towards optimal well-being. Wellness is a proactive approach to living, loving, working and playing based on individual values. It is a lifestyle in which an individual desires to achieve optimal health, appreciates feelings and emotions and believes that the surrounding situations have an impact on their well-being (Robbins et al, 2004).

The wellness definitions of Robinson and McCormick (2011), Van der Merwe (2008) and Robbins et al (2004) show similarities: wellness is a continuous process which includes individual behaviour (discipline), emotions (feelings) and commitment from the organisation to ensure success and benefit for both parties.

In its inception wellness was limited to physical activities, combating unhealthy behaviours and weight loss programs however currently wellness covers various activities within the wellness dimensions (Otenyo & Smith, 2017). Workplace wellness programmes are efforts by organisations to provide health insurance to employees (1) to reduce costs caused by illness and absenteeism, (2) to encourage employees to adopt healthier lifestyles, (3) to combat unhealthy behaviours such as smoking and (4) to encourage healthy weight loss and minimise blood pressure and cholesterol (Bard, 2011).

Monippally and Pawar (2010) assert that behaviours are critical for organisational functioning as they assist in specifying relationships between the antecedents in employee work attitudes. These attitudes cover Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. For the purpose of this study the individual behaviour approach used by authors such as Robbins et al (2004), Robinson and McCormick (2011) and Van der Merwe (2008) was relevant to the study.

2.3 Definition of employee well-being

The well-being concept has drawn attention from various academic disciplines; nonetheless it is unclearly defined (Svensson, Martensson & Muhli, 2012). Farquhar (1995) and Keith (2001) conclude that there is no clear universal definition of well-being. Robinson and Elkan (1996) confirm that there is no distinct definition and measurement of wellness; however, people's expectations of well-being vary according to their circumstances.

Well-being is considered as a personal choice that leaves a person satisfied and comfortable with their quality of life. It is a multi-element state that considers social, material, physical and emotional ('happiness') aspects and development (Waddell & Burton, 2006). Ryff and Singer (2008) add that the key to well-being is the promotion of positive mental and physical health to every individual.

In essence, the World Health Organization (WHO) (1946) defines health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. Various dimensions such as physical, mental and social aspects therefore form part of health (Svensson et al, 2012). Tiberius and Hall (2008) refer to well-being as happiness, the good life, pleasure and living to a person's potential; Mark and Don (2014) state that well-being focuses primarily on lives that are good for the person whose life it is.

Various authors (Baton, 2014; Robinson & Elkan, 1996; Svensson et al, 2012; Waddell & Burton, 2006; WHO, 1946) associate wellness with health and well-being. Therefore in this study health and well-being are referred to as wellness.

2.4 Conceptualisation of workplace wellness

The literature clarifies that wellness involves positive emotions and behaviours of an individual. It also involves a considered approach to health by both management and the employees, and operates on the belief that both actors are responsible for promoting and reflecting healthy ideals (Fixter, 2012). Cinman (2014) adds that employee wellness is a necessity for organisations to attract and retain top talent, and numerous organisations have acknowledged the significance of this investment by creating an atmosphere that resonates with employees.

Wellness programmes are faced with the challenge of constantly justifying their existence and cost-effectiveness (Halls, 2005). Hochart and Lang (2011) indicate that for over three decades employers have invested in workplace wellness programmes to improve employees' health and minimise costly chronic conditions and their implications. Well-being interventions can have a positive long-term effect on employees' health and wellness, productivity and job satisfaction while minimising employee health care costs (Merrill & Hull, 2013, Sabharwal et al, 2019). Wellness programs have good return on investment, minimize stress levels and decreased absenteeism (Otenyo & Smith, 2017).

Booyesen and Els (2014) maintain that the intention of employee wellness programmes is to benefit the organisation, and therefore they must be entrenched within the corporate strategy, culture and value system for the programme to be successful. Murdoch (2012) concludes that organisations have planned their approaches to promote a wellness culture and enhance participation by implementing constant programmes, and they are reaping financial rewards through high productivity of employees.

2.5 Workplace wellness and health

The WHO (1946) defines health as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity”. In support, Robinson and McCormick (2011) state that health is a measure of mental, social, physical and spiritual conditions at any point in time. Rothmann and Rothmann (2006:25) define employee health as a state in which employees feel energetic, motivated, healthy, productive and committed to the organisation and its goals. In this instance, wellness and health complement each other and cannot be isolated.

Individual standards are gradually changing as wellness is permeating the health care occupations and society as a whole. Previously, jogging was for athletes in training but nowadays anyone aspiring to be healthy, including senior citizens, may be seen walking or jogging. Professionals pack their workout gear with their business reports, guests are provided with jogging maps in hotels and a multitude of wellness topics such as stress management, parenting, addictive behaviour management and smoking cessation are offered in communities (Robbins et al, 2004).

Workplace wellness management and health promotion are therefore increasingly relevant for organisations (Zwetsloot et al, 2010). Nowadays it is far more important for organisations to help employees manage their health issues as healthy employees build a healthy organisation (Macdonald, 2005). Myers, Clarke, Brown and Champion (2012) conclude that wellness is the optimum state of health and well-being that each individual is capable of achieving. Robbins et al (2004) refer to Dr Halbert Dunn as the originator of the word ‘wellness’ in pursuit of optimal well-being. They describe wellness as a diverse method of self-development concerning individual well-being, in contrast to health which is regarded as an inactive state of existence.

Internationally, wellness is credited to Hettler (1984), well known as the father of wellness and the architect of the modern wellness movement (Myers et al, 2012). Hettler established the National Wellness Institute (NWI) in the 1970s where he made wellness a household word through his work and community service. He defines wellness as a dynamic method whereby people make conscious choices to participate in the process to make it a success (Myers et al, 2012).

Workplace wellness started to emerge in South Africa in the 1980s (Sieberhagen et al, 2011), when the South African Chamber of Mines initiated wellness programmes during 1986 in the mining industry (Terblanche, [n.d.]). Since then wellness has been introduced gradually to organisations. Organisations are currently striving to create a culture of wellness (Wojcik, 2007) while they stay competitive, lucrative and prosperous in attracting and retaining excellent talent across generations and therefore consider investing in and creativity about wellness offerings (Clark, 2008).

Organisations have become conscious of problems related to the wellness or well-being of employees (Hooper, 2004) as they pose a challenge to both individual and organisation in terms of business benefit (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Employees are experiencing poor health due to job burnout or working conditions which lead to absenteeism and poor work performance while the organisation loses productivity (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Organisations have realised the benefits of wellness programmes at the workplace (Clark, 2008), as they gradually introduce various targeted interventions for their employees to improve working conditions and lessen potential occupational stressors (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Clark (2008) argues that organisations have invested sizeable amounts of money, resources and overall effort into developing and increasing workplace wellness initiatives (Kumar, McCalla & Lybeck, 2009) in order to maintain their competitive advantage. Organisations that embark on building a wellness-inclusive culture reap better rewards, such as high productivity, improved employee engagement and benefits cost containment (Casselmann, 2012).

A strategic asset to any organisation is a healthy and vital workforce (Zwetsloot, Van Scheppingen, Dijkman, Heinrich & Den Besten, 2010). Workplace wellness contributes to organisations' best practice programmes and tools to generate projected results, giving the programmes time to assess their impact, clearly and effectively measuring and examining key metrics. This must be done economically and efficiently, and have the employees' wellness, health and engagement in mind (Seward, 2010).

2.6 Overview of wellness dimensions

The literature highlights more or less similar wellness dimensions (Anspaugh, Hamrick & Rosato, 2004; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013; Fahey, Insel & Roth, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins, Powers & Burgess, 2007; Robinson & McCormick, 2011; Swarbrick, 2006). The wellness model of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln contains elements of wellness that have more clarity than those of the authors mentioned above, as they present a further understanding that includes symbols with explanations and examples. Despite the similarities, Robinson and McCormick (2011) add two extra dimensions to the model, namely culture and community wellness, which are not incorporated by other authors.

Swarbrick (2006) interestingly presents wellness dimensions in a cycle that links all the dimensions together and all connect to wellness. This differs slightly from Anspaugh et al (2004), University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2013), Fahey et al (2005), Hales (2005), Robbins et al (2007) and Robinson and McCormick (2011) as there is an extra dimension, the financial dimension, which means satisfaction with current and future financial situations.

A clear overview of the wellness dimensions of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln model is shown in Figure 2.1. The figure also provides practical examples in relation to the dimensions so that awareness is raised on what physical activities are involved.

Element	Examples
<p>Emotional dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The awareness and acceptance of feelings and emotions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fitness and exercise • Affiliations with friends/family • Work, family balance • Laugh and cry • Adequate sleeping patterns • Personal contact, ie. Hugging
<p>Environmental dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The recognition of interdependence with nature. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce, reuse, recycle materials • Adopting Leave-No-Trace • Conserving water and fuels • Spend time in a state/national park • Finding value in surroundings • Positive workplace & attitude • Air quality
<p>Intellectual dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The openness to new concepts and ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading & learning for fun • Participation in class, organisation • Adopting a new hobby and travelling • Adequate sleeping patterns • Self-help information
<p>Occupational dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability to enjoy a chosen career and/or contribute to society through volunteer activities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continuous education • Satisfactory career/profession • Volunteering • Workplace safety • Exercise
<p>Physical dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The maintenance of a healthy body through good nutrition, regular exercise, and avoidance of harmful habits. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fitness and exercise; stretching • Personal hygiene • Walk/cycle to work • Know your numbers: cholesterol, blood sugar, blood pressure • Good nutrition • Adequate sleeping patterns • Regular medical/dental exams
<p>Social dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability to perform social roles effectively, comfortably, and without harming others. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish and maintain personal friendships • Community involvement • Attending social settings, ie. festivals. • Group fitness classes and hobbies
<p>Spiritual dimension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The meaning and purpose of human existence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meditation; prayer, religious affiliation • Explore and enjoy the flora & fauna of a wilderness area • Watch a sunrise or sunset • Exercise, freedom & outdoor activities

Figure 2.1: Workplace wellness dimensions model (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013)

The heart for the emotional wellness dimension signifies a source of emotions. A tree represents environmental wellness, which denotes the natural empire. The intellectual wellness lightbulb symbolises fresh thinking, innovation and creativity. A gear with cogs or teeth represents occupational wellness where a person should be engaged in a satisfying career. Physical wellness is represented by a human body which needs to be maintained. Social wellness is represented by three persons that reflect family, friendship and networking. Lastly, spiritual wellness is represented by the sun which characterises the beginning and the end of the day and cites the meaning and purpose of human existence (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013).

Swarbrick (2006:312) differs in that his model has an additional dimension referred to as financial wellness. Figure 2.2 indicates Swarbrick wellness model with eight wellness dimensions.



Figure 2.2: Swarbrick's workplace wellness dimensions model (Adapted from Swarbrick, 2006)

In summary, the dimensions are as follows (Swarbrick, 2006):

The emotional dimension refers to creation of good relationships and managing life successfully, environmental dimension means being in a good space and in good health. Financial dimension is fulfilment of present and forthcoming financial situations, and intellectual dimension is acknowledging creative capabilities and finding ways to expand knowledge and skills” (Swarbrick 2006).

The occupational dimension means individual contentment and achievement at work and the physical dimension signifies desire for physical activity, healthy eating and rest. The social dimension means meaningful relationships, being part of the community and a strong support system, and spiritual dimension means having meaning and direction in life (Swarbrick, 2006).

2.7 Wellness dimensions

Wellness is a complex process; while it includes personal elements (Robinson & McCormick, 2011), it also implies the interaction of the individual with the social and physical environments. As such, Robinson and McCormick (2011) extend wellness beyond an individual to affect friends, family and the environment, including organisational commitment and retention of employees. There are several wellness domains that interact with one another while they influence all dimensions of health (Robinson & McCormick, 2011).

2.7.1 Emotional dimension

Robbins et al (2007) indicate that the emotional dimension is the ability to be emotionally happy in all aspects of life. Within the emotional dimension there is emotional awareness where the person recognises their feelings, emotional acceptance which is understanding the normality of human emotion, and emotional management where a person has the ability to control or cope with personal feelings and knows how to seek interpersonal support when necessary (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007). The emotional dimension involves being mindful and acknowledging feelings and emotions; it

includes fitness, relationships, work-life balance and relaxation (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013).

Robinson and McCormick (2011) add that emotional wellness is a feeling of being fit and being able to deal with good or bad situations effectively as part of everyday life. It is natural for an individual to feel uncomfortable or angry when facing difficulties and the feelings are not unhealthy. Robinson and McCormick (2011) further argue that what is unhealthy is an expression of hurt or disappointment in an unproductive or damaging way. An emotionally well person finds constructive ways to deal with life's problems. It is clear that emotional wellness involves managing and controlling feelings, either good or bad, and knowing how to handle negative situations positively (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005).

2.7.2 Spiritual dimension

Spiritual wellness refers to the purpose of human presence, which includes religious affiliation, meditation, exercise, freedom and relaxation (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). Robbins et al (2007) affirm that the spiritual dimension involves introspection and a clear path in life. Spiritual wellness is not just identifying a creator (God) or specific religion; it also entails cultivating beliefs, principles and values that provide guidance and strength throughout all of life's experiences.

Van Lingen and De Jager (2011) add that spiritual wellness includes connectedness to self, morals and ethics that guide behaviour and decision-making. It also includes components such as generosity, sympathy, truthfulness, joy of living, compassion, aid and the expansion of a pure, comfortable sense of right or wrong (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007). In support, Robinson and McCormick (2011) refer to the spiritual dimension as a person getting in touch with themselves and their spiritual nature, which includes being able to contemplate,

respecting their thoughts, feelings and emotions and being able to embrace the environment.

However, Ashmos and Duchon (2000) point out that although spirituality is symbolised as religious beliefs, it is also about employees who understand themselves as spiritual beings whose souls need nourishment. Thus Nasurdin, Nejati and Mei (2013) purport that the spiritual dimension defines the enthusiastic employees who have meaning and determination in their work, can express themselves at work and feel connected to work colleagues. Spirituality in the workplace contributes to enhanced creativity, increased honesty, trust within the organisation, greater organisational performance and higher organisational commitment (Nasurdin et al, 2013).

2.7.3 Physical dimension

Physical wellness refers to the maintenance of a healthy body through good nutrition, regular exercise and avoidance of harmful habits (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). Robbins et al (2007) add that the physical dimension deals with the body's functionality and health-related components of physical fitness, dietary habits, medical self-care and taking necessary steps when ill. Since an individual's body is the vehicle a person travels in throughout life, it must be treated with respect. Anspaugh et al (2004), Fahey et al (2005), Hales (2005) and Robinson and McCormick (2011) explain that physical wellness is personal wellness and that an individual must strive towards optimal health, maintain a healthy lifestyle, practise healthy habits and avoid risky behaviours such as drinking and smoking.

2.7.4 Social dimension

Social wellness refers to building positive relationships and developing the interpersonal skills needed to interact effectively with others. Social support is also a vital part of social wellness as it has been proven by previous research that increased levels of support are responsible for reduced risk of disease, mental

illness and mortality (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Social wellness is being able to participate effectively and comfortably in social roles without harming others (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). It includes establishing relationships, attending social events and community involvement. Robbins et al (2007) indicates that social wellness means interacting and getting along with people. It involves concern for humanity as a whole. Good friendships, family relationships, volunteerism, community contributions and trusting relationships affirm high-level wellness, whereas feelings of isolation and loneliness are linked to ill health.

2.7.5 Occupational dimension

Occupational wellness means deriving personal satisfaction from vocation. An individual's life is spent mostly at work and it is important that the career chosen provide internal and external rewards of value. Maintenance of work-life balance and leisure time is also important. Occupational wellness involves a work environment that minimises stress and exposure to physical health hazards. Essentially a person's vocational choice should be personally enriching and stimulating (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007). For occupational wellness, a person enjoys a chosen career or contributes to society. It includes a satisfying career, continuing education, volunteering activities, workplace safety and exercise (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013).

2.7.6 Intellectual dimension

Intellectual wellness involves maintenance of an active mind, thus contributing to total well-being. Intellectual growth is not restricted to formal education. It involves a continuous attainment of knowledge throughout life and keeping abreast of current events and intellectual pursuits. Being able to think critically and analyse, evaluate and apply knowledge are also associated with this dimension (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007). Intellectual wellness is openness to new concepts and ideas (University of Nebraska-Lincoln,

2013). It includes education, hobbies, adequate sleeping patterns and self-help information. Similarly, Robinson and McCormick (2011) refer to intellectual wellness as enjoying learning and pursuing knowledge beyond the classroom. People who exhibit intellectual wellness utilize various techniques to increase their knowledge and skills.

2.7.7 Environmental dimension

Robbins et al (2004) maintain that environmental wellness deals with the preservation of natural resources as well as the protection of plant and animal wildlife. People have basic biological needs that include adequate air, water and food. Exercising habits such as recycling, limiting pesticide use, carpooling and conserving electricity show positive involvement in the environmental dimension.

Environmental wellness means understanding and caring for the environment. Similar to all other organisms, humans live in an ecosystem that is a fragile environment, and need to use resources respectfully and efficiently (Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Environmental wellness is the recognition of interdependence with nature which includes reusing, recycling, conservation of nature, appreciation of nature, air quality and positive workplace and attitude (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013).

The underlying assumption is that a dirty environment, air and water can affect people's wellness in that breathing in dirty air and drinking dirty water can cause sickness. The planet's health depends on a clean supply of water and secure food and the prevention of infectious diseases, ultraviolet radiation, water and air pollution and smoke from tobacco (Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005). Robinson and McCormick (2011) add that individuals need to practise conservation and environmental protection by recycling materials to reduce the quantity of waste in the environment.

2.7.8 Cultural dimension

Robinson and McCormick (2011) include two extra dimensions. These are cultural and community wellness. Cultural wellness is being aware of and celebrating a person's own cultural background as well as understanding and respecting the diversity and richness of other cultures. It also means passing on the traditions of a person's family while blending them with the traditions of new family members (Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Hofstede (1984) adds that the cultural dimension reflects meanings people attach to different aspects of life, such as values, beliefs and expressions. Practising cultural wellness could include visiting cultural fairs and recognising that each individual is unique and possesses different knowledge. Individuals must embrace each other's uniqueness and learn from each other (Robinson & McCormick, 2011).

2.7.9 Community dimension

According to Robinson and McCormick (2011), community wellness is the protection of the community's health through relevant activities. The health of a community depends on the community members. Even if a community is very large, individual behaviour can have an impact, especially when others can be influenced to participate in developing the community. Community health is enhanced through personal actions, volunteer programmes and environmental protection.

2.8 Demographic variables

Freundlich (2014) mentions that most companies are embracing a culture of well-being instead of isolated health promotion initiatives. This culture change begins with top executives and managers leading by example, encouraging employees to take time to exercise, eating healthier and focusing on reducing stress. These best-practice companies use incentives as a carrot to build up participation, not as a stick to penalise employees for poor health or their inability to participate in programmes. They offer a wide range of programmes, including but not limited to healthy food in

vending machines and cafeterias, on-site gyms, fitness classes and company-wide challenges, health coaching, walking paths and stretching breaks for employees. Health promotion programmes continue to evolve, and best-practice companies invite employees' input and use measurement and evaluation techniques to identify initiatives with the most impact on improving health and well-being. The comprehensive wellness options offered demonstrate non-discrimination and various demographics are inclusive within wellness programmes (Freundlich, 2014). This study therefore focused on the effects of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, education level and employment level on wellness programme participation.

2.8.1 Age

Seward (2010) indicates that wellness programmes introduced at an early age assist in preventing employee health from deteriorating to the point of it becoming a distraction at work and negatively impacting employer costs rather than benefiting the employer. Robbins et al (2004) agree that wellness and healthy lifestyle interventions introduced in life early can shape individuals' health destiny and lead to a vibrant life. Merrill and Hull (2013) in their research found low participation in wellness programmes among high age groups. Alexy (1991) conducted a similar study and confirms that older people participated less in workplace wellness programmes than younger people, and considered age as a deterrent to participating in physical activities.

2.8.2 Gender

Bard (2011) indicates that women are under-represented minorities in wellness programmes, and further states that they often have significant care obligations for children and elderly parents and thus are limited in terms of time to exercise. Merrill and Hull (2013), by contrast, found that participation was greater among women than men.

2.8.3 Different ethnic groups

No significant differences have been found in literature in terms of certain ethnic groups participating more than others.

2.8.4 Marital status

Almost 30 years of research has demonstrated that married couples are healthier and live longer than unmarried people, and that marriage is good for people's health (Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Married people participate more than unmarried people in wellness programmes; thus being married is positively associated with wellness programmes (Merrill & Hull, 2013).

2.8.5 Education level

Fein (2014) indicates that awareness is crucial to developing an intelligent plan of action and coordinated strategy. He suggests the existence of proof of the need for resources that can establish and sustain the principles of corporate wellness. Alexy (1991) confirms that less educated people's response is small compared to educated people in participating in wellness programmes. Richon (2014) claims that an educated workforce for a healthy workplace means success.

2.8.6 Employment/job level

Management of organisations may assist in the implementation process of wellness programmes. This leads to a high level of awareness of what the programmes entail and managers are able to influence employees to participate in the programmes as they are aware of the benefits (Sieberhagen, Rothmann & Pienaar, 2009). Cooper (2013) attests that managers and supervisors adopt workplace wellness programmes because it is good for business. In some organisations training is provided to management to be able to identify problems within employees that may cause low performance. In such cases, management is able to recommend or advise employees to participate in the programmes (Cooper, 2013).

2.9 Chapter summary

In this chapter workplace wellness and health were defined and aligned. Wellness dimensions were identified and discussed and various theoretical wellness dimension models were explored. The demographics that impact on workplace wellness were also mentioned. The chapter also achieved the first aim of conceptualising workplace wellness. The following chapter will discuss the concept of organisational commitment.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter organisational commitment will be explained and conceptualised. Commitment will be discussed in relation to organisational commitment. The three-component model of organisational commitment of Meyer and Allan (1997) will be used. Variables as well as factors affecting organisational commitment will be discussed. The link between organisational commitment and wellness will be explored.

The global market instability in economic trends and technology has challenged organisations both negatively and positively. South Africa, as part of the global market, has fallen victim to these changes in the business world. These changes impact on various functions of the business, including organisational commitment (Manetje & Martins, 2009). Mester, Visser, Roodt and Kellerman (2003) state that in an attempt to identify the employee's wish to remain in the organisation, research in the concept of organisational commitment has escalated to comprehend and clarify the passion and stability of an employee's dedication to the organisation.

An organisation's success is dependent on creating a committed workforce. Organisations require high employee commitment levels to compete with worldclass organisations (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). A content and devoted employee is a valuable asset to the organisation (Sahoo, Behera & Tripathy, 2010); hence it remains a prerequisite for management to understand the organisational commitment concept (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Management also need to understand this commitment concept to be able to identify real issues, areas of attention and interventions that may be implemented to address the gaps identified within the organisation (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007).

People involvement in organisations is important when innovation, continuous revolution, high standards and competitive prices are demanded of companies, and employee discretionary effort becomes an essential resource (Wali & Zahid, 2013). Employees tend to decrease their level of commitment when perceived by employers as not having successfully performed their obligations as expected (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007).

Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) indicate that organisational commitment has evolved as a key indicator of employee behaviour. It incorporates attitudes, experiences and behaviours (Sersic, 1999). TNS Consulting Team (2012) adds that attitude and behaviour have a strong impact on organisational commitment. The three-component model of organisational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1997) covers attitudes, experience and behaviours and is of relevance to this study. As the rationale of this research, organisational commitment is regarded as attitudes and behaviours that relate to an employee's attitude about the organisation (Meyer & Allan, 1990).

3.2 Organisational commitment definitions

Numerous definitions of organisational commitment are found within literature. Robbins, Odendaal, Judge and Roodt (2016) refer to organisational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. Brown (2003) agrees, adding that organisational commitment focuses on employees' commitment to the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) view organisational commitment as a psychological connection between individuals and their organisation, characterised by strong identification with the organisation and a desire to contribute to the accomplishment of organisational goals. Miller and Lee (2001:166) state that organisational commitment causes employees at all levels to be more devoted to the organisation and equipped to exceed their job requirements.

Most organisations are focusing on finding out how engaged their employees are in order to develop strategies to maximise commitment (Mitchell & Gamlem, 2012:101). Sparrow (2012) states that organisations with strong employee commitment levels have higher business performance.

3.3 Definitions of commitment

A considerable amount of initial studies on commitment focused primarily on employees' commitment to organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following definitions of commitment are cited in the literature by various authors:

Commitment is a vigour that ties an individual to a choice of action of relevance to more than one target (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001:301). Mitchell and Gamlem (2012) are of the opinion that a committed employee will work hard and stay longer in an organisation. Salancik (1977) mentions commitment as a situation in which a person becomes bound by their actions which lead them to beliefs that sustain the activities of their own involvement.

Meyer and Allen (1991:62) describe commitment as a state of psychological nature and one which embodies the relationship between the employer and the employee and influences individuals' decision to stay in the organisation. Commitment is about a desire to execute and deliver. It is about feelings, passion and emotional connection (Sparrow, 2012:3). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) have created a multidimensional framework based on the notion that commitment denotes an attitude towards the organisation and that there are various mechanisms through which people could develop their attitudes.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) differ from Meyer and Allen (1987) in that the former categorised commitment into three distinctive forms, which are identification, compliance and internalisation. They explain that compliance occurs when attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted to gain specific rewards. Identification

occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship, and internalisation takes place when influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviours being encouraged are congruent with existing values.

Stander and Rothmann (2009) conclude that a committed employee identifies with the organisation, makes personal sacrifices, performs beyond normal expectations, works selflessly and contributes to the organisation's overall effectiveness. Committed employees most likely remain longer in the organisation compared to non-committed employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

According to Sparrow (2012:38), commitment has three components: Firstly, emotional connection drives effort; its strength influences rational commitment in producing discretionary effort. Secondly, rational commitment is based on financial development and professional issues and thirdly, emotional commitment is the extent to which employees value, enjoy and believe in their jobs, managers, teams or organisation. However, CIPD (2010:5) also lists three commitment components as an intellectual engagement, or being thoughtful about the job and doing it better; affective engagement, which is positive emotions about doing a good job, and social engagement, which is actively utilising opportunities to discuss work-related improvements with others at work. Meyer and Allen (1997), refer to the commitment components as affective, continuance and normative. The commitment components include emotions, awareness and feelings. These are referenced on Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment where they are further linked to antecedents, process and consequences.

Figure 3.1 identifies the link between antecedents, processes, commitment and consequences. These all reflect a connection to commitment components which are affective, continuance and normative.

behaviour and employee well-being (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Lok and Crawford (2001) caution that the multidimensional model cannot work in isolation and that the absence of attention given to the possible influence of organisational culture requires further investigation as organisational culture could exert stimulus in organisational parts such as performance and commitment, which are part of the positive outcomes of the model.

The antecedents and processes applied in figure 3.1 correlate to organisational commitment which breeds positive consequences of employee outcomes. Organisational commitment is therefore related to wellness, which has been perceived as a major issue for many organisations. Therefore in conclusion, organisational commitment may be perceived as an important variable to consider, particularly if an organisation's goal is to develop a stable workforce on whose continued membership it can count.

3.3.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employees' emotional attachment to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997) as it entails how individuals identify with and involve themselves in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they see it as necessary as they are passionate about the organisation. Employees identify themselves with the goals and values of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) mention that affective commitment is the degree to which an individual is psychologically attracted to the organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness and pleasure. It is the absolute strength of individuals' identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982:27).

Organisations believe that offering employees training with the intention to provide advancement opportunities builds a strong affective commitment of individuals to the organisation. Employees receiving the training feel that they are of value to the organisation and that their self-worth is strengthened (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Visagie and Steyn (2011:102) mention that employees displaying high levels of affective commitment will act in the interests of the organisation, even in the face of uncertainty and when an organisation is not performing well.

3.3.2 Continuance commitment

Meyer and Allen (1997) describe the concept of continuance commitment as the employees' awareness of the consequences of leaving an organisation. Employees with such awareness, and who place continuance commitment in high regard, generally will remain longer within the organisation when faced with a decision to either leave or remain. The concept is described by Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) as a situation in which employees feel obligated to remain in the organisation's employ. Visagie and Steyn (2011) mention that organisations could benefit from continuance commitment, particularly if employees believe that their continued stay in the organisation depends on good performance.

Continuance commitment is the degree to which employees go through a sense of belonging in the organisation due to the high costs of leaving (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Van Dyk (2011) suggests that the fear of losing certain organisational benefits upon leaving would lead to affected employees wanting to remain in the organisation for longer. In addition, Lumley et al (2011:106) state that individuals with affective commitment remain in an organisation willingly due to familiarity with the organisation's principles.

3.3.3 Normative commitment

Normative commitment is merely based on feelings and beliefs (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Wiener (1982) maintains that normative commitment to the organisation

develops due to pressures employees undergo through their socialisation from family and culture and as newcomers to the organisation. It is also based on employees' loyalty and sense of obligation to the organisation (Vandenberghe, Mignonac & Manville, 2015).

3.4 Factors affecting organisational commitment

The factors affecting organisational commitment have been identified by Riggio (2009) as the type and variety of work, the autonomy involved in the job, the level of responsibility associated with the job, the quality of the social relationships at work, rewards and remuneration, and the opportunities for promotion and career advancement in the company. These form part of the role an employee would occupy in an organisation. These factors are linked to job gratification. Job satisfaction refers to individuals' feelings and attitudes regarding various aspects or facets of their job, as well as attitudes and perceptions that could consequently influence the degree of an employee's compatibility with the organisation (Lumley et al, 2011:101). The organisational commitment model of Meyer and Allen (1997) encompasses Riggio's (2009) factors listed above as they are influenced by attitudes and therefore the above factors were relevant to the study.

3.4.1 Type and variety of work

Variety influences professional employees' organisational commitment (Coetzee & Pauw, 2013). Employees desire variety and mentally challenging work as it boosts their skills and abilities to perform freely (Robbins, 1993). However, Olivier et al (2005) found in their research on work wellness in higher education institutions that variety of responsibilities led to lower performance and job satisfaction as employees felt stretched to the limit and could not perfect their duties. The variety created confusion and caused long hours, which impacted on the physical health of employees and in turn affected their well-being.

Fried and Ferris (1987) indicate that meaningful work is associated with outcomes that employees value, including enhanced job satisfaction. Chalofsky (2003) found that employees need meaningful work so they can have better work-life balance and can control their work. Miller (2008) describes meaningful work as when a person utilises their skills, strengths and talents to make a valuable contribution to society, serve others, make the world a better place and make a difference.

3.4.2 Degree of autonomy

Autonomy refers to the extent that an employee is able to perform their task freely. It is the extent of an employee's involvement in a job, since more autonomy may lead to more satisfaction (Sisodia & Das, 2013). Coetzee and Pauw (2013) indicate that commitment to the organisation is influenced by autonomy, as is the level of independence and freedom experienced in the job. Meyer and Allen (1997) link affective commitment positively with level of autonomy. Sisodia and Das (2013) are of the opinion that autonomy at work is important to the organisation's success as well as to the employees as it increases motivation to work. Autonomous employees have the freedom to select suitable ways of performing their work and therefore can be more effective. Providing autonomy to employees becomes a good way to train them on the job (Sisodia & Das, 2013) because an employee would have the freedom to explore different ways of completing tasks.

3.4.3 Level of responsibility

Employees who are aware of their responsibilities in their roles relate more towards affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Geldenhuys et al (2014) are of the opinion that the affiliation between an employee and the organisation presumes that a degree of meaningful work exists. Therefore with the existence of work meaningfulness, organisational commitment from employees will be encouraged. Maharaj and Schlechter (2007) point out that a sense of meaningful work and accountability can increase an employee's sense of responsibility and commitment to the organisation.

3.4.4 Quality of social relationships at work

Affective commitment is stronger among employees who are allowed to participate in making decisions and who have good relationships with their leaders (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In addition, Meyer and Allen (1997) feel that socialisation within the organisation might influence normative commitment among employees. However, Danna and Griffin (1999) point out that affiliations with superiors, colleagues and subordinates have been identified as possible stressors. These relationships may create mistrust, jealousy and envy among employees, which can affect employee well-being (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

3.4.5 Remuneration

Lumley et al (2011) define remuneration as pay, benefits and/or compensation for service provided. Remuneration refers to all forms of compensation, such as direct cash payments (e.g. salary), indirect, non-cash payments (e.g. benefits) and the amount of pay raises and the process by which the compensation system is administered (Williams, McDaniel & Nguyen, 2006:392). In line with this, Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) refer to remuneration as compensation that includes monetary and non-monetary rewards in return for the work employees do.

Robyn and Du Preez (2013) mention that commitment appears to be stronger in employees when they are financially recognised for performance and efforts they show towards the success of the organisation. Nujjoo and Meyer (2012) assert that when employees are fulfilled in terms of financial needs, their affective commitment increases. Olivier et al (2005) indicate that lack of recognition and reward lead to dissatisfied employees and result in bored and stagnant workers. Increased benefits such as pay, incentives and promotion enhance employees' sentiments of loyalty to the organisation, and create perceptions of fair rewards and justice that lead to higher levels of satisfaction and long-term commitment to the organisation (Coetzee, Mitonga-Monga & Swart, 2014).

3.4.6 Opportunities for training and development

Training and development in an organisation are associated with range, availability and usage to employees' current and future job roles (Deloitte & Touche, 2009). Training is provided to employees to improve particular competencies and revise performance issues to empower employees' ability for present and prospective job requirements (Coetzee et al, 2014) and thus training is linked to greater organisational commitment (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999).

Bartlett (2001) mentions that relevant training to employees has been seen as a motivator for employees to commit to the organisation. Organisations that promote career opportunities through learning and ability to apply newly learned competencies have employees who stay longer and develop a sense of obligation, which is normative commitment (Coetzee et al, 2014). Therefore Bartlett (2001) found that opportunities for training relate positively to organisational commitment and effectiveness.

3.4.7 Career opportunities

Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) state that career growth is important for increasing employees' affective commitment to their organisation as it may reduce employees' intention to leave. In addition, when employees have a perception of numerous job prospects within the organisation, it could result in better job performance as they will be aiming for available opportunities and therefore reduce their intentions to leave (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

3.5 Variables influencing organisational commitment

This study investigated the significance of different variables against organisational commitment either negatively or positively. The following variables were identified: gender, ethnic group, age, marital status, employment level and educational level, as in the literature these were recognised as having a link with attitudes, behaviours and experiences and thus they were applicable to the study.

3.5.1 Age

A suggestion by Meyer and Allen (1984) and Martin and Roodt (2008) is that older workers become more attitudinally committed to an organisation for various reasons such as greater job satisfaction, acquiring better roles and cognitively justifying their continuance within the organisation. Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) found that older employees are more affectively and normatively committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts. Martin and Roodt (2008) found that organisational commitment has a significant relationship with age in that commitment of employees to the organisation increases as age increases.

Noordin, Rahim, Ibrahim and Omar (2011) found that older employees in general are more committed to and satisfied with their employing organisations than younger employees. Meyer and Allen (1997:43) suggest that older employees might actually have more positive work experiences than younger employees. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Michaels (1994) found age to be positively associated with organisational commitment in their study but Muller and Roodt (1998) discovered no significant relationship between age and commitment in both females and males.

3.5.2 Gender

The research by Khandelwal (2009) on organisational commitment in multinationals alludes to a significant difference between male and female employees with men being more committed to their jobs than their female counterparts. Marsden, Kalleberg and Cook (1993) confirm a small but significant tendency for working men to demonstrate higher organisational commitment compared to employed women. This contrasts with research by Gould (1979), who found men to be less committed than women. However, Mclaggan, Bezuidenhout and Botha (2013) indicate that gender has no association with affective commitment.

3.5.3 Ethnic group

Martin and Roodt (2008) report that Africans farther committed to their organisations compared to their white counterparts. The significance seems to come about due to inequalities of the past as white counterparts may feel intimidated and thus African staff feel more committed. However, Lumley (2009), Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) and Coetzee, Schreuder and Tladinyane (2007) found no significant differences between organisational commitment of Africans and whites.

3.5.4 Marital status

In their research Mclaggan et al (2013) found that marital status has no effect on organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) report that no consistent relationship between marital status and affective commitment has been determined and hence the relationship might be moderated by other organisational or personal factors. However, Martin and Roodt's findings (2008) in the South African context of a tertiary institution indicate that marital status can be related to commitment as married people may have greater financial responsibilities towards their family commitments.

3.5.5 Education level

Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that a relationship between education level and affective commitment might be moderated by other organisational or personal factors since there is no consistent connection that has been determined. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) confirm that education level has been reported to be negatively correlated with organisational commitment. This is attributable to the fact that highly educated individuals may have higher expectations and are therefore more likely not to feel rewarded adequately, which diminishes the level of organisational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). In line with this, Martin and Roodt (2008) state that organisational commitment decreases as the level of education increases. However, Mclaggan et al (2013) found educational level to have no association with affective commitment.

3.5.6 Employment/job level

Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) indicate that employees in managerial positions appear to have a significantly higher level of normative commitment than employees at lower staff levels. Meyer and Allen (1997) observe that employees with authority to influence the organisation's goals seem to increase their sense of obligation to continue their employment with the organisation. Sisodia and Das (2013) in their study found that employees on a higher level were more satisfied because they enjoyed more opportunity to satisfy their ego needs, high status, higher payment and self-direction than lower level employees.

3.6 Organisational commitment and workplace wellness

Herman and Gioia-Herman (2001) report that organisations are increasingly becoming sensitive to the needs and interests of their employees and are finding ways to support employees through healthful initiatives. Organisations are focusing on wellness to encourage employees to stay healthy and fit. Whatever the rationale, more employers are investing in wellness. Organisations believe that healthy employees are happy employees and happy employees are willing to stay longer in the organisation (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001).

Walsh (2010:498) is of the opinion that certainly organisations may benefit from some types of work-family/life policies more than others. For instance, there appear to be many organisational benefits associated with adaptable work schedules, including positive effects on employees' job satisfaction, productivity and absenteeism. According to Walsh (2010), it has been shown that employees who have access to flexible scheduling tend to have significantly greater organisational commitment regardless of the extent to which they have used such arrangements. Furthermore, flexible schedules appear to be beneficial for employee well-being. Walsh (2010) state that, of a number of work-life policies, only flexible schedules reduce work-family conflict, enhance job satisfaction and improve people's psychological and physical health.

Walsh (2010:499) further claims that in general, work-family/life policies benefit employees and employers. Employees with more work-family benefits seem to embrace more positive work attitudes, with better organisational commitment and minimal aim to leave their organisations. Employees seem to be more devoted to organisations offering family-friendly policies. Family-friendly policies epitomise a wider corporate concern for employees (Walsh, 2010).

3.7 Chapter summary

The chapter conceptualised organisational commitment and its relationship to commitment. The commitment model by Meyer and Allen, which was applied to the study to explore the level of commitment of employees, was discussed. Variables and factors affecting organisational commitment were identified. The chapter achieved the first aim of conceptualising organisational commitment. The chapter ended with an investigation of the relationship between organisational commitment and workplace wellness. The following chapter will discuss the concept of retention.

CHAPTER 4: LITERATURE REVIEW OF EMPLOYEE RETENTION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, employee retention will be defined and conceptualised in terms of why employees exit organisations and others remain. Variables influencing retention and retention strategies will be discussed. The rationale of the study covered a conceptual theoretical framework of retention. Furthermore, a theoretical integration of workplace wellness and organisational commitment will be explored. For the purpose of this study, retention factors are the factors that influence employees' choice to leave or remain in the organisation (Netswera, Rankhumise & Mavundla, 2005).

Organisations are faced with ever-increasing employee turnover, workforce instability, reduced efficiency and lower effectiveness of remaining employees (Fauzi, Ahmad & Gelaidan, 2013; Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Van Zyl, 2019). Fauzi et al (2013) mention that various strategies have been identified to ensure reliability of employees, they have been unsuccessful in retaining employees. Researchers are still puzzled in understanding why employees leave organisations (Van Zyl, 2019). Several reasons why employees consider leaving their employers have been suggested in different studies. These include moving abroad for better opportunities and working conditions, insufficient pay and benefits, non-existent career opportunities, work-life balance, employee training and growth, bad communication and employee-manager relationships and a lack of autonomy and decision making (Carragher, Parnell, Carragher, Carragher, & Sullivan 2006; Fauzi et al, 2013; Flinkman, Laine, Leino-Kilpi, Hasselhorn, & Salanterä, 2008; Gberefie, 2010; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

Fauzi et al (2013) rank career opportunity, training and development, supervisor support and compensation as high in retaining employees. Das and Baruah (2013) add that management need to concentrate on elements such as pay, employee

training and growth, manager support, work environment and job security, as these influence retention of employees – when these elements are absent, employees are tempted to leave the organisation. Naqvi and Bashir (2011) point out that former studies in diverse countries confirm that supervisor support, training and development and compensation encourage organisational commitment, which increases employee retention. Letchmiah and Thomas. (2017) mention that leaders need to understand which specific factors are applicable to their organisation to retain employees as blanket approach is often unsuccessful and disadvantageous.

4.2 Constructs that are linked with retention

Constructs are ideas or theories containing different conceptual elements, normally considered to be subjective and not based on empirical evidence. In the context of this study, such constructs would include the relationship between retention and compensation, career opportunities, supervisor support and training and development.

Compensation refers to an employee being satisfied with and living comfortably on what they earn and opportunities that are available for the employee to progress financially. Career opportunities refer to being able to tap into available opportunities for development and personal growth, including on-the-job learning. Supervisor support is the relationship between the employee and their supervisor, receiving feedback regarding work responsibilities, communication and participation in decisions about the nature of their work. Training and development aims to offer employees opportunities for advancement. Training and development programmes are relevant to employees to regularly update their skills and competencies to meet new challenges facing organisations (Asiwe, Hill & Jorgensen, 2015; Dockel, 2003; Grobler & Diedericks, 2009). The constructs listed above form part of employee retention strategies hence retention definition and conceptualised in the following section.

4.2.1 Definitions of employee retention

Phillips and Connell (2011) refer to retention as the number of employees remaining in the organisation. Cascio (2003) states that retention is the efforts by management to retain employees within the organisation, such as incentivising excellent performers, ensuring good functional relationships among employees and supervisors and sustaining a harmless and healthy work environment. Tanton (2007:15) describes employee retention as a “tacit or deliberate set of actions taken in order to retain employees in an organisation”. It refers to an organisation being able to retain employees in their workforce (Allen, 2008).

However, Strydom, Schultz and Bezuidenhout (2014:31) refer to retention as a deliberate effort by an organisation to keep suitable talented “high performing” employees to ensure that business objectives are met. Branch (1998) emphasises that retention does not mean hanging on to every employee in the organisation. The objective of retention should be to identify and retain committed employees for as long as is equally profitable to the employer and the employee (Branch, 1998). Mohlala, Goldman and Goosen (2012) also refer to employee retention as keeping employees with critical roles that the organisation would not want to lose to competitors. It should be noted that, in the context of this study, employee retention is utilised as a concept of retaining committed employees in an organisation.

4.2.2 Employee turnover

Tanton (2007) defines employee turnover as the occurrence when employees of an organisation depart from their employer. Leap (2004) describes employee turnover as the exit of employees from an organisation through resignations, retirements, layoffs, or firings.

4.3 Conceptualisation of employee retention

South African organisations are experiencing challenges to retain talented employees because of skills shortage, mobility of employees and imminent

retirement of aged employees (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Retention is even more of a challenge to organisations when diversity institutionalization, mentoring, and appropriate training are not properly achieved (Pink-Harper & Rauhaus, 2017). Retention has recently been identified as a critical issue that has achieved widespread visibility through several studies bringing the issue to the attention of managers and specialists. It has become an important research theme in business and professional literature (Phillips & Connell, 2011).

As stated earlier in this chapter, employee retention is a concern for many organisations and it involves job hopping and a skills movement that has been impacting on South Africa negatively (Netswera et al, 2005). Many artisans are being recruited intensively by Canada and Australia. Local organisations have tried to counter this by offering more competitive salaries and retention bonuses with not much success (Van Rooyen, Du Toit, Botha & Rothmann, 2010).

Employees are being attracted by more than one organisation for their highly developed skills, which seems to influence them to hop from one organisation to another (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). According to Selesho and Naile (2014), employers need to understand their employees' expectation of their work environment and thus better understand the retention problems and be able to adopt targeted retention initiatives to retain the right talent. The biggest retention problems fall within the ranks of middle management, according to Branch (1998), as managers are unable to participate in the career development of their staff (Kotze & Roodt, 2005).

According to Dibble (1999), retention begins prior to the employee being recruited. It begins when the employer describes a position which is intended to be filled, followed by the recruitment process which includes selection and orientation – these are the imperatives of retention. In support, Mitchell and Gamlem (2012:94) mention that “retention starts very early in the relationship between the employer

and employee". It begins even before there is a relationship, from when a prospective employee identifies an advertised role in an organisation or chooses the organisation as a place where they would be interested in working at. Retention continues until the employee is employed within the organisation. The communication and experiences involved in the process of employment are the kinds of experiences that glue employees to the organisation they choose to work for (Mitchell & Gamlem, 2012). However, Samuel and Chipunza (2009) state that retention starts when employees leave the organisation and need to be replaced. The objective of retention is to avoid the loss of competent employees from the organisation as this could have adverse effects on productivity and service delivery. It is therefore imperative for management to reduce the turnover rate of employees to a minimum (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

Since turnover has been identified as an issue within organisations, there is still some reluctance among some organisations to invest resources to retain top talent because they fear such efforts might be disproportionately expensive. Part of this reluctance originates from a sense that counter-turnover efforts really do not make a difference because people will leave anyway (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001) for various reasons.

However, employers are gradually finding inexpensive ways to hold the interest and loyalty of their employees. Many organisations use some unique approaches to attract, optimise and hold on to their valued employees. Others engage in more common practices, such as career development, remuneration and benefits, person-job fit, work-life balance, and do them well (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001). Dockel (2003) agrees that organisations engage in practices such as prospects for training and development, compensation, job characteristics, supervisor support, career opportunities and work-life balance to maintain employees' interest in the organisation.

Employee retention is necessary because not only the talent of experienced employees is lost when they leave the organisation, but also the networks and knowledge they hold. If a person leaves a gap that impacts on business, management's focus should be on ensuring that retention strategies that will always keep good employees engaged are in place (Sparrow, 2012). Ahammad, Tarba, Liu and Glaister (2016) argue that retention of employees may have an important bearing on knowledge transfer, because employees with special knowledge are critical for the sustainable competitive advantage of the firm.

Managers require an understanding of the rapid dynamic and global business environment if they want to create a philosophy supportive of attracting, developing and retaining talented staff (Coetzee & Pauw, 2013). Taylor (2002) emphasises that managers need to take time and effort to understand real turnover drivers in different parts of their organisations in order to increase retention rates.

Sparrow (2012) concludes that meaningful and significant work to employees is a very individual factor; thus it requires leaders or managers to understand their employees. Branch (1998) believes that retention strategies must be driven by managers and supervisors, not just by the human resource department in the organisation. If managers offer a development programme that addresses a specific employee's needs and boosts engagement levels, it may lead to happiness and willingness to stay longer in the organisation (Sparrow, 2012). Phillips and Connell (2011) point out that if organisations show interest in their employees and provide performance feedback regularly, they have an advantage of retaining their employees.

The retention of employees is important for an organisation's competitive edge as it is an indicator of success (Bogdanowicz & Bailey, 2002). Employees should be treated as valued assets who contribute to the organisation's competitive advantage through their trust, commitment, adaptability and high quality skills and knowledge in

order to expand the effectiveness of the organisation (Storey, 1992). Fields (2001:99) suggests that “an employer should be attractive to employees in terms of financial and non-financial benefits to ensure that they voluntarily choose to work for that employer rather than a competitor”.

4.4 Overview of theoretical retention framework

The theoretical retention framework of Fauzi et al (2013) indicates that work environment, training and development, compensation and career opportunities are the basis of retaining employees in an organisation. Table 4.1 indicates the theoretical framework of retention.

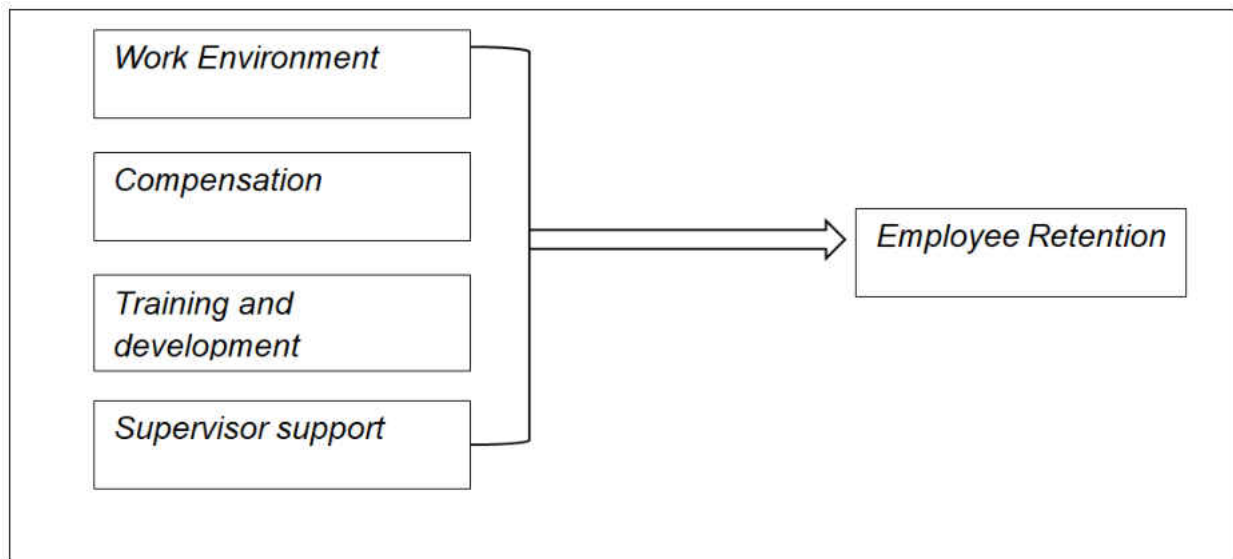


Figure 4.1: Theoretical framework of retention (Fauzi et al, 2013:646)

4.4.1 Work environment

Fauzi et al (2013) assert that work environment is an imperative element for employees to be successful in their career, as a good environment encourages them to stay and a bad environment will make them leave. Britton, Chadwick and Walker (1999) are of the opinion that employees experience affiliation with the organisation if the work environment and facilities are pleasant. A favourable work

environment leads to the well-being of employees, which invariably will permit them to commit to their roles with all vigour that may translate to higher productivity (Yusuf & Metiboba, 2012).

4.4.2 Compensation

Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) state that compensation influences the stay of employees in an organisation, satisfaction with the job as well as commitment of employees in South Africa. Wee (2013) adds that compensation is the most important driving force to retain employees, especially young talent who bring diverse values and expectations into the workforce. Fauzi et al (2013) confirm that compensation motivates employees to give their maximum efforts towards assigned work.

4.4.3 Training and development

Britton et al (1999) mention that training and development provides tools for employees to perform their job well. It offers employees personal growth, development, new challenges and employability as skills are updated (Britton et al, 1999). Fauzi et al (2013) add that employees who receive training and development feel their contribution is important and their satisfaction with their existing jobs and workplace increases.

4.4.4 Supervisor support

According to Fauzi et al (2013), supervisor support plays an essential role in determining the intention of employees to stay or exit the organisation. Coetzee and Pauw (2013) add that acknowledgement by the manager yields affective commitment and employees are more likely to stay in the organisation when they are recognised for their individual contribution.

4.4.5 Wee's tri-dimensional theoretical retention framework

Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional theoretical framework of retention was explored in comparison to Fauzi et al (2013). The similarity was found in compensation with pay and benefits as referring to remuneration. Wee (2013) highlights pay and benefits as part of a construct that influences employees to leave the organisation. Wee (2013) mentions career development, person job-fit and work-life balance as other contributory factors to employees not remaining longer in organisations. Figure 4.2 indicates Wee's (2013) retention theoretical framework.

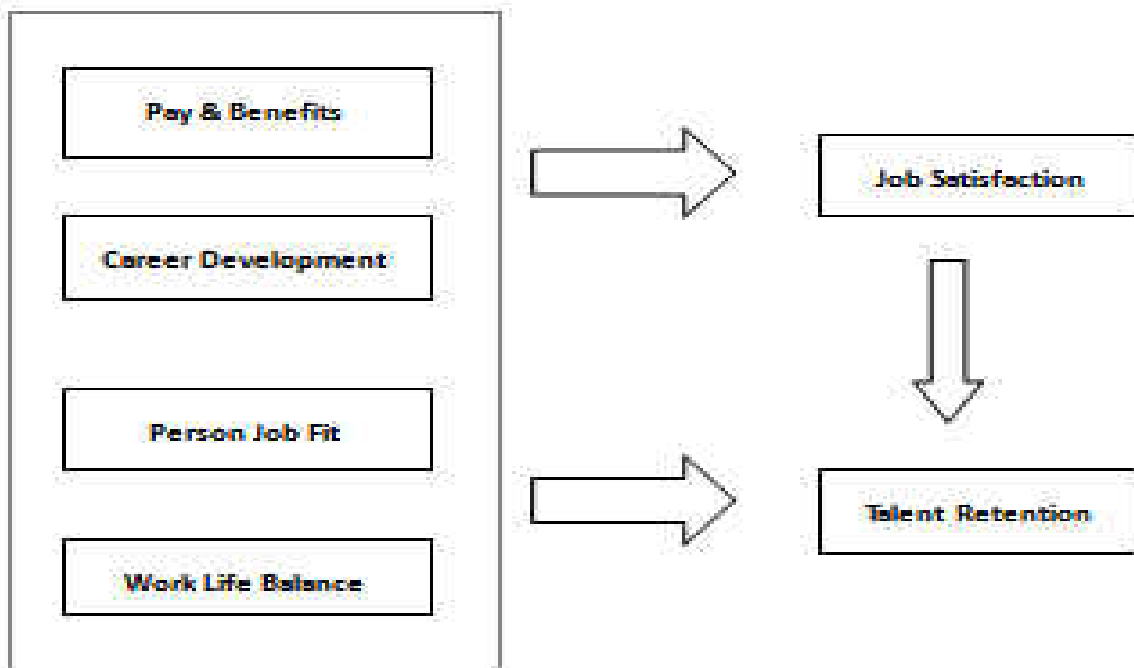


Figure 4.2: Tri-dimensional theoretical retention framework (Wee, 2013:38)

Wee's (2013) retention framework indicated the factors that contribute to employees leaving the organisation. The factors also indicated that they contribute to employee job satisfaction which leads to retention of employees. In comparison to Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional theoretical framework of retention Britton et al (1999) framework of retention factors was considered.

Britton's (1999) framework covers direct and indirect financial, affiliation, work content, career and work-life balance. The framework provides more detail in terms of the factors that contribute to employee's leaving the organisation. In analysing the models there are similarities among the frameworks with regards to career growth, work-life balance and remuneration. This attests to Snelgar et al (2013) that remuneration plays an important role in retaining employees in an organisation. Figure 4.3 indicates Britton et al (1999) framework of retention factors.

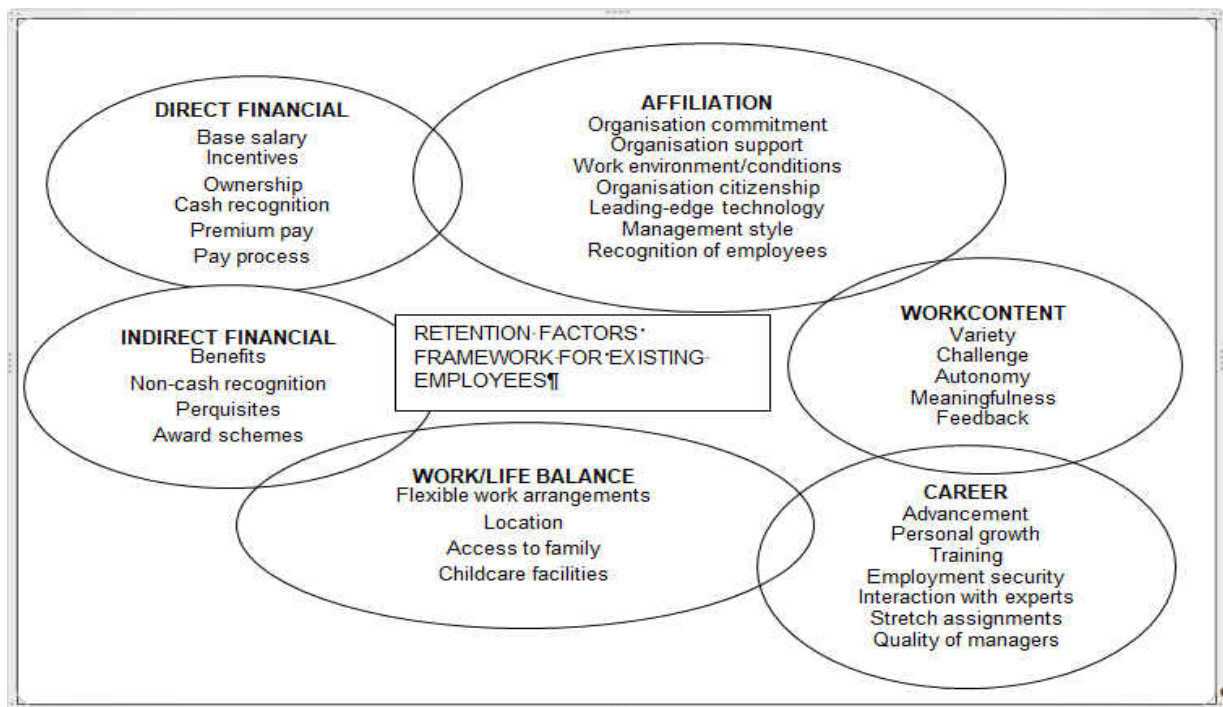


Figure 4.3: Retention factors framework for existing employees (Britton et al, 1999:47)

Wee's framework includes pay and benefits which link to compensation in the framework of Fauzi et al (2013). The framework of Britton et al (1999) has similarities with that of Fauzi et al (2013) in terms of work environment, compensation and training and development. Britton et al (1999) include retention factors such as supervisor support and work-life balance. Wee's framework also includes work-life balance but the research focus was on career development and person-job fit. The frameworks showed a similarity of compensation or pay and

benefits or financial benefits which seem to be the common influencer on employees not remaining longer in the organisations they work for.

4.4.6 Career development

Wee (2013) mentions that career growth denotes ongoing methods of improving and refining the career goals where the organisation provides opportunities to enhance employees' personal abilities, skills, knowledge as well as their potential throughout their career lifespan. Britton et al (1999) indicate that an individual has an opportunity for career advancement in future positions within an organisation, personal growth and access to training as well as employment security.

4.4.7 Person-job fit

Person-job fit is indicated as compatibility of employees' knowledge, skills and abilities with job demand (Wee, 2013). It is also referred to as the aspirations or suitability of individual characteristics such as knowledge, skills, abilities and needs regarding the requirements or attributes of the job (Chhabra, 2015:658).

4.4.8 Work-life balance

In Britton et al's (1999) retention framework, work-life balance comprises factors associated with the amount of flexibility of work arrangements and the convenience associated with the location of work and access to facilities such as family and childcare. Wee (2013) states work-life balance as the notion that young generation requires to strike a balance between their personal lifestyle and working life because they prefer flexibility to conduct their lives among socialising and family.

4.5 Demographic variables influencing retention factors

Sutherland and Jordaan (2004) emphasise that because the perception of career alternatives and job satisfaction would be diverse across different employee populations, it is important to identify unique management strategies for the retention of different types of employees. Studies undertaken to understand which

rewards are preferred by employees have suggested that reward preferences might differ based on a variety of factors such as employees' demographic characteristics, which include age, gender, marital status and race (Bussin & Toerien, 2015).

4.5.1 Qualification/education

Nowadays organisations depend on the knowledge of their employees in order to compete positively and gain a competitive advantage in the international market (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). The most valuable resources are increasingly intangible and competitive advantage lies within the unique knowledge and experience of a company's most talented and skilled employees (Bussin & Toerien, 2015). Nonetheless, current studies indicate that retention of highly skilled employees is a challenge for managers as this category of employees are being attracted by more than one organisation at a time with various kinds of incentives. The more skilled and educated they are, the less chance of retention because they are in demand (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

4.5.2 Race

Van Dyk, Coetzee and Tebele (2013) found no significant differences between the various racial groups in the South African service industry. However, in the context of the medical and information technology (IT) service industry in South Africa, Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) found a significant difference between ethnic groups regarding retention factors in that African participants were found to be less satisfied compared to their white counterparts and thus African employees are more likely to change jobs.

4.5.3 Gender

Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) established that men and women in medical and IT services in South Africa varied significantly in their satisfaction levels with retention factors, and men were found to be more satisfied than women. In the context of reward preferences for South African employees, Snelgar et al (2013) found that

women showed a stronger preference for remuneration, benefits and conducive working environment, whereas men placed greater importance on career advancement, promotions and increased responsibility without managers interfering. Van Dyk (2011) discovered that in research on association among retention factors, organisational commitment and perceived job embeddedness, women were less satisfied than men.

4.5.4 Age

In their research in the finance industry in South Africa, João and Coetzee (2012) established that mature employees were affectively more committed to their organisations due to the perceived costs of leaving their organisations and having “cognitively justified” their continuance in an organisation. Snelgar et al (2013) identify a needs shift among older employees as they tend to appreciate rewards such as flexible work arrangements and skills development, whereas younger employees value cash. In addition, older employees tend to stay in organisations due to fewer job opportunities being available to them and role specialisation as they grow older (João & Coetzee, 2012). In contrast, Cennamo and Gardner (2008) found that older employees value rewards such as pay and benefits more than younger employees. Lawton and Chernyshenko (2008) conclude that younger employees value opportunities for training and development more than older employees.

4.5.5 Tenure

Branch (1998) feels that employees in the 0-3-year tenure range, frustrated by having to determine how the business works, are particularly vulnerable and usually move on fast if attention and support offered do not correspond with the signing bonus. Van Dyk et al (2013) found that employees with less than five years' experience had significantly lower levels of affective commitment and therefore tended to have a higher propensity to leave the organisation. Furthermore, the

longer the employee stays in the organisation, the higher the need to even remain longer (Van Dyk et al, 2013).

Snelgar et al (2013) identify four distinct generations of people interacting in the workplace, namely Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y. Each generation has a different view on rewards (Bussin, 2011). Based on the above demographic variables, this has an impact on retention factors as employees' needs differ according to generation. The following section will discuss the retention strategies.

4.6 Retention strategies

Retention strategies are programmes that would enable the stay or departure of employees subject to their priorities (Netswera et al, 2005). These programmes are seen as integral to the ability of companies to attract and retain the best talent (Galinsky & Johnson, 1998).

While employee retention is crucial, the matter becomes even more significant when the economy faces a temporary decline. It has become a critical strategic matter that has caught the attention of the business, financial and executive community (Phillips & Connell 2010). Allen (2008) attests that retention becomes a strategy of programmes and processes put in place for employees rather than the outcome being important. Organisations offer employees formal rewards with purchase incentives and discount coupons from partner firms instead of a well-crafted strategic retention programme that will attract employees to stay with the organisation (Morgan, Crutchfield & Lacey, 2000).

The strategies include rewards and recognition, work-life policies, career opportunities, compensation, management style, recognition, reasonable compensation systems and training and development opportunities (Chiboiwa, Samuel & Chipunza, 2010; Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014).

4.6.1 Rewards and recognition

Most organisations currently utilise recognition as part of their retention strategy. This entails giving employees the resources they need to perform their jobs, recognising a job well done, stating clear expectations and showing interest and concern in them. Recognition includes small, on-the-spot monetary rewards given by supervisors when they find an employee delivering extraordinary service as well as handwritten postcards given by and to employees at any level when they see or receive first-class service (Mitchell & Gamlem, 2012). According to Phillips and Connell (2011), when employees are given projects, it is preferable not to dictate how the project should be handled. Employees prefer to work alone, and be permitted to progress and develop while the employer provides support as and when it becomes necessary. Showing gratitude for good performance to a valuable employee through a simple acknowledgement such as thank you, or formal recognition in front of other employees, goes a long way in keeping an employee happy (Phillips & Connell, 2003).

Coetzee and Pauw (2013) indicate that some organisations utilise rewards for effective job performance, building satisfying relationships among employers and subordinates and maintaining a healthy, safe work environment. Yang, Wan and Fu (2012) add that some organisations benefit from employee recognition as it leads to employee satisfaction and thus employees will not leave the organisation.

4.6.2 Work-life balance programmes

According to Hill and Weiner (2003:448), work-life programmes have been established in response to the need for greater flexibility to effectively manage work and personal/family life responsibilities. Work-life policies include various employee benefits such as flexible working time, family leave policies and on-site or off-site childcare centres (Dockel et al, 2006). Bussin and Toerien (2015) found flexible working hours and work-life balance to be very desirable in the context of reward preferences in attracting, retaining and motivating knowledge workers in South

African information technology companies. Dockel et al (2006) report that employees who access work-life programmes display significantly greater organisational commitment and show lesser intention to resign from their jobs.

4.6.3 Career opportunities

Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012:2) mention career growth as necessary to boost employees' affective commitment to the organisation and to minimise intentions to leave. Dockel et al (2006) insist that career prospects yield more significant predictors of retention than any other type of reward as they promote growth, learning and development. In addition, Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) are of the opinion that when employees recognise job opportunities within the organisation, it encourages them to perform better and decreases their plans to leave.

4.6.4 Compensation

Compensation refers to monetary and non-monetary rewards (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). Kotze and Roodt (2005) report that a corporate survey of 800 South African companies proved that the major reason for employees leaving organisations was the prospect of improved pay and working conditions. Robyn and Du Preez (2013) point out that remuneration alone is not enough to retain employees; in most instances, employees remain in the organisation because they are fond of their colleagues, and engaged and challenged by work that improves their skills and abilities. Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) add that pay and monetary incentives are direct and indirect antecedents of intentions for employees to leave the organisation. However, compensation offers security opportunities, autonomy, recognition and improved self-worth to employees. Kotze and Roodt (2005) found money to be positively correlated with organisational commitment.

4.6.5 Management style

Munsamy and Venter (2009) identify management style as the most prominent retention factor in the context of management staff within the local government in

South Africa. Ng'ethe, Namusonge and Iravo (2012) mention that organisations require leaders with skills in creating an atmosphere of retention and values that will attract employees to remain in the organisation, as this will protect the organisation against unwanted turnover. Employees who lack self-esteem in the work environment tend to blame management or their immediate supervisor for their leadership-related capabilities such as sharing the organisation's vision, invigorating staff, showing trust and loyalty and developing teams (Ngambi, 2011). Ng'ethe et al (2012) add that employees are more likely to stay in an organisation if their managers pay more attention to them, if their expectations are clearly defined, if their role fits their capabilities and if they receive regular positive feedback and recognition. The quality of relationships an employee has with their immediate managers extends employees' stay in an organisation (Ng'ethe et al, 2012).

4.6.6 Opportunities for training and development

Dockel et al (2006) maintain that training is necessary for any employee and is the only way their skills can stay relevant to their careers and employability. Training and development of employees has proved to be the most significant factor internationally in retaining employees, as stated by Kotze and Roodt (2005). Gabie (1999) mentions that keeping employees' skills fresh and staying current with emerging technology training is a top priority for organisations as training has been linked with improved self-esteem and reduced turnover (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999). Employees are given a chance to learn new skills and the development of a long-term career is a major driver according to a Markinor South African employee relations survey (Kotze & Roodt, 2005). Yang et al (2012) indicate that employees achieve satisfaction when they are trained and developed by the organisation and thus will remain with the organisation. Furthermore to retention strategies employees would also consider best companies to work for as this would provide them with stability (Phillips & Connell, 2011). Employer of choice will be discussed in the following section.

4.7 Employer of choice

Employer-of-choice theory has strengthened in the last decade. Employees want to work for top organisations. Organisations endeavour to be the “best company to work for” as this testimonial attests to decreased organisational turnover (Phillips & Connell, 2011:3). Employees are interested in the way they are connected to the organisation (Mitchell & Gamlem, 2012). Whenever employees believe in the organisation’s mission, vision and values, when they understand the work they do, when they work with each other in teams and when their managers treat them in a fair and equitable manner by supporting them, they feel connected to the organisation (Phillips & Connell, 2011). The following section will discuss the development plans as part of retention strategies.

4.8 Development plans

Coetzee and Gunz (2012) point out that human resource management practice is faced with a challenge to bring about new research-based knowledge and practical applications of enticing, grooming and keeping talent that fits into the new global knowledge-driven society and support appropriate career growth interventions. João and Coetzee (2012) state that the provision for growth opportunities by organisations gives employees the impression that they are being valued by the organisation they are serving. Coetzee and Gunz (2012) add that organisations are pressurised to start devising retention strategies in order to retain targeted employees. The section that follows will discuss the integration of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

4.9 Integration of the three literature chapters

The general aim of this research was to establish whether there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and if diverse individuals from different ages, genders, ethnic groups, marital statuses, employment levels and education levels differ with regard to the above variables.

4.9.1 Workplace wellness and retention

Retention has a link to workplace wellness in that organisations have various wellness initiatives that form part of retention strategies, which may assist employees in identifying their health problems and in turn save their lives (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001). Employees are happy to stay longer in positions where they are comfortable with their expertise in relevant issues concerning the organisation and their well-being (Selesho & Naile, 2014). Workplace wellness has been identified to assist employees in resolving issues associated with health, marital, family, financial, substance abuse, legal, emotional, stress, workplace violence, or other personal issues that affect job performance (Mitchell & Gamlem, 2012:158). Therefore those employers who aspire to attract good calibre employees will earn respect, gratitude and loyalty through continuous development of improved ways to support their employees. The workplace wellness initiatives will offer employers a competitive edge in retaining existing employees and attracting others of similar calibre (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001) as the initiatives lead to increased employee engagement, reduced absenteeism and positive attitudes towards the organisation (Killian, 2015). Organisations offering wellness programmes will benefit in that they will understand what their employees need in terms of health support and will be able to deal with absenteeism and achieve high productivity.

4.9.2 Organisational commitment and retention

Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment model (1997) refers to affective commitment as the employees' passion for the organisation, which is how the individuals identify with and involve themselves in the organisation. Continuance commitment is referred to as an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation and normative commitment as a requirement to continue employment as there is a strong belief in the culture and a sense of belonging by an employee.

Dockel et al (2006) are of the view that organisational commitment improves during employment in the organisation. When an employee begins to realise their value

and association with the organisation, they develop affective commitment. Continuance commitment then develops when an employee starts realising the value of investments or benefits accumulated in the organisation, and normative commitment develops when an employee fits in with the organisational culture. Employees will then remain with the organisation.

4.9.3 The relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment

Rothmann and Rothmann (2006) describe employee wellness as a state in which employees are energetic, motivated, healthy, productive and committed to the organisation and its goals. Wali and Zahid (2013) mention that promotion employees wellness within the workplace is an investment in human capital and fiscal health that positively impacts employee productivity.

There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment in that wellness programmes promote employee wellness. Swayze and Burke (2013) stress that if an organisation desires a strong committed workforce, it must strongly commit to improve and maintain employees' personal wellness. Employees feel committed to the organisation as the organisation caters for their health or wellness needs, gradually introduces various targeted interventions for their employees to improve working conditions and lessens potential occupational stressors (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

4.9.4 Workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention

When employees are provided with employee wellness programmes, they manage their work and family responsibilities better and have a more positive work attitude, which leads to commitment (Wali & Zahid, 2013). Cinman (2014) denies that employee wellness is a nice-to-have; rather, it is a necessity for companies looking to attract and retain top talent. In addition, wellness programmes are an investment

in employee well-being that pays off by helping the business attract and retain valuable talent (Wali & Zahid, 2013).

According to the literature (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Dockel et al, 2006), there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Organisations that have workplace wellness programmes are able to attract and retain talent and are able to keep employees committed because they cater for their needs.

4.10 Chapter summary

Retention was defined and conceptualised in this chapter. Retention models were explained through a summary of views obtained from the literature. Retention factors and demographic variables influencing retention were explored. The chapter achieved the first aim of conceptualising retention. Integration of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention was discussed. The three literature reviews to conceptualise workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention were all accomplished in chapters 2, 3 and 4. The chapter that follows will discuss the research design and method followed to conduct the research.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concentrates on the research design and methodology adopted in this study on workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a South African insurance organisation. The adopted method was chosen carefully to complement the research. The literature review outlined in previous chapters creates the basis for the research design and methodology presented in this section. Figure 5.1 below indicates the research design process.

Figure 5.1 depicts the steps to be followed in the research design chapter.

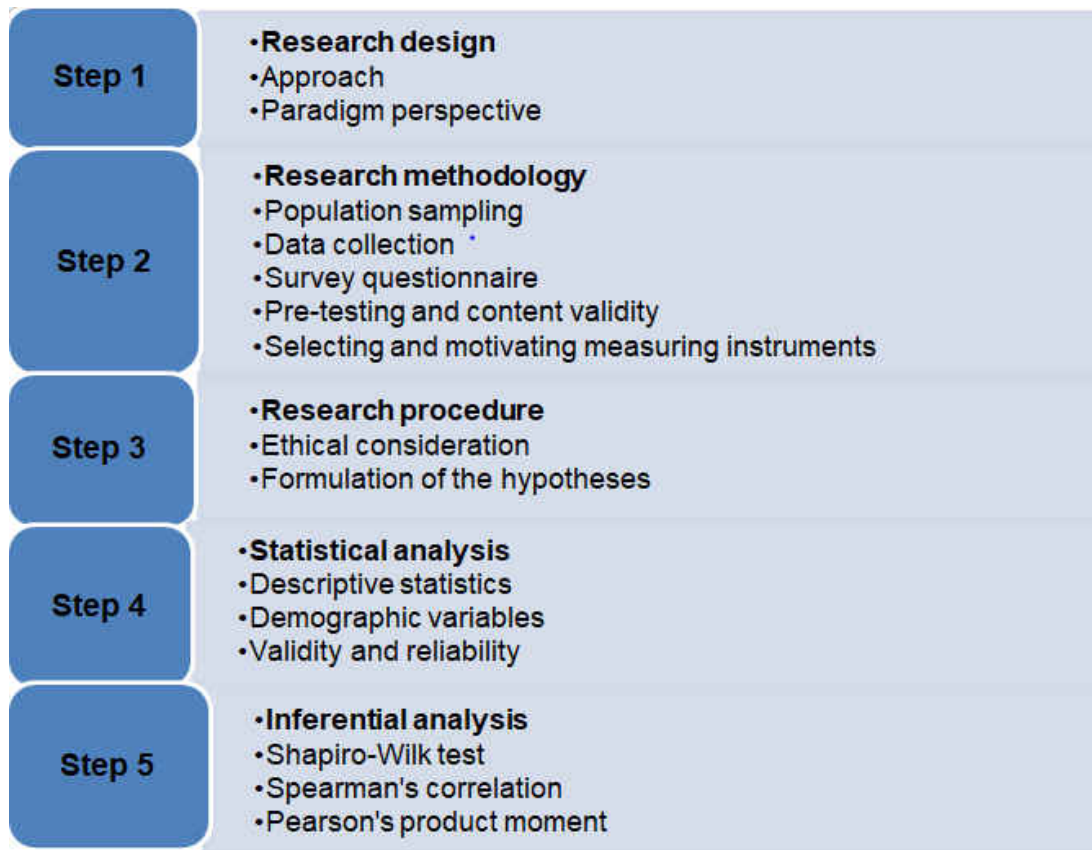


Figure 5.1: Steps to be followed in the design and methodology of the research

(Adapted from Diedericks, 2016:161)

5.2 Research design

Research design is a general plan or strategy for conducting a research study to examine specific testable research questions of interest (Lavrakas, 2008). The choice of the research design is fundamental to the study because everything ultimately flows from the design choice. The choice is most closely tied to the investigator's research questions and theories (Vogt et al, 2012). The research design was utilised to guide the collection of evidence through a survey to achieve the outcomes of this study. The following section will discuss the research approach.

5.2.1 Research approach

The quantitative descriptive research method that described the phenomenon of whether there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention was utilised. This method aimed to establish, confirm and validate relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. A correlational cross-sectional design was applied as the study examined more than one group of people at one point in time in terms of demographics (Salkind, 2015) to determine if there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention within the various groups.

A descriptive research method identifies trends or patterns in a situation and ascertains or depicts the characteristics of interest in a given research problem (Frank, 2012). This method was utilised to characterise the sample population and to identify any trends or patterns within the sample population. In addition, a survey was identified as the means to collect the information for the study as this method is well known for its cost efficiency (Vogt et al, 2012). The research followed the reality about the world therefore the paradigm perspective of the research will be discussed in the following section.

5.2.2 The paradigm perspective

The quantitative descriptive research method follows the reality about the world (ontology) and learning on what forms our knowledge base (epistemology). Ontology deals with the nature of reality and what there is to know about the world (Metzler, 2014). Ontology has two positions: idealism and realism, which are shaped by social science. Realism is based on the idea that there is an external reality which exists independently of people's beliefs about or understanding of it (Metzler, 2014:4). The study was triggered by certain beliefs and assumptions of an external reality created in the human mind through observations such as wanting to know or investigate the relationship between employees and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

Epistemology deals with ways of knowing and learning about the world and focuses on issues such as how we can learn about reality and what forms the basis of our knowledge (Metzler, 2014:6). Strauss (2016) refers to epistemology as the knowledge about society derived from individuals in society. Epistemology considers two ways of acquiring information, which are inductive and deductive. The study followed the deductive process, which utilises evidence in support of a conclusion; a hypothesis is developed first (based on the literature study) and then evidence is collected (in the empirical phase) to confirm or reject the hypothesis (Metzler, 2014:6).

5.3 Research methodology

The research methodology is a process of searching for knowledge or careful investigation of new facts in any branch of knowledge (Kothari, 2004). Researchers can choose between quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. In this study, a deductive quantitative research methodological approach was followed to test the existing theory (Gabriel, 2013). The literature was reviewed in order to provide a critical evaluation of the relationship between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention within an insurance organisation.

The research method describes the generation and collection of the data, and this assists with the reliability and validity of the results. In this section the research method adopted will be discussed in terms of questionnaire development, research respondents, data collection, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analyses.

5.3.1 Population and sampling strategy

Turner (2013) defines population as persons with a similar trait or individuals with a characteristic of interest. Sampling is defined as units of analysis randomly chosen such that all possible units of equivalent size are equally likely to be chosen (Bobko, Miller & Tusing, 1980). The population in this study consisted of a sample of employees of a large insurance company in South Africa (See Table 5.1). For this study, a systematic probability sampling strategy was utilised to obtain evidence about an entire population by investigating only a part of it (Dhawan, 2010).

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) indicate that a population size of about 1 500 should be sampled at 20%, which is 300, and that a population size of about 5 000 sampled at 8% (400) should be satisfactory. Using a systematic sampling procedure, where every third respondent was nominated, 726 respondents were selected. A random list of the respondents' email was printed and the third person on the list was selected as a starting point. Table 5.1 indicates the target population for the research.

Table 5.1: Target population

Selection	Number of respondents
Population	2 180
Systematically selected respondents	726
No. of respondents	164

164 responses were received from the 726 respondents who were emailed the survey.

The systematic probability sampling strategy was relevant, since it has been applied successfully on large-scale populations in previous studies (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The population consisted of 2 180 (N = 2 180) respondents aged 18 years or over of all races and ethnic groups working at an insurance company in South Africa. The respondents were based at the head office of the insurance company. Respondents from the branches were excluded due to the different setup of the office environment and availability of facilities.

5.3.2 Data collection

The researcher approached the Information Technology (IT) team at the insurance organisation to discuss the data collection method feasible for the research. Emailing a link for an electronic instrument process was found to be effective for such a large organisation, as all respondents were easily accessible. The IT representative was requested to sign a confidentiality form to not disclose any information or data to anyone except the researcher. The IT representative was requested to assist in creating a link with the survey that would be emailed to the respondents. The first email was sent out to 2 180 employees notifying them of the survey that would be sent to them. The respondents were advised that the survey would be anonymous.

After systematic selection, a second email was sent to 726 respondents with a link to the survey. The respondents were asked to consent to participate in the survey by clicking on decline or accept before being taken to the survey questionnaire. 164 respondents responded to the survey, representing 22.59% respondents. Respondents' confidentiality was maintained in that the format of the data retrieved by the IT representative was not individually identifiable, but was combined numerical raw data. The IT administrator retrieved the data and sent it to the researcher electronically. The data was stored electronically by the researcher, and later forwarded to the statistician to assist with measuring and scoring.

5.3.3 Survey questionnaires

A standardised questionnaire with 46 items developed by Tayyab and Tariq (2001) for testing organisational commitment in Pakistan was utilised for this study. The questionnaire was relevant to this research as the statements reflected identification, involvement and loyalty of individuals. These form part of the behaviours and attitudes of the respondents that were measured in the study. The internal consistency of the scale for the overall questionnaire was recorded at .93 of Cronbach's alpha and the subscales of identification, involvement and loyalty ranged between .89 and .95 of Cronbach's alpha.

The survey consisted of a questionnaire to ascertain firstly the demographic data of the respondents, such as age and gender, and secondly information pertaining to workplace wellness. The survey was submitted to the statistician to recommend any changes or inappropriate items in relation to the hypotheses being tested. Content validity was conducted to measure the representation of items to the scale to ensure that all essential items are included (Taherdoorst, 2016). The researcher worked through three drafts of the questionnaire, conceptualising the statements to measure the idea. The statistician was consulted to verify any discrepancies in the questionnaire. This was done to ensure that any question or information not relevant to the constructs was eliminated and the survey was adjusted to meet the desired outcome.

The standardised questionnaire was aligned with the constructs of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The definitions of these three variables as used in this study were as follows: workplace wellness is a conscious and continuous process of incorporating behaviours into a person's daily life to positively impact on their health (Robinson & McCormick, 2011; Van der Merwe, 2008). Organisational commitment is a psychological connection and identification of the employee with the organisation and commitment to the organisation (Brown, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Miller & Lee, 2001). Retention is the number of

employees remaining in the organisation and efforts by the management to retain employees within the organisation (Cascio, 2003; Phillips & Connell, 2003).

5.3.3.1 Demographic survey

The demographic information of the respondents was necessary for the study as the study aimed at identifying whether demographic factors have a correlational influence on workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. This information was on age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level. A survey was deemed relevant as the research involved obtaining opinions, attitudes and characteristics from more than one group of people (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

5.3.3.2 Workplace wellness survey

A deductive reasoning approach by Trochim (2006) which works from general to specific was applied to identify workplace wellness statements. The method was utilised to select and align the relevant statements with workplace wellness with a view to acquiring respondents' opinions, feelings and attitudes within the organisation to prove or disprove the hypotheses being tested in the study. Of the 46 statements, 14 were found to be relevant to workplace wellness.

5.3.3.3 Organisational commitment survey

The deductive reasoning approach by Trochim (2006) was applied to identify organisational commitment statements. The method was utilised to select and align the relevant statements with organisational commitment with a view to acquiring respondents' opinions, feelings and attitudes within the organisation to prove or disprove the hypotheses being tested in the study. Of the 46 statements, 12 were found to be relevant to organisational commitment.

5.3.3.4 Retention survey

The deductive reasoning approach by Trochim (2006) was utilised to select and align relevant retention statements with a view to acquiring respondents' opinions, feelings and attitudes within the organisation to prove or disprove the hypotheses being tested in the study. Of the 46 statements, 12 were found to be relevant to retention.

The above four sub-sections of section 5.3.3 thus represent the full measuring instrument used to collect data in this study. The organisational commitment questionnaire was found to be valid as it showed a Cronbach's alpha of .93, which Krog and Govender (2015) deem to be valid. Maqsood, Hanif, Rehman and Glenn (2012) also report questionnaires with a Cronbach's alpha of .84 to be valid.

5.3.4 Pre-testing and content validity

Pre-testing was conducted to identify any discrepancies in the survey that may have affected respondents in their participation or caused problems in understanding or interpreting the questions in the survey. Kervin (1992) provides an extensive basis for pre-testing questionnaires, but does not provide a practical approach. Many scholarly works do not provide sufficient information on outcomes of pre-testing (Presser, Couper, Lessler, Martin, Rothgeb & Singer, 2004). Pre-testing is carried out to enhance the reliability and validity of the developed survey (Nahm, Rao, Solis-Galvan & Ragu-Nathans, 2002).

Pre-testing was conducted on five respondents to validate the content. The respondents were comfortable with the survey, except for minor administration errors in terms of viewing the survey. The matter was addressed with the IT administrator, who assisted with uploading the survey to resolve the technical errors.

5.3.5 Selection of and motivation for using the measuring instruments

In order to convert the data into feasible outcomes, rating scales were identified. Likert (1932) developed scales to measure attitudes and opinions of people. These scales have been widely utilised since they are known for efficiency in capturing broad variance for reporting individual attitudes and behaviours (Preston & Coleman, 2000; Hartley & MacLean, 2006). Sullivan and Artino (2013) say that the typical Likert scale is a 5- or 7-point ordinal scale. This was applied to this study for respondents to rate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with a statement. The descriptive information of the measurement type and Likert-type scale utilised for the survey is described in Table 5.2. When collecting information about people, objects and events, the information must be converted into numbers so that it can be measured. Data is derived from characteristics about individuals, objects or events (Caroll, 2016).

Table 5.2: Survey questionnaire overview

Section	Number of items	Measurement type	Likert-type scale	Content covered
Cover page	0	None	None	Research topic
Section A	6	Nominal scale	None	Demographic information
Section B	14	Ordinal scale	1 – 6	Workplace wellness survey
Section C	12	Ordinal scale	1 – 7	Organisational commitment
Section D	12	Ordinal scale	1 – 5	Retention

5.3.5.1 Workplace wellness measuring instrument

A 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree to 6 – strongly agree was used, employing closed questions, to measure workplace wellness. From the literature (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al,

2007; Robinson & McCormick, 2011; Swarbrick, 2006; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013), nine dimensions for workplace wellness were identified, namely emotional, spiritual, physical, cultural, social, occupational, intellectual, environmental and community, to reflect the six determinants of workplace wellness.

5.3.5.2 Organisational commitment measuring instrument

Meyer and Allen's three-component instrument (1990) was utilised with a pre-determined questionnaire to measure organisational commitment. As the researcher aimed to determine the behaviours of respondents in terms of their commitment to the organisation, a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree to 7 - strongly agree was used to measure affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen's model has become the predominant model for measuring organisational commitment. Nunnally (1978) and Cortina (1993) consider a Cronbach's alpha of greater than 0.7 to be adequate. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) found reliability for measures in organisational commitment to be 0.82 on affective commitment, 0.74 on continuance commitment and 0.83 on normative commitment. Mowday et al (1979) and McConaughy, Prochaska and Velicer (1983) also report a reliability range of 0.82 – 0.93, considered to be high.

5.3.5.3 Retention measuring instrument

The researcher aimed to measure attitudes, opinions and behaviours of respondents towards specific components such as compensation, training and development, career opportunities and supervisor support, which are the components of retention in the study. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree was utilised to measure retention.

5.3.6 Research procedure: Ethical considerations

The research procedure outlines the process followed with regard to information collection using human respondents.

The University of South Africa requires researchers to apply for ethical clearance for conducting research that includes data or information collected from human respondents so as to protect their rights and interests (Unisa, 2013). The researcher applied through the Department of Human Resource Management's Ethics Committee to conduct a study that involved human respondents. Approval to conduct the research was granted to the researcher and an ethical clearance certificate was issued (see appendix A). The researcher requested permission from the employee relations department of the targeted organisation and received a signed approval letter to conduct the research using the organisation as a sample.

5.4 Formulation of the research hypotheses

Pandey and Pandey (2015) explain that a hypothesis is a tentative generalisation, the validity of which remains to be tested. In its most elementary stage the hypothesis may be any hunch, guess or imaginative idea which becomes a basis for further investigation.

The research objectives were set out in chapter 1. Table 5.3 represents the research objectives and hypotheses that were tested by means of descriptive and inferential statistics.

Table 5.3: Research hypotheses

Empirical research objectives	Hypothesis
1. To determine the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention among employees in a South African insurance company.	<p>H1_o There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a sample of participants from a South African insurance organisation.</p> <p>H1_a There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a</p>

	sample of participants from a South African insurance organisation.
2. To determine the significance of the relationship between organisational commitment, workplace wellness, retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level among employees within a South African insurance company.	<p>H2_o There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in terms of demographic variables (age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level) as demonstrated in the sample.</p> <p>H2_a There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness organisational commitment and retention in terms of demographic variables (age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level) as demonstrated in the sample.</p>

Table 5.3 above shows the empirical research objectives and the research hypotheses tested. The testing of the hypotheses will be further detailed in the statistical analysis section that follows.

5.5 Statistical analysis

The empirical data was analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (2015) for descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics were calculated. Principal component analysis (PCA) and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were utilised to validate and assess the internal consistency of the measuring instruments. The inferential statistical analysis included Spearman's rho rank correlational analysis to establish the relationships (Sullivan, 2017) and Pearson's product moment to measure the direction and strength of the variable relationships against one another (Salkind, 2010).

5.5.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated to describe the characteristics of the sample in numerical format according to the constructs relevant to the demographic information. Descriptive statistics included demographic variables, item descriptives, frequency tables, percentages, means and standard deviations. The description of the results would be presented in tabular and graphic format in Chapter 6. The graphic format will indicate the distribution of the age, gender, ethnic groups, marital status, education level and employment level in percentages and data interpretation will follow.

The sample profile is illustrated according to the following demographic information: age, gender, culture, marital status, level of education and employment level, to investigate whether there is a significant relationship between the respondents and the specified variables. The distribution of the demographic data is shown in frequency tables. The frequency tables also include the percentages describing the number of respondents corresponding to the demographics represented. The minimum and maximum refer to the number of ratings on the scale. The scale had a minimum of 1 response and a maximum of 7 responses. The mean was determined to show the average scores of the responses on the scale, and the standard deviation denoted the scattering of data from the means (Barde & Barde, 2012). The standard deviation of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention was determined to identify the deviation of the scores from the mean.

A Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to assess the normality distribution of the data. This test indicates that normal data distribution is significant at $p > 0.05$. However, $p < 0.05$ attests to non-normal data and this allows for non-parametric tests (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Parametric tests are applicable to non-ordinal data and involve specific probability normal distributions of mean or difference in means from the sample data (Sullivan, 2017).

5.5.2 Measuring instrument validity

Validity determines the meaningfulness, credibility and accuracy of the instruments (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In addition, an instrument that measures what it is intended to measure confirms validity (Higgins & Green, 2011).

The validity of the measuring instrument scales was tested by utilising principal component analysis (PCA), which is a statistical technique used for data reduction. PCA identifies critical factors affecting each dimension. The objective of PCA is to find unit-length linear combinations of the variables with the greatest variance (Afifi, May & Clarke, 2012). The factor loadings represent the variable weight for each factor and the correlation between the variables and the factor. An eigenvalue value greater than 1 is considered positive.

5.5.3 Reliability: Cronbach's alpha coefficient

The rule of thumb proposed by Gliem and Gliem (2003) for interpreting Cronbach's alpha scores was utilised. Reliability refers to accuracy and consistency of the measuring instrument of what is intended to measure (Ledford & Gast, 2018). Reliability is tested using Cronbach's alpha which is designed to calculate the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients (Bryman & Bell, 2014). In this study internal consistency reliability was utilised as it determines the consistency of results across items, often measured with Cronbach's alpha.

The Chronbach Alpha internal consistency will be utilised to test the reliability workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention scales. The Chronbach Alpha internal consistency will be also applied to test the reliability of the sub-dimensions of the variables for organisational commitment and retention.

Table 5.4 represents the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency scores utilised for the study.

Table 5.4: Cronbach's alpha coefficient rules of thumb

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

(Adapted from Gliem and Gliem, 2003:87)

Internal consistency is the extent to which all items within a single instrument generate similar results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The scales are judged reliable with a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.7 or greater (English, 2006). Goldstein et al (2009) adds that the higher the value for Cronbach's alpha, the less random the response error.

5.5.4 Inferential analysis

Inferential analysis was used to ascertain whether or not the relationship between various demographic groupings and the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention were dependable. Normality and correlation tests were conducted to support the inferential analysis.

5.5.4.1 Normality testing

Normality testing was conducted to test if the data was normally distributed or not. The Shapiro-Wilk normality test was utilised to test if the data was normal or not. Normal data is significant at $p > 0.05$ (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). If the data is not significant, Sullivan (2017) suggests non-parametric testing. The non-parametric data was then subjected to Spearman's rho rank analysis for testing relationships as it does not assume a normal distribution of data (Sullivan, 2017).

5.5.4.2 Non-parametric data

As postulated by Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch (2000), statistical tests that do not make stringent assumptions about data of a given nature of a population are known as non-parametric. With regard to some derived data in this research study, only generic assumptions can be made.

An ordinal Likert scale was utilised as it describes the data in rank order. Non-parametric tests were found to be more appropriate for analyses involving Likert scales. Non-parametric testing compares three or more unrelated samples (Corder & Foreman, 2014).

5.5.4.3 Correlational analysis

Correlational analysis was utilised to test the strength of the relationship between the constructs and demographic variables. Cohen (1988) mentions that correlations can vary in magnitude from -1 to 1 , with -1 indicating a perfect negative linear relationship (as one variable increases, the other decreases), 1 indicating a perfect positive linear relationship (as one variable increases, the other decreases and the inverse) and 0 indicating no linear relationship between two variables. Evans (1996) gives guidelines of correlation, suggesting the value of r as $0.00-0.19$ to be very weak, $0.20-0.39$ weak, $0.40-0.59$ moderate, $0.60-0.79$ strong and $0.80-1.0$ very strong. Cohen (1998) indicates that a statistical significance of a value is largely influenced by sample size; therefore a correlation of 0.5 is large, 0.3 is moderate and 0.1 is small.

Spearman's rho rank correlation matrix therefore tested for any relationship between the following: workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and demographic variables of age, race, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level. The statistical significance was set at 5%.

Pearson's product moment correlation was utilised to confirm the relationships between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The test was also utilized to show the direction and the strength of the relationships between the variables.

5.6 Summary

The research design applied in this study was the deductive quantitative research method. The discussion of this method included the research design, survey development, pre-testing and content validity. It also included the population sample, method of data collection, measuring instruments utilised and reliability and validity testing. The research method to utilized for the study was achieved in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 will focus on the descriptives and interpretation of the results.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis of the results. The results are presented by means of numerical data in tables and Figures. As in Figure 6.1 below, the presentation of the results begins with the descriptive statistical data of the sample, which includes demographic variables and item descriptives of the data, followed by the reliability and validity calculations of the instruments, descriptive statistics of the research variables and inferential statistical analysis.

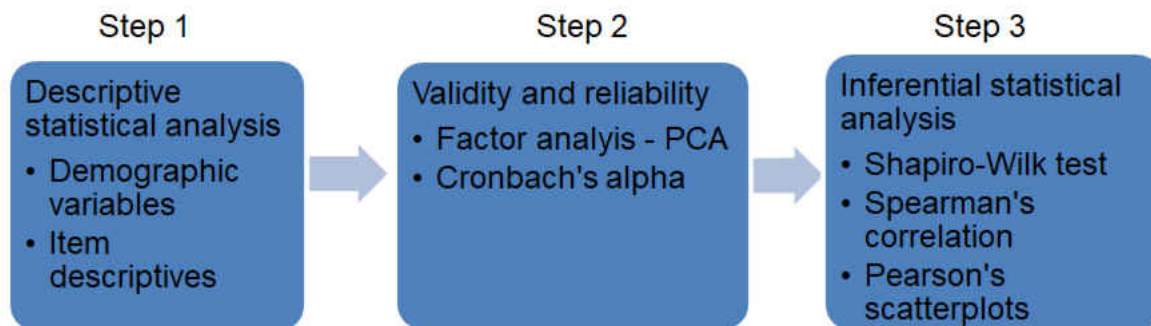


Figure 6.1: Steps in the data analysis process (adapted from Diedericks, 2016:176).

6.2 Demographic results

This section provides a description of the demographic variables of the sample of 164 ($n = 164$) respondents who responded to the survey questionnaires. The demographic variables consisted of gender, age, culture, marital status, education level and employment level.

6.2.1 Gender composition of the sample

As shown in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.2 below, the gender distribution of respondents from the sample ($n = 164$) was more female respondents (54.3%) than males (45.7%).

Table 6.1: Sample distribution by gender (n = 164)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Male	75	45.7	45.7	45.7
Female	89	54.3	54.3	100.0
Total	164	100.0	100.0	

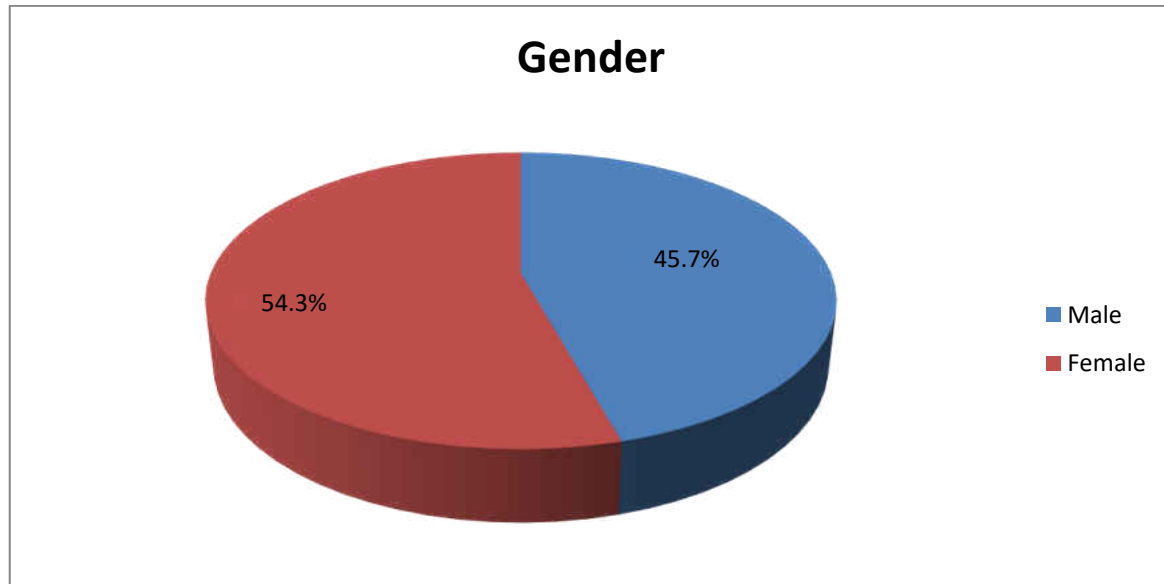


Figure 6.2: Sample distribution by gender (n = 164)

Table 6.1 and Figure 6.2 show that there were more female respondents than males. This was to be expected, as the organisation has more female employees than males. The organisation's gender representation is 56.9% female and 43.1% male, as per the Employment Equity Plan Report 2014-2017 (Nxele, 2014), however 54.3% women and 45.7% men participated in the survey.

6.2.2 Age composition of the sample

As shown in Table 6.2 and Figure 6.3 below, which indicate the age distribution of respondents from the sample (n = 164), the highest number of respondents was in the 31-40 year category (32.9%) and the lowest was in the 61 years or older category (1.2%). The remainder of the sample fell into the categories 18-30 years (31.1%), 41-50 years (26.2%) and 51-60 years (8.5%).

Table 6.2: Sample distribution by age (n = 164)

Age	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
18 – 30 years	51	31.1	31.1	31.1
31 – 40 years	54	32.9	32.9	64.0
41 – 50 years	43	26.2	26.2	90.2
51 – 60 years	14	8.5	8.5	98.8
61 years or older	2	1.2	1.2	100.0
Total	164	100.0	100.0	

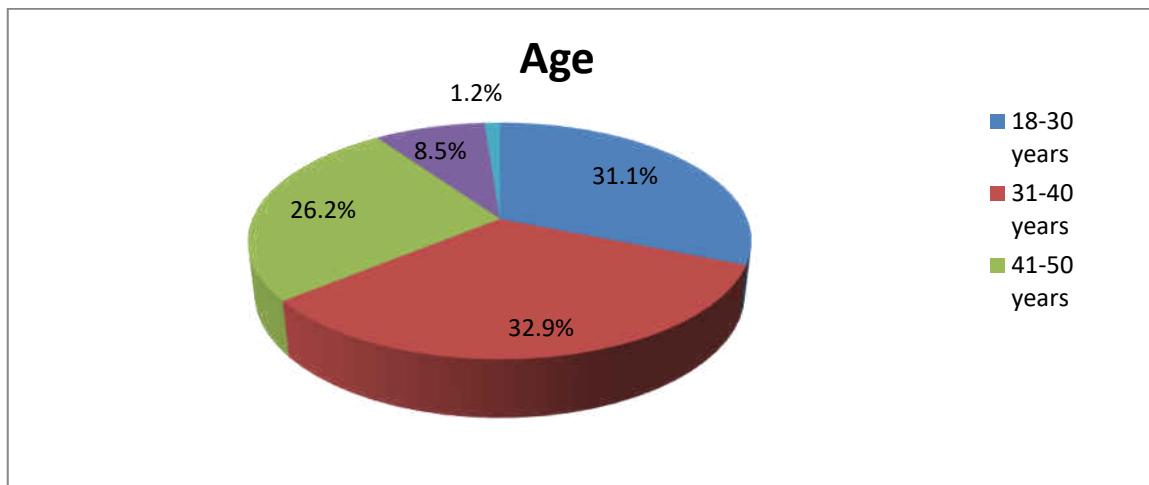


Figure 6.3: Sample distribution by age (n = 164)

Table 6.2 and Figure 6.3 show that there were more respondents in the age categories 18-30 and 31-40. The age category 18-40 may be high, due to the organisation adopting programmes such as learnerships and internships for school or university leavers and graduates (Inseta, 2016a). Younger employees also tend to join organisations as administrators or sales consultants due to non-work experience, and the majority of this organisation's workforce hold jobs in administration and sales.

6.2.3 Culture composition of the sample

As shown in Table 6.3 and Figure 6.4 below, which indicate the culture distribution of respondents from the sample (N = 164), nearly half of the respondents were from the African category (41.5%), slightly more than a third came from the white category (36.6%) and Indians and coloureds made up the remainder of the sample at 17.1% and 4.9%, respectively.

Table 6.3: Sample distribution by culture (n = 164)

Culture	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
African	68	41.5	41.5	41.5
Coloured	8	4.9	4.9	46.3
Indian	28	17.1	17.1	63.4
White	60	36.6	36.6	100.0
Total	164	100.0	100.0	

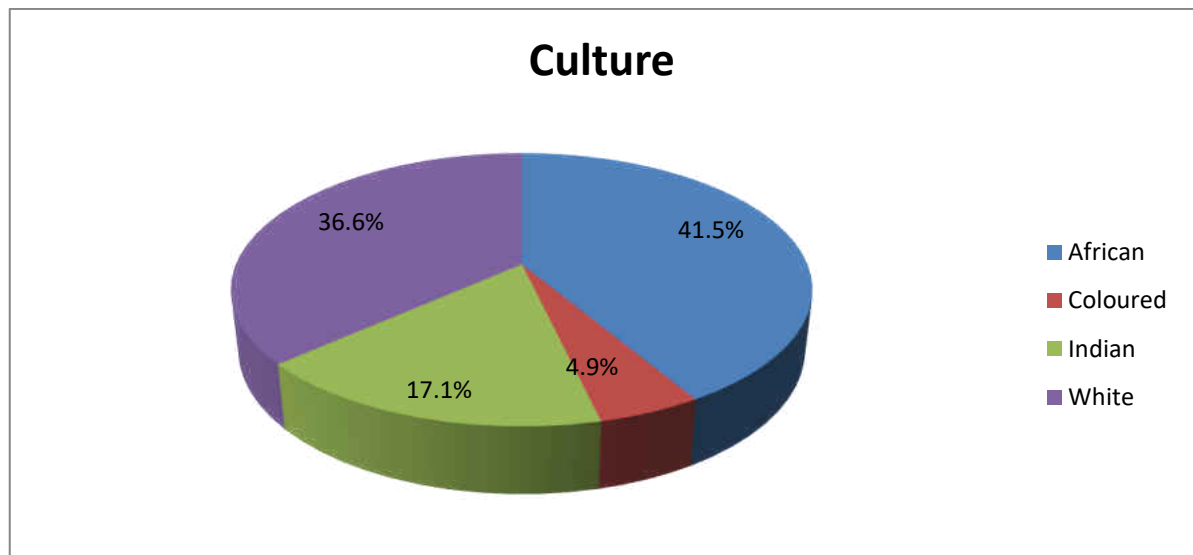


Figure 6.4: Sample distribution by culture (n = 164)

Table 6.3 and Figure 6.4 above show that there were more African respondents compared to other races. This was to be expected as the majority of employees in

the organisation are African. The cultural representation for the organisation as at 2013 was 38.8% African, 24.4% white, 21.9% coloured, 13.9% Indian and the remainder of the 1% were female and male foreign nationals (Nxele, 2014). The anticipated future target was to increase Africans, coloureds and Indians to support the transformation agenda, which means Africans would still represent the majority in the organisation.

6.2.4 Marital status composition of the sample

Table 6.4 and Figure 6.5 indicate the marital status of the respondents (n = 164). The distribution of the sample shows that 48.8% were married, 34.1% were single, 9.1% were in a permanent relationship, 4.9% were separated or divorced, 1.8% indicated other and 1.2% were widowed. In other words, almost half of the sample comprised married respondents.

Table 6.4: Sample distribution by marital status (n = 164)

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Single	56	34.1	34.1	34.1
Married	80	48.8	48.8	82.9
Widowed	2	1.2	1.2	84.1
Separated/divorced	8	4.9	4.9	89.0
Living together/permanent relationship	15	9.1	9.1	98.2
Other	3	1.8	1.8	100.0
Total	164	100.0	100.0	

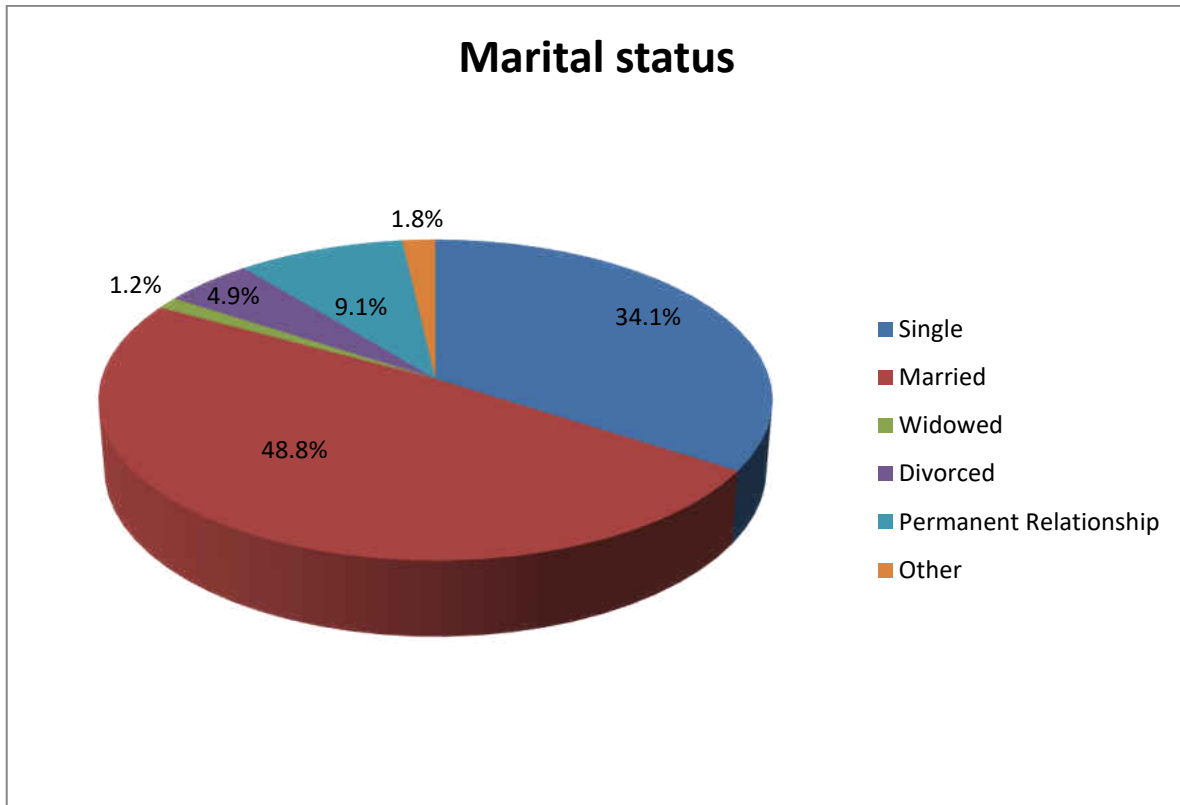


Figure 6.5: Sample distribution by marital status (n = 164)

Table 6.4 and Figure 6.5 represent a high percentage of married respondents. The sample shows that married people participated more than other groups. The reasons why there were more married respondents could not be established as no marital status information could be drawn from the organisation's employee database.

6.2.5 Education level composition of the sample

Table 6.5 and Figure 6.6 indicate the education level of the respondents (N = 164). The sample distributions show that 29.9% had matric, 29.3% had a four-year qualification/honours, 18.3% had three-year degrees, 11.6% had three-year diplomas, 7.3% had master's degrees, 1.2% had doctorates and 2.4% had other qualifications. It is also noteworthy that the majority of the sample comprised respondents with a post-matric qualification.

Table 6.5: Sample distribution by level of education (n = 164)

Education level	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Matric	49	29.9	29.9	29.9
Three-year diploma	19	11.6	11.6	41.5
Three-year degree	30	18.3	18.3	59.8
Honours/4-year qualification	48	29.3	29.3	89.0
Master's degree	12	7.3	7.3	96.3
Doctorate	2	1.2	1.2	97.6
Other	4	2.4	2.4	100.0
Total	164	100.0	100.0	

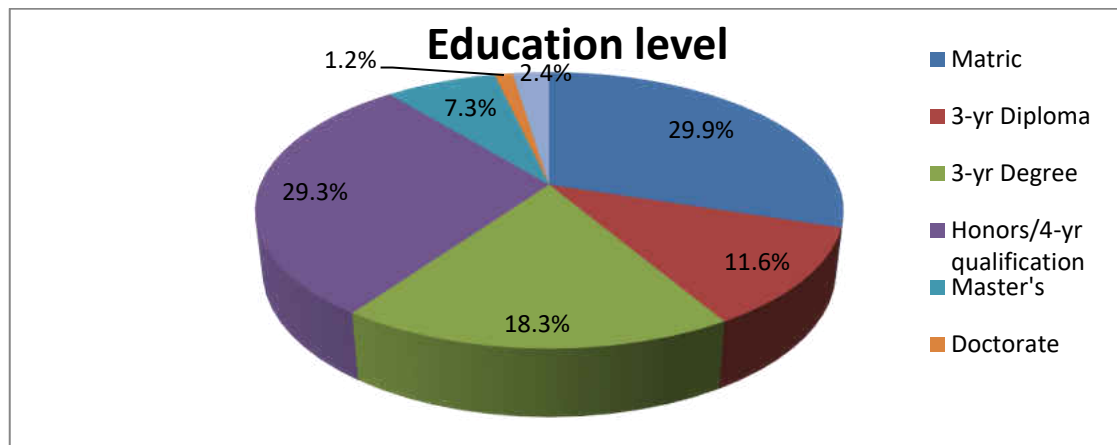


Figure 6.6: Sample distribution by education level (n = 164)

Apart from the four-year degree holders, there was an inverse relationship between the number of respondents and their level of education. This means that the number of respondents decreased as the qualification level increased. A high percentage would be expected in matric as this is generally the minimum qualification requirement to join the workforce. The high percentage with matric is also supported by programmes such as learnerships and internships stipulated by Inseta for organisations to develop school and university leavers and graduates without work experience. However, results show that there was also a high percentage of respondents from the honours or 4-year qualification category. This

may have been due to the fact that the organisation employs many specialists such as accountants, lawyers and actuaries whose qualifications fall in this category.

In line with this finding, the Employment Equity Plan (Nxele, 2014) also shows the specialist/professional category as the highest with 71.64%, followed by the unskilled/semi-skilled category at 28.36%. The latter category encompasses the administrator and sales roles. Based on the available information in the organisation's Employment Equity Plan, there is a strong proportionality between its Figures and those of the sample. It can therefore be concluded that the sample was indeed a fair representation of the organisation's population breakdown.

6.2.6 Employment level composition of the sample

Table 6.6 and Figure 6.7 indicate the employment level of the respondents (N = 164). The sample distribution shows that 34.1% were in a specialist/professional job, 26.8% were administrators, 17.7% were managers, 7.3% indicated other, 5.5% were senior managers, 4.9% were team leaders and 3.7% were executives. The biggest component of the sample was represented by the respondents in the specialist/professional and administration categories.

Table 6.6: Sample distribution by level of employment (n = 164)

Employment level	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Administrator	44	26.8	26.8	26.8
Team leader	8	4.9	4.9	31.7
Manager	29	17.7	17.7	49.4
Senior manager	9	5.5	5.5	54.9
Specialist/professional	56	34.1	34.1	89.0
Executive	6	3.7	3.7	92.7
Other	12	7.3	7.3	100.0
Total	164	100.0	100.0	

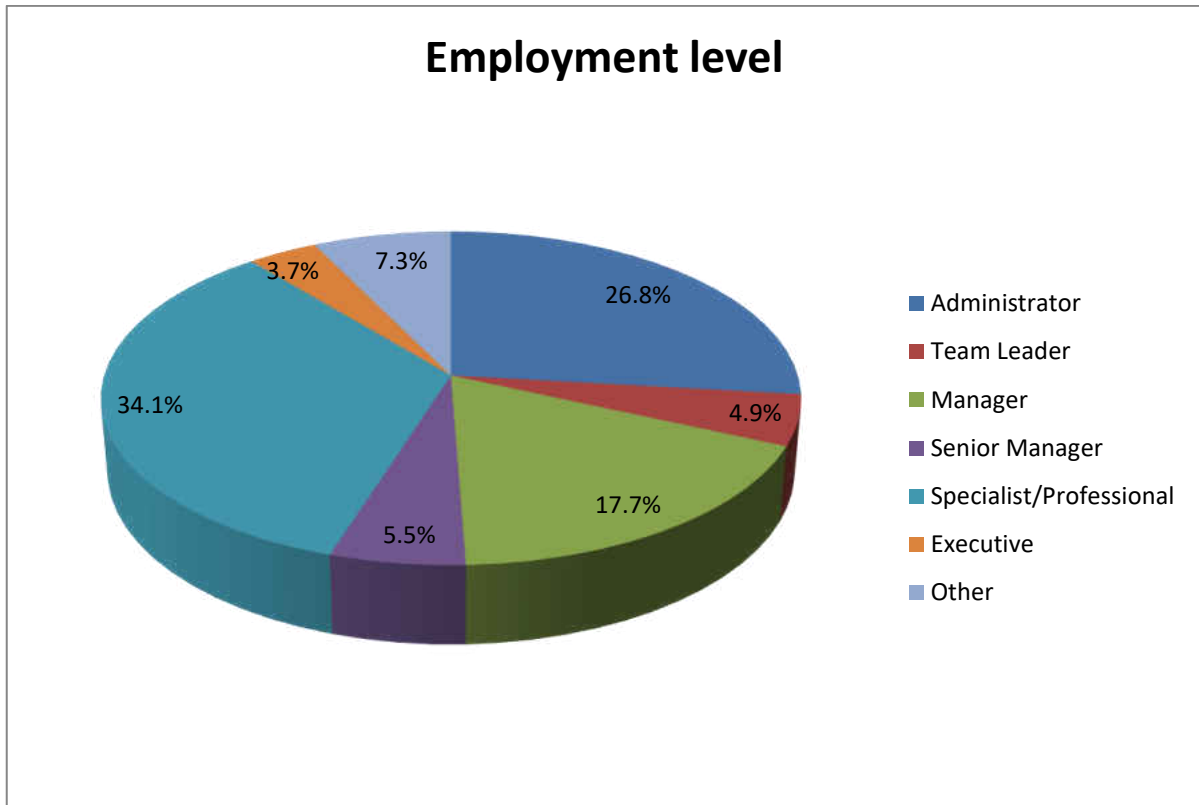


Figure 6.7: Sample distribution by level of employment (n = 164)

Table 6.6 and Figure 6.7 show higher respondent percentages in administrator and specialist/professional roles. This is to be expected in insurance organisations, as such organisations typically employ many administrators in the lower levels of the organisational hierarchy. This was alluded to in the discussion of education level distribution where, according to the Employment Equity Plan (Nxele, 2014), the highest respondent percentages were in the specialist/professional followed by skilled/semi-skilled categories. Specialist/professional roles have increased in recent years due to legislative changes that require roles such as those of insurance advisors to acquire specialist qualifications. Insurance advisors are required to attain a Certified Financial Planner Certificate, which is a postgraduate diploma (Inseta, 2016b). Senior management and executives naturally had the lowest participation levels, in line with the organisational hierarchy figures as per the Employment Equity Plan (Nxele, 2014), indicated in the following section.

6.2.7 Employment Equity Plan

Table 6.7 indicates the Employment Equity Plan of the organisation as at January 2017 reflecting race and gender demographics.

Table 6.7: Workforce profile as at 14 January 2017

Male				Female			
African	Coloured	Indian	White	African	Coloured	Indian	White
954	413	325	479	1 308	659	447	654
Total	2 144			Total	3 095		

Nxele (2016)

The Employment Equity Plan of the organisation shown in Table 6.7 represents the organisation's demographics in terms of gender and race. The findings of the research correspond to the organisation's workforce profile as there are more female than male employees and more African employees than from other ethnic groups. The sample was considered a fair representation of the population of the organisation.

In summary, the demographic sample profile comprised mainly female respondents (54%), between the ages of 18 and 40, of the African culture (41.5%), married (48.8%), with honours (29.3%) and matric (29.9%) levels of qualifications equally well represented, in specialist (34.1%) and administrator (26.8%) work roles. The organisation's statistical demographics as per the Employment Equity Plan (Nxele, 2014) show that there are more women than men and the demographic sample profile is in line with these statistics.

6.3 Item descriptives of the research constructs

As illustrated in Figure 6.1, the next step in the statistical analysis includes the item descriptive statistics of each of the research constructs, namely workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The item descriptive information for the

measuring instruments is presented in the tables below. The descriptive information consists of the number of respondents for each question (N), the minimum score selection (minimum), the maximum score selection (maximum), the average score per item (mean) and the amount by which the score deviates from the average (standard deviation).

6.3.1 Workplace wellness

Workplace wellness denotes a proactive, dynamic process and a lifelong discipline that incorporates behaviours into a person's daily life to positively impact their health (Van der Merwe, 2008; Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Furthermore, Bezner (2015) alludes to wellness as the awareness of living in a manner that permits the experience of consistent, balanced growth in the physical, spiritual, emotional, intellectual, social and psychological dimensions of human existence. Workplace wellness item descriptive results will be interpreted in conjunction with wellness dimensions defined by various authors (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007; Swarbrick, 2006; Robinson & McCormick, 2011; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013).

Table 6.8 below shows the item descriptives for workplace wellness. An interpretation of the scores in respect of the responses to the statements will be provided. The wellness questionnaire utilised an ordinal scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree; 2 - somewhat disagree; 3 - disagree; 4 - agree; 5 - somewhat disagree and 6 – strongly agree. An ordinal-type scale was appropriate, as the responses can be ranked or rated as high or low (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). The items rated 4 and above indicate positive opinions and feelings. The sample consisted of 164 respondents.

Table 6.8 indicates the statements with their minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation scores.

Table 6.8: Item descriptive statistics for workplace wellness: Likert scale items (n = 164)

Item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. My organisation's wellness facilities are easily accessible	1	6	4.63	1.336
2. Participation in my organisation's wellness programme is voluntarily	1	6	5.11	1.173
3. My organisation effectively provides support in dealing with emotional issues	1	6	4.24	1.289
4. My organisation effectively provides protection on issues of gender	1	6	4.41	1.115
5. My organisation effectively provides protection on issues of religion.	1	6	4.5	1.141
6. My organisation provides gym facilities that ensure physical wellness	1	6	5.19	1.221
7. My organisation effectively encourages attending social events to establish relationships	1	6	4.02	1.421
8. My organisation encourages community involvement by engaging employees to participate in community activities	1	6	4.54	1.238
9. My organisation supports career initiatives to enhance success in chosen careers	1	6	3.83	1.463
10. Financial assistance for education is equally accessible to all in my organisation	1	6	3.77	1.593
11. My organisation protects the environment by preserving natural resources	1	6	3.92	1.286
12. My organisation provides full support to anyone who wants to participate in the gym	1	6	4.58	1.327
13. The wellness centre offered in my organisation saves me time	1	6	4.47	1.448
14. The wellness programme offered in my organisation saves me money	1	6	3.94	1.463

The minimum score allocated to the response is 1 where the respondent totally disagreed (strongly disagreed) with the statement. The maximum score allocated to a response is 6 where the respondent was in total agreement (strongly agreed) with the statement.

The mean score is the average of the responses to each statement from all the respondents. A score below 3 would indicate disagreement with the statement and a score above 4 would indicate agreement. Table 6.8 shows that the mean in respect of each of the statements was above 3.5. This indicates that the respondents were generally in agreement with each of the statements, although to different extents. Statements 2 and 6 had mean scores of 5.11 and 5.19, respectively, indicating that the majority of respondents agreed with the two statements. Respondents felt strongly about wellness participation being voluntary and that the gym provided supported their physical wellness. Statement 10 received the lowest mean score of 3.77 indicating that although the respondents were slightly in agreement with the statement, the extent to which they agreed was low.

The standard deviation measures the extent to which the responses (scores) vary around the mean (average) (Salkind, 2012). A low standard deviation indicates that the difference between the scores allocated to each statement by the respondents was low, suggesting that respondents were generally in agreement with each other. Table 6.8 shows that statement 4 had the lowest standard deviation of 1.12. Similarly, statements 2 and 5 had low standard deviations. It is noticeable that all three of these statements had high mean scores. This indicates that, not only were the respondents strongly in agreement with those statements (mean), but they were also strongly in agreement with each other (standard deviation).

Statement 10 in Table 6.8 had the highest standard deviation of 1.59, indicating that there was a disparity between the views of the respondents pertaining to that particular statement. This may be due to unequal education benefits provided to employees.

6.3.2 Workplace wellness measuring instrument

The researcher aimed to measure attitudes, opinions and behaviours of respondents towards specific wellness dimensions. These dimensions were

physical, environmental, occupational, spiritual, intellectual and emotional wellness. The selection of the workplace wellness dimensions was based on the questionnaire utilised during the survey and the responses to it. Swarbrick (2006), Robbins et al (2007) and Robinson and McCormick (2011) also include similar dimensions in their workplace wellness models, but with a few variations.

6.3.2.1 Physical wellness

Physical wellness refers to maintenance of a healthy body through physical fitness, good dietary habits and medical self-care (Robbins et al, 2007; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). In Table 6.8 the total mean score of the physical wellness dimension was 4.89. Statements 6 and 12 bear relevance to the physical wellness dimension. The standard deviation of statements 6 and 12 was 1.22 and 1.33, respectively, which was average relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.89 shows positive physical wellness among employees as the score was between somewhat agree and agree. Employees were in agreement that physical wellness support was present in the organisation. These findings are in line with Sieberhagen et al (2011) and Osilla (2012) who found in their studies that employees who received physical wellness support through wellness programmes showed positive outcomes such as improved employee well-being and staying longer in the organisation. However, Osilla, Van Busum, Schnyer, Larkin, Eibner and Mattke (2012) found mixed evidence of the influence of workplace wellness programmes on physical wellness.

6.3.2.2 Emotional wellness

Emotional wellness refers to recognition of personal feelings, coping with good or bad feelings, relationships, work-life balance and relaxation (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). In Table 6.8 the total mean score of the emotional wellness dimension was

4.24. Statement 3 bears relevance to the emotional wellness dimension. The standard deviation of statement 3 was 1.29, which was average relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.24 shows positive emotional wellness among employees as the score was between somewhat agree and agree. This indicates that employees were in agreement that the organisation supported their emotional wellness. These findings are in line with those of Strout, Elizabeth and Howard (2012) and Lo and Herman (2017), who found that employees who received emotional support from their employers were enthusiastic about themselves and the environment, and they strived to achieve their set goals.

6.3.2.3 Spiritual wellness

Spiritual wellness refers to religious affiliation, meditation, values, ethics, forgiveness and compassion (Robbins et al, 2007; Van Lingen & De Jager, 2011; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). In Table 6.8 the total mean score of the spiritual wellness dimension was 4.50. Statement 5 bears relevance to the spiritual wellness dimension. The standard deviation of statement 5 was 1.14, which was low relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.50 shows positive spiritual wellness among employees as the score was between somewhat agree and agree. Employees felt strongly about spiritual support within the organisation. These findings are in line with those of Sieberhagen et al (2011) and Lo and Herman (2017), who found that employees supported spiritually by their organisations showed positive attitudes and behaviours towards themselves and the organisation.

6.3.2.4 Social wellness

Social wellness refers to the ability to perform social roles, attend social events, create positive relationships and contribute to the community (Robbins et al, 2007; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). In Table 6.8 the total mean score of the social wellness dimension was 4.32. The standard deviation of statements 4, 7 and 8, which bear relevance to the social dimension, were 1.12, 1.42 and 1.23, respectively. These standard deviations for social wellness were low relative to the item descriptives except for statement 7. This indicates that the employees were generally in agreement with each other except for statement 7 in Table 6.8, which means the opposite.

The average mean score of 4.32 shows positive social wellness among employees as the score was between somewhat agree and agree. Employees indicated slight agreement that the organisation supported social wellness. This finding is in line with Strout et al (2012), who found that employees' social wellness improved cognitive skills. Kitko (2001) mentions that employees with social wellness support found a sense of belonging.

6.3.2.5 Occupational wellness

Occupational wellness refers to personal satisfaction from vocation, maintenance of work-life balance, satisfying career, continued education, volunteering activities and safe work environment (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). In Table 6.8 the occupational wellness dimension total mean score was 4.29. The standard deviation of statements 1, 2, 9, 10, 13 and 14, which bear relevance to the occupational wellness dimension, was 1.34, 1.17, 1.46, 1.59, 1.45 and 1.46, respectively. These standard deviations for occupational wellness were high relative to the item descriptives except for statement 2, which was low. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other except for statement 2, which means the opposite.

The average mean score of 4.29 shows positive occupational wellness among employees as the score was between somewhat agree and agree. The employees acknowledged the support for career development and the convenient wellness centre and that it saved them money. This finding is in line with Horton and O'Fallon (2011) who assert that improved employees' occupational wellness or job satisfaction results in improved employees' holistic wellness and engagement with their work.

6.3.2.6 Intellectual wellness

Intellectual wellness refers to continuous acquisition of knowledge, openness to new concepts and ideas, personal satisfaction, enjoying the chosen career, work-life balance and continuous education (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013). There was no intellectual wellness found among the employees. This does not mean that they did not have any intellectual wellness; it may mean that there were no items on the scale relevant to measure intellectual wellness.

6.3.2.7 Environmental wellness

Environmental wellness refers to preservation of natural resources and protection of plant and animal wildlife (Robbins et al, 2004). In Table 6.8 the total mean score of the environmental wellness dimension was 3.92. Statement 11 bears relevance to the environmental wellness dimension. The standard deviation of statement 11 was 1.29, which was average relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.48 shows positive environmental wellness among employees as the score was between somewhat agree and agree. The employees acknowledged that the organisation supported environmental wellness. This finding is in line with Horton and O'Fallon (2011), who realise that a balanced environment leads to success of employees. Furthermore, when the environment creates a

balance, sense of belonging and comfort for employees, it results in success among employees.

Table 6.9 shows the overall mean scores for the workplace wellness dimensions. The physical wellness dimension had the highest total mean score, followed by spiritual, social, occupational, emotional, environmental and intellectual. The mean scores for the dimensions were above somewhat agree, except for the environmental and intellectual dimensions. This indicates that employees were generally in agreement that workplace wellness exists in the organisation but not to their expectations. These findings are in line with those of Abe et al (2016), who found in their study that workplace wellness programmes minimally assisted employees in managing their work-life balance, but the justification was that the programmes were reactive. Sieberhagen et al (2011) report that out of 14 organisations consulted, 12 rated the wellness programmes as successful with reference to participation, but 2 indicated less effectiveness due to not being able to measure the construct.

Table 6.9: Mean average scores for workplace wellness dimensions

Workplace wellness dimensions	Mean score
Physical dimension	4.89
Emotional dimension	4.24
Spiritual dimension	4.50
Social dimension	4.32
Occupational dimension	4.29
Intellectual dimension	0
Environmental dimension	3.92

The total mean score of responses from statements 1 to 14 in Table 6.8 for workplace wellness is 4.23. It can be concluded that the overall total workplace wellness mean score of 4.23 on the Likert scale lies between the ordinal scale range of somewhat agree to agree. Therefore, the overall wellness percentage within the organisation equates to 72.67%, which could be considered close to ideal. This indicates that employees were slightly confident that the organisation cared for their wellness.

It is difficult to ascertain how poor or well the results compare to other similar organisations as the same survey questions should be utilised to obtain an accurate result for a fair comparison. However, these findings are in line with those of Sieberhagen et al (2011), who indicate that organisations are successful in their wellness objectives if they achieve a satisfaction rating of 70% or higher from respondents, depending on various measuring methods utilised by each organisation.

6.3.3 Organisational commitment

Robbins et al (2003) explain that organisational commitment is a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. Organisational commitment refers to the nature of the employee's attachment, identification and involvement with their organisation (Simons & Buitendach, 2013). Therefore, organisational commitment item descriptive results will be interpreted in conjunction with Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment three-component model.

Table 6.10 below shows the item descriptives for organisational commitment. Consequently, an interpretation of the scores in respect of the responses to the statements will be provided. The organisational commitment ordinal scale ranged from 1 - strongly disagree; 2 - somewhat disagree; 3 - disagree; 4 - neutral; 5 -

agree; 6 - Somewhat agree and 7 - strongly agree. The ordinal scale is utilised for ranking items on a scale from low to high (Sullivan & Artino, 2013).

Table 6.10 indicates the statements with their minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation scores.

Table 6.10: Item descriptives for organisational commitment: Likert scale items (n = 164)

Item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I feel committed to my organisation as the work that I perform is fulfilling	1	6	4.44	1.312
2. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that expected to help the organisation to be successful	1	6	5.03	1.091
3. The longer I work at this organisation, the more I feel a sense of belonging	1	6	4.23	1.467
4. The organisational rules operative at my organisation are made so that everyone gets a fair break on the job	1	6	3.91	1.299
5. My organisation provides good opportunities to those who aspire to grow.	1	6	3.89	1.419
6. My job gives me an opportunity to do the things that I do best	1	6	4.18	1.517
7. My work is the most rewarding experience I have ever had	1	6	3.65	1.506
8. The existence of my organisation's employee wellness programme shows that management values employee well-being.	1	6	4.40	1.200
9. There is too much to be gained by remaining with this organisation	1	6	4.11	1.356
10. My organisation focuses more on performance than monitoring time spent in and out of office	1	6	4.16	1.502
11. The environment and my work area are a pleasant place to be	1	6	4.25	1.362
12. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over the others I was considering at the time I was joining	1	6	4.54	1.286

Statement 2 in Table 6.10 shows the highest mean of 5.03, indicating that many respondents agreed that they were willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that expected to help the organisation to be successful. Furthermore, this statement had the lowest standard deviation, indicating that the respondents were in agreement with each other. In general, the majority of the statements had mean scores above 4.00, indicating that the respondents were in general agreement with the statements.

With the exception of three of the statements (6, 7 and 10) in Table 6.10 with a standard deviation of ≥ 1.50 , the standard deviations of the majority of the statements were low, indicating a high level of agreement among the respondents. The standard deviation of ≥ 1.50 for questions 6, 7 and 10 indicates that respondents had mixed feelings regarding flexibility of optimising individual strengths, rewarding work and time management. This may be due to different management styles, as the mean scores show that participants were in agreement. The mean scores also seem to indicate that an opportunity to do better things, and a rewarding experience and focus on performance monitoring are available, but may not be applied uniformly across the organisation.

In Table 6.10 item 4 had the lowest mean score of 3.91 with a low standard deviation of 1.30, meaning that employees were in agreement that organisational operative rules were in place, but not applied equally across all employees.

In Table 6.10 item 2 scored the highest. This shows that respondents believed that their extra effort towards the organisation contributed to the success of the organisation. Items 1, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 scored fairly high as well. Respondents showed that the organisation was more considerate of their emotional well-being as they were satisfied by the work they did, they felt a sense of belonging, they experienced a pleasant environment and their overall presence in the organisation was good.

In Table 6.10 items 4, 5 and 7 scored the lowest. Respondents showed that rules were not fairly applied and opportunities not equally afforded to everyone. Also, they noted that the experience was not fairly rewarding in terms of the work they did.

6.3.4 Organisational commitment measuring instrument

The researcher aimed to measure attitudes, opinions and behaviours of respondents towards organisational commitment. These dimensions include Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component model of commitment with the affective, continuance and normative commitment components.

Affective commitment is the extent to which an individual identifies with the organisation and reflects the employee's emotional attachment to it, including willingness to go beyond work (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Continuance commitment is a psychological attachment of an individual to an organisation due to high costs of leaving. Employees will stay longer in the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Ugwu, Onyishi & Tyoyima, 2013). Normative commitment is based on feelings and belief and has been known to develop from organisational commitment norms through family and culture (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Ugwu, Onyishi & Tyoyima, 2013).

6.3.4.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation such as loyalty, affection, warmth and belongingness (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Nkosi & Lesabe, 2007). In Table 6.10 the total mean score for affective commitment was 4.24. The standard deviation of statements 1, 6, 7, 8 and 12, which bear relevance to affective commitment, was 1.31, 1.52, 1.51, 1.20 and 1.29, respectively. This standard deviation for affective commitment was high relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.24 in Table 6.11 shows neutrality among employees about their attachment, loyalty and sense of belonging as the score was between neutral and slightly agree. These findings are in line with those of Simons and Buitendach (2013) and Geldenhuys et al (2014), who found that meaningful work and engaged employees created affective commitment, which then led to organisational commitment. Furthermore, Suma and Lesha (2013) and El-Kassar, Messarra and El-Khalil (2017) also found that employees reflected affective commitment through rewarding work experience and wellness programmes offered to them by their organisations.

6.3.4.2 Normative commitment

Normative commitment refers to feelings and beliefs that develop during pressures experienced by employees to socialise (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Wiener, 1982). In Table 6.10 the total mean score for the normative commitment dimension was 4.05. The standard deviation of statements 4, 5, 10 and 11, which bear relevance to the normative commitment dimension, was 1.30, 1.42, 1.50 and 1.36, respectively. This standard deviation for normative commitment was high relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.05 in Table 6.11 shows positive normative commitment among employees as the score was between slightly agree and agree. Normative commitment develops when employees are valued by their organisation and supported in career growth, autonomy, performance and pay. This finding is in line with those of Juhdi, Pa'wan and Hansaram (2013), Yean and Yahya (2013), Long and Perumal (2014), Abubakar, Chauhan and Kura (2015) and El-Kassar et al (2017), who found that employees showed normative commitment when they experienced career growth and received rewards for performance.

6.3.4.3 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment refers to awareness of the consequences of leaving an organisation and the obligation to remain in the organisation's employ (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1997). In Table 6.10 the total mean score for the continuance commitment dimension was 4.46. The standard deviation of statements 2, 3 and 9, which bear relevance to continuance commitment, was 1.09, 1.47 and 1.36, respectively. This standard deviation for continuance commitment was high relative to the item descriptives, except for statement 2, which was low. This indicates that the employees were generally in agreement with each other, except for statement 2, which means the opposite.

The average mean score of 4.46 in Table 6.11 shows positive continuance commitment among employees as the score was between slightly agree and agree. The employees showed neutral to positive feelings and emotions towards continuance commitment. The statements in continuance commitment denoted dedication to the organisation. Employees felt the need to stay as part of their contribution to the organisation while they accumulated good benefits, which they might lose if they left. These findings are in line with those of Meyer and Allen (1996), Simons and Buitendach (2013) and Suma and Lesha (2013), who indicate that dedicated employees with a sense of belonging show continuance commitment.

Table 6.11 below shows the total mean scores for each organisational commitment dimension. Continuance commitment had the highest mean average score, followed by affective commitment. Respondents felt the need to continue employment due to the benefits offered by the organisation. Leaving the organisation may have lessened the benefits that may have accumulated if employees stayed longer. Affective commitment is fairly represented among respondents; they felt the need to stay as they were committed to fulfilling their obligations within the organisation.

Normative commitment scored the lowest but is still regarded as fairly represented among employees. Employees wanted to remain in the organisation as they felt appreciated by the organisation in terms of career growth, financial reward, social support and a conducive environment.

Table 6.11: Organisational commitment component model scores

Organisational commitment components	Mean scores
Affective commitment	4.24
Normative commitment	4.05
Continuance commitment	4.46

The total score of each dimension reflected the weighting towards the construct of organisational commitment. The mean average scores indicate the strength of the dimension within organisational commitment. Continuance commitment was the strongest of the dimensions among employees, indicating that employees were psychologically attached to the organisation due to high costs of leaving. Ugwu and Onyishi (2013) attest to positive continuance commitment because of limited employment opportunities. Affective commitment was also strong within the employees, which indicates that they were happy to remain within the organisation and were willing to go the extra mile even if the work was not very rewarding. This finding is in line with that of Field and Buitendach (2011), who found affective commitment to be positive in engaged employees. However, Simons and Buitendach (2013) report that affective commitment was the strongest and most consistent relationship within the desirable workplace outcomes on employees in their study. In this current study, normative commitment was the lowest among employees, which indicates that they felt less obligated to the organisation. This may be due to the values and cultures that did not embrace their cultures or

possibly no opportunities for growth. Beukes and Botha (2013) mention that employees with strong values that relate to the organisation with a reward system that embraces employees' needs will produce normative commitment.

The total mean score across statements 1 to 12 for organisational commitment in Table 6.10 was 4.23, or 70.54%. It can be concluded that the overall total organisational commitment mean score of 4.23 on the Likert scale was between the ordinal scale range of neutral and slightly agree. This reflects acknowledgement and positive organisational commitment within the organisation.

6.3.5 Retention

Employee retention refers to the ability and efforts by organisations to retain their employees (Allen, 2008). It is a systematic effort to create and foster an environment that encourages employees to remain employed by having policies and practices in place that meet employees' diverse needs (Das & Baruah, 2013).

Table 6.12 shows the item descriptives for retention. After the graphical presentation, an interpretation of the scores in respect of the responses to the statements will be provided. The retention ordinal scale ranged from 1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree. The ordinal scale was relevant as the scale preserves order and distinction among values (Cliff, 2014).

Table 6.12 below indicates the mean scores and standard deviation for the retention measuring scale. Respondents disagreed with statements 1 and 7 (see Table 6.12) with mean scores of 2.55 and 2.91, respectively. The standard deviation of 1.29 and 1.36, respectively, indicates that employees were closely in agreement that wellness programmes did not contribute to their stay and did not minimise their stress levels. This may be because there were no incentives or competitions to encourage employees to participate in wellness programmes and that it was voluntary to participate. Although the organisation has a wellness day once in a

while to encourage people to adopt wellness behaviours, that does not seem to be enough for employees.

Table 6.12: Item descriptive statistics for retention: Likert scale items (n = 164)

Item	Std.			
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Deviation
1. My stay at my organisation is influenced by the wellness programme offered	1	6	2.55	1.291
2. My organisation's management promotes workplace wellness behaviour.	1	6	3.34	1.336
3. My loyalty to the organisation is based on the benefits offered	1	6	3.60	1.484
4. The benefits offered by my organisation are competitive compared to those of other similar organisations	1	6	4.33	1.311
5. The employee benefits of my organisation reduce employee turnover	1	6	3.72	1.218
6. My organisation promotes employee morale	1	6	3.71	1.255
7. Stress is less likely at my organisation as the wellness programme provides assistance to handle the stressful environment	1	6	2.93	1.356
8. My organisation provides good working conditions	1	6	4.28	1.277
9. My organisation provides good worklife balance	1	6	3.74	1.351
10. My organisation sends clear updated communication on a regular basis on how the business is doing.	1	6	4.75	1.168
11. I am satisfied with the amount of training I receive to do my job	1	6	3.81	1.534
12. I would recommend a friend to this organisation for employment	1	6	4.38	1.573

There have been inconsistent results in terms of why people would leave organisations (Das & Baruah, 2013). In most studies workplace wellness programmes have not played any contributory role for employees to remain in organisations. However, Smolkin (2007) and The Kin Team (2016) state that

organisations that have workplace wellness programmes do not only benefit financially, but these programmes serve as recruitment, engagement and retention strategies for employees. Furthermore, employees will be attracted to these organisations as they feel that such organisations help them to manage their overall lifestyle and health risks.

In Table 6.12 statements 4, 8, 10 and 12 had high mean scores of 4.33, 4.28, 4.75 and 4.38, respectively. The scores were between agree and strongly agree. Employees felt strongly about benefits, working conditions, communication and referring colleagues to the organisation. The standard deviation of 1.31, .128, 1.17 and 1.57, respectively, was average, indicating agreement; however, for statement 12 it was high, indicating disparity between employees.

In Brox's opinion (2017), workplace wellness programmes are nowadays regarded as part of organisations' holistic benefits for employees and they contribute to a positive work environment. Other authors (Ayobami et al, 2016; Duffield, Roche, Blay & Stasa, 2011; Parks & Steelman, 2008) maintain that positive work surroundings contribute to happy and satisfied employees and happy employees certainly stay longer in an organisation. Smolkin (2007) says that wellness programmes are aimed at attracting and retaining employees, but they have not been proven to contribute directly to the retention of employees in an organisation (Parks & Steelman, 2008).

In Table 6.12 statements 2, 3, 5, 6, 9 and 11 show mean scores of 3.34, 3.60, 3.72, 3.71, 3.74 and 3.81, respectively, with a standard deviation of 1.36, 1.48, 1.22, 1.25, 1.35 and 1.53, respectively. Employees were neutral about wellness behaviour, benefits-based loyalty, benefits and employee turnover, employee morale, work-life balance and training available. It may be that they require incentives or motivation to participate in wellness programmes to encourage a change in wellness behaviour. The standard deviation was average, indicating general agreement

except for statements 3 and 11, which was high. For these statements, employees had highly diverse opinions. This may be because benefits were not the same for everyone and training was not offered uniformly across the organisation.

Employees have shown that their loyalty is not based solely on benefits and the benefits do not necessarily contribute to their stay. However, some research (Bussin & Toerien, 2015; Dockel et al, 2006; Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012) attests that employee benefits such as training, compensation, role ambiguity and work-life balance contribute to employees' stay, morale and loyalty as they find satisfaction and happiness within the organisation.

6.3.6 Retention measuring instrument

The researcher aimed to measure attitudes, opinions and behaviours of respondents towards specific components such as compensation, training and development, career opportunities and supervisor support.

6.3.6.1 Compensation

Compensation refers to monetary and non-monetary or benefit rewards in return for the work done (Lumley et al, 2011; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). In Table 6.13 the total mean score for compensation was 4.01. In Table 6.12 the standard deviation of statements 3, 4, 5 and 12, which bear relevance to compensation, was 1.48, 1.31, 1.22 and 1.57, respectively. These standard deviations for compensation were high relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 4.01 in Table 6.13 was just above agree, indicating that employees were influenced by benefits such as wellness programmes and work-life balance to stay in the organisation, and the working conditions and benefits were satisfactory. Employees also acknowledged working conditions but said that their expectations were not highly met. These findings support those of Das and Baruah

(2013), who indicate that although compensation was not one of the top factors influencing turnover in their study, it can act as a critical factor in reducing turnover. Ayobami et al (2016) mention that compensation and benefits lead to motivated and productive employees who stay longer in the organisation.

6.3.6.2 Supervisor support

Supervisor support refers to recognition of employees for development and career advancement that lead to affective commitment and retention of employees (Coetzee & Pauw, 2013). In Table 6.13 the total mean score for supervisor support was 3.81. In Table 6.12 the standard deviation of statements 2, 6 and 12, which bear relevance to supervisor support, was 1.34, 1.26 and 1.57, respectively. These standard deviations for supervisor support were high relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 3.81 in Table 6.13 was between neutral and agree, which indicates that employees were neutral about positive morale within the organisation and that supervisor support was not at their level of expectation. This finding is in support of Van Schalkwyk, Els and Rothmann (2011), who report that positive relationships between supervisors and employees in their study led to employees staying longer within the organisation. In addition, Ayobami et al (2016) maintain that supervisor support plays a major role in employee development through career growth and retention.

6.3.6.3 Work environment

Work environment refers to appropriate work environment with proper facilities that enable employees to enhance personal abilities, skills, knowledge and potential throughout their career (Fauzi et al, 2013; Yusuf & Metiboba, 2012). In Table 6.13 the total mean score for work environment was 3.60. In Table 6.12 the standard deviation of statements 1, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 12, which bear relevance to work

environment, was 1.29, 1.26, 1.36, 1.28, 1.35 and 1.57, respectively. These standard deviations for work environment were high relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other.

The average mean score of 3.60 in Table 6.13 was between neutral and agree, which indicates that employees were almost satisfied with the work environment. Working conditions and employee referral were rated highly. This indicates that employees acknowledged the benefits of a positive work environment. This finding is in line with Das and Baruah (2013), who found that employees benefit through a good working environment which contributes to their commitment and extended stay in the organisation.

6.3.6.4 Training and development

Training and development refers to upskilling, developing and growing employees in support of their careers (Britton et al, 1999; Fauzi et al, 2013). In Table 6.13 the total mean score for training and development was 4.31. In Table 6.12 the standard deviation of statements 10, 11 and 12, which bear relevance to training and development, was 1.67, 1.53 and 1.57, respectively. These standard deviations for training and development were high relative to the item descriptives. This indicates that the employees were generally not in agreement with each other.

Employees were satisfied with the training and development support offered by the organisation as they were in agreement. This finding is in line with Ayobami et al (2016), who provide statistical evidence that training and development is a critical factor to employees' development and upskilling. Furthermore, training enhances growth, prosperity, retention and survival in any environment for both employer and employee (Ayobami et al, 2016; Das & Baruah, 2017). Pritchard (2007) identifies training and development as one of the costly retention strategies.

Table 6.13: Retention dimensions

Retention components	Mean scores
Compensation	4.01
Supervisor support	3.81
Work environment	3.60
Training and development	4.31

Table 6.13 shows the retention mean scores for each dimension. Training and development scored the highest, indicating that employees rated training and development as available to them. Compensation was the second highest, which means that employees were fairly happy with the way the organisation compensated them. Supervisor support was rated the third, meaning that employees were neutral about the support of their supervisors. Work environment was rated last, which indicated that it was the least considered factor in retention.

The total mean score across statements 1 to 12 for retention was 3.76, with a total percentage of 61.30%. This was between the ordinal scale range of neutral and agree, indicating neutrality by employees regarding the overall retention parameters. It can be concluded that employees were neutral towards retention aspects within the organisations.

6.4 Integration of descriptive research results

The results from the item descriptives of workplace wellness seem to indicate that respondents generally were aware of the existence of various workplace wellness initiatives within the organisation. It also seems that respondents tended to have an understanding of the value and benefits of such initiatives, but the availability of the programmes would not stop their decisions to move if ever a better opportunity arose.

According to the organisational commitment item descriptive statistics, three types of commitment are evident. A statement such as “I feel committed to my organisation as the work that I perform is fulfilling” is typical of affective organisational commitment. Continuance committed is depicted by a statement such as “The longer I work at this organisation, the more I feel a sense of belonging”. Normative commitment is evident in the statement “My organisation provides good opportunities to those who aspire to grow”. Meyer and Allen (2007) attest that if all three commitment types exist among employees, they are bound to stay longer in the organisation, but if there is less normative commitment, they are more inclined to leave as it is a strong predictor of turnover intentions.

Respondents seemed to be aware of programmes that could have an influence on employee retention, particularly the workplace wellness programmes. However, the respondents were of the view that although the organisation had a number of wellness initiatives, their stay within the organisation was not influenced by these initiatives alone. According to Sabharwal, Douglas and Hijal-Moghrabi (2019), workplace wellness programmes have proven to be beneficial in reducing health care costs and absenteeism and in improving productivity, but the implementation of the programmes does not clearly define the measurable desired outcomes.

6.5 Validity

PCA as explained by Shlens (2014:1) is a “standard tool in modern data analysis - in diverse fields from neuroscience to computer graphics - because it is a simple, non-parametric method for extracting relevant information from confusing data sets”. Therefore, PCA was used to identify the variables that were strongly correlated to the dimensions. This is indicated by the values further away from 0. Values greater than 0.5 are regarded as impactful. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sufficiency index for comparing the size of observed correlation coefficients to the size of partial correlation coefficients at 0.772 (Anastasiadou, 2011) indicated that factor analysis was appropriate for this research.

6.5.1 PCA – workplace wellness

The factor loadings for workplace wellness follow in table 6.14, showing each factor weight against the variable of workplace wellness, and to test if there is a relationship between each factor and the variable.

Table 6.14 below indicates three factors identified based on Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of greater than 1 with a cumulative 60% of the total variance. The three factors were the most influential factors on the workplace wellness Likert scale. The data was grouped according to inter-item correlation to obtain the factors that would measure respondents' attitudes and behaviours towards the research topic with clarity.

Table 6.14: Factor loadings for workplace wellness scale

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12	F13	F14
Eigenvalue	5.381	1.902	1.125	.911	.760	.736	.653	.491	.473	.385	.377	.339	.264	.202
Variability	38.439	13.583	8.039	6.508	5.429	5.257	4.663	3.508	3.377	2.749	2.694	2.421	1.889	1.443
Cumulative	38.439	52.023	60.061	66.570	71.999	77.257	81.920	85.428	88.805	91.553	94.248	96.669	98.557	100.000

In Figure 6.8 the workplace wellness scree plot represents the influential factors identified through the eigenvalue criterion.

The interpretation of PCA by Dawber (2004) and Nelson (2005) yielded three components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for workplace wellness shown in figure 6.8 below. The eigenvalue for the first component was 5.381, and accounted for 38% of the variance, the second component was 1.902, accounting for 14% of the variance and the third component was 1.125, accounting for 8% of the variance. The results suggest that there are three dominant factors in the workplace wellness scale.

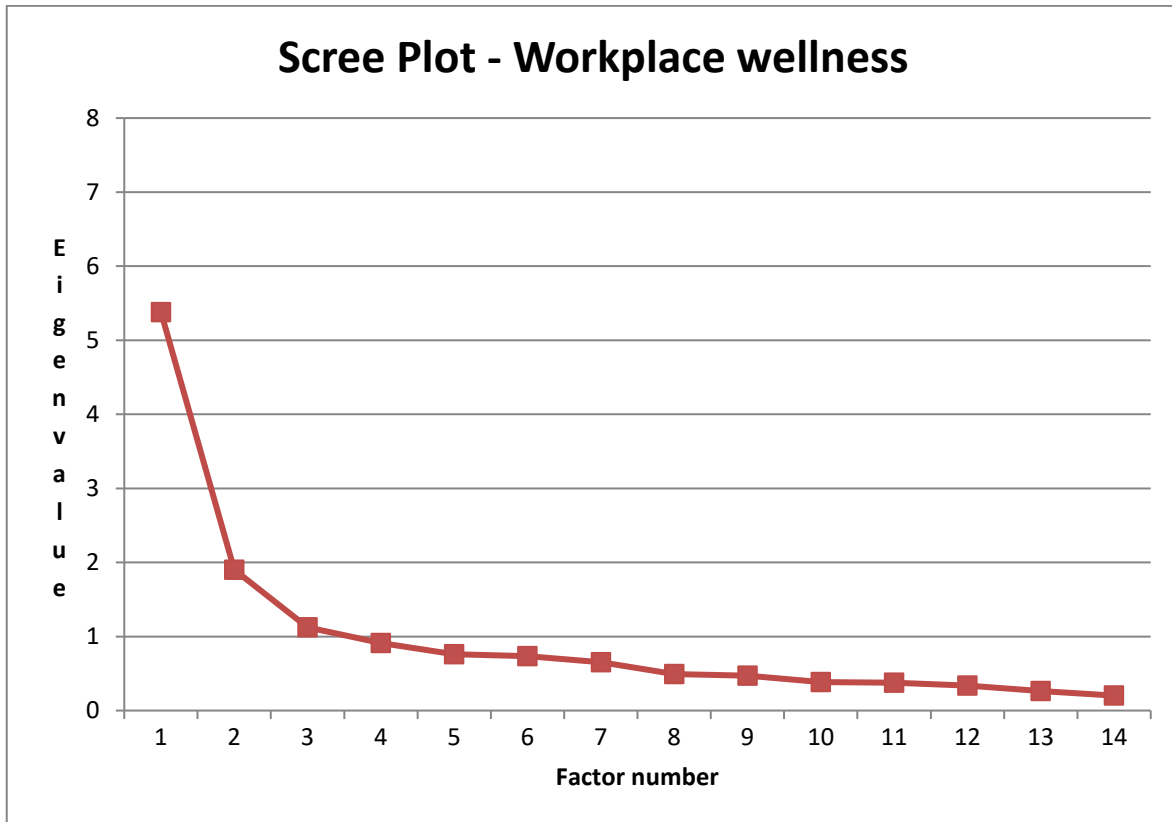


Figure 6.8: Scree plot for workplace wellness

6.5.2 PCA – organisational commitment

The factor loadings for organisational commitment are presented in table 6.15 below showing each factor’s weight against the variable of organisational commitment and to test if there is a relationship between each factor and the variable.

Table 6.15: Factor loadings for organisational commitment

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Eigenvalue	7.113	.968	.767	.580	.519	.454	.388	.341	.290	.230	.192	.156
Variability	59.279	8.070	6.392	4.836	4.329	3.782	3.233	2.846	2.417	1.917	1.601	1.299
Cumulative	59.279	67.348	73.740	78.576	82.904	86.687	89.920	92.765	95.182	97.100	98.701	100.000

Table 6.15 indicates one factor highlighted in gold identified based on Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of greater than 1 with a cumulative score of 59% of the total

variance. This was the most influential factor on the organisational commitment Likert scale. The data was grouped according to the inter-item correlation scores to obtain the factors that would measure respondents' attitudes and behaviours towards the research topic with clarity. Scree plots will follow to indicate the dominance of the factors on each of the variables workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

In Figure 6.9 the organisational commitment scree plot represents the influential factors identified through the eigenvalue criterion.

The scree plot represents 12 components for organisational commitment. PCA yielded one component with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 for organisational commitment in Figure 6.9 below. The eigenvalue for the component was 7.113, and accounted for 59% of the variance. The results suggest that there is one dominant factor in the organisational commitment scale.

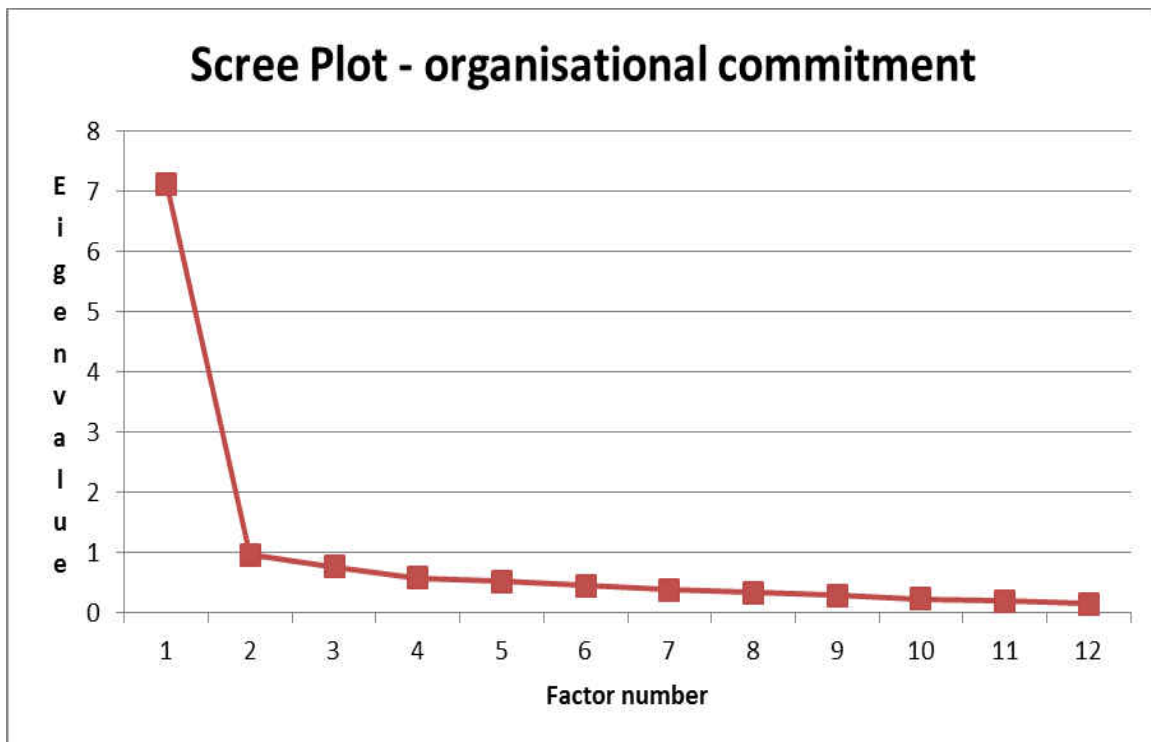


Figure 6.9: Scree plot for organisational commitment

6.5.3 PCA – retention

The factor loadings for retention are presented in Table 6.16, showing each factor weight against the variable of retention and to test if there is a relationship between each factor and the variable.

Table 6.16: Factor loadings for retention

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Eigenvalue	4.383	1.371	1.041	.896	.774	.686	.498	.409	.366	.323	.254	.303
Variability	39.845	12.462	9.462	8.146	7.036	6.234	4.526	3.720	3.323	2.935	2.311	2.535
Cumulative	39.845	52.307	61.770	69.915	76.951	83.185	87.711	91.431	94.754	97.689	100.000	97.384

Table 6.16 indicates three factors highlighted in blue were identified based on Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of greater than 1 with a cumulative 62% of the total variance. The three factors were the most influential on the retention Likert scale. The data was grouped according to inter-item correlation to obtain the factors that would measure respondents' attitudes and behaviours towards the research topic with clarity.

In Figure 6.10 the retention scree plot represents the influential factors identified through the eigenvalue criterion.

Furthermore PCA yielded three components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for retention in Figure 6.10 below. The eigenvalue for the first component was 4.383, and accounted for 40% of the variance, the second component was 1.371, accounting for 12.5% of the variance and the third component was 1.041, accounting for 9.5% of the variance. The results suggest that there are three dominant factors in the retention scale. The three dominant factors identified account for 62% of the variance when combined and this reflects the strengths of the three factors.



Figure 6.10: Scree plot for retention

6.6 Reliability: Cronbach's alpha scores

Cronbach's alpha of .70 or more was considered as reliable, according to English (2006). Cronbach's alpha measured the internal consistency of three scales, namely workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

Table 6.17 below lists Cronbach's alpha coefficient values for the total scores for each of the three scales.

Table 6.17: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for variables

Item	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient
Workplace wellness	.92
Organisational commitment	.76
Retention	.82

As indicated above, the scales showed high reliability scores. The workplace wellness scale scored an alpha coefficient of .92, the organisational commitment scale scored an alpha coefficient of .76 and the retention scale scored an alpha coefficient of .82. Since all the alpha coefficients were above .70, the scales were regarded as reliable and trustworthy.

6.6.1 Reliability of the sub-dimensions of workplace wellness

Gliem and Gliem (2003) caution that Cronbach's alpha does not provide reliability estimates for single items as they may lack precision. Workplace wellness had 14 items with 7 sub-dimensions. It was not possible to measure the Cronbach alpha scores for these sub-dimensions, as only two questions loaded on each factor. Vaske, Beaman and Sponarski (2016) explain that the number of items influences Cronbach's alpha scores. The fewer the items, the lower Cronbach's alpha scores and vice versa; hence they suggest that at least 3 to 5 items are advantageous. In addition, Gliem and Gliem (2003) mention that one or two items may represent insufficient information to estimate the measurement; hence their degree of validity, accuracy and reliability is often unknowable.

6.6.2 Reliability of the sub-dimensions of organisational commitment

Table 6.18 below demonstrates Cronbach's alpha coefficient values for the respective organisational commitment sub-dimensions.

Table 6.18: Cronbach's alpha scores for organisational commitment sub-dimensions

Sub-dimensions	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
Affective commitment	0.859	5
Normative commitment	0.850	4
Continuance commitment	0.770	3

As indicated above, the scales showed high reliability scores. The affective commitment scale scored an alpha coefficient of .86, the normative commitment scale scored an alpha coefficient of .85 and the continuance commitment scale scored an alpha coefficient of .77. All the alpha coefficients were above .70, meaning that the scales were considered reliable and trustworthy.

6.6.3 Reliability of the sub-dimensions of retention

Table 6.19 below demonstrates Cronbach's alpha coefficient values for the retention sub-dimensions. The reliability scores are indicated on the number of items per sub-dimensions.

Table 6.19: Cronbach's alpha scores for retention sub-dimensions

Sub-dimensions ^α	Cronbach's Alpha ^α	No. of Items ^α
Compensation ^α	0.745 ^α	4 ^α
Supervisor support ^α	0.694 ^α	3 ^α
Work environment ^α	0.887 ^α	6 ^α
Training and development ^α	0.796 ^α	3 ^α

As indicated above in Table 6.19, the scales showed high reliability scores except for supervisor support. The compensation scale scored an alpha coefficient of .75, the work environment scale scored an alpha coefficient of .89, the training and development scale scored an alpha coefficient of .80 and the supervisor support scale scored an alpha coefficient of .69. Most of the alpha coefficients were above .70, and were considered reliable and trustworthy. Regarding the sub-dimension of supervisor support, item 12 did not correlate well with the other two items to make up supervisor support. This may be the reason why Cronbach's alpha score was low. Vaske (2008) explains that an alpha of .65 to .80 is often considered adequate and thus .69 was considered reliable as it is close to .70.

6.7 Inferential statistical analysis

Inferential statistical analysis will be presented in this section. The Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted to test for data distribution normality (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Spearman's rho rank analysis for testing non-parametric data (McDonald, 2014) was utilised to test the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention within the population from which the sample was drawn. It was also used to test the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and the demographics of age, gender, culture, marital status, education level and employment level. The correlation analysis of workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographics will also be discussed. Furthermore, non-parametric data and reliability analysis will be reported.

6.7.1 Shapiro-Wilk test for normality

Table 6.20 represents the Shapiro-Wilk test to assess the normality distribution of the data. The null hypothesis is that the sample distribution is normal. Normal data distribution would be significant at $p > 0.05$ (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012).

Table 6.20: Testing normal distribution

Shapiro-Wilk test for normal data					
Variable Observation	Obs	W	V	Z	Prob>z
WORKPLACE WELLNESS	161	0.9625	4.038	3.149	0.00082
ORGCOM	161	0.93321	7.46	4.544	0.00
RETENTION	161	0.97776	2.543	2.114	0.01726

Parametric tests are applicable to non-ordinal data and involve specific probability normal distributions of mean or difference in means from the sample data (Sullivan,

2017). Table 6.20 indicates that if the test is statistically significant (e.g. $p < 0.05$), then data does not follow a normal distribution, and a non-parametric test is warranted (Sullivan, 2017). The Shapiro-Wilk test conducted showed that workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention p values were not significant ($p < 0.05$), and therefore the data did not follow normal distribution. Hence Spearman's rho rank test was applied as it does not assume that the outcome is approximately normally distributed.

6.7.2 Skewness and kurtosis for workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention

Table 6.21 provides the skewness and kurtosis information for the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The mean, the standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of each variable are given.

Table 6.21: Workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention skewness and kurtosis

	Mean	Std Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
Workplace wellness	4,35	0,81	-0,81	4,18
Organisational commitment	4,23	1,06	-0,94	3,44
Retention	3,78	0,84	-0,58	3,25

The mean scores ranged from 3.78 to 4.35. The highest score was for workplace wellness ($M = 4.35$; $SD = 0.81$), and the lowest score for retention ($M = 3.78$; $SD = 0.84$). The standard deviation of the variables ranged from 0.80 to 1.06.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) recommend -1 and +1 normality range for skewness and Tredoux and Durrheim (2013) recommend -1 and +1 kurtosis values

for normality. The skewness values for the variables ranged from -0.58 to 0.94, thus falling outside the values recommended by Cohen et al (2011). The kurtosis values ranged from 3.25 to 4.18, thus falling outside the values recommended by Tredoux and Durrheim (2013).

Ghasemi and Zahediasl (2012) state that values greater than 1.96 or less than -1.96 are significant at $P < 0.05$, while the values greater than 2.58 or less than -2.58 are significant at $P < 0.01$, and those greater than 3.29 or less than -3.29 are significant at $P < 0.001$. The skewness and kurtosis show the deviation of data on either side of the significant level. The workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention values show the level of skewness to the right as they were all less than -1.96, and the kurtosis levels were greater than 3.29.

6.7.3 Correlation analysis

The following section presents the correlation analysis for workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Spearman's rho rank correlation was significant at $r \leq 0.1$.

Research objective 1: To determine the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention among employees in a South African insurance company.

H1_o. There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a sample of participants from a South African insurance organisation.

H1_a. There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in a sample of participants from a South African insurance organisation.

Table 6.22 provides the results for the association between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Cohen (1988) suggests that a correlation value of 0.5 is large, 0.3 is moderate and 0.1 is small.

Table 6.22: Spearman's rank correlation for variables

Variables	Workplace Wellness	Organisational Commitment	Retention
Workplace wellness	1.000	.468	.565
Organisational commitment	.468*	1.000	.707
Retention	.565**	.707**	1.000

* moderate relationship

** strong relationship

There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment, as represented by a correlation of .468. This means that an increase in workplace wellness is associated with an increase in organisational commitment. Similar significant results are recognised between workplace wellness and retention, with a correlation of .565. Furthermore, organisational commitment and retention are significantly related with a .707 correlation. The results above indicate that employees who experience workplace wellness are expected to experience organisational commitment and vice versa. Also, there is a high likelihood of retaining employees with high organisational commitment and vice versa.

The strength of the relationship among the variable will be shown in a diagram. The colour blue indicates a very strong relationship, green indicates strong relationship and red indicates moderate relationship strength. Figure 6.11 below illustrates the integration and strength of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

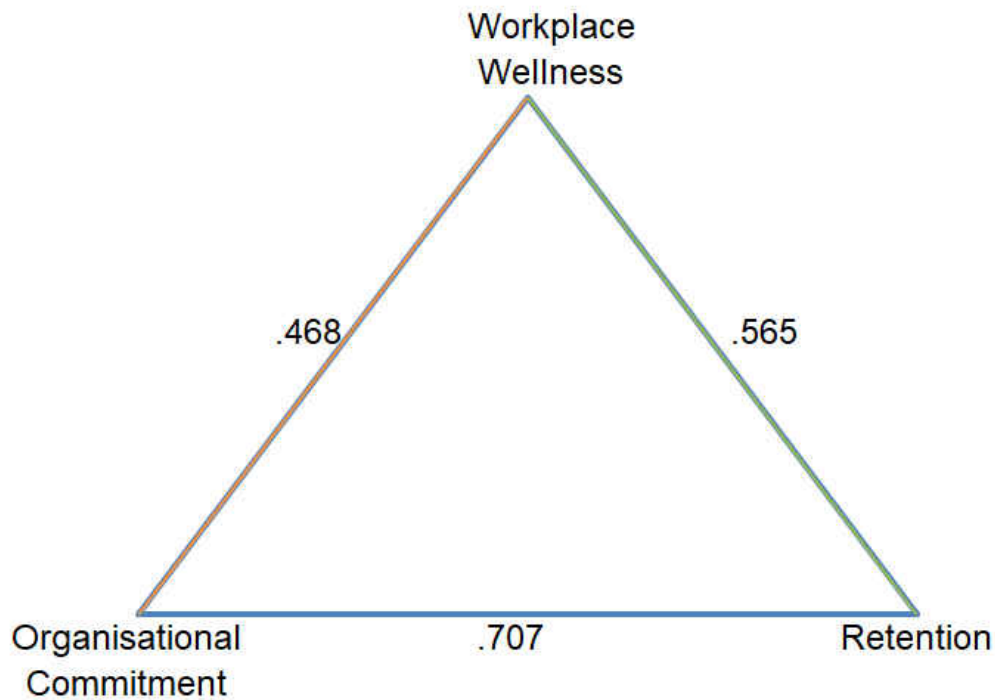


Figure 6.11: Correlation between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention

As depicted in Figure 6.11, a significant relationship was found between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. With reference to Evans' guidelines (1996), a strong positive relationship of $.707^{**}$ was found between organisational commitment and retention. A moderate positive relationship was found between workplace wellness and retention, indicated by $.565^{**}$, and also between workplace wellness and organisational commitment, indicated by $.468^*$.

The null hypothesis was rejected. Spearman's rank in Table 6.22 and Figure 6.11 confirms positive relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention, and hence empirical support was found for the alternative hypothesis. A strong relationship was found between organisational commitment and retention. A moderate relationship was found between workplace wellness and retention, and also between workplace wellness and organisational commitment.

The strong relationship of .707 between organisational commitment and retention is consistent with most literature as Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment model (1997) attests to the relationship between continuance, affective and normative commitment of employees. Various authors, including Dockett et al (2006), Cascio (2003) and Walsh (2010), maintain that organisational commitment improves as employees stay longer and begin to realise their value in the organisation.

The moderate relationship of .565 between workplace wellness and retention is consistent with most literature as many researchers, including Herman and Gioia-Herman (2001), Selesho and Naile (2014) and Killian (2015), attest that workplace wellness initiatives offer employers a competitive edge to retain existing employees. Employees stay longer and feel comfortable if their well-being is taken care of by the employer.

The moderate relationship of .468 between workplace wellness and organisational commitment is consistent with literature. Walsh (2010) states that employees whose organisations provide more work-family benefits such as flexible work schedules show more positive work attitudes, including greater organisational commitment and less intention to leave their organisations. Parks and Steelman (2008), from their meta-analysis on organisational wellness, indicate that participation in an organisational wellness programme is associated with decreased absenteeism and increased job satisfaction, and the results provide some empirical support for the effectiveness of organisational wellness programmes.

6.7.3.1 Pearson scatterplots

According to Evans (1996), Pearson's correlation coefficient and its significance testing requires that data be linearly related and that it be bivariate normally distributed. Therefore, Pearson scatterplots were also used to confirm the relationship between the two variables, as they clearly show the direction and the

strength of a relationship (Salkind, 2010). Evans (1996) further suggests the absolute value of r : 00-.19 (very weak relationship), followed by 20-.39 (weak relationship), .40-.59 (moderate relationship), 60-.79 (strong relationship) and 80-1.0 (very strong relationship).

The Pearson scatterplot in Figure 6.12 below represents the relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment.

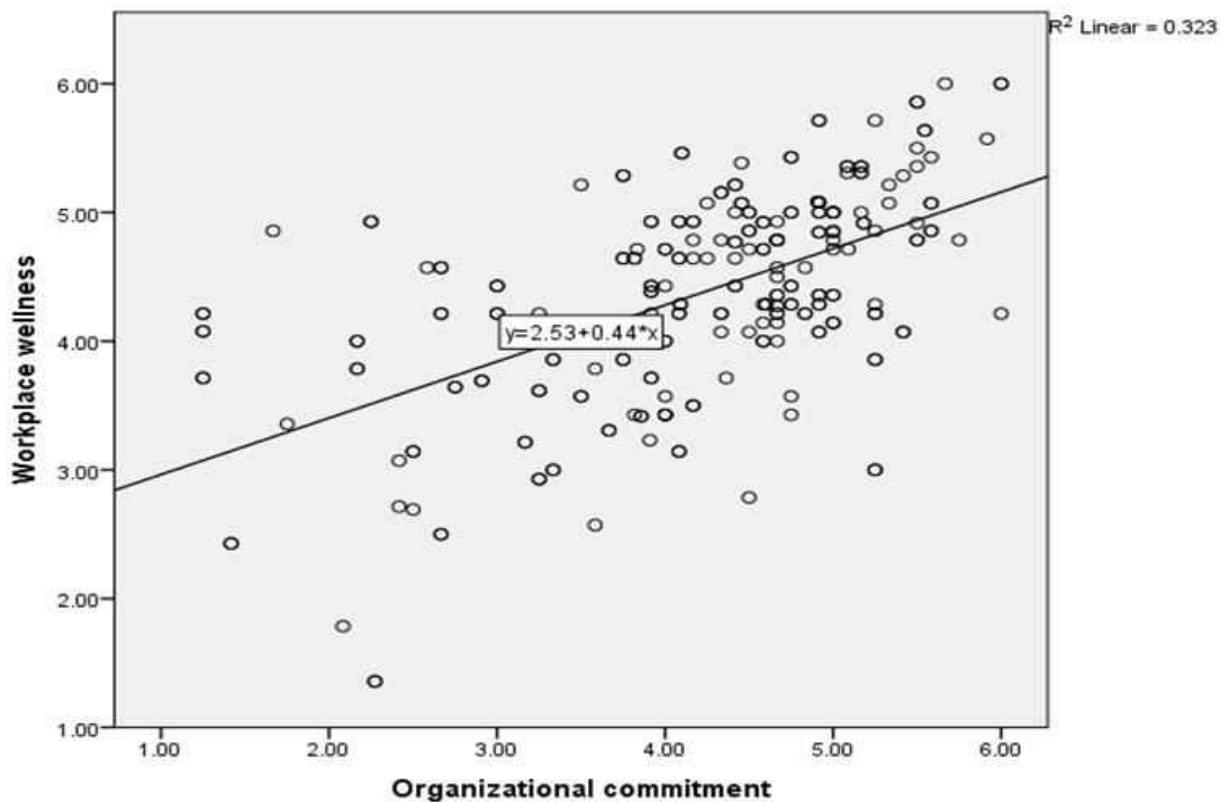


Figure 6.12: Workplace wellness and organisational commitment scatterplot

There was a positive correlation between workplace wellness and organisation commitment ($\rho = 0.47$; $p < 0.001$). The Pearson scatterplot indicates that there is a positive, linear relationship of moderate strength between workplace wellness and organisational commitment. These findings suggest that a unit increase in workplace wellness will result in an increase in organisational commitment.

The Pearson scatterplot in Figure 6.13 represents the relationship between workplace wellness and retention.

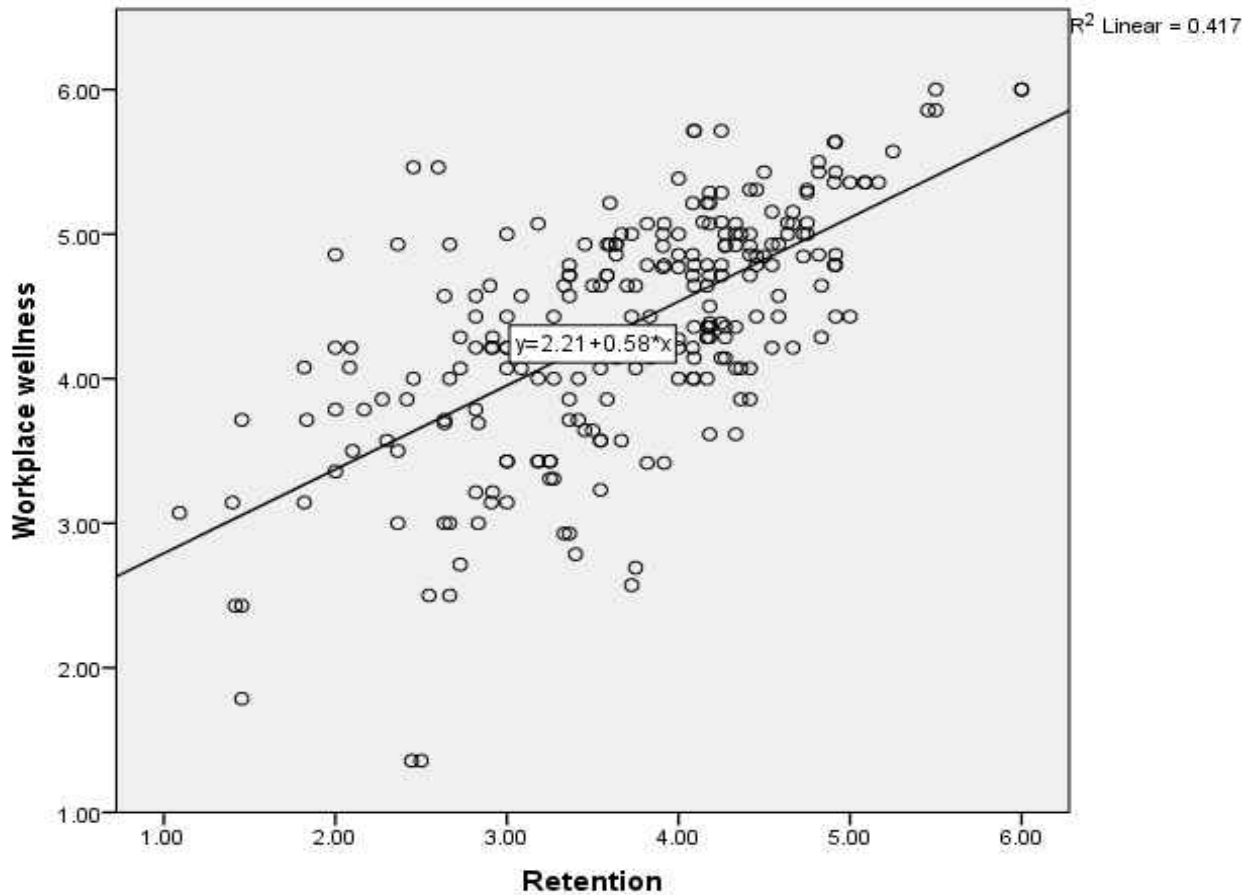


Figure 6.13: Workplace wellness and retention scatterplot

Workplace wellness was also positively correlated with retention ($\rho = 0.57$; $p < 0.001$). The Pearson scatterplot in Figure 6.13 indicates that there is a positive, linear relationship of moderate strength between workplace wellness and retention. These findings suggest that a unit increase in workplace wellness will result in an increase in retention.

The Pearson scatterplot in Figure 6.14 represents the relationship between organisational commitment and retention.

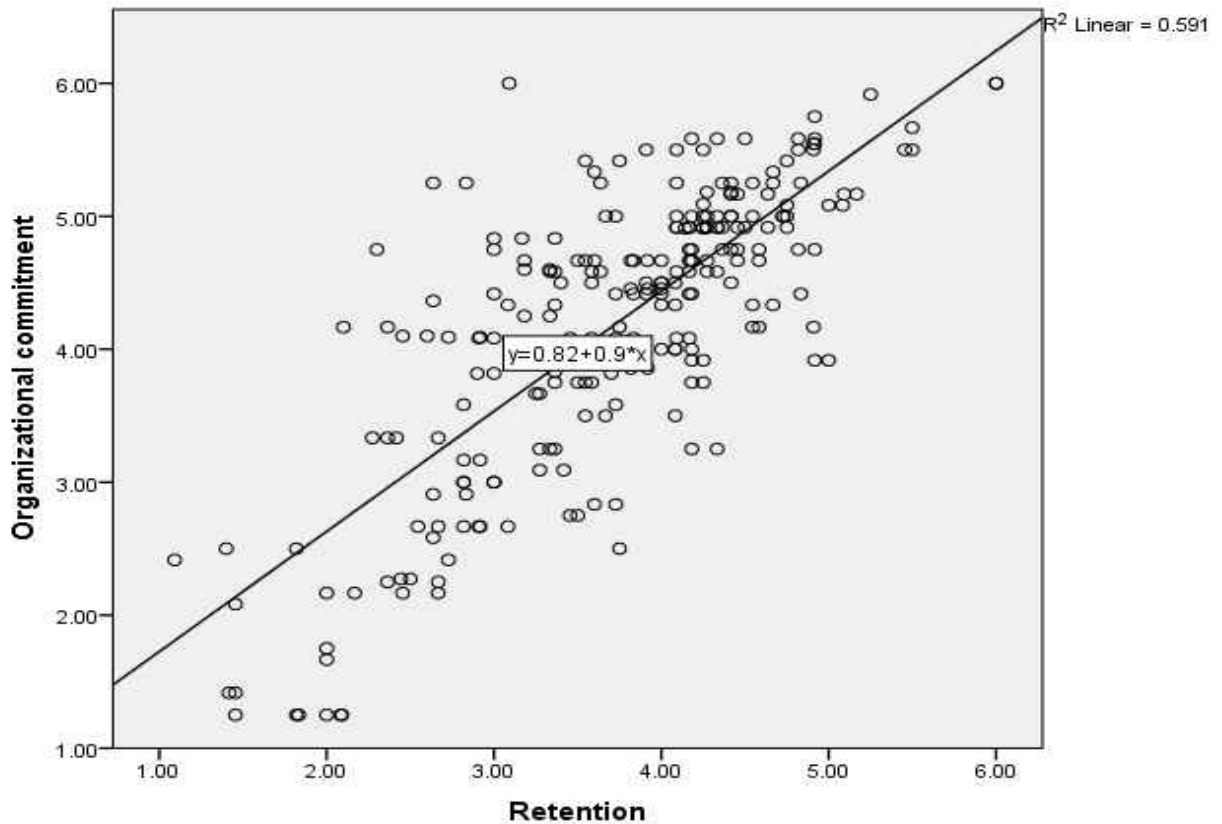


Figure 6.14: Organisational commitment and retention scatterplot

Further results indicate another positive association between organisational commitment and retention ($r = 0.71$; $p < 0.001$). The Pearson scatterplot in Figure 6.14 indicates that there is a positive, linear relationship of strong strength between organisational commitment and retention. These findings suggest that a unit increase in organisational commitment will result in an increase in retention.

The Pearson scatterplots shown above all indicate positive, linear relationships of moderate and strong strength between workplace wellness and organisational commitment, workplace wellness and retention, and organisational commitment and retention. These findings suggest that the more employees experience workplace wellness, the more committed they will be to the organisation. Similarly, the more employees experience workplace wellness, the longer they will stay in the

organisation and the more they experience organisational commitment, the longer they will remain in the organisation.

6.7.4 Relationships among the sub-dimensions of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention

The relationship between the workplace wellness sub-dimensions, organisational commitment sub-dimensions and retention sub-dimensions will be illustrated below. Pearson's correlation was used to test the relationships between the sub-dimensions of the variables. The relationships are significant at the **0.01 level and *0.05 level.

The relationship between the workplace wellness sub-dimensions and the organisational commitment sub-dimensions is shown in Figure 6.15 below.

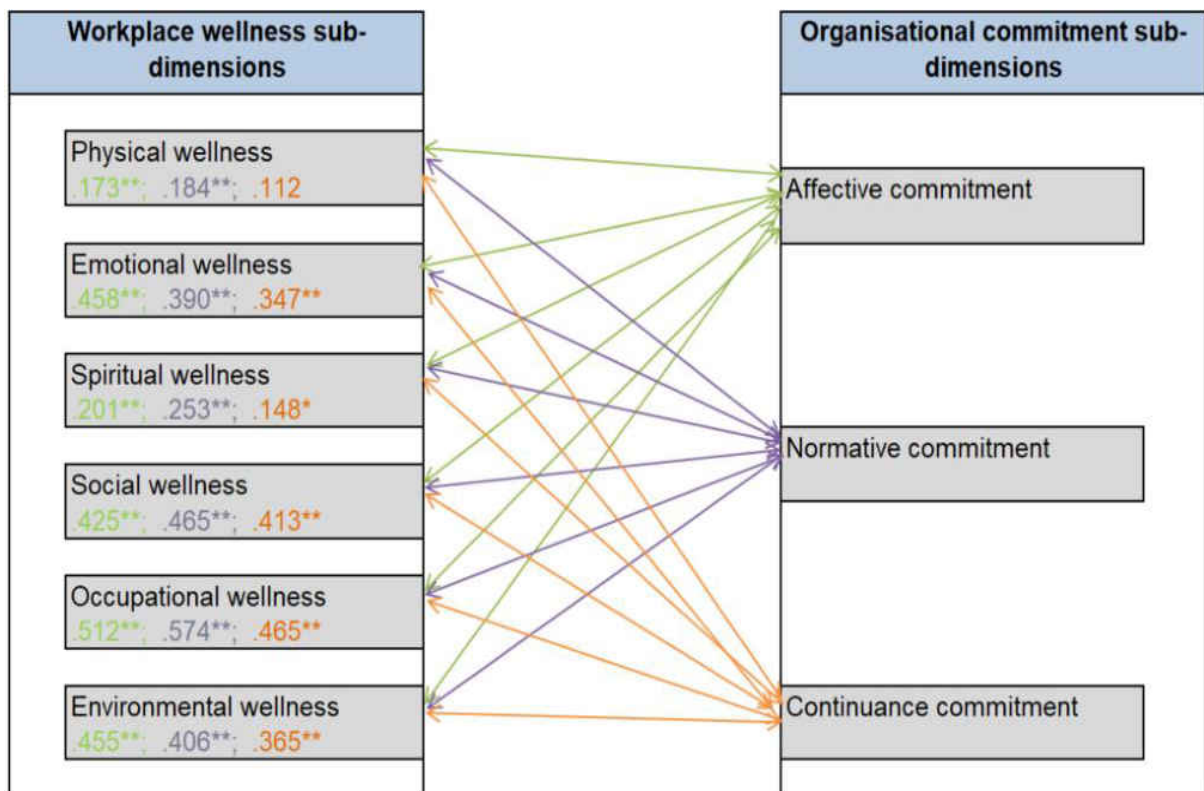


Figure 6:15: Relationship between workplace wellness sub-dimensions and organisational commitment sub-dimensions

The relationship between the workplace wellness sub-dimensions of physical, emotional, spiritual, social, occupational, intellectual and environmental and the organisational commitment sub-dimensions of affective, normative and continuance commitment will was represented in Figure 6.15 above.

As depicted in Figure 6.15, significant relationships were found between the six workplace wellness sub-dimensions and the organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Physical wellness was found to correlate very weakly and positively with the affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions.

Employees showed high levels of fitness and maintaining healthy bodies, but the commitment levels were low. It may be that employees require competitions or incentives to motivate them to high commitment levels to physical wellness programmes. This is in line with Wali and Zahid (2013), who mention that organisational commitment is characterised by a strong and positive relationship with wellness programmes, but interestingly they found no significance in terms of physical fitness facilities and organisational commitment in the context of pharmaceutical employees in Pakistan.

Emotional wellness was found to correlate moderately and positively with affective organisational commitment sub-dimensions, but weakly and positively with normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of happiness, relationship building and controlled feelings, and moderate affective commitment and weak normative and continuance commitment. The moderate affective commitment to emotional wellness may mean that employees found warmth and a sense of belonging when they were happy and had good relationships. However, low levels of normative and continuance commitment may mean that they could continue friendships they had created even if they were no longer in the organisation. This is in line with Robbins et al (2007), who report

that employees with positive emotions and good relationships have control of their environment and are mindful of their surroundings, which makes them commit to and remain longer in the organisation.

Spiritual wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of connectedness, enthusiasm and relaxation, with low levels of commitment. This may be due to inconsistency in finding enthusiasm and relaxation due to work pressures. The employees' high levels of spiritual wellness are in line with the findings of Nasurdin et al (2013), who found high spirituality significant to organisational commitment.

Social wellness was found to correlate moderately and positively with the affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of social involvement, interpersonal skills and interaction with others, with moderate levels of commitment. Robbins et al (2007) and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2013) mention that positive social wellness leads to commitment of employees as they enjoy good relationships and friendships in the workplace. It may be that employees with high levels of social wellness would be engaged as they interact and create relationships with others. This is in line with Simons and Buitendach (2013), who conclude that engaged employees have better social functioning and affective commitment.

Occupational wellness was found to correlate moderately and positively with affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of career choice and work-life balance with moderate levels of commitment. It may be that employees enjoyed their chosen careers and were less stressed as they were able to balance their work and leisure time. This is in line with Hales (2005) and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln

(2013), who mention that positive occupational wellness leads to commitment as employees enjoy satisfying careers and safe workplaces.

Environmental wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with continuance, but moderately and positively with affective and normative organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed low levels towards a positive environment, preservation of natural resources and caring for the environment, with moderate levels of commitment. Environment includes almost all the wellness dimensions in terms of their presence within the workplace. Employees showing low levels may not experience the environment as physically safe enough, may not have enough time for health-promoting activities, do not find enough flexibility in terms of work-life policies and may find minimal initiatives for employees to exercise care for the environment and hence the moderate levels of commitment. This is in line with Makhathini and Van Dyk (2018), who found that a positive and conducive work environment will enable employees to develop a sense of attachment and willingness to commit to the organisation.

Intellectual wellness was found to have no correlation with any of the sub-dimensions and did not manifest among the employees. This means that mind stimulation and promotion of lifelong learning did not manifest among them. This may be an indication that the employees understood the statements differently. There may also have been ambiguity in the categorisation of wellness dimensions in that one individual's intellectual wellness may be another person's occupational wellness (Horton & Snyder, 2009). The questionnaire might need reviewing to address the relevance of the outcomes.

The overall results indicate significant relationships between the workplace wellness sub-dimensions and the organisational commitment sub-dimensions. This is indicative of a positive relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment. Employees showed overall positive wellness with some elements of

commitment towards what was offered within wellness. They showed low commitment towards physical and spiritual wellness, moderate commitment towards emotional wellness and high levels of commitment towards social, occupational and environmental wellness. This indicates that social, occupational and environmental wellness are more important for employees to commit; an increase in wellness may mean an increase in commitment.

The relationship between the workplace wellness sub-dimensions and the retention sub-dimensions is presented in Figure 6.16 below.

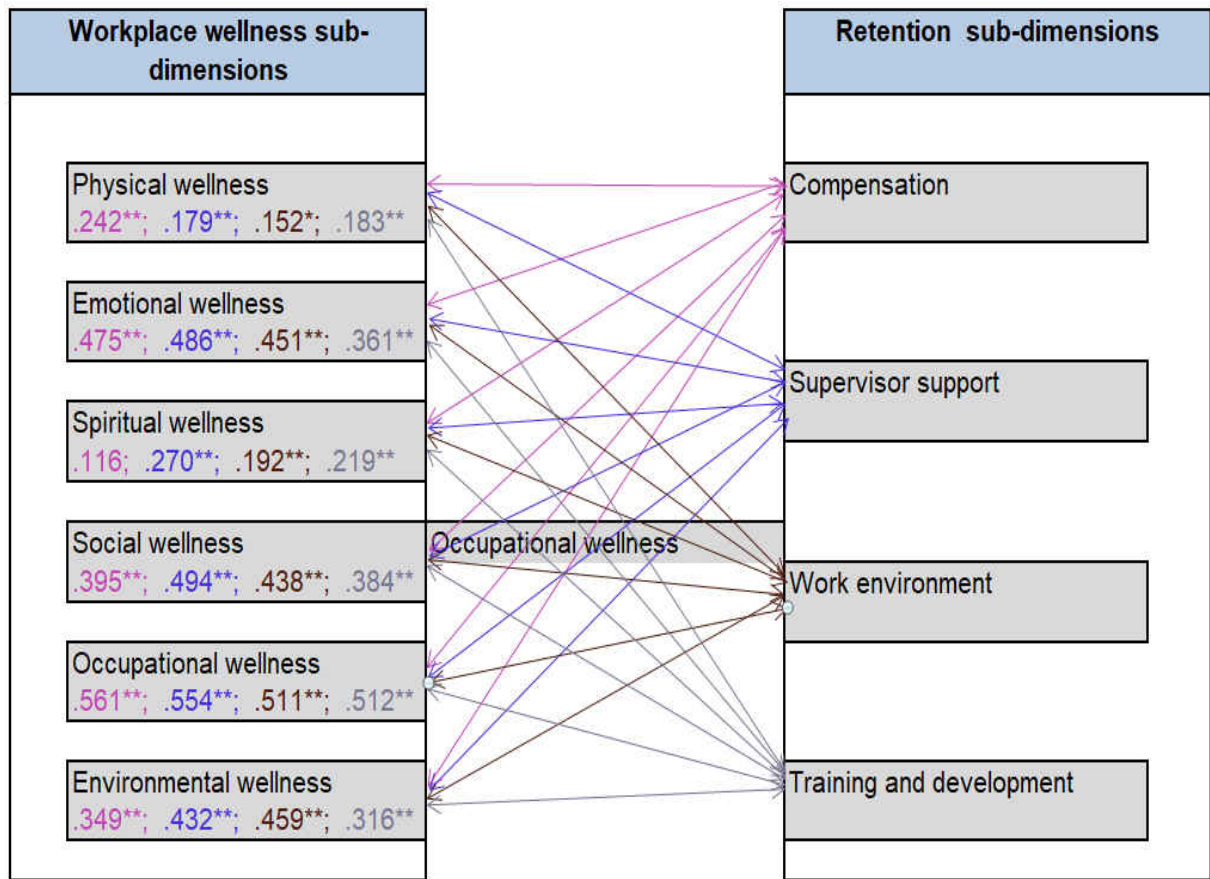


Figure 6.16: Relationship between workplace wellness sub-dimensions and retention sub-dimensions

As depicted in Figure 6.16, significant relationships were found between six workplace wellness sub-dimensions and the retention sub-dimensions. Physical

wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with compensation, supervisor support, work environment and training and development retention sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of fitness and maintaining healthy bodies, with weak levels of retention. The low levels of retention may be because employees associated physical wellness minimally with retention factors in that fitness and maintaining healthy bodies may be accessible outside the organisation. This is in line with Swayze and Burke (2013), who emphasise that employees' physical wellness is critical as healthy employees perform well. They add that it would be harder for employees to leave the organisation when they know that the organisation has invested in their well-being.

Emotional wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with training and development but moderately and positively with the compensation, supervisor support and environment retention sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of happiness, relationship building and controlled feelings, with moderate levels of retention. It may be that retention sub-dimensions minimally influenced employees' levels of happiness and relationship building. This is in line with Coetzee and Pauw (2013), Fauzi et al (2013), Robyn and Du Preez (2013) as well as Snelgar et al (2013), who mention that when employees' happiness, relationships and emotions are influenced by financial benefits, support from managers, growth and development and a positive environment, the level of commitment increases among employees and they are bound to remain longer in the organisation.

Spiritual wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with the compensation, supervisor support, environment and training and development retention sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of connectedness, sense of belonging, enthusiasm and relaxation, with low levels of retention. It may be that the retention sub-dimensions had minimal influence on employees' spiritual wellness. This is in line with Britton et al (1999) and Wee (2013), who mention that when employees' spiritual wellness is influenced by pay, career growth and positive

surroundings, they are obligated to stay longer in the organisation. Adams, Bezner, Drabbs, Zambarano and Steinhardt (2000) recognise spiritual wellness as an important wellness dimension but it has been minimally developed; this may be another reason for low levels of retention.

Social wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with compensation and training and development but moderately and positively with the supervisor support and environment retention sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of social involvement, interpersonal skills, self-identity and interaction with others, but low levels of pay and growth, moderate levels of support and environment. This may mean that support and good environment play a more important role in employees' social life than pay and development. This is in line with Robinson and McCormick (2011) and Coetzee and Pauw (2013), who report that when employees' levels of social wellness are influenced by support, environment, pay and growth, employees will remain longer in the organisation.

Occupational wellness was found to correlate moderately and positively with the compensation, supervisor support, environment and training and development retention sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of career choice and work-life balance, with moderate levels of pay, support, environment and training support. This may mean that employees enjoyed their chosen careers but the compensation levels did not match their contributions to the organisation and there may not be enough training provided to support their development. They may also not be receiving enough support from their immediate managers and the environment is not very conducive. This is in line with the findings of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2013), namely that employees with high levels of occupational wellness would enjoy their chosen careers but pay, support, environment and training play a minimal role in keeping them longer within the organisation.

Environmental wellness was found to correlate weakly and positively with compensation, and training and development but moderately and positively with the supervisor support and environment retention sub-dimensions. Employees showed low levels towards a positive environment, preservation of natural resources and caring for the environment, with low levels of compensation and training and development. This may mean that compensation and training and development play a minimal role in employees' environmental wellness, whereas supervisor support and environment play a moderate role. This is in line with the findings of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2013), namely that if the environment is good, employees will bring positive attitudes to the workplace, and that leads to commitment and high productivity of employees (Yusuf & Metiboba, 2012).

Overall, the results show significant relationships between the workplace wellness sub-dimensions and the retention sub-dimensions. The results indicate that retention has an influence on workplace wellness. Employees who are financially satisfied, able to grow and develop, have managerial support and have a conducive work environment are bound to be happy. Happiness of employees is derived from positive mental and physical health of individuals (Waddell & Burton, 2006). The findings also suggest that an increase in retention sub-dimensions which are (compensation, supervisor support, work environment, training and development) will increase employees' participation in and commitment to wellness programmes, as these motivate employees' behaviours. In addition, Robinson and McCormick (2011), the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2013), Coetzee and Pauw (2013) as well as Fauzi et al (2013) state that employees with high levels of wellness will remain longer in the organisation as their needs are fulfilled in terms of physical, emotional, spiritual, occupational, environmental and social wellness.

The relationship between the retention sub-dimensions and the organisational commitment sub-dimensions is presented in Figure 6.17 below.

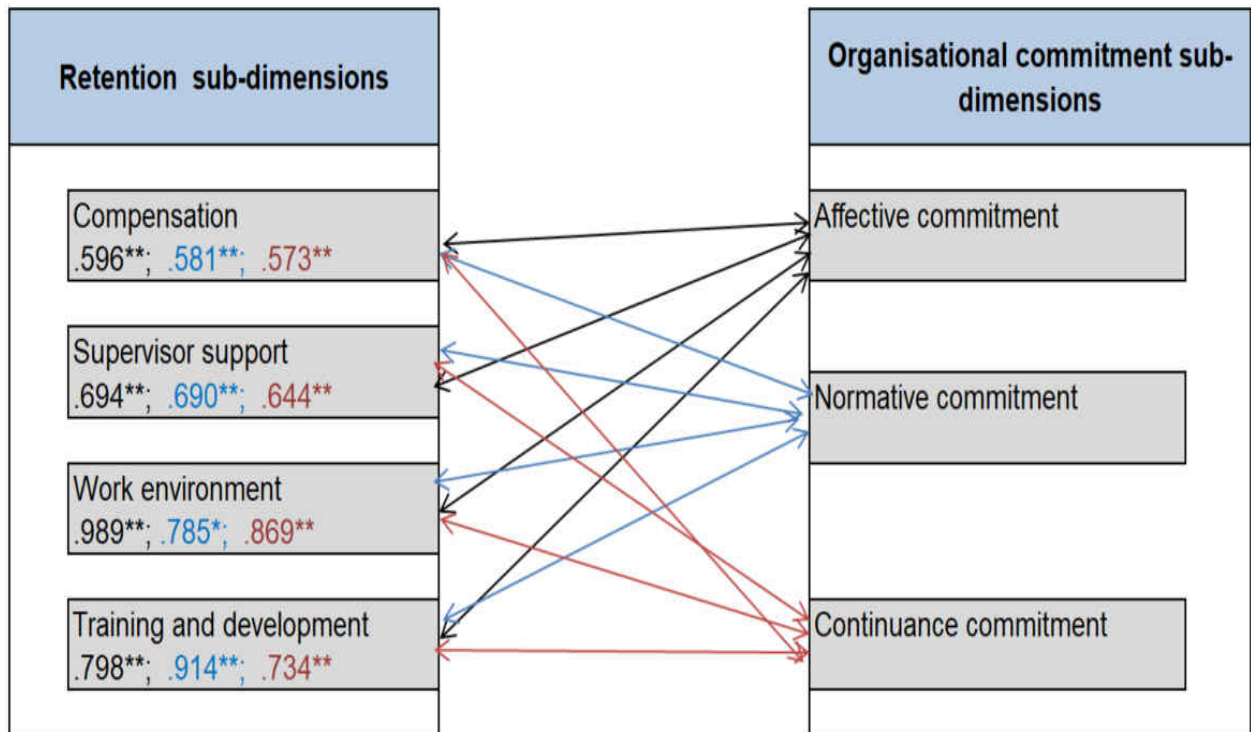


Figure 6.17: Relationship between retention sub-dimensions and organisational commitment sub-dimensions

As depicted in Figure 6.17, significant relationships were found between all retention sub-dimensions and organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Compensation was found to correlate moderately and positively with the affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of monetary rewards with moderate levels of commitment. This is in line with Dockel et al (2006), Visagie and Steyn (2011) as well as Lumley et al (2011), who found that competitive compensation makes employees commit and be obligated to remain longer in the organisation. Nujjoo and Meyer (2012) and Robyn and Du Preez (2013) add that when employees' financial needs are met, commitment to the organisation increases.

Supervisor support was found to correlate strongly and positively with the affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels for feedback received and recognition for career advancement

and high levels of support by their supervisors with high levels of commitment. This supports Dockel et al (2006) and Coetzee and Pauw (2013), who found that supervisor support influences commitment as employees receive feedback that enables them to grow and contributes to them remaining longer in the organisation. However, Dockel et al (2006) did not find continuance commitment to be influenced by supervisor support in the context of high technology employees. This may be because of a different environment and the type of work between the organisations in comparison.

Work environment was found to correlate strongly and positively with the affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed that a good working environment leads to high levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment. Yusuf and Metiboba (2012) as well as Fauzi et al (2013) are of a similar opinion that employees who have a good working environment are productive and committed and will stay longer in the organisation.

Training and development was found to correlate strongly and positively with the affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment sub-dimensions. Employees showed high levels of growth, development and upskilling with high levels of commitment. This finding supports Dockel et al (2006), who found training and development to influence commitment as employees are upskilled to increase their self-worth and marketability.

Overall, the results show significant relationships between the organisational commitment sub-dimensions and the retention sub-dimensions. The results indicate that organisational commitment has an influence on retention. Employees who are financially satisfied, receive manager support, are offered training and are in a good environment commit to the organisation and remain longer. Fauzi et al (2013) and Wee (2013) attest that employees who are well supported in terms of care and finance commit to and remain longer in the organisation. Affective and continuance

commitment was found to be stronger in a good work environment. This may mean that when employees work in a good environment, they are bound to commit to and remain longer in the organisation.

6.7.5. Conclusion with regards to objective 1

Overall with regard to research objective 1, positive relationships were found and were further noted within the sub-dimensions. Strong relationships were noted between the occupational wellness and organisational commitment sub-dimensions and between the occupational wellness and retention sub-dimensions. This may be because employees with satisfying careers and a good work-life balance are stimulated and enriched and will commit to and stay longer in the organisation (Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007). The score of .707 between organisational commitment and retention is supported by the strongest relationships between the organisational commitment sub-dimensions and retention sub-dimensions. This strongest relationship is in line with Cascio's findings (2003) that committed employees stay longer in organisations as they identify with the culture, accumulate investments and realise their value.

The relationships found between the workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention sub-dimensions indicate a tri-dimensional relationship. The relationships indicate that they are dependent on each other and may not exist in isolation. Herman and Gioia-Herman (2001) are of the opinion that organisations that offer workplace wellness initiatives have a competitive edge in attracting and retaining high-calibre employees. Killian (2015) also adds that workplace wellness initiatives increase employee commitment, reduce absenteeism and create positive attitudes towards the organisation.

6.7.6 Correlation analysis for demographic variables

Correlation analysis for the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level and the research constructs

will be discussed in this section. Spearman's rho rank test was conducted to test the relationships between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic groups, marital status, education level and employment level. The results will reject or confirm the hypothesis being tested.

Research objective 2: To determine the significance of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level among employees within a South African insurance company.

This study has yielded a variety of results in terms of the relationships between the demographic variables and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The results that follow are an interpretation of the research results in the context of an insurance organisation in South Africa. These results will be integrated with what has been found in the literature to test whether there are relationships between the demographic variables and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

H2_o. There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in terms of demographic variables (age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level) as demonstrated in the sample.

H2_a There is a significant relationship between workplace wellness organisational commitment and retention in terms in terms of demographic variables (age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level) as demonstrated in the sample.

Table 6.23 below presents relationships between the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and demographic variables of age, race, gender, marital status, education level and level of employment. The relationships are judged significant at $r \leq 0.1$.

Table 6.23: Spearman's correlation for demographic variables

Demographic Variables	Workplace Wellness	Organisational Commitment	Retention
Age	.040	.079	-.009
Gender	.010	.051	.040
Ethnic group	.065	.050	-.001
Marital status	-.099	.071	-.031
Education level	.151	.095	.123
Employment level	.047	.073	-.021

There were no relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and all the demographics, except for education level. The results above show a significant relationship between workplace wellness, retention and education level. Education level consisted of seven levels from other, matric and 3-year diploma to doctorate level. Other and matric were regarded as less educated and 3-year diploma to doctorate were regarded as better educated. A conclusion can be drawn that the relationship between workplace wellness and retention is most profound among educated employees.

According to the empirical evidence, no evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis for age, gender, ethnic group, marital status and education level.

However, the evidence was sufficient that the null hypothesis for education level as represented in Table 6.23 above could not be rejected.

A significant relationship was found between workplace wellness, retention and education level. This may be because highly educated people have a better understanding of the benefits of the wellness programmes. The positive relationship between retention and education level is likely because educated employees may have better opportunities to grow and develop within the organisation and occupy more senior and fulfilling roles. The research findings support those of Cotton and Tuttle (1986) as they found that a more highly qualified individual has better opportunities.

6.7.6.1 Age

As depicted in Table 6.17, there was no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and age. Harry and Coetzee (2011) also found no significant relationship between workplace wellness and age in the South African context among call centre employees of an education institute. However, this is in contrast to Martin and Roodt (2008), Seward (2010), Noordin et al (2011), João and Coetzee (2012) as well as Merrill and Hull (2013), who found significant relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and age in various contexts. Young employees were found to participate more in wellness programmes compared to older employees and older employees were found to remain longer in the organisation compared to young employees.

6.7.6.2 Gender

As depicted in Table 6.17, there was no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and gender. This supports the findings of Marsden et al (1993), Gould (1979), Khandelwal (2009) and Mclaggan et al (2013). The unfounded relationships may mean that there is no need for human resource practitioners to tailor-make programmes for a specific gender. However,

the findings of Bard (2011), Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012), Hull (2013) as well as Snelgar et al (2013) attest to significant results between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and gender. In some studies, women were found to participate less than men in wellness programmes whereas in others, men were found to commit more than their female counterparts.

6.7.6.3 Ethnic group

As depicted in Table 6.17, there was no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and ethnic group. This is in line with the findings of Lumley (2009), Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) as well as Van Dyk et al (2013). However, these findings contradict those of Martin and Roodt (2008) and Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) as they found significant relationships between organisational commitment, retention and ethnic group. Africans were found to stay less compared to their white counterparts in some studies and were found to be more committed than their white counterparts in others due to inequalities of the past (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

6.7.6.4 Marital status

As depicted in Table 6.17, there was no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and marital status. No studies were found to support the findings of this research. However, Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Martin and Roodt (2008) as well as Merrill and Hull (2013) found significant results between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and marital status. Married people participated more than unmarried people in wellness programmes, and were also found to be commitment more than unmarried people, as they had greater financial responsibilities towards their family commitments. Married people were also found to be less likely to leave the organisation due to responsibilities of looking after their families.

6.7.6.5 Education levels

As depicted in Table 6.23, a significant relationship was found between workplace wellness, retention and education levels. This supports the findings of Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Alexy (1991), Samuel and Chipunza (2009) as well as Richon (2014). Employees with higher education levels were found to participate more in wellness programmes than their less educated counterparts, and were also found to be more open to better opportunities. However, Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) found no significant relationship between education level and retention. They explain that this may be due to South Africa's unfavourable market conditions that inhibit normal market forces from coming into play.

There was no significant relationship between organisational commitment and education levels. Meyer and Allen (1997), Martin and Roodt (2008) as well as Mclaggan et al (2013) also found no significant relationship between organisational commitment and education level as organisational commitment decreased as the education level increased in the tertiary and mining industries.

6.7.6.6 Employment level

As depicted in Table 6.23, there was no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and employment level. No studies were found to support the findings of this study. However, significant relationships were found by Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) as well as Sisodia and Das (2013) in that employees enjoyed more opportunity to satisfy their ego needs, high status, higher payment and self-direction than lower level employees.

6.7.7 Conclusions with regard to research objective 2

The results revealed no significant relationships between age, gender, marital status, employment level and the variables of workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. The results also revealed no significant relationship between education level and organisational commitment, but significant

relationships were found between workplace wellness, retention and education level.

Contradictory results were found in the literature regarding demographic variables. Some studies found significant relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and demographic variables, whereas others found none. This may be due to the differences in the context within which the various research studies were conducted. Cassidy (2014) cautions that no one size fits all regarding wellness programmes, as there are various generations. Cassidy (2014) explains that Generation Y or Z will perceive wellness differently from Baby Boomers as they may not be aware of the latest technology to enhanced wellness offerings and hence the differences in demographic variables.

6.8 Chapter summary

Chapter 6 gave an overview of the statistical results relevant to the research. The results were interpreted by analysing the findings and empirical research integrated with the literature. The empirical objectives of the study which were to establish a relationship between the variables were achieved in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 will present a discussion of the conclusions drawn, limitations of the study and the recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will focus on the conclusions, the limitations and recommendations drawn from this study. Conclusions relating to the aims of the literature review and empirical research will be presented. Furthermore, the limitations of the empirical results of the research are pointed out and recommendations made for future studies.

7.1.1 Conclusions relating to literature review

The following section focuses on conclusions based on the literature review. The general aim of the research was firstly to establish whether there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Secondly, the aim of the research was to determine whether diverse individuals from different ages, genders, ethnic groups, marital statuses, employment levels and education levels differ with regard to the variables within a South African insurance company. The general aims of the research were accomplished by addressing the specific aims and objectives.

7.1.1.1 First objective

Table 5.3 indicated the first objective of the study as follows; Conceptualise workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention from a theoretical perspective. This research aim was realised in chapters 1, 2 and 3. The following conclusions were drawn:

(i) Workplace wellness

Literature has shown no clear definition of workplace wellness and its measurement (Sieberhagen et al, 2011). The term 'workplace wellness' has been used concurrently with well-being to find a clear definition and application of workplace wellness. Further conceptualisation is required for a definition of workplace

wellness that would be clearly measurable. For the purpose of this research, the approach to workplace wellness was based on the views of Robbins et al (2004) and Robinson and McCormick (2011) of the variable. These authors refer to wellness as an active continuous process of adapting positive behaviour to optimal well-being. This viewpoint is aligned with the research, as the aim was to identify if respondents acknowledged such a programme in their organisation and the process involved to change attitudes and behaviours towards healthy living.

The research contextualises workplace wellness as having nine wellness dimensions, which are emotional, environmental, intellectual, occupational, physical, social, spiritual, cultural and community. Seven of those commonly used were applied in the study.

Organisations that provide workplace wellness programmes for their employees are more likely to be successful. These programmes are no longer optional for those organisations that want to attract and retain top talent (Cinman, 2014). Organisations offering wellness programmes improve employees' healthy behaviours, reduce health care costs and improve productivity and job satisfaction. Furthermore, workplace wellness programmes are an improvement of employees' working conditions. They also minimise job burnout, absenteeism and poor work performance.

Based on the literature review, it may be concluded that workplace wellness programmes are an important aspect and a necessity, benefitting both employees and employers by attracting and retaining top talent (Cinman, 2014). The employees will benefit in that they will lead a healthy lifestyle, leading to happiness (Tiberius & Hall, 2008). Wellness programmes reduce health costs and absenteeism, combat unhealthy behaviours such as smoking and maximise productivity (Bard, 2011).

(ii) Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment was based on the views of Robbins et al (2003) and Brown (2003), who focus on employees' behaviours and attitudes. Organisational commitment refers to employees' identification and association with, as well as commitment to the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) define organisational commitment as individuals' psychological connection to the organisation and desire to contribute to the accomplishment of organisational goals. Commitment was referenced in this study in terms of the components identified by Meyer and Allen (1997), namely affective, continuance and normative commitment.

According to the literature, employers need to devise strategies of engaging employees so they can commit to the organisation. The success of any organisation is dependent on committed employees (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Commitment of employees arises from attitudes and behaviours as these are a reflection of the organisation. Organisations that have committed employees have high business performance (Sparrow, 2012). Employees are likely to commit when they have fulfilling careers, experience growth in their careers and their contributions are valued by the organisation. Committed employees stay longer in an organisation and act in the interest of the business.

Organisations require employees to operate successfully. If these employees have positive behaviours and attitudes, this is likely to lead to affective, normative and continuous commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Monippally & Pawar, 2010). This is desirable, because committed employees will give their best and remain in the organisation longer.

Based on the literature review, it can be concluded that commitment of employees is an important asset, as it will lead to high-performing organisations. The organisation will also benefit in terms of retention, since committed employees are

seen to stay longer. Stander and Rothmann (2009) maintain that committed employees achieve more than what is expected of them.

It can thus be deduced that organisations need to ensure that they devise strategies that will ensure employees' commitment to the organisation. These strategies will enable employers to have a stable and committed workforce as committed employees are valuable assets to the organisation. Furthermore, the strategies will contribute to high business performance through committed employees.

(iii) Retention

The retention approach was based on Allen (2008) as well as Phillips and Connell (2011), who explain that retention refers to strategies aiming to ensure that employees remain longer in the organisation. Employee retention entails strategies devised by employers to keep employees fulfilled and ensure that they stay longer. For the purpose of this research, the strategies that were utilised were work environment, compensation, training and development and supervisor support.

The literature revealed that retention of valuable employees is important to any organisation, as these employees possess the skills and knowledge that contribute to the success of the business (Sparrow, 2012). Furthermore, the valuable employees' knowledge is important to the business to sustain the business's competitive advantage (Ahammad et al, 2016). Van Rooyen et al (2010) mention that strategies such as competitive salaries and retention bonuses have been utilised to retain employees but have been less successful; however, training and development, supervisor support and compensation are ranked high as part of retention strategies. Muhammad et al (2011) as well as Das and Baruah (2013) agree that compensation, supervisor support and training and development encourage organisational commitment, which increases retention.

In conclusion, retention will remain a challenge because employees leave for various reasons, including challenges with the current South African economy. Skills shortage has also been seen as a contributory factor as most skilled employees job hop and migrate to better opportunities. Employers need to show interest and provide regular feedback to their employees (Phillips & Connell, 2003), and understand their employees' needs in order to remain in the business (Sparrow, 2012). Employers also need to treat their employees as valued assets to retain them (Storey, 1992). Furthermore, employers need to ensure that they adopt highly rated strategies such as remuneration, training and development, supervisor support and work environment and implement them well to retain their employees (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001).

7.1.1.2 Second objective

Table 5.3 indicated the second objective of the study as follows; Conceptualise the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention in terms of theoretical models. Conceptualise the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and demographic factors. These objectives were realised in chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4. The following conclusions may be drawn:

Various workplace models were contextualised in the literature. Some (Anspaugh et al, 2004; Fahey et al, 2005; Hales, 2005; Robbins et al, 2007; Robinson & McCormick, 2011; Swarbrick, 2006; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2013) showed similarities as well as slight differences. For the purpose of this research, the approach to workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention was based on the workplace wellness model of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2013), the three-component model of commitment of Meyer and Allen (1997) and the theoretical framework of retention of Fauzi et al (2013).

(i) Relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment

Based on the literature review, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment. For employees to commit to the organisation, employers need to commit strongly to improving employees' personal wellness. Some organisations have initiated wellness programmes precisely to increase employees' commitment (Swayze & Burke, 2013). In conclusion, employers need to implement wellness programmes to maximise employees' commitment to the organisation.

(ii) Relationship between workplace wellness and retention

Based on the literature review, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between workplace wellness and retention. Many organisations have implemented wellness programmes as part of their retention strategies. These programmes have assisted in minimising employees' health, financial and emotional issues and, in turn, organisations earn respect and gratitude from their employees as they feel supported. In conclusion, employers need to implement and utilise wellness programmes as part of their strategies to retain employees.

(iii) Relationship between organisational commitment and retention

Based on the literature review, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between organisational commitment and retention. Employees' organisational commitment improves as they start realising their value to the organisation, the value of the benefits and investments accumulated and when they fit in with the organisational culture.

(iv) Relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention

The University of Nebraska-Lincoln's (2013) workplace wellness model consists of seven wellness dimensions, which are emotional, environmental, intellectual,

occupational, physical, social and spiritual wellness, which have been found to be common in the literature. Organisational commitment consists of affective, normative and continuance commitment. Fauzi et al's (2013) retention theoretical framework focuses on compensation, supervisor support, work environment and training and development. These are found to be very important to any organisation that implements workplace wellness programmes and requires committed employees who will remain longer in the organisation.

The wellness programmes require individuals to be committed to achieve the best outcomes and benefits. Wilson, Dejoy, Vandenberg, Richardson and McGrath (2010) state that social factors pertaining to interpersonal relations and emotional well-being are a recipe for a healthy workforce. For an organisation to be successful, it needs happy employees. Therefore the organisation must provide a good working environment and fulfilling careers, support employee well-being and employees' emotions, allow employees' ideas and embrace employees' relationships and religious affiliations and this will lead to committed employees who will remain longer in the organisation.

Conradie, et al (2016) mention that wellness programmes shifted in both scope and quality, and are now more holistic. The programmes currently promote health and productivity, with the employer being responsible for employees' health and well-being. The University of Nebraska-Lincoln model seems to be more holistic in that it includes physical and psychological health and well-being of employees. Holistic wellness programmes benefit both employers and employees because employee morale improves and employees become more committed to the organisation. Swayze and Burke (2013) confirm that some organisations have initiated wellness programmes to increase employees' commitment to the organisation.

The organisational commitment multidimensional model of Meyer and Allen (1997) shows the link between antecedents, which are characteristics, experiences,

practices and conditions, that exist before commitment. The antecedents are determined by processes of engagement, cost-related aspects and expectations of employer and employees. The processes are followed by affective, normative and continuance commitment. The commitment model illustrates consequences of this commitment, which are retention, productive behaviour and well-being. The model clearly indicates a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. When employees are committed, they will be physically and psychologically happy, they will perform and will remain in the organisation longer.

It can be concluded that there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Employees who experience workplace wellness will commit to the organisation and remain longer. There is a strong relationship between organisational commitment and retention in that when employees experience affective commitment (emotional attachment), normative commitment (benefits acquired) and continuance commitment (obligation to continue employment), they experience high levels of commitment and do not want to leave the organisation.

Conceptualise the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and demographic factors. The following conclusions are made based on the literature:

(i) Age

Age was found to influence workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Alexy (1991), as well as Merrill and Hull (2013) found that older employees participated less in wellness programmes than younger employees because they considered age to be a deterrent to participating in physical wellness. Older employees were also found to commit to the organisation longer than younger employees due to greater job satisfaction and long-term benefits (Martin & Roodt,

2008). Hence, it can be accepted that the older the employees, the longer they stay in organisations.

(ii) Gender

Gender was found to influence workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Bard (2011) found that women participated less in wellness programmes than men due to family obligations. However, Hull (2013) found the opposite. Women were also found to commit less than men as they were less satisfied with the work environment and rewards (Marsden et al, 1993; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012) and therefore men will remain longer in the organisation compared to their female counterparts due to high levels of satisfaction.

(iii) Ethnic group

Race was found to influence organisational commitment and retention, whereas there was no influence on workplace wellness. Martin and Roodt (2008) found Africans to be more committed due to inequalities of the past compared to their white counterparts. However, Lumley (2009) as well as Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) found no significant difference between ethnic groups. Africans were also found to change jobs more often than their white counterparts as they were less satisfied with the work environment and rewards (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

(iv) Marital status

Marital status was found to influence workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Merrill and Hull (2013) found that married people participated more in workplace wellness programmes than unmarried people as these programmes improved their health (Robinson & McCormick, 2011). Married people were found to commit to and remain longer in the organisation compared to unmarried people due to more financial commitments towards their families (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

(v) Education level

Education level was found to influence workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Alexy (1991) found that educated people had a high response to attending wellness programmes compared to less educated people as healthy minds mean success. Educated people were found to decrease their level of commitment as the level of education increased (Martin & Roodt, 2008) and had minimal chance of remaining longer in the organisation due to them being on demand since they were skilled (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

(vi) Employment level

Employment level was found to influence workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Management has an influence on encouraging employees to participate in wellness programmes. Once there is support from top to bottom, there is a high level of buy-in by employees to participate in wellness programmes (Cooper, 2013). Management or employees at higher levels were found to commit to and remain longer in the organisation as they were satisfied with job level, opportunities and high rewards (Sisodia & Das, 2013).

7.1.2 Conclusions relating to empirical research

7.1.2.1 Research objective 1

Research objective 1 was indicated in Table 5.3. Determine the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention among employees in a South African insurance company.

The following conclusions are made based on the findings:

The findings of the research are in line with previous studies, indicating a positive relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention (Meyer & Allan, 1997; Dockel et al, 2006). The results indicate that workplace

wellness, organisational commitment and retention have an influence on employees' behaviours and attitudes.

Figure 6.15 shows the results of the relationship between workplace wellness and organisational commitment. Employees with high emotional, social, occupational and environmental wellness showed high levels of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organisation. This indicates that employers need to maintain the wellness dimension to have a committed workforce.

Employees with high physical and spiritual wellness showed lower levels of affective commitment. This may mean that physical or spiritual wellness did not have much influence on employees' commitment to the organisation. Further results indicate the same for continuance and normative commitment.

Figure 6.16 shows the results of the relationship between workplace wellness and retention. The results indicate that employees with strong occupational wellness were those who were compensated very well, received supervisor support, training and development and were happy with the work environment. Employees also indicated that compensation, supervisor support, work environment and training and development had an influence on their social, emotional and environmental well-being. This shows that the higher the retention sub-dimensions, the happier the workforce and the longer they will remain in the organisation.

Further results indicate that compensation, supervisor support, work environment and training and development had a minimal influence on employees' spiritual and physical wellness. This reveals that the retention sub-dimensions mattered less to employees and that the organisation may need to consider other areas to increase employees' spiritual and physical wellness.

Figure 6.17 shows the relationship between organisational commitment and retention. Employees who had high levels of training, supervisor support, compensation and good work environment showed high levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment. This reveals that organisations that offer high compensation, supervisor support, training and development and a good work environment have a happy and committed workforce.

7.1.2.2 Research objective 2

Research objective 2 was indicated in Table 5.3. To determine the significance of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level among employees within a South African insurance company.

The following conclusions are made based on the findings:

(i) There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and age.

Overall, it can be concluded that no significant relationship was found between age and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

(ii) There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and gender.

Overall, it can be concluded that no significant relationship was found between gender and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

(iii) There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and ethnic group.

Overall, it can be concluded that no significant relationship was found between ethnic group and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

(iv) There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and marital status.

Overall, it can be concluded that no significant relationship was found between marital status and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

(v) There is no significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and employment level.

Overall, it can be concluded that no significant relationship was found between employment and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention.

(vi) There is no significant relationship between education level and organisational commitment.

Overall, it can be concluded that no significant relationship was found between education level and organisational commitment.

(vii) There is a significant relationship between education level and workplace wellness and retention.

Overall, it can be concluded that a significant relationship was found between education level and workplace wellness and retention. Educated employees are generally knowledgeable in terms of benefits achieved from participating in wellness programmes. Therefore they would consider remaining in the organisation to attain health benefits. They may also remain longer in the organisation because they are given more growth opportunities compared to less educated employees. They may

also have their careers fast tracked by their managers to ensure that they remain longer in the organisation.

7.1.3 Conclusions regarding central hypothesis

With regard to the central hypothesis, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. There is no significant relationship between age, ethnic group, gender, marital status and employment level and workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. No significant relationship was found between education level and organisational commitment, but a significant relationship was found between education level and workplace wellness and retention.

7.2 Limitations

The limitations of the research with regard to the literature review and the empirical study will be discussed below.

7.2.1 Limitations with regard to the literature review

The literature review was conducted in the South African context with reference to international research on workplace wellness programmes, organisational commitment and retention. A great deal of research has been conducted on workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention, focusing on the relationship but not measurement of the wellness programme and the effect of organisational commitment and retention.

Workplace wellness was measured with only six commonly used wellness dimensions. In future more wellness dimensions may need to be considered to measure employee wellness. Organisational commitment was limited to Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component commitment model and retention was limited to remuneration, supervisor support, training and development and work environment.

More retention factors may need to be considered in future to measure employee retention.

7.2.2 Limitations with regard to the empirical study

The research was limited to a small sample of respondents all employed in a South African insurance company. A correlational, cross-sectional survey was used to collect once-off information about attitudes and behaviours of employees. The design did not focus on any causal relationship due to the nature of the research, which was exploratory. The relationships identified in this research were validated and interpreted. The findings may not be generalisable to other industry contexts; therefore future research on workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and demographics such as gender, age, ethnic group, marital status, education level and employment level that will represent all employees of insurance companies must be conducted for generalisability.

7.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research, recommendations are made regarding workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and future research.

7.3.1 Recommendations for workplace wellness

Based on the empirical research findings, it is recommended that the insurance organisation focus more on those sub-dimensions which have the strongest bearing on organisational commitment. This research showed that emotional, social, environmental and occupational wellness sub-dimensions had a very strong influence on employees' organisational commitment. With regard to the remaining two sub-dimensions, namely physical and spiritual wellness, which had a minimal bearing on the employees' commitment to the organisation, the insurance company should dedicate less of its resources to these sub-dimensions.

7.3.2 Recommendations for organisational commitment

The research findings indicate that employees showed high levels of commitment when their overall well-being and health were good. They also showed high levels of commitment when strategies that supported their development were put in place. Therefore the insurance company must focus on and enhance the support to and development of employees to ensure their commitment to the organisation. The insurance organisation must also consider enhancing their communication among employees as this will contribute to trust and employees being more committed if they are aware of the organisation's happenings.

7.3.3 Recommendations for retention of employees

The research findings indicate that the organisational commitment sub-dimensions were all dependent on the retention sub-dimensions. Appropriate compensation and supervisor support, a good work environment and sufficient training and development are recommended as they would all lead to better organisational commitment from employees.

7.3.4 Recommendations for further research

With regard to the conclusions and limitations of this research, recommendations for further study are made below.

It is recommended that employees from insurance organisations in South Africa be studied to substantiate the results. This research was limited to a small sample of employees of a South African insurance organisation. In future, a sizeable randomised sample that is more representative of the insurance organisations in South Africa would be appropriate for generalisability of the results, in terms of determining the impact of the relationships between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level.

7.4 Application of the research

The research investigated the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Furthermore, it investigated the relationship between these three variables and demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level. The results indicate that there is a relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Furthermore, there is also a relationship between workplace wellness and retention and education level. No significant relationship was found between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group and marital status. Furthermore, no significant relationship was found between organisational commitment and education level.

It is clearly suggested in the literature that workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention play an important role in any organisation to be successful. The research focused on the workplace wellness of employees in terms of physical, emotional, spiritual, social, occupational and environmental wellness dimensions. When employees experience these wellness dimensions in their work environment, it is clear that they will perform at their best, they will commit to and remain longer in the organisation. An increase in wellness will effect an increase in organisational commitment and wellness.

7.5 Summary

The conclusions drawn from the literature and empirical research were discussed in this chapter. Recommendations were made for workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention. Recommendations were also suggested in terms of future research for generalisability of the findings.

The following research objectives were achieved in this study:

Research objective 1: To determine the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment and retention among employees in a South African insurance organisation.

Research objective 2: To determine the significance of the relationship between workplace wellness, organisational commitment, retention and the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, employment level and education level among employees within a South African insurance company. This concludes this research report.

REFERENCES

Abe, N., Fields, Z. & Abe, I.I. 2016. The efficacy of wellness programmes as work-life balance strategies in the South African public service. *Journal of Economics and Behavioural Studies*, 8(6):52-67.

Abubakar, R.A., Chauhan, A. & Kura, K.M. 2015. The relationship between human resource management practices and employee's turnover intention among registered nurses in Nigerian public hospitals: The mediating role of organisational trust. *Sains Humanika*, 5(2):95–98.

Adams, T.B., Bezner, J.R., Drabbs, M.E., Zambarano, R.J. & Steinhardt, M.A. 2000. Conceptualization and measurement of the spiritual and psychological dimensions of wellness in a college population. *Journal of American College Health*, 48(4):165-173.

Afifi, A. A., May, S. & Clark, V.A. 2012. *Practical Multivariate Analysis*. 5th ed. Boca Raton, Florida: CRC Press.

Ahammad, M.F., Tarba, S.Y., Liu, Y. & Glaister, K.W. 2016. Knowledge transfer and cross-border acquisition performance: The impact of cultural distance and employee retention. *International Business Review*, 25(1):66-75.

Alexy, B.B. 1991. Factors associated with participation in and benefits of a worksite wellness program. *Journal of Research in Nursing and Health*, 14(1):33-40.

Alfes, K., Truss, K., Soane, E., Rees, C. & Gatenby, M. 2010. *Creating an Engaged Workforce*. CIPD Research Report, London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Allen, D.G. 2008. *Retaining talent: a guide to analysing and managing employee turnover*. Alexandria: The SHRM Foundation.

Allori, V. 2017. Scientific realism and primitive ontology or: The pessimistic induction and the nature of the wave function. *PhilSci Archive*, 1(5):69-76.

Anastasiadou, S.D. 2011. Reliability and validity testing of a new scale for measuring attitudes toward learning statistics with technology. *Acta Didactica Napocentia*, 4(1):1-10.

Anspaugh, D.J., Hamrick, M.H. & Rosato, F.D. 2004. *Wellness: Concepts and applications*. 6th ed. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Ashmos, D.P. and Duchon, D. 2000. Spirituality at work: A conceptualization and measure. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 9(2):134-145.

Asiwe, D.N., Hill, C. & Jorgensen, L.I. 2015. Job demands and resources of workers in a South African agricultural organisation. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1):1-16.

Ayobami, R.B.T., Wallis, M. & Karodia, A.M. 2016. Exploring the factors that affect retention of medical doctors: A case study of Jane Furse Hospital, Limpopo Province, South Africa. *European Journal of Economic and Business*, 1(2):1-23.

Bard, J.S. 2011. When public health and genetic privacy collide: Positive and normative theories explaining how ACA's expansion of corporate wellness programs conflicts with GINA's privacy rules. *Journal of Law Medicine & Ethics*, 39(3):469-487.

Barde, M.P. and Barde, P.J. 2012. What to use to express the variability of data: Standard deviation or standard error of mean? *Perspectives in Clinical Research*, 3(3):113–116.

Bartlett, K.R. 2001. The relationship between training and organisational commitment: A study in the health care field. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(4):335-352.

Becker, J., De Bruin, D.P., Györkös, C., Rossier, R. & Massoudi, K. 2016. Extending the nomological network of wellness at work. *Management Dynamics*, 25(4):1-18.

Beukes, I. and Botha, E. 2013. Organisational commitment, work engagement and meaning of work of nursing staff in hospitals. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(2):1-10.

Bezner, J.R. 2015. Promoting health and wellness: Implications for physical therapist practice. *Physical Therapy*, 95(10):1433–1444.

Blaxter, L., Hughes, C. & Tight, M. 2010. *How to research*. 4th ed. New York: McGraw Hill.

Bobko, P., Miller, S. & Tusing, R. 1980. A sample of sampling definitions. *Teaching of Psychology*, 7(3):157-159.

Bogdanowicz, M. & Bailey, E. 2002. The value of knowledge and the value of the new knowledge worker: Generation X in the new economy. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 26(2):125-129.

Booyesen, T. and Els, D. 2014. Employee wellness programmes, good corporate governance. *HR Pulse*. Available from: www.hrpulse.co.za. [Accessed on 18 February 2018].

Branch, S. 1998. You hired 'em. But can't keep 'em? *Fortune Magazine*, 138(9):247-250.

Britton, P.B., Chadwick, S.J. & Walker, T. 1999. Rewards of work. *Ivey Business Journal*, 64(3):46-52.

Brown, B.B. 2003. Employee's organisational commitment and their perceptions of supervisors' relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours. Virginia Tech Electronic Theses and Dissertation. PHD. Available on <http://hdl.handle.net/10919/26676>. [Accessed on 14 October 2016].

Brox, J. 2017. 4 important statistics about employee wellness programs. Available from: <http://www.refreshleadership.com/index.php/2017/04/>. [Accessed on 24 March 2018].

Bryman, A.E. and Bell, E. 2014. *Research Methodology: Business and Management Contexts*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Bussin, M. 2011. *The remuneration handbook for Africa*. Randburg: Knowres.

Bussin, M. and Toerien, W.C. 2015. Influence of reward preferences in attracting, retaining, and motivating knowledge workers in South African information technology companies. *Acta Commercii*, 15(1):1-13.

Carroll, S. 2016. Dissertation-statistics.com [blog]. Available from <http://www.dissertation-statistics.com/dissertation-statistics-blog.html>. [Accessed on 28 January 2017].

Carraher, S., Parnell, J., Carraher, S.C., Carraher, C. & Sullivan, S. 2006. Customer service, entrepreneurial orientation, and performance: A study in health care organisations in Hong Kong, Italy, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the USA. *Journal of Applied Management & Entrepreneurship*, 11(4):33-48.

Cascio, W.F. 2003. *Managing human resources*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cascio, W.F. 2006. *Managing human resources: Productivity, quality of work life, profits*. 7th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Casselmann, L. 2012. A strategic dose of wellness. *Business Source Complete*, 36(3):10-16.

Cassidy, G. 2014. The critical role of demographics in employee health and wellness program messaging. *Corporate Synergies*. Available from: <https://www.corpsyn.com/demographics-wellness-communications/>. [Accessed on 26 September 2018].

Cennamo, L. and Gardner, D. 2008. Generational differences in work values, outcomes and person-organisation values fit. *Journal of Management Psychology*, 23(8):891-906.

Chalofsky, N. 2003. Meaningful work. *Training and Development*, 57(12):52-58.

Chiboiwa, M.W., Samuel, M.O. & Chipunza, C. 2010. An examination of employee retention strategy in a private organisation in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(10):2103-2109.

Chhabra, B. 2015. Person-job fit: Mediating role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *The Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 50(4):638-651.

Cinman, J. 2014. Employee wellness: A key differentiator in employee engagement. *HR Pulse*. Available from: <http://www.hrpulse.co.za/editors-pick/230982>. [Accessed on 26 September 2018].

Clark, A.D. 2008. The new frontier of wellness. *Benefits Quarterly*, 24(2):23-28.

Clark, D.S. 2007. *Encyclopaedia of law & society: American and global perspectives*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Cliff, N. 2014. *Ordinal methods for behavioural data analysis*. New York: Psychology Press.

Clinton-Baker, M. 2015. The relationship between career anchors, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Industrial and Organisational Psychology thesis. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Coetzee, M., Schreuder, A.M.G. & Clinton-Baker, M. 2015. Career anchors, organisational commitment and employee turnover intention in the retail sector. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 39(2):105-122

Coetzee, M. and Gunz, H. 2012. Careers and retention of staff in the 21st century world of work: Introduction to the special edition. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2):1–4.

Coetzee, M., Mitonga-Monga, J. & Swart, B. 2014. Human resource practices as predictors of engineering staff's organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(1):1-9.

Coetzee, M. and Pauw, D. 2013. Staff perception of leader emotional competency as a predictor of satisfaction with retention factors. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 23(2):177-186.

Coetzee, M., Schreuder, D. & Tladinyane, R. 2007. Organisational commitment and its relation to career anchors. *South African Business Review Journal*, 7(1):65-86.

Cohen, J. 1988. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*. Revised edition. Orlando, CA: Academic Press.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. 2011. *Research methods in education*. 6th ed. Abingdon: Routledge.

Conradie, C.S., Van Der Merwe Smit, E. & Malan, D.P. 2016. Corporate health and wellness and the financial bottom line: Evidence from South Africa. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*; 58(2):45-53.

Cooper, C.L. 2013. *The theory and research on occupational stress and wellbeing. From stress to wellbeing, Vol 1*. Lancaster: Palgrave Macmillan.

Corder, G.W. & Foreman, D.I. 2014. *Nonparametric statistics: A step-by-step approach*. NJ John Wiley & Sons.

Cortina, J.M. 1993. What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1):98-104.

Cotton, J.L. and Tuttle, J.M. 1986. Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implications for research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 11(1):55-70.

Creswell, J.W. 2014. *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. 3rd Ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Danna, K. and Griffin, R.W. 1999. Health and well-being in the workplace: A review and synthesis of the literature. *Journal of Management*, 25(3):357-384.

Das, B.L. and Baruah, M. 2013. Employee retention: A review of literature. *Journal of Business and Management*, 2(14):8-16.

Dawad, S. and Hoque, M. 2016. Occupational health Southern Africa - Employees' awareness, attitudes and utilisation of an employee wellness programme in a financial services company in South Africa. *Occupational Health Southern Africa*, 22(6):19-22.

Dawber, T. 2004. An investigation of the robustness of Lord's item difficulty and discrimination formulas. Unpublished PhD dissertation, Centre for Research in Applied Measurement and Evaluation, University of Alberta.

DeCotiis, T. and Summers, T. 1987. A path analysis of a model of the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment. *Human Relations*, 40(7):445-470.

Deloitte & Touche. 2009. *Organizational culture survey*. Pretoria: Deloitte.

Dhawan, S. 2010. *Research methodology for business and management studies*. Delhi: Global Media.

Diamantopoulos, A. and Schlegelmilch, B.B. 2000. *Taking the fear out of data analysis*. London: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Dibble, S. 1999. *Keeping your valuable employees: Retention strategies for your organization's most important resource*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Diedericks, J.C. 2016. Positive work and organisational psychological functioning of academics in the open distance learning work environment. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Dockel, A. 2003. The effect of retention factors on organisational commitment: An investigation of high technology employees. Unpublished master's thesis, Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Dockel, A., Basson, J.S. & Coetzee, M. 2006. The effect of retention factors on organisational commitment: An investigation of high technology employees. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 4(2):20-28.

Duffield, C.M., Roche, M.A., Blay, N. & Stasa, H. 2011. Nursing unit managers, staff retention and the work environment. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 20(1-2):23-33.

Du Plooy, J. and Roodt, G. 2013. Biographical and demographical variables as moderators in the prediction of turnover intentions. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(1):1070–1082.

El-Kassar, A.N., Messarra, L.C. & El-Khalil, R. 2017. CSR, organisational identification, normative commitment, and the moderating effect of the importance of CSR. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 51(3):411-424.

Els, D.A. and De la Rey, R.P. 2006. Developing a holistic wellness model. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 4(2):46-56.

English, F.W. 2006. *Encyclopaedia of educational leadership and administration*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Evans, J. D. 1996. *Straightforward statistics for the behavioral sciences*. CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Fahey, T., Insel, P. & Roth, W. 2005. *Fit & well: Core concepts and labs in physical fitness and wellness*. 6th ed. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Farquhar, M. 1995. Definitions of quality of life: A taxonomy. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22:502-508.

Fauzi, N.F., Ahmad, F. & Gelaidan, H.M. 2013. The employee retention status in paddy and rice industry in Malaysia. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 18(5):642-650.

Fein, L. 2014. Wellness and convenience: Personal accessories that further good health. *Corporate Wellness Magazine*. Available from <https://www.corporatewellnessmagazine.com/worksites-wellness/wellness-convenience-personal-accessories-good-health/>. [Accessed on 1 November 2016].

Ferreira, N. and Coetzee, M. 2010. Psychological career resources and organisational commitment: Exploring socio-demographic differences. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 34(2):25–41.

Field, L.K. and Buitendach, J.H. 2011. Happiness, work engagement and organisational commitment of support staff at a tertiary education institution in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(1):946-956.

Fields, M.R.A. 2001. *Indispensable employees: How to hire them, how to keep them*. Franklin Lakes, NJ: Career Press.

Fixter, B.L. 2012. An ounce of prevention: The legal and business case for the implementation of workplace wellness programs. Master of Law thesis, University of British Columbia, Vancouver.

Flinkman, M., Laine, M., Leino-Kilpi, H., Hasselhorn, H.M. & Salanterä, S. 2008. Explaining young registered Finnish nurses' intention to leave the profession: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 45:727-739.

Frank, M. 2012. Selecting strategies and approaches in systems engineering: Applying the descriptive research method. In Mora, M., Gelman, O., Steenkamp, A. & Raisinghani, M. (eds). *Research methodologies, innovations and philosophies in software systems engineering and information systems* (pp. 376-388). Available from: <https://www.igi-global.com/book/research-methodologies-innovations-philosophies-software/58293#table-of-contents> [Accessed 21 July 2018].

Freundlich, N. 2014. Do workplace wellness programs work? Yes, but it depends. *Workplace Health Promotion*. Reforming health blog.

Fried, Y. and Ferris, G.R. 1987. The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 40:287–322.

Gabie, B. 1999. Building and retaining staff – it's a whole new world. *Business Communication Review*, 29(7):60-63.

Gabriel, D. 2013. Inductive and deductive approaches to research. Research guides. Available from <http://deborahgabriel.com/2013/03/17/inductive-and-deductive-approaches-to-research/>. [Accessed on 1 November 2016].

Galinsky E. and Johnson, A.A. 1998. *Reframing the business case for work-life initiatives*. NY: Families and Work Institute.

Gberevbie, D.E. 2010. Organisational retention strategies and employee performance of Zenith Bank in Nigeria. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 1(1):61-74.

Geldenhuis, M., Laba, K. & Venter, C.M. 2014. Meaningful work, work engagement and organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40(1):1-10.

Ghasemi, A. and Zahediasl, S. 2012. Normality tests for statistical analysis: A guide for non-statisticians. *International Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism*, 10(2):486–489.

Gliem, A. and Gliem, R. 2003. Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for Likert-type scales. *Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education*. September 26–28, 2010; East Lansing, MI: Science and Education.

Goldstein, H., Carpenter, J., Kenward, M. & Levin, K. 2009. Multilevel Models with multivariate mixed response types. *Statistical Modelling*, 9:173–197.

Gould, S. 1979. An equity-exchange model of organisational involvement. *Academy of Management Review*, 4:53-62.

Grobler, P.A. & Diedericks, H. 2009. Talent management: An empirical study of selected South African hotel groups. *Southern African Business Review*, 13(3):1-27.

Hales, D. 2005. *An invitation to health*. 11th ed. Belmont, CA: Thomson & Wadsworth.

Halls, C. 2005. Get wired for wellness. *Occupational Health & Safety*, 74(7):105-124.

Harry, N. and Coetzee, M. 2011. Sense of coherence, affective wellbeing and burnout in a South African higher education institution call centre. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 35(2):26-46.

Hartley, S.L. and MacLean, W.E. 2006. A review of the reliability and validity of Likert-type scales for people with intellectual disability. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 50(2):813-827.

Herman, R.E. and Gioia-Herman, J.L. 2001. What companies do beyond the basics to retain scarce talent. *Journal of Organisational Excellence*, 20(3):35-40.

Higgins, J.P.T. and Green S. 2011. The Cochrane collaboration: Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions Version 5.1.0. Available from www.handbook.cochrane.org. [Accessed on 15 September 2016].

Hill, E.J. and Weiner, S. 2003. Work/life balance policies and programs. In *The human resources program-evaluation handbook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 447-468.

Ho, J. 1997. Corporate wellness programmes in Singapore: Effect on stress, satisfaction and absenteeism. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. 12(3):177-189.

Hochart, C. and Lang, M. 2011. Impact of a comprehensive worksite wellness program on health risk, utilization, and health care costs. *Journal of Population Management Health*, 14(3):111-116.

Hofstede, G. 1984. Cultural dimension in management and planning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 1(2):81-99.

Hooper, M. 2004. Employee well-being: A hard issue. *People Dynamics*, 22(3):8-9.

Horton, B.W. and O'Fallon, M.J. 2011. Employee wellness in the private club industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(3):285-303.

Horton, B.W. and Snyder, C.S. 2009. Wellness: Its impact on student grades and implications for business. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 8(2):215-233.

Inseta. 2016a. Sector skills plan 2011-2016. Available from: http://www.inseta.org.za/downloads/Sector_Skills_Plan_August_2016.pdf.

[Accessed on 21 July 2018].

Inseta. 2016b. Status of skills in the insurance industry. Available from: http://www.inseta.org.za/downloads/Sector_Skills_Plan_August_2016.pdf.

[Accessed on 21 July 2018]

Jacobs, E. and Roodt, G. 2007. The development of a knowledge sharing construct to predict turnover intentions. *Aslib Proceedings*, 59(3):229-248.

João, T.F. and Coetzee, M. 2012. Job retention factors, perceived career mobility and organisational commitment in the South African financial sector. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 27(2):69–76.

Juhdi, N., Pa'wan, F. & Hansaram, R.M.K. 2013. HR practices and turnover intention: The mediating roles of organisational commitment and organisational engagement in a selected region in Malaysia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(15):3002-3019.

Kampa, N., Neumann, I., Heitmann, P. & Kremer, K. 2016. Epistemological beliefs in science - a person-centred approach to investigate high school students' profiles. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 46:81-93.

Keith, K.D. 2001. International quality of life: Current conceptual, measurement, and implementation issues. In Glidden, L.M. (ed). *International review of research in mental retardation* (Vol. 24). SD: Academic Press.

Kervin, J. 1992. *Methods for business research*. New York: Harper Collins.

Khandelwal, K.A. 2009. Organisational commitment in multinationals: A dynamic interplay among personal, organisational and societal factors. *ASBM Journal of Management*, 2(1):99-122.

Killian, A. 2015. Wellness initiatives give companies competitive edge. International Foundation of Employee Benefit Plans. Available from <http://blog.ifebp.org/index.php/wellness-initiatives-give-companies-competitive-edge>. [Accessed on 9 July 2016].

Kitko, C.T. 2001. Dimensions of wellness and the health matters program at Penn State. *Home Health Care Management & Practice*, 13(4):308-311.

Kothari, C.R. 2004. *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. 2nd ed. New Delhi: New Age International.

Kotze, K. and Roodt, G. 2005. Factors that affect the retention of managerial and specialist staff: An exploratory study of an employee commitment model. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(2):48-45.

Krauss, S.E. 2005. Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4):758-770.

Krog, C.L. and Govender, K. 2015. The relationship between servant leadership and employee empowerment, commitment, trust and innovative behaviour: A project management perspective. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1):712-724.

Kumar, S., McCalla, M. & Lybeck, E. 2009. Operational impact of employee wellness programs: A business study. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 58(6):581-597.

Lavrakas, P.J. 2008. *Research design: Encyclopaedia of survey research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Lawton, K.E. and Chernyshenko, O.S. 2008. Examining determinants of employee benefit preference: Joint effects of personality, work values, and demographics. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 46(2):220-240.

Leap, T. 2004. Employee turnover. In Stahl, M.J. (ed.). *Encyclopedia of health care management* (pp. 171-172). Available from <http://0-dx.doi.org.oasis.unisa.ac.za/10.4135/9781412950602.n253>. [Accessed on 3 May 2014].

Ledford, J. R. and Gast, D. L. 2018. *Single Case Research Methodology: Applications in Special Education and Behavioral Sciences*. New York: Routledge

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2010. *Practical research: Planning and design*. 9th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Lesabe, R.A.F. and Nkosi, J. 2007. A qualitative exploration of employees' views on organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(1):35-44.

Letchmiah, L., and Thomas, A. 2017. Retention of high-potential employees in a development finance company. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(0):1-9.

Likert, R. 1932. A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology*, 22(140):1-55.

Lo, L.S. and Herman, B. 2017. An investigation of factors impacting the wellness of academic library employees. *Research Journal of the Association of College & Research Libraries*, 78(6):789-811.

Logan, J.K. 2000. Retention tangibles and intangibles: More meaning in work is essential, but good chair massages won't hurt. *Training and Development*, 54(4):48-50.

Lok, P. and Crawford, J. 2001. Antecedents of organizational commitment and the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16(8):594-613.

Long, C.S. and Perumal, P. 2014. Examining the impact of human resource management practices on employees' turnover intention. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 15(1):111-126.

Lumley, E.J. 2009. Exploring the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Lumley, E.J., Coetzee, M., Tladinyane, R. & Ferreira, N. 2011. Exploring the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the information technology environment. *Southern African Business Review*, 15(1):100-118.

Macdonald, L.A.C. 2005. *Wellness at work: Protecting and promoting employee health and well-being*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Mackay, R.J. and Oldford, R.W. 2000. Scientific method, statistical method and the speed of light. *Statistical Science*, 15(3):254–278.

Maharaj, I. and Schlechter, A.F. 2007. Meaning in life and meaning of work: Relationships with organisational citizenship behaviour, commitment and job satisfaction. *Management Dynamics*, 16(3):24-41.

Makhathini, T.N. and Van Dyk, G.A.J. 2018. Organisational climate, job satisfaction, and leadership style influences on organisational commitment among South African soldiers. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 28(1):21-25.

Manetje, O. and Martins, N. 2009. The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. *Southern African Business Review*, 13(1):87-111.

Maqsood, A., Hanif, R., Rehman, G. & Glenn, W. 2012. Validation of the three-component model of organizational commitment questionnaire. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(2):135-145.

Mark, A. and Don, L. 2014. Experimental moral philosophy. *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*. Available from <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/sum2014/entries/experimental-moral>. [Accessed on 8 September 2014].

Marsden, P.V., Kalleberg, A.L. & Cook, C.R. 1993. Gender differences in organisational commitment: Influences of work positions and family roles. *Work and Occupations*, 20(3):368-390.

Martin, A. and Roodt, G. 2008. Perceptions of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 34(1):23-31.

Masibigiri, V. and Nienaber, H. 2011. Factors affecting the retention of Generation X public servants: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9(1):1-11.

Mathieu, J. and Zajac, D. 1990. A review of meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2):171-194.

McConaughy, E.A., Prochaska, J.O. & Velicer, W.F. 1983. Stages of change in psychotherapy: Measurement and sample profiles. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 20(3):368-375.

McDonald, J.H. 2014. *Handbook of biological statistics*. 3rd ed. Baltimore, Maryland: Sparky House.

Mclaggan, E., Bezuidenhout, A. & Botha, C.T. 2013. Leadership style and organisational commitment in the mining industry in Mpumalanga. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(1):1-9.

Merrill, R.M. and Hull, J.D. 2013. Factors associated with participation in and benefits of a worksite wellness program. *Journal of Population Health Management*, 16(4):221-226.

Mester, C., Visser, D., Roodt, G. & Kellerman, R. 2003. Leadership style and its relation to employee attitudes and behaviour. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(2):72-82.

Metzler, K. 2014. The foundations of qualitative research. In Ormston, R., Spencer, L. & Barnard, M. (eds). *Qualitative research practise: A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 1-25). London: Sage.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. 1984. Testing the "side bet theory" of organisational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69:372-378.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. 1990. The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organisation. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63:1-18.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. 1991. A three-component conceptualization of organisational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1):61-89.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. 1997. *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Meyer, J.P. and Herscovitch, L. 2001. Commitment in the workplace toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11:299-326.

Meyer, J.P., Allen, N.J. & Smith, C.A. 1993. Commitment to organisations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualisation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4):538-551.

Michaels, P. 1994. An expanded conceptual framework on organizational commitment and job satisfaction for salesforce management. *Journal of Business and Society*, 7(1):42-67.

Miller, C.S. 2008. *Meaningful work over the life course*. Human and Organisational Systems, PHD, Fielding Graduate University, California.

Miller, D. and Lee, J. 2001. The people make the process: Commitment to employees, decision-making and performance. *Journal of Management*, 27(2):163-189.

Mitchell, B. and Gamlem, C. 2012. *The big book of HR*. Newburyport, MA: The Career Press.

Mohlala, J., Goldman, G.A. & Goosen, X. 2012. Employee retention within the information technology division of a South African bank. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2):1-11.

Monippally, M.M. and Pawar, B.S. 2010. *Academic writing: A guide for management students and researchers*. New Delhi: Sage.

Morgan, R.M., Crutchfield, T.N. & Lacey, R. 2000. Patronage and loyalty strategies: Understanding the behavioural and attitudinal outcomes of customer retention programmes. In Hennig-Thurau, T. & Hansen, U. (eds). *Relationship marketing* (pp. 71-87). Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W. & Steers, R.M. 1979. The measurement of organisational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 14:538-551

Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W. & Steers, R.M. 1982. *Employee organisation linkage*. The psychology of commitment absenteeism, and turnover. London: Academic Press Inc.

Muller, S.M. and Roodt, G. 1998. The relationship between employees' attitudes towards affirmative action and their work involvement: An explorative study. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 24(1):26-32.

Munsamy, M. and Venter, A.B. 2009. Retention factors of management staff in the maintenance phase of their careers in local government. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(1):187-195.

Murdoch, F. 2012. Holistic integrated approach for wellness programs. *HR Pulse*. Available on: <http://www.hrpulse.co.za/search>. [Accessed on 10 June 2016]

Myers, J.E., Clarke, P., Brown, J.B. & Champion, D.A. 2012. Wellness: Theory, research, and applications for counselors. In Scholl, M.B., McGowan, A.S. & Hansen, J.T. (eds). *Humanistic perspectives on contemporary counselling issues* (p. 18). New York: Routledge.

Nahm, A.Y., Rao, S.S., Solis-Galvan, L.E. & Ragu-Nathan, T.S. 2002. The Q-sort method: Assessing reliability and construct validity of questionnaire items at a pre-testing stage. *Journal of Modern Applied Statistical Methods*, 1(1):114-128.

Nasuridin, A.M., Nejati, M. & Mei, Y.K. 2013. Workplace spirituality and organisational citizenship behaviour: Exploring gender as a moderator. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 44(1):61-73.

Naqvi, S.M.M.R. and Bashir, S. 2012. IT-expert retention through organisational commitment: A study of public sector information technology professionals in Pakistan. *Applied Computing and Informatics*, Available from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259170566>. [accessed 26 September 2018].

Nelson, L.R. 2005. Some observations on the scree test, and on coefficient alpha. *Journal of Educational Research and Measurement*, 3(1):2548-2565.

Netswera, F.G., Rankhumise, E.M. & Mavundla, T.R. 2005. Employee retention factors for South African higher education institutions: A case study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(2):36-40.

Ngambi, H.C. 2011. The relationship between leadership and employee morale in higher education. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(3):762-776.

Ng'ethe, J.M., Namusonge, G.S. & Iravo, M.A. 2012. Influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(21):297-302.

Noordin, F., Rahim, A.R.A., Ibrahim A.H. & Omar, M.S. 2011. An analysis of career stages on organisational commitment of Australian managers. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(17):117-126.

Nujjoo, A. and Meyer, I. 2012. The relative importance of different types of rewards for employee motivation and commitment in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2):1-10.

Nunnally, J. 1978. *Psychometric theory*. NY: McGraw-Hill.

Nxele, L. 2014. *Employment Equity Plan*. Braamfontein: Liberty

Olivier, M.A.J., De Jager, M.J., Grootboom, P. & Tokota, K.B. 2005. Work wellness: A prerequisite for effective education in higher education institutes. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 19(5):912-930.

O'Reilly, C.A. and Chatman, J. 1986. Organisational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on pro-social behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71:492-499.

Otenyo, E. E. and Smith, E. A. 2017. 'An Overview of Employee Wellness Programs (EWP) in Large U.S. Cities: Does Geography Matter?'. *Public Personnel Management*, 46(1):3-24

Osilla, K.C., Van Busum, K., Schnyer, C., Larkin, J.W., Eibner, C. & Mattke, S. 2012. Systematic review of the impact of worksite wellness programs. *The American Journal of Managed Care*, 18(2):68-81.

Pandey, P. and Pandey, M. 2015. *Research methodology: Tools and techniques*. BU: Bridge Center.

Parks, K.M. and Steelman, L.A. 2008. Organisational wellness programs: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 13(1):58-68.

Patten, M.L. and Newhart, M. 2017. Understanding research methods: An overview of the essentials. 10th Ed. London: Routledge.

Phillips, J.J. and Connell, A.O. 2011. *Managing employee retention: A strategic accountability approach*. MA: Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.

Pink-Harper, S. A. and Rauhaus, B. 2017. 'Examining the Impact of Federal Employee Wellness Programs and Employee Resilience in the Federal Workplace', *Journal of Health & Human Services Administration*, 40(3):353–387.

Presser, S., Couper, M.P., Lessler, J.T., Martin, E., Rothgeb, J.M. & Singer, E. 2004. Methods for testing and evaluating survey questions. *Journal of The American Association for Public Opinion Research*, 68(1):109-130.

Preston, C.C. and Colman, A.M. 2000. Optimal number of response categories in rating scales: Reliability, validity, discriminating power, and respondent preferences. *Acta Psychologica*, 104:1-15.

Pritchard, C.W. 2007. *101 strategies for recruiting success: Where, when, and how to find the right people every time*. NY: Amacom.

Richon, M. 2014. Wellness with simplicity: Promoting 'pronounceable' health. *Corporate Wellness Magazine*. Available from: <https://www.corporatewellnessmagazine.com/worksite-wellness/wellness-simplicity-promoting-pronounceable-health/>. [Accessed on 26 September 2018].

Riggio, R.E. 2009. Introduction to industrial/organisational psychology, London: Pearson.

Robbins, G., Powers, D. & Burgess, S. 2004. *A wellness way of life*. 6th ed. London: McGraw-Hill.

Robbins, G., Powers, D. & Burgess, S. 2007. *A fit and well way of life. Health and Fitness*. NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Robbins, S. 1993. *Organisational behaviour: Concepts, controversies, and applications*. 6th ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Robbins, S.P., Odendaal, A., Judge, T. A. & Roodt. G. 2016. *Organisational behaviour: Global and Southern African perspectives*. 3rd ed. London: Pearson Education.

Robinson, J. and Elkan, R. 1996. *Health needs assessment: Theory and practice*. London: Churchill Livingstone.

Robinson, J. and McCormick, D.J. 2011. *Concepts in health & wellness*. New York: Delmar Cengage Learning.

Robyn, A. and Du Preez, R. 2013. Intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in higher education. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(1):1106-1120.

Roehl, W.S. and Swerdlow, S. 1999. Training and its impact on organisational commitment among lodging employees. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 23(2):176-194.

Rothmann, S. and Rothmann, J.C. 2006. *The South African employee health and wellness survey: User manual*. Potchefstroom: Afriforte.

Ryff, C.D. and Singer, B.H. 2008. Know thyself and become what you are: A eudaimonic approach to psychological well-being. *Journal of happiness Studies*, 9(1):13-39.

Sabharwal, M.; Douglas K.L. & Hijal-Moghrabi, I. 2019. Best practices in local government wellness programs: The benefits of organisational investment and performance monitoring. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 39(1):24-45.

Sahoo, C.K., Behera, N. & Tripathy, S.K. 2010. Employee empowerment and individual commitment: An analysis from integrative review of research. *Employment Relations Record*, 10(1):40-56.

Salancik, G. 1977. Commitment and the control of organisational behaviour and belief. In B. Staw & G. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organisational behaviour*, 1-54. Chicago: St Clair.

Salkind, N.J. 2010. *Encyclopedia of research design*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Salkind, N.J. 2012. *Exploring research*. 8th ed. New York: Pearson.

Salkind, N.J. 2015. *Encyclopedia of research design: Cross-sectional design*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Samuel, O. and Chipunza, C. 2009. Employee retention and turnover: Using motivational variables as a panacea. *African Journal of Business Management*, 3(8):410-415.

Scotland, J. 2012. Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and methods of the Scientific, Interpretive, and Clinical Research Paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9):9-16.

Selesho, M. and Naile, I. 2014. Academic staff retention as a human resource factor: University perspective. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 13(2):295-304.

Sersic, D.M. 1999. Organisational commitment and turnover intentions. *Review of Psychology*, 6(1-2):17-24.

Seward, K. 2010. Workplace wellness. *Benefits Canada*, 34(6):22-27.

Shlens, J. 2014. A tutorial on principal component analysis. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 51(2).

Sieberhagen, C., Pienaar, J. & Els, C. 2011. Management of employee wellness in South Africa: Employer, service provider and union perspectives. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9(1):1-15.

Sieberhagen, C., Rothmann, S. & Pienaar, J. 2009. Employee health and wellness in South Africa: The role of legislation and management standards. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(1):1-9.

Simons, J.C. and Buitendach, J.H. 2013. Psychological capital, work engagement and organisational commitment amongst call centre employees in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(2):1-12.

Sisodia, S. and Das, I. 2013. Effect of job autonomy upon organisational commitment of employees at different hierarchical level. *Psychological Thought*, 6(2):241–251.

Smolkin, S. 2007. Wellness programs promote attraction and retention. *Employee Benefit News Canada In Brief*. Available from https://issuu.com/sherylsmolkin/docs/ebncmj_08. [Accessed on 15 November 2017].

Snelgar, R.J., Renard, M. & Venter, D. 2013. An empirical study of the reward preferences of South African employees. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(1):1-14.

Soleimani, A. 2017. Study the coordinates of methodology in futures studies. *Special Issue of International Review*, 2(1):119.

Sparrow, J. 2012. *The culture builders: Leadership strategies for employee performance*. London, Routledge.

Stander, M.W. and Rothmann, S. 2009. The relationship between leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(3):7-13.

Storey, J. 1992. *Developments in the management of human resources*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Strauss, D. 2016. The tension between (methodological) individualism and holism. *Journal for Christian Scholarship*, 52(1-2):119-140.

Strout, K.A., Elizabeth, M.S. & Howard, P. 2012. The six dimensions of wellness and cognition in aging adults. *Journal of Holistic Nursing*, 30(3):195-204.

Strydom, N., Schultz, C. & Bezuidenhout, A. 2014. Staff perceptions on talent management and retention: A case of a labour organisation in Gauteng. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 38(2):29-47.

Sullivan, G.M. and Artino, A.R. 2013. Analyzing and interpreting data from Likert-type scales. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 5(4):541–542.

Sullivan, L. 2017. *Non parametric tests*. Boston: Boston University School of Public Health.

Suma, S. and Lesha, J. 2013. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment: The case of Shkodra Municipality. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(17):41-51.

Sutherland, M. and Jordaan, W. 2004. Factors affecting the retention of knowledge workers. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2(2):55-64.

Svensson, A.M., Martensson, L.B. & Muhli, U.H.H. 2012. Well-being dialogue: Elderly women's subjective sense of well-being from their course of life perspective. *International Journal Qualitative Study Health Well-being*. 7:1-12

Swarbrick, M. 2006. A wellness approach. *Psychiatric Rehabilitation Journal*, 29(4):311–314.

Swayze, J.S. and Burke, L.A. 2013. Employee wellness program outcomes: A case study. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 28(1):46-61.

Taherdoost, H. 2016. Validity and reliability of the research instrument: How to test the validation of a questionnaire / survey in a research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 5(3):28-36.

Tanton, S.N. 2007. Talent management in the role of employee retention. Masters Degree in Business Leadership, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Tavakol, M. and Dennick, R. 2011. Making sense of Chronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2:53-55.

Taylor, S. 2002. *The employee retention handbook*. Trowbridge: Cromwell Press.

Tayyab, S. and Tariq, N. 2001. Development of an indigenous organisational commitment questionnaire. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 16(1-2):31-45.

Terblanche, L. [n.d.]. HR future. Available from <http://www.hrfuture.net/wellness/employee-assistance-programmes-explained.php?Itemid=559>. [Accessed on 15 July 2014].

Tiberius, B. and Hall, A. 2010. Normative theory and psychological research: Hedonism, eudaimonism and why it matters. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 5(3):1-34.

The Kin Team. 2016. Using wellness programs as a retention tool for your great employees. Available from: <https://kinhr.com/wellness-as-retention>. [Accessed on 26 September 2018].

Theron, M., Barkhuizen, N. & Du Plessis, Y. 2014. Managing the academic talent void: Investigating factors in academic turnover and retention in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40(1):1-14.

TNS Consulting Team. 2012. How attitude and behavior influence organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Available from: <http://blog.tnsemployeeinsights.com/>. [Accessed on 26 September 2018].

Tredoux, C. and Durrheim, K. 2013. *Numbers, hypotheses, and conclusions*. 2nd ed. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Trochim, W. M. K. 2006. *Deductive and Inductive Reasoning*. Research methods knowledge base; Available from: <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net>. [Accessed on 21 April 2018].

Turner, J.R. 2013. General population. In Gellman, M.D. & Turner, J.R. (eds). *Encyclopedia of behavioral medicine*. New York, NY: Springer.

Ugwu, F.O., Onyishi, I.E. & Tyoyima, W.A. 2013. Exploring the relationships between academic burnout, self-efficacy and academic engagement among Nigerian college students. *The African Symposium*, 13(2):37-45.

Unisa. 2013. Policy on Research Ethics. Pretoria.

University of Nebraska-Lincoln. 2013. Wellness initiative: The wellness model. Available from <http://wellness.unl.edu/promote-wellness>. [Accessed on 18 June 2013].

Vandenberghe, C., Mignonac, K. & Manville, C. 2015. When normative commitment leads to lower well-being and reduced performance. *Human Relations*, 68(5):843-870.

Van der Merwe, A. 2008. *Workplace wellness: Rands and sense*. Johannesburg: HR Highway.

Van Dyk, J. 2011. The relationship between organisational commitment, retention factors and perceived job embeddedness. Master of Commerce in Industrial and Organisational Psychology thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Van Dyk, J. and Coetzee, M. 2012. Retention factors in relation to organisational commitment in medical and information technology services. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2): 1-11.

Van Dyk, J., Coetzee, M. & Tebele, C. 2013. Organisational commitment and job embeddedness of service staff with critical and scarce skills. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 37(1):61-78.

Van Lingen, J.M. and De Jager, A.C. 2011. Wellness and its dimensions – A South African student perspective. *Journal of Counselling and Development in Higher Education Southern Africa*, 1(1):77-94.

Van Rooyen, L., Du Toit, D.H., Botha, E. & Rothmann, S. 2010. Artisan retention in an organisation in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(1):8.

Van Schalkwyk, L., Els, C. & Rothmann, S. (Jr). 2011. The moderating role of perceived organisational support in the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention across sectors in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9(1):384-397.

Van Zyl, L.E. 2019. A critical reflection on the psychology of retention. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 45(0):1-4.

Vaske, J.J. 2008. *Survey research and analysis: Applications in parks, recreation and human dimensions*. State College, PA: Venture.

Vaske, J.J., Beaman, J. & Sponarski, C.C. 2016. Rethinking internal consistency in Cronbach's alpha. *Leisure Sciences*, 39(2):163-173.

Visagie, C.M. and Steyn, C. 2011. Organisational commitment and responses to planned organisational change: An exploratory study. *Southern African Business Review*, 15(3):98-121.

Vito, G.F., Kunselman, J.C. & Tewksbury, R. 2014. *Introduction to criminal justice research methods: An applied approach*. 3rd Ed. Illinois: Charles C Thomas.

Vogt, W., Haeffele, L. & Gardner, D. 2012. *When to use what research design*. New York: Guilford Press.

Waddell, G. and Burton, A.K. 2006. *Is work good for your health and well-being?* London: The Stationery Office.

Wali, S.S. and Zahid, M.M. 2013. Wellness programs and employees' organizational commitment – Empirical evidence from pharmaceutical setting. *Journal of Academic Research International*, 4(6):470-479.

Walsh, J. 2010. Working time and work-life balance. In Wilkinson, A., Bacon, N., Redman, T. & Snell, S. (eds). *The Sage handbook of human resource management* (pp. 490-507), London: Sage.

Weathington, B.L., Cunningham, C.J.L. & Pittenger, D.J. 2012. *Sampling: The first steps in research, in understanding business research*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Wee, T.C. 2013. Talent retention: The pressures in Malaysia SMEs. *American Journal of Economics*, 3(C):35-40. Available from doi: 10.5923/c.economics.201301.07. [Accessed on 17 July 2017].

Welman, C., Kruger, F. & Mitchell, B. 2005. *Research methodology*. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Wiener, Y. 1982. Commitment in organisations: A normative view. *Academy of Management Review*, 7:418-428.

Williams, L.A., McDaniel, M.A. & Nguyen, N.T. 2006. A meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of pay level satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(2):392–413.

Wilson, G.M., Dejoy, D.M., Vandenberg, R.J., Richardson, H.A. & McGrath, A.H. 2010. Work characteristics and employee health and well-being: Test of a model of healthy work organisation. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 77(4): 565-588.

Wojcik, J. 2007. Employers spot link between health, profit. *Journal of Business Insurance*, 41(50):1-20.

World Health Organization. 1946. International Health Conference, *American Journal of Public Health*, 37(7):929.

Yang, J.T., Wan, C.S. & Fu, Y.J. 2012. Qualitative examination of employee turnover and retention strategies in international tourist hotels in Taiwan. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3):837-848.

Yean, T.F. and Yahya, K.K. 2013. The influence of human resource management practices and career strategy on career satisfaction of insurance agents. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 14(2):193-206.

Yusuf, N. and Metiboba, S. 2012. Work environment and job attitude among employees in a Nigerian work organization. *Journal of Sustainable Society*, 1(2):36-43.

Zula K. 2014. Workplace wellness programs: A comparison between best practice guidelines and implementation. *Journal of Applied Business Research*; 30(3):783

Zwetsloot, G.I.J.M., Van Scheppingen, A.R., Dijkman, A.J., Heinrich, J. & Den Besten, H. 2010. The organisational benefits of investing in workplace health. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 3(2):143-159.