

**THE IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT
AND JOB SATISFACTION ON ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT AMONGST EMPLOYEES IN A MULTI-
NATIONAL ORGANIZATION**

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**Mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Magister Commercii in the Department of Industrial
Psychology, Faculty of Economic and Management Science,
University of the Western Cape.**

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NOVEMBER 2010

DECLARATION

I declare that “The impact of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction on organizational commitment amongst employees in a multi-national organization” is my own work and has never been submitted for any other degree, or any other examination in any other university, and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete reference, It is submitted for the degree of Magister Commercii at the University of the Western Cape.



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Signed:

DEDICATION

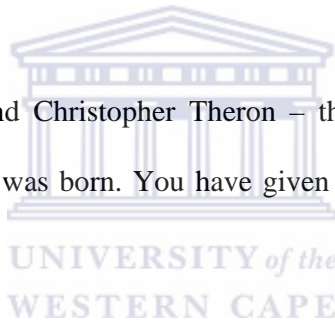
I dedicate this research report:

To my wonderful husband, Hampton I am grateful for your love and support and to my unborn child- I cannot wait to hold you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All the glory, honour and praise to my Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ.

My parents Jeanetta and Christopher Theron – thank you for your guidance and support from the day I was born. You have given me more than I could ever have asked for.



To my siblings Gretchen, Janine, and my late brother Fernando.

A special thanks to my family, friends and colleagues for your encouragement and support to finish my studies.

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Karl Heslop, I salute you! You have played a significant role in most of my tertiary years!

Special thanks to all Coleus Packaging employees for your willingness to participate and to the Management for your support.

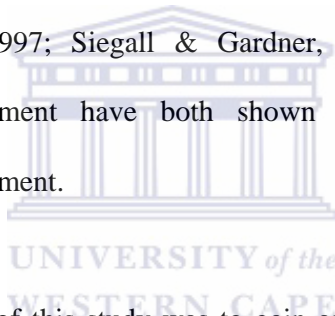
My friend and study buddy Verna Appollis – the most resourceful person I know. Your support and encouragement was vital in the completion of this thesis.

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ABSTRACT

Organizations in South Africa as in the rest of the world are under tremendous pressure to improve their performance and increase their competitiveness in the continuously changing world of work. Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are important concepts to consider when dealing with the changes in the world of work. Psychological empowerment refers to the experience of empowerment among employees. Empowerment heightens employees' sense of personal control and motivates them to engage in work which in turn results in positive managerial and organizational outcomes (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Siegall & Gardner, 2000). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have both shown to be important outcomes of psychological empowerment.



The primary objective of this study was to gain an understanding of the impact of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction on organizational commitment amongst employees in a multi-national organization. For the purpose of this study a quantitative, non-probability convenience sampling design was used to assess the three variables. The sample consisted of (N = 120) permanent employees were employed in the following departments namely: Administration, Engineering, Production, Quality and Commercial.

A biographical questionnaire, The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire (MEQ), Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) were administered to gather data. The MEQ consists of 12 statements and

measures psychological empowerment on four cognitions namely; meaning, impact, self-determination and competence. The JDI measures job satisfaction on five job facets namely, pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers and the work itself. The OCQ measures organizational commitment and consists of 15 statements. Each statement attempts to extract the employee's feelings towards organizational policies, goals and values, their willingness go the extra mile, and whether they are proud to be associated with the organization. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

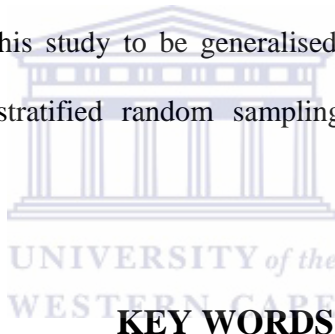
The Product Moment Correlations Coefficient was computed to determine the extent to which the variable investigated is related to each other. The ANOVA was used to determine whether there are differences in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics and also to assess differences amongst the variable. The T-test was utilized to assess whether there is a difference based on gender. For the biographical information namely gender, race and tenure results indicate significant statistical differences in organizational commitment. A statistically significant relationship was also found between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. However, the strongest relationship was found between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Furthermore results, indicate that employees at the multi-national organization are relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, with the supervision that they receive, as well as with their co-workers. Opportunities for promotion and compensation appeared to be however, the main sources of dissatisfaction. With regards to organizational commitment employees express below average belief in the organization's goals and values, willingness to

exert extra effort on behalf of the organization and desire to maintain membership of the organization.

With the exception of gender, the relationship between race and tenure with job satisfaction was found to be significant. With the exception of race, the relationship between gender and tenure with psychological empowerment was found to be significant.

Results indicated a significant and direct relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction.

A limitation of this research is that the sampling composition and research design prevent the results to this study to be generalised to other organizations and it is recommended that a stratified random sampling design be utilised for future research.



KEY WORDS

Empowerment

Psychological Empowerment

Job Satisfaction

Organizational Commitment

Meaning

Impact

Competence

Self-determination

Multi-national organization

Power

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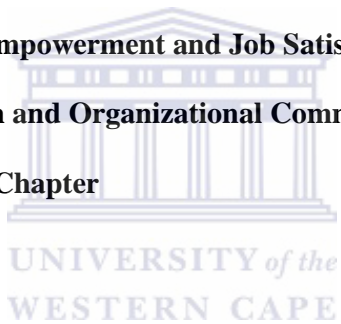
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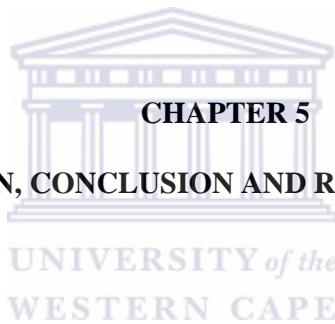
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Democracy in South Africa has proven itself in a relatively short time as a potential competitive role player in the global investment community (Peralta & Stark, 2006). Globalization puts pressure on companies to fundamentally rethink and redesign their existing organizational processes, to increase production, speed and quality, while cutting costs and eliminating layers (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000). Organizations are finding they need to change how they doing business. These include the development of global market places, rapid innovation in work technologies, shifting work force and customer demographics, and increasing demand for quality and flexibility in products and service (Hartmann, 2003).

Buitendach and Hlalele (2005, p. 1) posit that “organizations in South Africa are continuously under pressure to undergo dramatic changes.” Some of these challenges were labeled by Maitland (2002 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005) as the nature of work in the social and technological organization and technical and market revolutions. In reaction to the global challenge, Buitendach and Hlalele (2005) proposed that numerous big organizations delayed, devolved decision-making, promoted multi-skilling, encourage teamwork, and introduced a range of initiatives in order to empower employees.

Employee empowerment has become a buzzword in recent management trends in both the public and the private sector (Pitts, 2005). Employee empowerment has received wide recognition as an important subject in management circles mainly because it is seen as one of the fundamental elements of managerial and organizational effectiveness that increases when power and control are shared in an organization (Ergeneli, Saglam & Metin, 2007). Lashley (1999) states that employee empowerment has been hailed as a management technique which can be applied universally across all organizations as a means of dealing with the needs of modern global business.

The empowerment of employees is essential to the constant change and learning that characterize today's global business environment. According to Ongori (2009), this era of globalization need empowered employees' in organizations so that employees will be in a position to make quick decisions and respond quickly to any changes in the environment. Nykodym, Simonetti, Warren and Welling (1994) also postulate that employee empowerment will lead to improving productivity, performance and job satisfaction. Furthermore, an empowered workforce will lead to achieving competitive advantage (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Forrester 2000; Quinn & Spreitzer; 1997; Sundbo 1999).

The benefits of psychological empowerment can be seen in both the organization and the individual. Some of the benefits of psychological empowerment programmes for the individual include confidence about their ability to perform their work well (Spreitzer & Quinn, 1997), perceived control in terms of a sense of competence and self-determination (Menon, 2001), a clear understanding of their role in an

organization, lower absenteeism and turnover, a sense of ownership, taking responsibility, higher levels of motivation, commitment, performance and job satisfaction (Malan, 2002). Chen, Kanfer, Kirkman and Allen (2007) posit that empowered individuals are motivated to perform well because they believe they have the autonomy and capability to perform meaningful work that can impact their organization.

Robbins (2001) suggests that at the organizational level, organizations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organizations with less satisfied employees. Vogt and Murrell (1990) are of the opinion that empowerment is both self-initiated and initiated by others.

A review of literature suggests that empowerment leads to increased job satisfaction (Appelbaum & Honnegar, 1998). Job satisfaction has also been shown to be an important outcome of psychological empowerment (Seibert, 2004). Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (1997) argue that the meaning of empowerment is important for job satisfaction, as an individual can only derive satisfaction from their work when engaged in a meaningful job. Job satisfaction has also been associated with organizational commitment (Goetzee, 2001) and psychological empowerment (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003).

Empirical results show a positive relationship between self-determination and job satisfaction (Smith & Langley-Smith, 2003; Spreitzer et al., 1997). Spreitzer et al. (1997) also found the self-determination dimension of empowerment to be related to work satisfaction, suggesting that self-determination is a psychological need and a

key component of intrinsic motivation. In terms of the impact dimension of empowerment, Linden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000), delineates that when employees feel that their work can influence outcomes that affect their organization, they tend to feel more involved and therefore gain a sense of satisfaction with their job. Baron and Greenberg (2000) maintain that job satisfaction is a person's views about his or her job, which can either be positive or negative. Yousef (2000) agrees and postulates that job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which employees feel positive or negative toward their job. According to Griffin (1990), job satisfaction is an individual's attitude toward his or her job and is one of the most studied variables.

Oshagbemi's (1996) view is that job satisfaction is an important subject because of its relevance to the physical and mental well-being of employees. Consequently an understanding of the factors relating to job satisfaction is important (Schulze, 2006). It is an affective and emotional reaction to a job, resulting from the comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, expected or felt desired to be (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). Mammen (2006) states that people generally develop attitudes about five basic dimensions of a job: pay, opportunities, the nature of work itself, policies and procedures of the organization and working conditions.

Organizational commitment according to Linden et al. (2000) has shown to be an outcome of psychological empowerment. According to Miller (2003), organizational commitment is a state in an employee with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. According to Jansen (2004), psychological empowerment can be viewed as a way to stimulate an individual's commitment to the organization, as it leads to a fit between work roles and personal

value system, confidence in an individual's capability to do work well, which in turn encourages him or her to put more effort on the organization's behalf, more extensive participation in decision-making and contribution to shaping organizational systems through a greater level of impact. Organizational commitment has received substantial attention in past research due to its significant impact on work attitudes such as job satisfaction and performance (Yousef, 2000).

Numerous researchers have recognised a relationship between empowerment and commitment, claiming that employees who feel more empowered is more likely to reciprocate by being more committed to their organization (Honold, 1997; Linden et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1995). Experiencing empowerment can result in an employee being more committed to their work and to the organization as a whole. According to Honold (1997), the greater the empowerment, the greater the job autonomy, the more involvement beyond the defined jobs of the individual, the greater the organizational commitment. A study by Menon (2001) found that the greater the empowerment, the greater the organizational commitment. According to Bordin and Bartram (2007), experiencing empowerment can result in an employee being more committed to their work and to the organization as a whole. Yukl (2006, p. 1), adds that "empowerment is considered important because of the potential benefits that can result from it, including increased commitment, better decisions, improved quality, more innovation, and increased job satisfaction."

There are various approaches to empowerment namely an act (structural approach), a psychological state of mind (motivational approach) or an energising aspect through leadership (leadership approach) (Menon, 2001). This study however, will focus on

empowerment from the psychological perspective. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment from as intrinsic motivation manifested in four task assessments, namely, meaningful, competence, choice and impact. A measuring instrument based on these four cognitions was developed by Spreitzer (1995) which reflects an individual's active orientation to shape his or her work role and context.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

In South Africa empowerment has received much attention increasing the country's global economic position (Wadula, 2001). By the same token Kotze, Menon and Vos (2007, p 1), postulate that "in South Africa much emphasis has been placed by both the State and employers in the private sector on the "empowerment" of employees. According to Kotze et al. (2007), the granting of political power to all citizens in 1994 can be considered as the defining moment in the process of national empowerment. Legislation concerning equal opportunities, affirmative action and skills development has continued to stimulate the transfer of power to the previously powerless. More recently "Black Economic Empowerment" (BEE) has become a national priority and forms the headline of many reports on the business pages of national newspapers.

According to Yukl and Becker (2006), empowerment is considered important because of the potential benefits that can result from it, including increased commitment, better decisions, improved quality, more innovation and increased job satisfaction. Empowerment is labelled by the delegation of power to employees and in doing so decentralises decision-making in the organization (Carson & King, 2005;

Cunningham et al., 1996; Johnson, 1994). Empowered employees become active problem solvers who contribute to the planning and execution of tasks (Cunningham et al. 1996). Lee and Koh (2001) state that employee empowerment is the result of behaviour on the part of a leader who empowers his or her subordinates.

According to Cohen (2003, p 3), organizational commitment as a research topic, is important regardless of its setting because increasing one's comprehension may assist one in better understanding the nature of the psychological process through which people choose to identify with different objects in their environment and how they find purpose in life.

In a study conducted by Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) a dimension of empowerment was found to be significantly related to work satisfaction in two organizations. It was also found that job dissatisfaction relate to absenteeism, trade union activities and psychological withdrawal. Darvish (2000) reported that affective commitment mediates the influences of satisfaction with working conditions, pay and supervision. Low committed people tend to have higher stress levels than more highly committed people (Lawson & Syme, 1996). From these studies, the significance of psychological empowerment is evident.

Krawitz (2000) posits that South Africa's natural resources have been its focus for generations and in order for organizations to succeed, a new focus will have to emerge identifying people as the key to success. South Africa is challenged with skills shortages in certain areas, however at the same time a very high unemployment rate that is impacting negatively on the availability of competent people, is putting

pressure on the economy. Hough (1999) states that human capital is a factor that can promote competitiveness as it provides the required skills, knowledge, attitudes and capacities for developing competitive strategies, product development, quality control, corporate financial development, marketing and human resource development. If people are the key to competitive advantage the way companies treat people are critical to success (Kravitz, 2000).

Bagraim (2007) maintains that South African organizations striving to increase their competitiveness in an increasingly dynamic globalized economy need to retain and motivate their skilled employees. Empirical evidence exists regarding the strength of the psychological bond between an employee and his/her employing organization helps predict South African employees' turnover intentions and productivity (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Boshoff & Arnolds, 1995; Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole, & Owen, 2002). The above-mentioned outcomes of organizational commitment suggest that management scholars should investigate drivers of organizational commitment amongst South African employees (Bagraim, 2007).

Nortje (2001) postulates that due to a lack of participative climate, South Africa has a vast disempowered workforce where many employees suffer from poor self esteem, lack of personal vision and feeling of hopelessness. She argues that these attitudes and beliefs form inner barriers that limits growth and proactive development while manifesting in the workplace in a form of reluctance to accept responsibility, hesitation to communicate openly, lack of commitment and ultimately below average performance.

Liden, Sparrow and Wayne (2000) report a positive relationship between psychological empowerment, work satisfaction and job performance. They stated that individuals who perceive their jobs to be significant and worthwhile feel higher levels of work satisfaction than those who perceive their jobs as having little value. Similarly, Gardner and Siegall (2000) posit that employees who are psychologically empowered have a high sense of self-efficacy, are given authority and responsibility over their jobs; they engage in upward influence and see themselves as innovative.

The organization where the study is being carried out is the only metal crown manufacturer in Southern Africa. At this organization empowerment is deemed important as it thrives in a fast growing industry that demands quality products and customer satisfaction. Hence, people need to take responsibility for their roles, and sometimes even for that of other people, to make sure that they can deliver the best quality product first. Therefore, for the organization it is extremely important to have an empowered workforce who has the abilities to satisfy market needs in a very efficient manner (Laage, 2003). The aim of this research is to determine the employees' psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment at a multi-national organization.

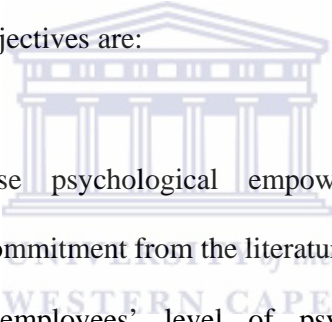
1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 General objective

The aim of this study is to investigate the extent to which psychological empowerment is perceived by employees and how this and job satisfaction impact on organizational commitment in a multi-national organization.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific research objectives are:

- 
- To conceptualise psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment from the literature.
 - To determine employees' level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment at a multi-national organization.
 - To determine the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment at a multi-national organization.
 - To determine the impact of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction on organizational commitment.
 - To determine the differences in psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and job satisfaction and biographical characteristics (namely gender, race and tenure).

1.4 HYPOTHESES

Based on the objectives the following research hypotheses have been formulated:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics (namely, tenure, gender and race).

Hypothesis 3: Employees who feel psychologically empowered are likely to exhibit job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: There is significant difference between job satisfaction and organizational commitment on biographical characteristics (namely, tenure, gender and race)

1.5 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

For the purpose of this research the following concepts have been defined:

1.5.1 Empowerment

Vogt and Murrell (1990) define empowerment as a positive use of power to create more power, which has a positive energising effect on the organization.

1.5.2 Psychological empowerment

According to Zimmerman (1995), psychological empowerment as a construct integrates perceptions of personal control, a proactive approach to life and a critical understanding of the socio-political environment.

1.5.3 Job satisfaction

According to Oshaghemi (2003), job satisfaction is an affective reaction to a job that results from the comparison of actual outcomes with those desired.

1.5.4 Organizational commitment

Levy (2003) defines organizational commitment as the strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in the organization.

1.5.5 Meaning

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define meaning as the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideas or standards.

1.5.6 Impact

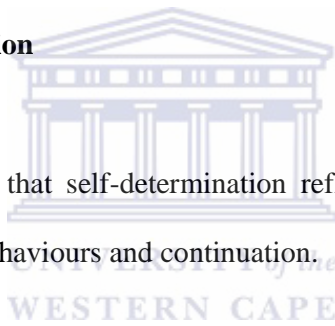
Spreitzer (1995) identified impact as the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative or operating work outcomes at work.

1.5.7 Competence

According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), competence is the degree to which an individual can perform task activities skilfully when he or she tries.

1.5.8 Self-determination

Spreitzer (1995) states that self-determination reflects autonomy in initiation and continuation of work behaviours and continuation.



1.5.9 Multi-national organization

According to Parboteeah, Cullen, Victor and Sakano (2005), a characteristic of a multi-national organization is one who engages in business operations both internally and externally of its domestic borders which is mainly motivated by globalization and competition.

1.5.10 Power

Kanter (1981; 1993) defines power as the capacity to mobilise people and resources to get things done, which implies that the one with this kind of power must possess autonomy and certain rights.

1.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The aim of this research is to assess the impact of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction on organizational commitment in a multi national organization. The background and motivation for the research was discussed, the objectives of the research were addressed and the hypotheses stated. The chapter concludes with the important concepts referred to in the study. An overview of each chapter is provided next.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter two provides an overview of the literature conducted pertaining to the variables related to study. Reference is made to the various definitions of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Chapter three focuses on the research methodology used to investigate the research problem. In particular, the sample, procedure, biographical questionnaire, research instruments and the statistical methods used to test the hypotheses are discussed.

Chapter four presents the research results. The chapter provides an overview of the results based on the statistical analyses.

Chapter five discusses the findings of the study and makes reference to other studies to support the findings. Furthermore, limitations of the research will be highlighted and it will conclude with recommendations for the organization and for future research.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the key terms and problem statement for this study were discussed. The specific research objectives, hypotheses and important constructs were also highlighted.

A literature study can be seen as an answer to the problem statement and supports the researcher to comprehend the results from the empirical study. In this chapter a comprehensive literature overview of the constructs being investigated is provided. The focus is on defining psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Theories, models and antecedents for the various variables are also emphasised. The chapter concludes with a summary of findings of the research conducted amongst these variables.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

2.2.1 Definitions of psychological empowerment

According to Lashley (1999), empowerment is a process that provides employees with autonomy through sharing of correct information and the provision of control circumstances that effect job performance of the organization, by rewarding

employees for contributions made and with the power to make influential decisions being vested in employees.

Eccles (1993 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005) describes the empowerment process of giving employees confidence together with management, to utilise their skills and experience by presenting them with the power to use more judgement and discretion in their work. Psychological empowerment has in particular been defined as an individual's experience of intrinsic motivation that is based on cognitions about him or herself in relation to his or her work role (Spreitzer, 1995).

Konzak, Stelly and Trusty's (2000) definition of psychological empowerment is described as a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both organizational practices, informal techniques and by providing efficacy information. Psychological empowerment according to Yagil (2006), is a motivational process by which an individual experiences a sense of enablement, as well as provide an effective buffer against the adverse effects of stress.

2.3 COGNITIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

According to Fourie and van Eeden (2010, p. 10), "research on psychological empowerment done as recently as 2009 is still based on Spreitzer's (1995a; 1995b) groundwork, which operationalized and validated the construct."

The cognitions of empowerment are discussed below:

2.3.1 Meaning

Meaningfulness is defined as an opportunity to follow a worthy task -the task which the individual is busy with should be worth the time, energy and effort (Appelbaum & Honnagar, Herbert & Leroux, 1999; Menon, 2001; Spreitzer, 1995a; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Bandura (1997) purports that people do things that give them a feeling of self-worth and self-satisfaction. According to Buckle (2003), meaning covers the value of a work goal evaluated in relation to an individual's own ideal or standards. Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) posit that empowered people have a sense of meaning; they feel that their work is important to them and they care about what they are doing. Hartmann (2003) adds that in order for employees to feel empowered they need to have a vivid picture and understand clearly where the organization is going for them to establish a sense of meaning.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) delineate that meaning is the value of a work goal or purpose judged in relation to an individual's own ideal standards. According to Brief and Nord (1990) and Hackman and Oldham (1980 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005), meaning entails a fit between requirements of a work role and beliefs, values and behaviours. According to the researchers, it relates to the individual's intrinsic caring about a given task. Menon (2001) postulates that employees need to internalise the organization's goals, as goals are important for energising.

Spreitzer (1995) believes that the meaning dimension refers to the subjective assessment of the importance of the job. Linden and Sparrowe (2000) posit that of the four-empowerment dimensions, the strongest theoretical argument for a positive relation to work satisfaction has been made for meaning.

The meaning maintenance model established by Heine, Proulx and Vohs (2006) is based on the premise that a vital human condition is a never ending pursuit of meaning. Furthermore, they state that when a person's sense of meaning is endangered, he or she will find different ways of regaining meaning, such as doing voluntary work.

2.3.2 Competence



According to Menon (2001), perceived competence denotes self-efficacy and confidence with regard to role demands. The dimension is labelled as competence rather than self efficacy due to its focus on efficacy specific to the work role (Spreitzer, 1995). Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) maintain that empowered people have a sense of competence; this means that they are confident about their ability to do their work well.

According to Gist (1987 cited in Buitendach & Hlalale, 2005), competency or self efficacy, is an individual's belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) concur and define competence as the degree to which a person can perform task activities skilfully when he or she attempts to. Appelbaum and Honeggar (1998 cited in Buitendach & Hlalale, 2005) define competence as the accomplishment an individual feels in skilfully performing task

activities they have chosen. Buitenbach and Hlalele (2005, p. 156) posit that “the feeling of competence involves the sense that one is doing good quality work on a task.”

Bandura (1989 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005) is of the view that competence is equivalent to agency beliefs, personal mastery, or effort-performance expectancy. Bandura (1991) further posit that empowerment is not something bestowed upon by default but that it is gained through the development of personal efficacy. The researcher further postulates that competence is analogous to self-efficacy, which relates to people’s beliefs about their capability to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives.

Sauer (2003) describes competence as the perceptions of an individual’s skills to enhance decision-making, problem solving, leadership, self-esteem and capabilities to perform activities with skill. Similar to all the authors above, the researcher further deems that competence represents a sense of a person’s ability to perform adequately in new situations. Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) postulate that the personal sense of self-worth and confidence in an individual’s job competence should render higher levels of performance in comparison with less empowered individuals.

2.3.3 Self-Determination

According to Fourie (2009, p. 45), self-determination is ‘the degree to which people endorse their action at the highest level of reflection and engage in the action with a full sense of choice.’

Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989) posit that self-determination is a sense of choice to instigate and to control actions. Furthermore, Buitendach and Hlalele (2005, p. 157) assert that it has to do with “the feeling of choice, that is, the feeling of being free to choose, of being able to use one’s own judgement and act out one’s own understanding of the task.” Spector (1986) and Bell and Staw (1989) postulate that the state of self-determination reflects independence over the initiation and continuation of work behaviour and processes, for example, making decisions about work methods, pace and effort. According to Appelbaum and Honeggar (1998), choice is the opportunity an individual feels to choose task activities that make sense to them in order to perform them in ways that they deem appropriate.

According to Spreitzer (1995), self-determination refers to an individual’s sense of control and autonomy. Similarly, Dansereau (1995 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005) conceptualise that self-determination relates to the notions of personal control. Fourie and van Eeden (2010) concur that autonomy seems to be synonyms with the same dimension that Spreitzer (1995a; 1995b) labels self-determination and identifies as a dimension of psychological empowerment. Sauer (2003) indicates that when self-determination is not present, individuals feel helpless because they are not allowed to take work-related actions that they deem appropriate.

In order to improve self-determination, Brown and Brown (1996) suggest that empowerment be applied to liberate employees by giving them more authority over their actions, and freedom to choose how and where they contribute. According to Spreitzer and Quinn (1997), empowered people have a sense of self-determination

which means they feel free to choose how to do their work and they are not micro managed.

2.3.4 Impact

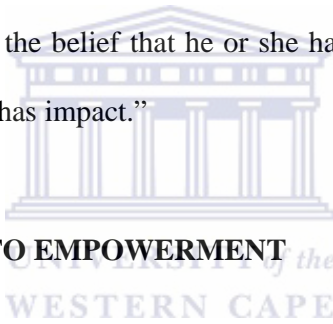
Spreitzer (1996) posits that the impact dimension of empowerment extends to the notion that individuals have some control over their own jobs, that they have some influence over larger organizational matters. Furthermore the researcher states that impact refers to the degree to which behaviour is seen to make a difference in terms of accomplishing the purpose of the task that is producing the intended effects in an individual's task environment.

Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) postulate that impact is the accomplishment that an individual feels in achieving the task purpose. According to Ashforth (1989), impact is the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative and operating outcomes of work. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) and Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) also define impact as the degree to which behaviour is seen as making a difference in terms of accomplishing the purpose of the task. Appelbaum and Honeggar (1998) concur that it is the accomplishment an individual feels in achieving a task purpose. It involves the sense that the task is moving forward and that their activities are accomplishing something.

Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) are of the opinion that empowered individuals have a sense of impact. According to Buitendach and Hlalele (2005), it means that people believe they can have an influence on their work unit and that others are likely to listen to their ideas. Ashforth (1989) postulate that if individuals believe that they can

have an impact on the system they are rooted in, and that they can influence organizational outcomes, then they will be seen as effective. The findings of a study conducted by the researcher found impact to be associated with an absence of withdrawal from difficult situations and high performance.

Conger and Kanungo (1988 cited in Fourie & van Eeden, 2010) posit that control is one of the core constructs from which the empowerment construct is derived. According to Renshon (1979 cited in Fourie & van Eeden, 2010), any individual has a need to have influence over people, events and institutions, that is, a need for personal control. In addition, Fourie and van Eeden (2010, p. 23) proffer that “when a person has developed the belief that he or she have personal control, there is also the belief that he or she has impact.”



2.4 APPROACHES TO EMPOWERMENT

2.4.1 LEADERSHIP APPROACH

According to Menon (2001), the leadership approach “focuses on the leader who energises his or her followers to act with the leader to provide future vision.” Arnold, Arad, Rhoades and Drasgow (2000) and Konzak, Stelly and Trusty (2000) identified the following as leadership behaviours that empower people namely, delegation of authority, accountability for outcomes, self-directed and participative decision-making, information sharing and coaching and the development of people.

Burke (1986, p. 69) posits that leaders empower their followers by providing clarity and direction: “but not just any direction – a direction that encompasses a higher

purpose, a worthy cause, an idea that requires collective and concerted effort.” Burke also suggests stimulating employees through intellectually exciting ideas and encouraging them to take on difficult challenges are regarded as empowerment strategies.

Good leadership is crucial for sustaining continuous improvement of employee empowerment in organizations (Taffinder, 1995; Zairir, 1994). Yukl (1989) posits that leaders energise and therefore empower their followers to act providing an exciting vision for the future. The researcher further states that leaders inspire subordinates to participate in the process of transforming the organization. In addition, Ongori (2009) posit that a good leader needs to be demonstrated at all levels of the organization. Furthermore, “a good leader is in a position to tap into expressed thoughts of others, give verbal expression to their feelings, able to delegate and empower employees which make the vision created be brought into completion” (Ongori 2009, p. 11).

2.4.2 STRUCTURAL APPROACH (SITUATIONAL)

Structural empowerment refers to organizational policies, practices and structures that grant employees greater latitude to make decisions and exert influence regarding their work (Eylon & Bamberger, 2000; Linden & Arad, 1996; Mills & Ungson, 2003).

According to Knol and Van Linge (2009), structural empowerment is viewed as a structural determinant that controls behaviour in an organization; hence individuals

with adequate empowerment are able to fulfil the tasks the organization is asking of them.

In this structural view, the underlying principle is that employees will behave in an empowered way by making the necessary changes to the structural level. Moreso, employees would feel more personal control over how to perform the job, would be more aware of the business and strategic context in which the job is performed and would be more accountable for performance outcomes (Bowen & Lawler, 1995).

The situational approach accentuates the redistribution of authority and delegation of decision making-power down the organisational hierarchy so that the employee has the ability to impact on organisational outcomes, be creative and have more flexibility to take risks (Cloete, Crous & Scheepers, 2002; Greaseley et al., 2005; Menon, 2001). According to Astley and Sachdeva (1984), power in organizations stems from sources such as hierarchical authority, control of resources, and network centrality. Boudrias, Gaudreau and Laschinger (2004) maintain that this approach focuses on the transfer of power and authority. According to Spreitzer (1995 cited in Faulkner & Laschinger, 2008) an individual's perception of the work environment forms feelings of empowerment and structurally empowering circumstances cannot fully be realised unless the employee is psychologically open. Spreitzer (1996) has recognized socio-political support, access to information, a wide span of control, low role ambiguity, and a participative organizational climate as ways to enhance structural empowerment.

Structural empowerment embodies a dilemma for managers as its success is determined by the ability of managers to merge the loss of control with the fundamental need of goal similarity (Mills & Ungson, 2003). The structural perspective has however, been criticised for being unable to address the cognitive state of the empowered individual (Greasley, Bryman, Dainty, Price, Niasmith & Soetanto, 2007).

2.4.3 MOTIVATIONAL APPROACH

The motivational approach was pioneered by Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 474), and the researchers conceptualised empowerment as “a process of enhancing feelings of self efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through the elimination by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information.” According to Menon (2001), the motivational approach illustrates the internal process or cognitions of the employees that are actually empowered, that is, they are in a psychological state of empowerment.

Ongori (2009) posits that the management of any organization should realise that it is through employee empowerment that employees feel highly motivated. Lashley (1999) states that this motivational aspect to empowerment becomes the defining feature of the initiative. The empowered should feel a sense of personal worth, with the ability to achieve outcomes and having the power to make a difference (Johnson, 1993; van Oudtshoorn & Thomas, 1993).

Spreitzer (1995) sees empowerment as a motivational construct which reflects an individual's active orientation to his or her work role and his or her cognitions are shaped by a work environment. In terms of the motivational approach, empowerment is conceptualised as a mindset employees have about their organization rather than something management does to employees (Dee, Duemer & Henkin, 2002).

2.5. FIVE STAGES IN THE PROCESS OF EMPOWERMENT

The five stages (refer to fig. 2) are explained by Conger and Kanungo (1988) as follows:

Stage 1: Certain conditions within the organization are responsible for feelings of powerlessness. These conditions can find their origin in organizational factors, leadership styles, and reward systems, and/or in the nature of the job (job design).

Stage 2: The diagnosis completed in Stage 1 leads to the implementation of empowering strategies and techniques in the second stage. The use of participative management, establishing goal setting programs, implementing merit-based pay systems, and job enrichment through redesign are examples of possible empowering activities.

Stage 3: The strategies and techniques mentioned in stage 2 are aimed at accomplishing two objectives in stage 3 namely, removing some of the external conditions (contextual factors) responsible for powerlessness on the one hand and more importantly, providing employees with self-efficacy information. Self-efficacy describes a belief in one's own effectiveness (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993).

Stage 4: Receiving such information results in feelings of empowerment in the fourth stage. This is because increasing self-efficacy strengthens effort-performance expectancies.

Stage 5: Lastly, the enhanced empowerment feelings from stage 4 are translated into behaviours in the fifth and final stage. These behavioural consequences of empowerment include increased activity directed towards task accomplishment. Thus by helping employees feel more assured of their capability to perform well, and by increasing linkages between effort and performance, empowerment can result in positive individual and organizational pay-offs.



Figure 2.1: The process can be viewed in five stages that include the psychological state of empowering experience, its antecedent conditions, and its behavioural consequences.

STAGE 1		STAGE 2		STAGE 3		STAGE 4		STAGE 5
Conditions leading to a psychological state of powerlessness		The use of managerial strategies and techniques		To provide self-efficacy information to subordinates using four sources		Results in empowering experience of subordinate		Leading to behavioural effects
Organisational factors	Supervision Reward system Nature of job	Participative management	UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE	Enactive attainment		Strengthening of effort – performance expectancy or belief in personal efficacy		Initiation / persistence of behaviour to accomplish task objectives
		Goal setting		Vicarious experience				
		Feedback system		Verbal persuasion				
		Modeling		Emotional arousal				
		Contingent / competence-based reward						
		Job enrichment						
				And				
				Remove conditions listed under Stage 1				

Conger & Kanungo (1988, p. 475)

2.6 DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

2.6.1 PERSONAL FACTORS

Although these variables are not being investigated by the current research it is considered relevant in order to contextualise the literature review.

2.6.1.1 Gender

Gecas (1989 cited in Fourie, 2009) re-examined the literature on the development of self-efficacy and how social structure and group process impact development. From the re-examination it was noted that males have a greater sense of self-efficacy, personal control, and mastery than females.

Boudrias et al. (2004) posit that there are few, if any, differences in the way empowerment is seen across genders. Kim and George (2005) reported that gender is not statistically related with differences in the scores of psychological empowerment.

Pitts (2005) found no difference between men and women with respect to psychological empowerment in his study of leadership and empowerment in public organizations. Itzhaky and York (2000) assessed a group of activists in a low income neighbourhood and found that gender had no main effect on empowerment and its effects only became apparent when it interacted with participation.

Similarly, Finegan and Lashinger (2001) found no significant differences between men and women nurses experience of empowerment. Miller, Goddard and Laschinger (2001) examined empowerment levels of male and female physical therapists and also found no significant differences in their research.

Vardi (2000) examined 120 professionals and managers in Israel and found that men rated themselves significantly higher on overall empowerment than the women. On the contrary, Riger's (1993) findings indicated that women would be more likely, more willing to share information and power, promote values of egalitarianism in the work-oriented relationship and generally empower subordinates than men (Browne, 1995; Riger; 1993).

Two separate South African studies by Kotze and Menon (2005) and Kotze et al. (2005) did not generate support for gender difference, the only difference, between these studies is that they used Menon's Scale (2001), whereas most other studies have made use of Spreitzer's (1995a) model.

2.6.1.2 Race

Previous researches suggest that ethnic group plays a significant role in psychological empowerment (Kotze, Kkashane & Mthembu, 2007). Gecas (1989) noted research that reported White men to have a significantly higher sense of personal control than Black men, whereas other studies found few differences in the self esteem of Blacks and Whites.

Fourie (2009) explains that race is still expected to have an impact on empowerment however, there have been no research findings to support this. Koberg et al. (1999) hypothesised non-White individuals to feel less empowered than Whites. However, their hypothesis was rejected as there was no significant difference between Whites and non-Whites, irrespective of organizational position. Young, Vance and Harris (2007) expected that ethnicity would have been very significant based on identity theories however, it did not surface as a factor of influence in their study.

Kotze et al. (2005) conducted a study to assess the state of integration in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). They utilised a range of established psychological constructs as possible indicators of integration. Psychological empowerment has been acknowledged as a significant indicator of perceived control and influence in the workplace according to Menon's (2001) dimensions of sense of perceived control, perceived competence and goal internalisation. The researcher hypothesised that, for example, Blacks who are fully integrated should not vary from other racial groups in terms of perceived control. Results indicated that Blacks reported lower perceived control and competence compared to Whites. In addition, Asian and Coloureds were not significantly diverse from Whites on these two indicators.

2.6.1.3 Educational Level

Fourie (2009) postulates that different organizations yielded different results when level of education and empowerment were examined. Gecas's (1989 cited in Fourie,

2009) review of researched literature found ‘reference’ to education as an aspect that enhances the sense of mastery and personal control.

Vardi (2000) conducted a study amongst managers and professionals and found that there were no significant differences between people’s perceptions of empowerment in terms of different educational levels. Miller et al. (2001) concur with this statement as the researchers’ study also revealed the same findings.

On the other hand, Hancer and George (2003) posit that employees with high school and lower levels of education indicated significantly higher scores on the meaning dimension. In a study by Piazza (2006) results showed that certification increases nurses’ perception of empowerment.

Buckle (2003) found no statistically significant differences between different qualification levels and psychological empowerment, leader empowering behaviour, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

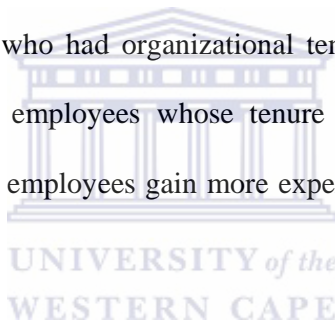
In empirical studies by Ozarelli (2003) it was established that university graduates displayed a greater sense self-empowerment compared to primary and high school graduates in different sectors. Similarly, Spreitzer (1996) conducted a study in a Fortune 50 organization and found that those with education felt more empowered.

Neither Kotze’s et al. (2005) study in the SANDF, nor Koberg et al.’s (1999) research in a community hospital environment or Sarmiento, Laschinger and

Iwasiw's (2004) research amongst college nurse educators, revealed any significant relationships between level of education and empowerment.

2.6.1.4 Tenure

In two separate South African studies by Dwyer (2001) and Hlalele (2003), findings indicated that tenure showed a positive relationship with empowerment. Results of a study by Hancer and George (2003) revealed that employees with more than two years of service indicated significantly higher scores on the competence dimension than employees with less than two years service. In the same vein, Ozaralli (2003) found that employees' who had organizational tenure of seven years or more felt more empowered than employees whose tenure was three years or less. These findings suggest that as employees gain more experience with increased tenure they feel more empowered.



Buckle (2003) observed no significant difference between employees with different years of service with regard to their experience of psychological empowerment. In contrast findings of a South African study conducted by Sauer (2003) in a steel manufacturing environment, it was found that employees with longer years of service see themselves as more empowered than employees with shorter years of service. Similarly, Kim and George (2005) and Miller, Goddard and Laschinger (2001) also reported no difference in empowerment levels of physical therapists with different years of practice.

2.6.1.5 Age

According to Fourie (2009, p. 121) research of different age groups were regularly done based on cross sectional analysis and “a curvilinear pattern has typically been found with efficacy increasing through childhood and early adulthood, reaching a peak in middle age and gradually declining after age sixty.”

Dimitriades and Kifidu (2004) conducted a study using a sample of 154 mature working students and their results yielded a positive relationship between age and empowerment. These results are supported by findings of a study conducted by Spreitzer (1996). These findings however, are contrary to that of Appelbaum and Honnegar’s (1998) study on the link between age and empowerment.

Buckle (2003) reported that older employees view themselves as more empowered than their younger counterparts. The researcher ascribe this to the fact that older employees experience their work to have more personal meaning, with a sense of competence, a sense of self-determination and perceived impact than younger employees do.

In a study by Ozaralli (2003) age was categorized as 20 to 30, 30 to 40 and above 40, and when a one way analysis of variance was conducted, a significant difference was found between the age groups 20 to 30 and above 40. Ozaralli concluded that as employees’ age they feel more empowered.

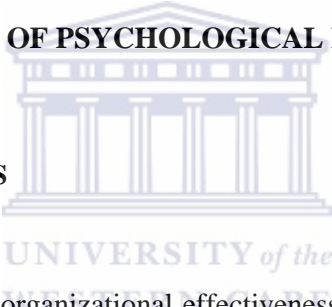
Faulkner and Laschinger (2008) conducted a study to determine the effects of structural and psychological empowerment on perceived respect in acute care nurses. They found no significant relationships between age, gender, level of education, work status, type of hospital or nursing experience.

2.6.1.6 Marital Status

There appears to be a paucity of information with regards to psychological empowerment and marital status.

2.7 CONSEQUENCES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

2.7.1 EFFECTIVENESS



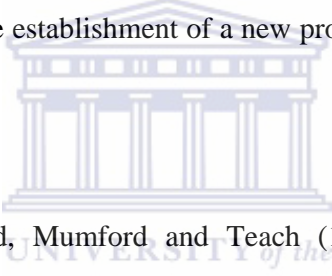
Robbins (2001) defines organizational effectiveness as an organization achieving its goals. According to Flohr and Host (2000), employee empowerment leads to increased organizational effectiveness and employee well-being. In the same vein, several articles and books (for example, Byham & Cox, 1990) confirm that the power of empowerment increases organizational effectiveness and well-being. Flohr and Host (2000) state that empowering employees have proven to improve efficiency and reduce cost on an assembly line in a transmission plant. Furthermore, empowering employees leads to job satisfaction, job involvement, loyalty, performance and faster service delivery to customers.

In management literature, there is increasing acknowledgment that employee empowerment is vital for organizational effectiveness (Bowen & Lawler, 1992;

Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) posit that employees view themselves as more effective in their work and are evaluated as more effective by their co-workers.

2.7.2 INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Many organizational development professionals link empowerment to increased creativity (Carson & King, 2005). According to Spreitzer (1995), innovative behaviour replicates the creation of something new or different. Woodman, Sawyer and Griffin (1993) posit that innovative behaviours are by definition change-oriented because they involve the establishment of a new product, service, idea, procedure, or process.



According to Redmond, Mumford and Teach (1993), intrinsic task motivation contributes to innovative behaviour. Similarly, Janssen, Schoonbeek and Looy (1997 cited in Knol & van Linge, 2009, p. 361) view innovative behaviour as a “motivational and cognitive process of the individual employee or a group of employees, expressed in certain activities.” In addition, Amabile (1988) postulate that because empowered people believe they are autonomous and have an impact, they are likely to be creative; they feel less constrained than others by technical or rule-bound aspects of work.

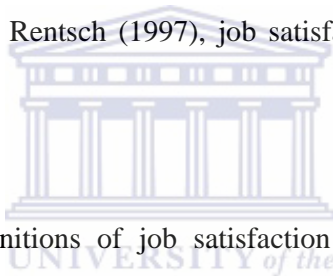
According to Knol and van Linge (2009), previous studies have reported that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between structural empowerment and innovative behaviour. Fourie (2009) posits that innovation and

creativity are encouraged when the vision of top management is taken into account, and where middle management creates and implements tangible concepts in order to close the gap between the vision and the current reality.

2.8 JOB SATISFACTION

2.8.1 CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Schleicher, Watt and Greguras (2004) maintain that there have been several debates over the extent to which job satisfaction represents a stable orientation or disposition. According to Steel and Rentsch (1997), job satisfaction can also be defined as an attitude



There are various definitions of job satisfaction as it is one of the most well researched dimensions of work attitudes within the workplace, and it has its importance in that it has the potential to impact and affect a wide range of behaviours within the workplace (George & Jones, 2002).

Generally authors define job satisfaction in terms of feelings, attitudes and beliefs. Johns (1992) concurs with this by stating that job satisfaction is a collection of attitudes that workers have about their jobs. According to Landy and Conte (2007), job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job.

Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) also view job satisfaction as a subjective measure of the workers attitudes - meaning an individual's general attitude towards his or her job. According to Robbins et al. (2003), individuals who have high job

satisfaction will exhibit positive attitudes toward their jobs whilst at the same time as individuals with low satisfaction will display negative attitudes toward their jobs.

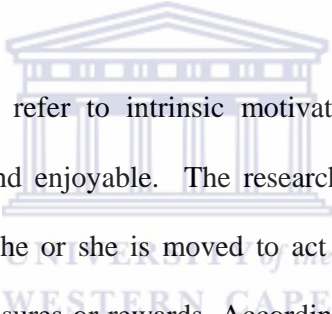
According to Spector (n.d. cited in Udechukwu, 2009, p. 73), “job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and the different aspects of their jobs.” Udechukwu (2009) posit that it is the extent to which individuals like (are satisfied with) or dislike (are dissatisfied) with their jobs. Locke (1983 cited in Moyes & Tedd, 2008, p. 21) defines job satisfaction as “a pleasurable state, resulting from the appraisal of one’s job experiences” and this Oshagbemi (1999) posits it to be a positive emotional response to one’s job. Similarly, Salami (2001) views job satisfaction as a personal feeling of contentment which an employee has and exhibits towards his or her work situation.

Chelladurai (1999) views job satisfaction as a pleasurable affective condition resulting from one’s appraisal of the way in which the experienced job situation meets an individual’s needs, values, and expectations. Balzer, Smith, Kravitz Lovell, Paul, Reilly and Reilly (1990) add that job satisfaction may be described as the feelings an employee have regarding his or her job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current experiences or available alternatives.

2.8.2 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

2.8.2.2 INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

In humans, intrinsic motivation is not the only kind of motivation, or even a volitional activity, however, it is an all-encompassing and important one (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The researchers mention that “from birth onward, humans in their healthiest states, are active, inquisitive, curious and playful creatures, displaying a readiness to learn and explore and they do not require extraneous incentives to do so” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 56).



Ryan and Deci (2000) refer to intrinsic motivation as doing something that is inherently interesting and enjoyable. The researchers posit that when a person is intrinsically motivated, he or she is moved to act for fun or challenge rather than because of external pressures or rewards. According to Locke (1976 cited in Castro & Martins, 2010), intrinsic rewards are self-regulated and a direct consequence of an employee’s performance. Bhuian, Al-Shammari and Jefri (1996 cited in Udechukwu, 2009) posit that intrinsic satisfaction, particularly job satisfaction displays the experience of an employee having feelings of accomplishment and self-actualisation from performing a task.

Odendaal and Roodt (2003 cited in Castro & Martins, 2010) indicate the following intrinsic factors to be linked to job satisfaction namely; career advancement, recognition, responsibility and achievement. Lawrence and Bentler (n.d.) state that individuals who consider their jobs professionally rewarding and feel that their work

is appreciated by the organization. Cardona and colleagues further posit that rewarding jobs helps the individual learn, satisfies their curiosity or develops them intellectually and emotionally.

2.8.2.3 EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it leads to an independent outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002, p. 23), job satisfaction involves employees' affective and emotional feelings and this have major consequences on their lives.”

Various researches indicate that the use of extrinsic incentives increases the extrinsic motivation of workers at the expense of their intrinsic motivation (Deckop, 1995; Deci, Connell & Ryan, 1989; Frey, 1997; Kunda & Schwartz, 1983; Ryan, Mims & Koestner, 1983). According to Martin (2007), extrinsic satisfaction is experienced from the rewards received by individuals from peers, supervisors or the organization, and could be in the form or recognition, compensation or advancement.

According to Fourie (2009, p. 78), “extrinsic motivation entails that management does something to employees so they will contribute to in the ways the organization expects them to.” Bhuian, Al-Shammarii and Jefri (1996 cited in Udechukwu, 2009) posit that extrinsic satisfaction, particularly job satisfaction, mirrors the experience of an employee feeling positively towards rewards, such as any form of compensation and job security, provided for him or her by the organization for performing work. Udechukwu (2009) posits that job security, increases and salaries are usually

characterised as extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. Additionally, Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967 cited in Martin, 2007) acknowledged certain extrinsic factors namely, supervision, compensation and company policies and practices to be extrinsic factors.

2.8.3 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

Job satisfaction as a construct has been categorized into either content theories or process theories (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weik, 2003).

2.8.3.1 CONTENT THEORIES

Content theories according to Locke (1976 cited in Udechukwu, 2009) attempt to identify the exact needs that must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with his or her job. Once managers understand that employees are motivated by diverse needs, they will be in a position to satisfy these needs in order to achieve organizational goals (Pinnington & Edwards, 2000).

There are numerous content theories but only a few are highlighted to contextualise for the study.

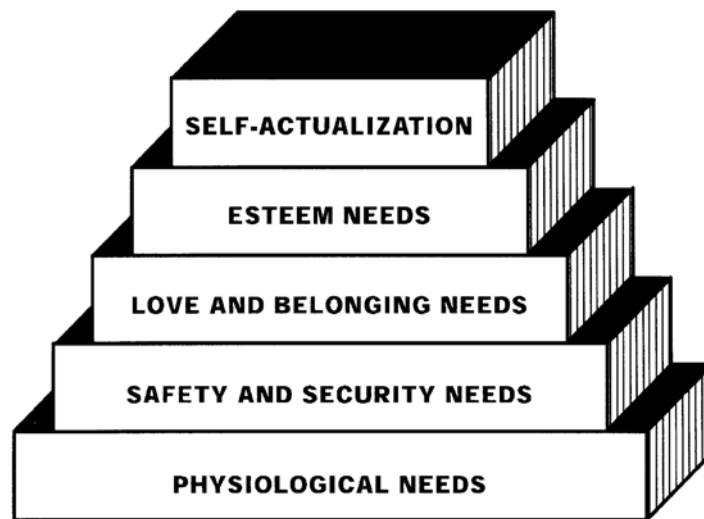
2.8.3.1.1 MASLOW'S HIERACHY OF NEEDS

Maslow (1943) maintains that man has five basic categories of needs which are ranked and satisfied in order of importance, namely:

- **Physiological Needs** includes the need for air, water, rest, food and sex (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002).
- **Safety and Security** include the need for safety, order and freedom from fear or threat (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002).
- **Love and Belonging (social needs)** include the need for love, affection, feelings of belonging and human contact (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002).
- **Esteem** includes the need for self-respect, self-esteem, achievement and respect for others (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002).
- **Self actualization** includes the need to grow, to feel fulfilled and to realize one's potential (Oleson, 2004; Stoner & Freeman, 1987).



Fig 2.2: schematic representation of Maslow's hierarchy of human needs.



Source: (Oleson, 2004)

Robbins (2001) posits that as every need becomes significantly satisfied, the next need becomes central. Furthermore, the researcher states that the individual moves up the steps (refer to fig 2.1) of the hierarchy. Maslow (1943 cited in Udechukwu, 2009) separated the five needs in higher order and lower order needs. Robbins (2001, p. 157) delineates “physiological and safety needs were described as lower order needs (satisfied internally for example, from within the person) and social, esteem and self-actualization needs as higher order needs (satisfied externally for example, by pay, unions contracts and tenure).”

Numerous scholars like Maslow (1943 cited in Al Jenaibi, 2010, p. 62) concur that “the feeling of satisfaction in a job positively influences the achievement of employees, while dissatisfaction can negatively influence their performance.”



2.8.3.1.2 HERZBERG’S MOTIVATION THEORY

Herzberg’s motivation theory is the work of Frederick Irving Herzberg [1923-2000] who was an American psychologist most famous for introducing job enrichment and the Motivator-Hygiene theory (Warrilow, 2010). According to Warrilow (2010), this theory was based on interviews with 203 American accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, selected due to their profession’s growing significance in the business world. The subjects were asked to speak about times when they felt exceptionally good or bad about their present job or any previous job, and to provide reasons and a description of the sequence of events giving rise to that positive or negative feeling.

According to Herzberg’s Motivation theory, people are influenced by two sets of factors namely, hygiene factors and motivators. Herzberg called the factors that led

to satisfaction hygiene or maintenance factors and these satisfiers employees' lower order needs (Gerber et al., 1996). Al Jenaibi (2010) posits that the motivation-hygiene theory indicates that improvement in hygiene factors will stop people from being dissatisfied however, it does not contribute to job satisfaction. The researcher states that hygiene factors are the causes of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1993) posit that the absence of hygiene factors from the work environment will result in job dissatisfaction. Motivational factors on the other hand, comprises of achievement, responsibility, achievement, responsibility and the work itself (Wang, 2006). According to Herzberg et al. (1993), the realization of motivator needs can promote employees' job satisfaction.



In the table below Adair (1996 cited in Tyilana, 2005) have summarized the hygiene and motivation factors that create job satisfaction.

Fig 2.1 Factors that create job satisfaction

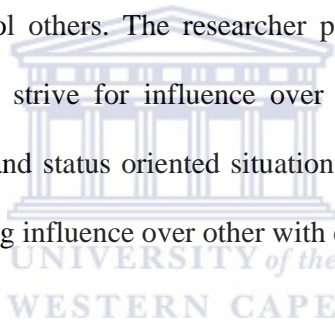
Hygiene Factors	
Company policy and administration	Availability of clearly defined policies, especially those relating to people, adequacy of organization and management.
Supervision – technical	Accessibility, competence and fairness of one’ superior.
Interpersonal relations	The relations with supervisors, subordinates and colleagues, the quality of social life at work.
Status	A person’s position or rank in relation to others, symbolised by title, parking space, car size of office, furnishings.
Salary	The total compensation package, such as wages, salary, pension, company car and other financially related benefits.
Job security	Freedom from insecurity, such as loss of position or loss of employment altogether.
Personal life	The effect of a person’s work on family life, for example stress, unsocial hours or moving house.
Working conditions	The physical conditions in which one work, the amount of work, facilities available, ventilation, tools, space, noise and other environmental aspects.
Motivators	
Achievement	Specific successes, such as the successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication and seeing the results of one’s work.
Recognition	Any act of recognition, be it notice or praise. A distinction can be made between situations where concrete rewards are given along with acts of recognition and those in which they are not.
Work Itself	The actual doing of the job, or phases of it.
Responsibility	Being given real responsibility, matched with the necessary authority to discharge it properly.
Growth or the possibility of growth	Changes in the job situation where the possibilities for professional growth increase. Besides new vistas opened up by promotion, they include increased opportunities in the existing situation for learning and practising new skills.
Advancement	Actual changes which enhance position or status at work.

Source: Tyilana, (2005)

2.8.3.1.3 MCCLELLAND'S THREE NEEDS THEORY

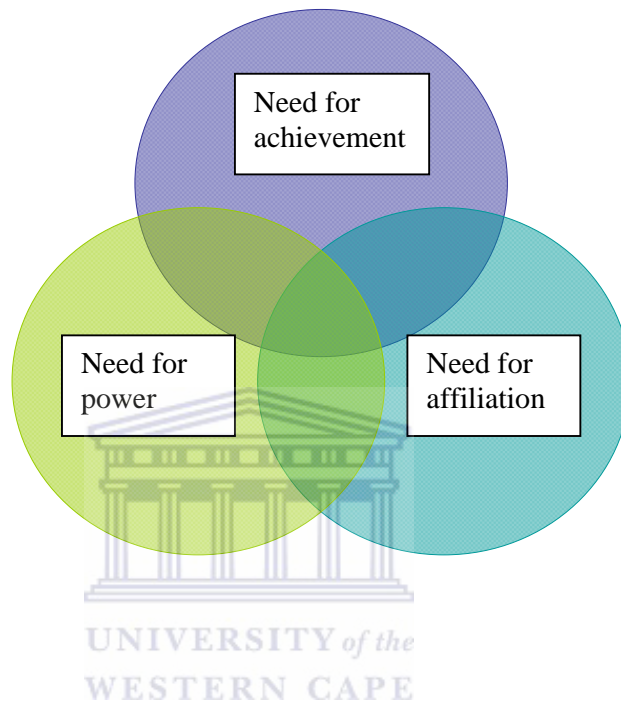
According to Luthans (1985) and Nelson et al. (2005), McClelland's theory is categorized into the need for achievement, affiliation and power as obvious needs. Beach (1980 cited in Roos, 2005) postulate that even though not highly significant, McClelland's theory for motivation was instrumental in focusing attention on the unusual needs of employees with a strong need to achieve.

Robbins (2001) states that the need for power (nPow) is the longing to impact, to be dominant and to control others. The researcher posits that "people high in nPow enjoy being in charge, strive for influence over others, prefer to be placed into competitive positions, and status oriented situations and tend to be more concerned with prestige and gaining influence over other with effective performance" (p. 162).



According to Greenberg (1999) the need for achievement, is an individual's desire to attain goals that are challenging, yet within reach, with the hope of feedback on achievement. Robbins (2001) defines the need for achievement (nAch) as the desire to perform a task better than it has ever been done previously. The researcher posits that individual's high on nAch is searching for situations where they can accomplish personal responsibility for resolving problems. Lastly, Stuart-Kotze (n.d. cited in Luddy, 2005) describes the need for affiliation as the desire to be liked and accepted by others. In addition, Robbins (2001) states that a person high on affiliation motive desires friendship, prefer co-operative situations instead of competitive ones, and strive for relationships with a high extent of mutual understanding.

Fig 2.3 Three Needs Theory

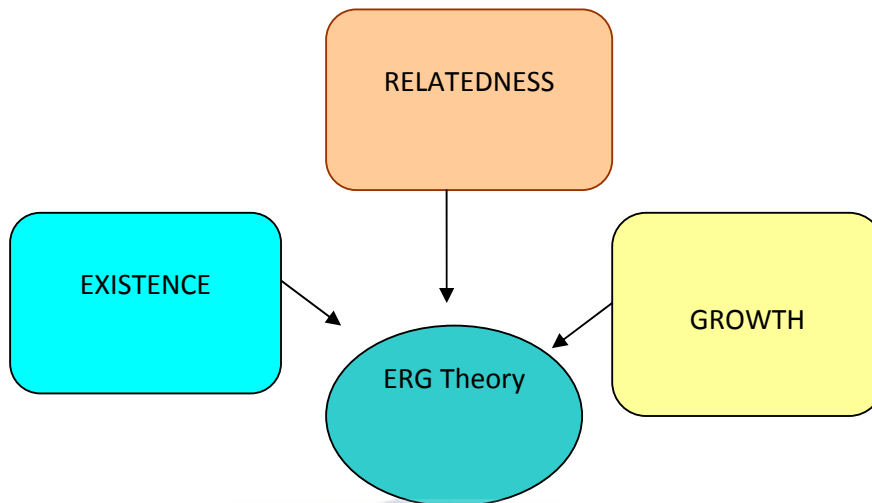


Source: Warrilow (2010)

2.8.3.1.4 ALDEFER'S ERG THEORY

The theory was proposed by Alderfer in 1969. The theory was a response and reaction to Maslow's famous "Hierarchy of Needs theory" and reduces Maslow's 5 needs to just three (3) categories namely, Existence, Relatedness and Growth) each of which is defined below by (Warrilow, 2010).

Fig 2.4 A schematic presentation of the ERG theory



Source: Warrilow (2010)

- **Existence** shows a relationship to Maslow's first two levels. This cluster of needs is concerned with providing the basic requirements for material existence, such as physiological and safety needs. Within a work framework this need is satisfied with money earned in a job for the purchase of food, shelter, clothing, etcetera.
- **Relatedness** relates to Maslow's third and fourth levels. This group of needs focuses on the desire to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships with family, friends, co-workers and employers.
- **Growth needs** draws a parallel with Maslow's fourth and fifth needs. These needs are about the fulfilment of desires to be creative, productive and to complete meaningful tasks in order to build and enhance a person's self esteem through personal achievement.

Contrary to Maslow's theory that access to higher levels of his pyramid required satisfaction of lower level needs, Alderfer (1972) maintains that the three ERG areas are not stepped. The ERG theory states that an employee's behaviour is motivated simultaneously by more than one need level (Warrilow, 2010).

2.8.4 PROCESS THEORIES

Udechukwu (2009, p. 74) postulate that "process theories tend to identify the specific needs or values most conducive to job satisfaction." Eccles (2003, cited in Udechukwu, 2009 p. 74) state that process theorists "focus on how individuals' expectations and preferences for outcomes associated with their performance, actually influence performance." The process theories which will be addressed are the Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), Equity theory (Adams, 1963) and Goal Setting theory (Locke, 1968).

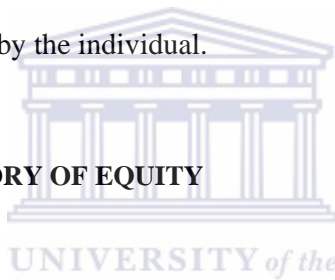
2.8.4.1 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY

According to Nelson and Quick (2006), the Expectancy theory focuses on personal perceptions of the performance process. The researchers state that the theory is based on the basic concept that people desire certain outcomes of behaviour and performance which may be thought of as rewards or consequences of behaviour, and that they believe there are associations between the efforts they put forth, the performance they achieve, and the outcomes they receive.

The key constructs in the Expectancy theory as described by Nelson and Quick (2006) are: **Valence** which is the value or importance an individual on a specific reward; **Expectancy** which is the belief that the effort leads to performance and **Instrumentality** which is the belief that performance is related to rewards.

Arnolds and Boshoff (2002, p. 700) state that “an employee’s job performance is determined by the extent to which first-level outcomes (higher levels of performance) lead to second level outcomes (need satisfaction such as praise, friendship, wages, etcetera.)” Steers and Black (1994) posit that performance will however, be determined by the degree to which these second-level outcomes (need satisfaction) are valued by the individual.

2.8.4.2 ADAM’S THEORY OF EQUITY

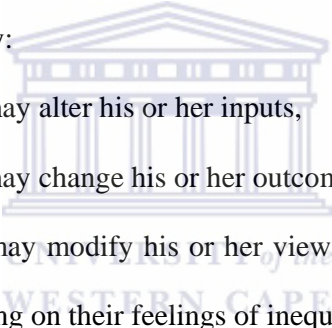


The Equity theory was first introduced by Adams in 1965 (Roos, 2005). Its basic ideology was that people are motivated to achieve a condition of equity in their dealings with other people and with the organization they work for (Roos, 1965). Cosier and Dalton (1983) posit that the key to the equity theory is the ratio of inputs to outputs. The researchers postulate that inputs include all factors (education, effort, experience, etcetera) and outcomes which include all factors perceived to be returns on the individual’s job investment.

According to Robbins (1993), individuals consider a state of equity to exist when their job inputs in relation to their job outputs are equivalent to that of related others. This is perceived as a state of fairness. Moorhead and Griffin (1998) postulate that Adam’s theory suggests people working in organizations form ideas of the fairness

or otherwise of their treatment in a four step process. Employees firstly gauge how they perceive themselves to be treated by the organization. Secondly, they shape a view of how another or others with whom they measure themselves are being treated by the organization. Thirdly, they compare their exact circumstances with a referent that might be a particular individual or some persons, or a generalized group which leads to specific perceptions of equity or inequity. Ultimately, feelings of inequity or equity may lead (depending on their type or intensity) to specific behavioural outcomes.

Moorhead and Griffin (1998) mention six general methods used by individuals to express inequity, namely:

- 
- The individual may alter his or her inputs,
 - The individual may change his or her outcomes,
 - The individual may modify his or her views of their personal circumstances that have a bearing on their feelings of inequity,
 - The individual may adjust his or her views of the referents inputs or outcomes,
 - The individual may change his or her perceptions of a suitable referent and
 - The individual may separate entirely from the situation generating feelings of inequity.

2.8.4.3 GOAL SETTING THEORY

Heery and Noon (2001) posit that the Goal Setting theory stems from the concept that the performance of employees can be changed by influencing their goals and targets.

Locke and Latham (2002, p. 708) note four moderators to the success for achieving goals:

- Importance – “the importance of expected outcomes and of goal attainment,
- Feedback – “keep track of performance to allow employees to see how effective they have been in attaining goals”,
- Self-efficacy or Employee Motivation – “the more employees are motivated the more stimulated and interested in accepting goals” and
- Task complexity – “more difficult goals require cognitive strategies and well developed skills.”

Shalley (1995) and Locke and Latham (2002) have refined four mechanisms through which goals can affect individual performance:

- Goals focus attention towards goal-relevant activities and away from goal-irrelevant activities;
- Goals serve as an energizer; higher goals will induce greater effort while lower goals induce lesser effort;
- Goals affect persistence; constraints with regard to resources will affect work pace and
- Goals activate cognitive knowledge and strategies which allows employees to cope with the situation at hand.

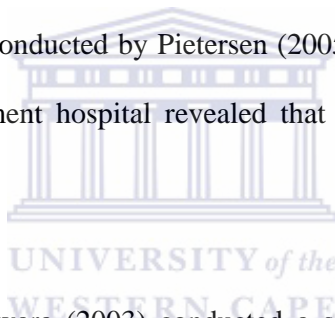
2.9 DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.9.1 ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS

Organizational factors impacting on job satisfaction include pay, promotion, the work itself, co-workers and working conditions. These dimensions will now be discussed in detail.

2.9.1.1 Pay

The results of a study conducted by Pietersen (2005) amongst 109 nursing staff in a South African government hospital revealed that nurses were unhappy with their remuneration.



Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) conducted a study amongst sport coaches and found low satisfaction with pay however, this is said to be a universal problem and is not unique to sport coaches. According to Dibble (1999) and Vigoda-Gadot (2003), pay is often described as a motivator of performance and a determinant of job satisfaction. Salary is a key determinant of satisfaction as it serves as a symbol of achievement and a source of recognition (Merriman, 2004). Although money is important to individuals, numerous researchers have found also that individuals who make more money are not however, necessarily more satisfied in their jobs (Spector, 2008). Nonetheless, Individuals have several needs and money provides the means to satisfy these needs (Arnold & Feldman, 1996). Luthans (1998) elaborates that

salaries not only assist people to attain their basic needs, but are also instrumental in satisfying the higher level needs of people.

Several researchers maintain that the key in relating pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but rather the perception of fairness (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989; Robbins, 1998). Job satisfaction however, does not result from just offering more incentives to employees (Singh & Surujlal, 2006). Research on job satisfaction conducted since the 1970's have revealed that job satisfaction is not a static state, but is subject to influence and modification from forces within and outside the individual (Lam, 1994).

2.9.1.2 The work itself



According to Arnold and Feldman (1996), the work itself will play an important role in determining how satisfied a worker is with his or her job. Okpara (2004) postulates that work is a significant part of people's lives and most people spend a large part of their working lives at work, therefore understanding the factors involved in job satisfaction is crucial to improving employees' performance and productivity.

The best predictor of overall job satisfaction is satisfaction with the nature of the work itself which includes job challenge, autonomy, variety and scope as well as other important factors like employee retention (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Parisi & Weiner, 1999; Weiner, 2000). Thus, Saari and Judge (2004, p. 398) posits that "to understand what causes people to be satisfied with their jobs, the nature of work is the first place to look."

Strydom and Meyer (2002) established that the content of the work itself has direct impact on job satisfaction because the more exciting the tasks an employee have to perform, the higher his or her level of job satisfaction is likely to be.

According to Brimeyer, Perruci and MacDermid (2010), workplaces that present flexibility and autonomy (for example, pleasant work experiences) are likely to have employees who identify with the organization and are willing to put forth extra and comply with managerial rules. By employees requesting autonomy they are not trying to take control from management, but to have control over the work they perform, concurrently satisfying organizational and personal needs (Brimeyer et al., 2010).



Okpara (2004) examined 340 bank managers and found that female managers were more satisfied with the work they do. The researcher suggests this may be that their jobs were sufficiently challenging or provided them with a sense of accomplishment, as well as that they liked their chosen career. According to Henne and Locke (1985), most people seek the following values in their jobs namely, jobs that are interesting and significant success or a sense of accomplishment or progress, growth, responsibility, autonomy, role clarity, role congruence, feedback concerning performance and freedom from physical strain and drudgery.

Furthermore, results from numerous studies have indicated that employees are more likely to experience job satisfaction when they are able to use their skills and knowledge on the job, perform enriched and varied tasks, experience positive

employee-management relations and when the organization adopts a participative approach to decision-making, recognises and rewards employee talents, and instils the values and principles with which employees can identify with (Bailey, 1999; Berg, 1999; Levin & Stokes, 1989; Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003).

2.9.1.3 Promotion

George (2000) posits promotion as a facet of job satisfaction that refers to the accessibility of opportunities for career advancement. According to Kosteas (2006), promotions are also an important phase of a worker's career and life, affecting other aspects of the work experience. Furthermore, they constitute an important part of workers' labour mobility, most often carrying substantial wage increases (Blau & DeVaro, 2007; Cobb-Clark 2001; Francesconi, 2001; Hersch & Viscusi, 1996; Kostea, 2009; Pergamit & Veum, 1999).

Popoola (n.d.) purports that when an employee receives promotions as at when due, he or she may have higher organizational commitment as well as job satisfaction and shelve the idea of quitting. Pergamit and Veum (1999) found a positive correlation between promotions and job satisfaction. A study conducted by De Souza (2002) found that managers who received a promotion are more satisfied with promotion opportunities and have greater promotions expectations for the future.

Newly promoted employees normally experience job satisfaction because their jobs are new and pose some challenges (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002). Career progression is not essentially associated with hierarchical advancement in the organization

however, it includes opportunities for lateral movement and growth (Cockburn & Haydn, 2002; Robbins et al., 2003). Henne and Locke (1985) argue that employees want fairness, clarity (as to how the promotion system works) and availability (if they want a promotion). Locke (1983 cited in Moyes & Redd, 2008) proffers that promotions have a positive effect on job satisfaction when the promotion is seen as fair and equitable by employees. Furthermore, Luthans (2002) state that a positive environment and opportunities to grow intellectually, for many have become more vital than promotional opportunities.

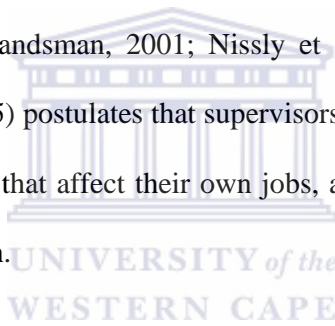
George and Jones (2000) posit that a lack of promotion opportunities on the other hand, leads to negative feelings of satisfaction as frustrated ambition can give rise to particularly strong feelings of low job satisfaction. Chiu (1998) found that female lawyers had significantly lower job satisfaction than male lawyers, and that the reason for the difference was that women, if they had fewer opportunities for promotion than men.

2.9.1.4 Supervision

Supervision refers to the supervisor's capability to demonstrate interest in and concern about employees (Lockburn & Terry, 2004). Robbins et al. (2003) concur and point out that supervision forms a critical function relating to job satisfaction in terms of the ability of the supervisor to provide emotional and technical support and guidance with work-related tasks.

In a study by Okpara (2004) findings indicated that female managers were more satisfied with their supervisors. This may point toward them seeing their supervisors as tactful, up-to-date, intelligent, good planners, and knowing their job well. Henne and Locke (1985) posit that employees like supervisors who are considerate, honest, fair and competent, who recognize and reward good performance, and who allow some participation in decision-making.

Alexander (2000) postulate that job satisfaction is further enhanced when supervisors are perceived as fair, helpful, competent and effective. High quality and supportive supervision also have the potential to positively impact organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Landsman, 2001; Nissly et al., 2005). In addition, Chieffo (1991 cited in Bull 2005) postulates that supervisors who permit their subordinates to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs, as a result stimulate higher levels of employee satisfaction.



Packard and Kauppi (1999 cited in Charles, 2008) found that employees had higher levels of job satisfaction with supervisors who exhibited a democratic management style compared to those who had supervisors who displayed an autocratic management style.

2.9.1.5 Co-workers

According to Robbins et al. (2003, p. 85), “friendly and supportive co-workers lead to increased job satisfaction.” Employees are happier and co-operative when the

whole workforce takes pleasure in the quality of their work and when communication is based on mutual trust (Managing job satisfaction, 2000).

According to Marks (1994) and Wharton and Baron (1991), relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Some studies have shown that the better the relationship, the greater the level of job satisfaction (Devaney & Chen, 2003). George and Jones (2002) cited that co-workers can have a strong influence on job satisfaction levels of new employees in an organization. The researchers purport that newcomers who are surrounded by dissatisfied co-workers with longer tenure are likely to be dissatisfied themselves than those in the same position working with satisfied co-workers.

Okpara (2004) examined 340 bank managers and found in their study that women managers were more satisfied with their co-workers. The researcher ascribed this as the being that they perceived their co-workers to be stimulating, helpful, responsible, intelligent and loyal.

On the hand, Dubinsky (2004) report that interpersonal conflict, lack of team work, unfriendliness between co-workers and competition between managers and supervisors are reported to have negative impact on job satisfaction.

2.9.1.6 Working Conditions

Previous studies have found working conditions to be influential to job satisfaction and happiness with the job (Pines & Kaftry, 1978; Loscocco & Spreitzer, 1990).

O'Donnell and Kirkner (2009) found working conditions to be any of the following: caseload, policies, paperwork, physical environment, adequate times with clients, vacation and time flexibility. Working conditions is an aspect that has a moderate impact on the employee's job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). Vorster (1992 cited in Bull, 2005) holds that working conditions are expected to have a significant effect on job satisfaction when, for example, the working conditions are extremely good or extremely poor. Luthans (1998) puts forth that if people work in a clean friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work. People who perform their duties in an enjoyable environment generally experience moderate job satisfaction compared to people who work in dirty, noisy places and who are dissatisfied (Gerber et al., 2001; Luthans, 2002).

Henne and Locke (1985) state that most people favour convenient location and hours safe and attractive physical surroundings and equipment and resources that facilitate work accomplishment. George and Jones (2002) posit that employees' surrounding and environments, for example, noise levels, temperature and crowdedness, and the manner in which the organization treats the worker, has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

2.10 PERSONAL FACTORS

2.10.1 Race

Roos (2005) found that large scale unemployment among non White groups might be moderating the relationship between race and job satisfaction. According to the

researcher, many non-White employees have low-level jobs that seldom offer much opportunity for fulfilment. According to Devaney and Chen (2003), non Hispanic White workers are more satisfied than minority workers.

According to the International Survey Research, Switzerland has the highest level of job satisfaction, with Japan having the most disgruntled employees (Kreitner, Kinicki & Buelens, 1999). A meta-analysis of 21 studies showed no racial differences (Brush et al., 1987) whereas a 1991 study found that Asian and Black people reported lower overall job satisfaction than the absent category of White people (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990; Tuch & Martin, 1991).

Schulze (2005) states that White female and Black male counterparts are three times more likely than their Black female peers to express high general satisfaction with their work. For Blacks specifically, some studies have found slightly lower job satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Tuch & Martin, 1991). In a South African study by Linda (1995) higher job satisfaction were found among Black male than among female academics.

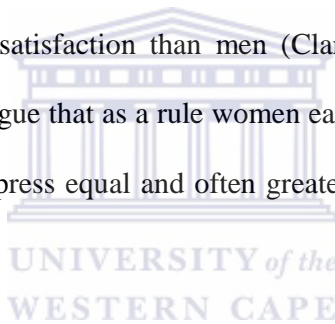
2.10.2 Gender

Okpara (2004, p. 69) postulates that “gender differences in job satisfaction have been extensively researched and no conclusive evidence have been found with regard to the levels of satisfaction among men and women.” Nevertheless, results from several studies have indicated that there is a relationship between gender and job satisfaction (Bilgic, 1998; Goh, Koh & Low 1991; Lumpkin & Tudor, 1990; Oshagbemi 2000b).

On the contrary, other studies found that gender did not feature significantly in terms of the overall job satisfaction score (Brush et al., 1987; Cano & Miller, 1992; Witt & Nye, 1992).

In a study conducted by Hemmasi, Graf and Lust (1992) it was found that males were marginally more satisfied with their work than their female counterparts. Males tended to have higher satisfaction with pay, while females tended to have higher satisfaction with co-workers than males (Tang & Talpade, 1999).

Previous satisfaction studies have highlighted that women tend to express higher levels of job and pay satisfaction than men (Clark, 1997; Crosby, 1982; Young, 1999). Young (1999) argue that as a rule women earn less than men, even if research has shown that they express equal and often greater satisfaction with their pay than men.



Clark (1997) notes that women's jobs are often significantly worse than men's in terms of job security and content, promotion opportunities and sexual harassment and yet women still generally report higher levels of satisfaction than men.

Similarly, research into stress for academic and related staff found that women working in higher education had higher levels of satisfaction than men (Kinman, 1998). More so, satisfaction increased with rank for both men and women, but particularly so for women (Oshagbemi, 2000a).

According to Souza-Pouza (2003), women's satisfaction has decreased considerably in the past decade, on the other hand men's satisfaction has remained moderately consistent. Smith (2009) found a contradictory relation exists between women's pay and job satisfaction.

2.10.3 Educational level

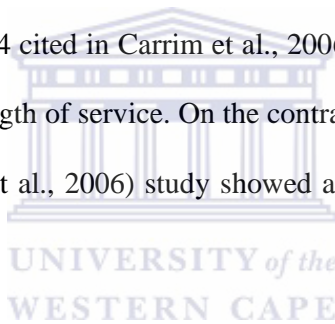
Many researchers have found positive relationships between educational levels and job satisfaction (Rogers, 1991). Previous researchers suggest that higher levels of education are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction (Clark, 1997; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Nguyen et al., 2000 and states that aspirations tend to increase with the level of education. In addition, Nguyen et al. (2003) state that individuals with a higher level of education accordingly tend to be less satisfied with their job because they have higher expectations than those with lower levels of education.

In a study conducted by Belt (2002) it was found that call centre agents who have qualifications tend to move on to jobs with better prospects. The researcher furthermore posits that young, middle class, well educated and single people from both gender groups, especially university graduates, tend to move out of call centres quickly. This group have higher expectations in terms of the jobs that they would like to get and their career, however they tend to experience no more dissatisfaction in call centres than people without degrees.

2.10.4 Tenure

There have been mixed findings between tenure and job satisfaction. Some researchers have found tenure and job satisfaction to be negatively related (Bilgic, 1998; Traut, Larsen, & Feimer, 2000), whereas others documented no relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. (Bedeian et al., 1992; Decker & Borgen, 1993; Harris, Moritzen, Robitschek, Witt & Kiewitz, 2001).

Carrim, Basson and Coetzee (2006) sampled 187 call centre agents and found that the extrinsic job satisfaction of participants was influenced by their length of service. Hulin and Smith's (1964 cited in Carrim et al., 2006) findings showed an increase in job satisfaction with length of service. On the contrary, the results of Hunt and Saul's (1975 cited in Carrim et al., 2006) study showed a decrease in job satisfaction with increased tenure.



Oshagbemi's (2000) study revealed that individuals who remained at one organization for a long time experienced more job satisfaction than those who hopped. Okpara (2004) states that the number of years spent in an organization is an age-related variable that has a relationship to job satisfaction. Similarly, Bedeian, Ferris and Kacmar (1992) also found that tenure was a slightly superior predictor of job satisfaction than age.

Sutherland and Kinnear's (2000 cited in Bull, 2005) research did not find support for the relationship between organizational commitment and tenure. This is corroborated by Cramer (1993) who argues that longer tenure is not associated with organizational

commitment when age, rather than age at which the employee joins the organization, is controlled.

2.10.5 Age

Clark (1996) and Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) reported a statistically significant U-shaped pattern in age for several job satisfaction measures. Clark et al. (1996) present an explanation for the U shape of job satisfaction with respect to age. They propose that young workers may feel more satisfied because they have little experience about the labour market against which to judge their own work. They further delineated that as the young workers learn about the labour market, with some years of experience they are able to better judge the conditions of work with this experience, with the result satisfaction drops in the middle ages.

Trimble (2006) posits on the other hand, that the relationship between age and job satisfaction proved to be vague. Some researchers have also found the two to be uncorrelated (Bedeian et al., 1992; Bilgic, 1998; Decker & Borgen, 1993).

On the contrary, Hunt and Saul (1975 cited in Carrim et al 2006), job satisfaction is found to be high when people start their first jobs but decreases until people reach late twenties or early thirties, when it begins to increase. The work of White and Spector (1987) suggest that the effect of age on job satisfaction is indirect, acting through other variables. This means that among other things, older workers are more satisfied not just because they get more of what they want out of work (for example, enhanced feelings of control, higher salary, higher level) but also as a result of their

longer tenure. Okpara (2004) conducted a studied with a sample of IT managers and found a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. Similarly, Decker and Borgen's (1993) research constituted a sample of 249 adult men and women employed in full-time positions and they found that education, work experience and age were positively related to job satisfaction.

2.10.5 Marital Status

Numerous studies have found married workers to be more satisfied with their jobs than their unmarried counterparts (Chambers, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Robbins et al., 2003).

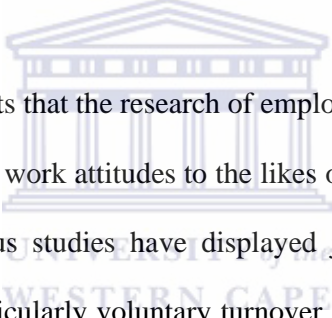
Marital status is also believed to influence job satisfaction with married individuals being more likely to report higher level of job satisfaction (Clark, 1997). The findings from Clark's (1996) research indicated that married employees were more satisfied. Robbins (1989) proposes that marriage requires bigger responsibilities which may make a stable job more valuable, thus enhancing their job satisfaction.

In a study by Cimete, Gencalp and Keskin (2003) which involved 501 nurses from two different university hospitals, it was found that there was significant differences in the job satisfaction mean score of divorcees and widows- they were found to be higher than that of single and married employees.

2.11 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.11.1 TURNOVER

Price (1977 cited in Chen, Chen & Chen, 2010) delienates turnover as the movement of members across the boundary of an organization. Mobley (1982 cited in Udechukwu, 2009) cited employee turnover as a prospective costly occurrence. Wang (2006) posits that job satisfaction impacts employee turnover. Berry (1998) and Dole (2001) cited in Wang, 2006) are of the opinion that an employee who has low job satisfaction is more likely to leave



Udechukwu (2009) posits that the research of employee turnover can be theoretically understood by assessing work attitudes to the likes of job satisfaction. The researcher postulates that numerous studies have displayed job satisfaction to be related to employee turnover, particularly voluntary turnover. Overall job satisfaction seems to be associated with turnover intentions (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981). Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979 cited in Udechukwu, 2009) found satisfaction to be negatively related to turnover. Research has shown that military personnel who report greater job satisfaction are more likely to stay or to indicate an intention to stay in the military (Becker & Billings, 1993; Kocher & Thomas, 1994; Lakhani, 1991; Prevosto, 2001).

2.11.2 PRODUCTIVITY

McNeese-Smith (1997) posits that productivity is the contribution made towards an organization's end result in relation to the amount of resources consumed. Earlier studies showed no consistent relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Jones, 2006; Robbins, 1993). Spector (2008) posits that there is a modest relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Clement (1993) and Brayfield and Crockett (cited in Savery & Luks, 2001) examined the relationship between employee empowerment and performance and found that productivity is not an important goal that employees bring with them to work. They suggested that, rather than satisfaction leading to performance, it is performance that can lead to higher satisfaction, and those individuals who seek challenge, achievement and personal growth can fulfil their needs by performing well.

According to Luthans (1989 cited Luddy, 2005) while the relationship between satisfaction and productivity exists, the correlation between these constructs are not strong. The researcher purports that most satisfied worker will not necessarily be the most productive worker.

2.11.3 PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH

According to Hoole and Vermeulen (2003), the attention paid to job satisfaction can generally be ascribed to the relevance of job satisfaction and to the physical and mental well-being of employees. According to Cranny et al. (1992), both

management and practitioners are concerned with methods for improving job satisfaction, as greater job satisfaction equals to a better quality of life, better health, and potentially greater performance and productivity.

Locke (1976 cited in Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002) describes the most common consequences of job satisfaction on employees are, the effects on the physical health and longevity, mental health and an impact on employees' social life in general. In the same vein, Coster (1992) concur that work can have an important effect on the total quality of life of the employee.

2.11.4 ABSENTEEISM

Several studies reported a consistent negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism however, the relationship is moderate (Hackett & Guion, 1985; McShane, 1984; Scott & Taylor, 1985). Numerous studies have shown that dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs or be absent than satisfied employees (Hackett & Guion, 1985; Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985; Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). Saari and Judge (2004) add that job dissatisfaction also appears to be related to other withdrawal behaviours, such as lateness, unionization grievances, drug abuse and decision to retire.

Smith (1992) posits that job satisfaction can lead to cost reduction by reducing absences, task errors and turnover.

2.12 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.12.1 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Miller and Lee (2001) postulate that organisational commitment is characterised by an employee's acceptance of organisational goals and their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.

According to Levy (2003), organizational commitment can be defined as the strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in the organization. Lahiry (1994) posits that researchers usually describe organizational commitment as an employee's psychological attachment to the organization.

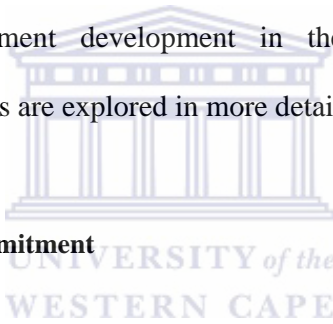
Allen and Meyer (1996) define organizational commitment as the psychological link between the employee and the organization that makes it less likely for an employee to want to leave voluntarily. Allen and Meyer (1990 cited in Ju, Kong, Hussin & Jusoff, 2008, p. 148) also defines organizational commitment as "the employee's feeling of obligation to stay with the organization." According to Stander and Rothmann (2009, p. 8), "a committed employee identifies with the organization, makes personal sacrifices, performs beyond normal expectations, works selflessly and contributes to the organization's overall effectiveness."

Becker, Randal and Riegel (1995 cited in Tella et al., 2007, p. 6) define organizational commitment in three dimensions, namely:

- “A strong desire to remain a member of the particular organization”,
- “A willingness to exert high levels of efforts on behalf of the organization”
and
- “A believe in and acceptability of the values and goals of the organization.”

2.12.1.1 THREE COMPONENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Meyer and Allen (1997) use the tri-dimensional model to conceptualise organizational commitment in three dimensions namely, affective, continuance and normative commitments. These dimensions illustrate the different ways of organizational commitment development in the implications for employees’ behaviour. The concepts are explored in more detail below:

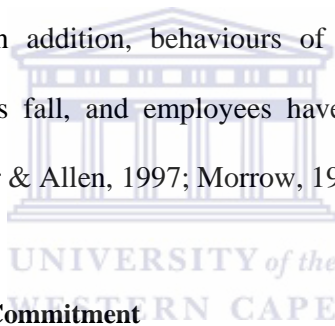


2.12.1.1 Affective Commitment

According to Morrow (1993), affective commitment is a work-related attitude with positive feelings towards the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 11) assert affective commitment as “the employee’s attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.” This kind of commitment cause organizational members to continue working for the organization because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Beck and Wilson (2000), members who are committed on the affective stage remain with the organization because they perceive their personal employment relationship as congruent to the goals and values of the organization. Farzad, Nahavandi and Caruana (2008) concur that employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they see their goals and values to be congruent with that of the organization.

Similarly, Shahnawaz and Juyal (2006, p. 172) posit that “affective commitment describes an alignment that employees feel between their organization and their personal value system and desires. Heery and Noon (2001) postulate that affective commitment is when an employee remains with a particular organization because he or she shares its values and objectives and feels a sense of loyalty.

Liou (2008) states that an employee who displays affective commitment is likely to improve the operational aspects of the organization. According to the researcher, such improvements include greater satisfaction and involvement, as well as increases in job performance. In addition, behaviours of good citizenship become more apparent, turnover rates fall, and employees have more opportunities to develop leadership skills (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Morrow, 1993).



2.12.1.2 Continuance Commitment

According to Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), continuance commitment refers to an employee’s behavioural orientation. Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1993) posit that it relates to the employee’s general awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization, especially when the employee perceives lack of suitable alternative and/or when the personal costs of leaving are too high. Farzad, Nahavandi and Caruana (2008) concur that continuance commitment includes the cost consciousness when leaving the organization. The authors state that employees with strong continuance commitment tend to remain in the organization because they have the need to do so. Similarly, Swailes (2002) argues that continuance commitment that

derives from socioeconomic factors reflects the employee's awareness of the relative benefits associated with staying or leaving the organization.

Greenberg and Baron (2003) describe continuous commitment as the strength of an individual's desire to continue working for an organization because he or she needs to or cannot afford to do otherwise. In these circumstances individuals would be concerned about what they might lose in terms of retirement funds, disrupting social networks, and knowledge gained should they decide to leave the organization and change jobs.

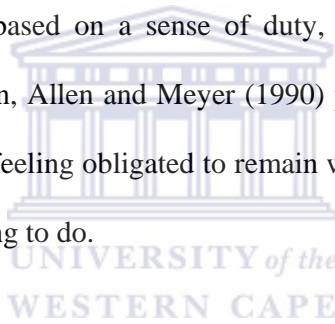
Meyer and Allen (1990) purport that continuance commitment refers to the extent to which the employee feels committed to the organization based on years' service. McGee and Ford (1987) and Somers (1993) propose that continuance commitment is subdivided into high sacrifice commitment (personal sacrifice associated with leaving) and low alternative commitment. Dockel, Basson and Coetzee (2006) concur that continuance commitment refers to the employees perceived sacrifices associated with ending such as losing one's rank or pension benefits, which results in the entirety of leaving the organization.

According to Mathis and Jackson (1997), employees who are satisfied with their jobs and who are not as committed to the organization are more likely to withdraw from the organization, either through absenteeism or through resigning from the organization. According to Swailes (2002), employees with continuance commitment may perform only as required in order to keep their jobs.

This dimension is based on the side bet theory of Becker (1960 cited in Morar, 2006) who proposes that the theory is built on consistent behaviour. According to the theory, commitments arise when a person by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity (Morar, 2006).

2.12.1.3 Normative commitment

Farzad, Nahavandi and Caruana (2008) maintain that normative commitment replicate a feeling of obligation to the organization. According to the researchers, “strong commitment in this instance is where employees feel obligated to remain with the organization based on a sense of duty, loyalty or moral obligation” (p. 1481). In the same vein, Allen and Meyer (1990) posit that normative commitment relates to an employee feeling obligated to remain with the organization because it is considered the right thing to do.

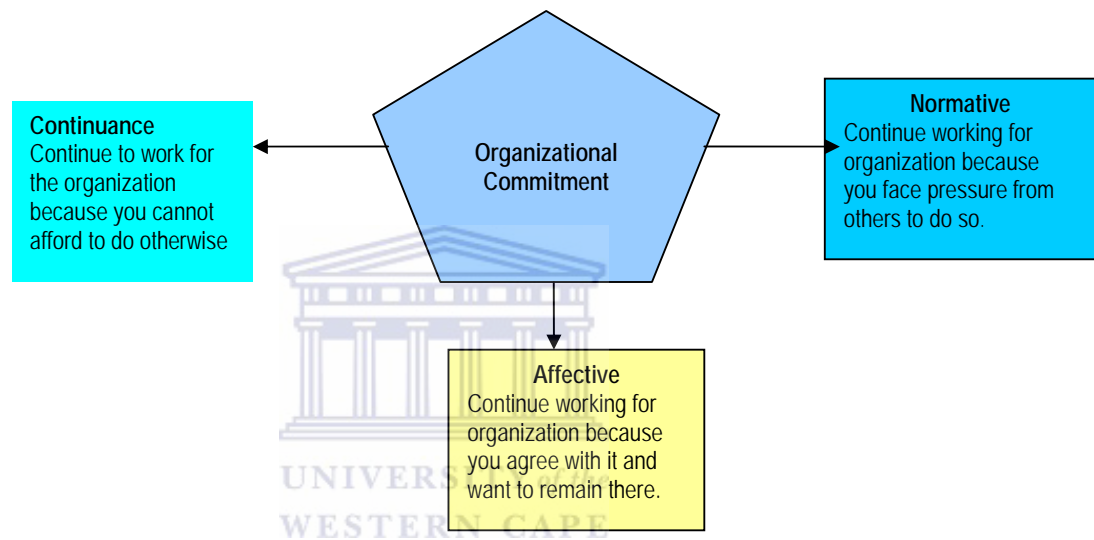


Wiener (1982) describe normative commitment as a process whereby organizational actions (for example, selection and socialization procedures) as well as individual predispositions (for example, personal organizational value congruence, and generalized loyalty or duty attitudes) lead to the development of organizational commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) contend that normative commitment has to do with the feeling of obligations to the organization based on the individual’s personal norms and values. Furthermore, they mention that employees whose commitment is at the normative level remains with the organization simply because they believe they ought to. Meyer and Allen (1997) and Manion (2004) assert that normative

commitment arises from an individual's sense of obligation to the organization and reflects the degree to which their values and beliefs conform to those of the organization.

Fig 2.4 Meyer & Allen's (1997) Three Types of Organizational Commitment



Source: Shirbagi (2007, p. 18)

2.13. ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.13.1 PERSONAL DETERMINANTS

2.13.1.1 Age

Research has shown that age is positively related to organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). One possible reason for this

relationship is that there are hardly any employment opportunities available for older employees (Mowday et al. 1982), and older employees realize that leaving may cost them more than staying (Parasuraman & Nachman, 1987). Hunt, Chonko and Wood (1985) and Mathieu and Zajac, (1990) posit that as age increases, alternative employment options are supposed to decrease and the current jobs are seen more attractive

Age and organizational tenure are positively associated with affective commitment (Muthueloo & Rose, 2005). The researchers however, also mention that age can also be negatively related to the number of job opportunities available. Literature suggest the following explanations for the correlation between age and commitment, namely: (1) Aging predisposes older employees to be more committed – a maturity explanation; (2) Older employees recognize that they have organizational experiences that are more positive than younger employees – a better experience explanation; or (3) there are generational differences in organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Morrow & Mcelroy, 1987; Raelin, 1985).

While older workers are considered to have stronger investment and greater history with their organization than do younger workers, their commitment may be more to their organization, whereas age was found on the other hand, to be negatively related to commitment in some studies (Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer, 1999). Gurses and Demiray (2009) surveyed 136 employees of TV Production Center and found the older an individual the less likely he or she is likely to move to a new job, thus a stronger commitment is dedicated to the organization.

2.13.1.2 Tenure

Research indicates that organizational tenure is positively related to organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Xu and Bassham (2010) put forth that the more experienced employees hold the more attractive positions in organizations. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), as an individual's length of service with a particular organization increases, he or she may develop an emotional attachment with the organization that makes it difficult to change jobs. Colbert and Kwon (2000) also found a significant relationship between organizational commitment and tenure. The researchers also concur findings that employees who had a longer tenure had a higher degree of organizational commitment than their counterparts. Meyer and Allen (1997) propose that results of a positive relationship between tenure and organizational commitment might be an uncomplicated reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organization, and only those with high commitment remain.

Wright and Bonett (2002) conducted a meta-analysis and found that tenure had a very strong nonlinear moderating effect on the commitment-performance correlation, with correlations tending to decrease exponentially with increasing tenure.

Muthueloo and Rose (2005) posit that tenure and age can function as predictors of continuance commitment, mostly because of their roles as surrogate measures of investment in the organization. Furthermore, tenure can be indicative of non-transferable investments (for example, close working relationship with co-workers,

retirement investment and skills unique to the organization). According to Sekaren (1992), tenure is associated with status and prestige and that this encourages greater commitment and loyalty to the employer.

Buckle observed no significant difference between employees with different years of service with regards to their experience of psychological empowerment. The results indicated that employees with longer tenure (11 years and more) tended to be more committed than their counterparts with shorter tenure. In addition, studies by Gregerson and Black (1992) found that when employees remain with the organization, longer, external opportunities decline and personal investment in the organization increase.

2.13.1.3 Educational Level



Research commonly indicates a negative relationship between organizational commitment and an individual's educational level, though these findings are not indisputable (Luthans et al., 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Vorster, 1992).

People with lower educational levels generally have more difficulty changing jobs and therefore show a greater commitment to their organization (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). According to Savery and Syme (1996), lower educational levels limit an individual's chances of obtaining attractive employment opportunities.

Hunt et al. (1985) found that education is negatively related to commitment. In relation to educational level and commitment, it has been evidenced that education is

inversely correlated with organizational commitment (Decotiis & Summers, 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Battersby, Hemmings & Kermode, Sutherland & Cox, 1990). Lok and Crawford (1999) hypothesised that there would be a negative relationship between educational level and commitment of nurses however, the hypothesis was rejected.

Kwela (2001), Dwyer (2001) and Jacobsen (2000) reported that results from their studies showed that an increase in qualification led to a decrease in organizational commitment.

Numerous researchers have reported that the higher an employee's education, the lower their level of organizational commitment (Luthans et al., 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Boshoff, van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002) conducted a study amongst 1484 respondents from two organizations, a financial services group and a university, and the results indicated significant differences between respondents whom had completed twelve years of schooling, and those with a master's and a doctoral degree. Results showed that those with twelve years schooling had significantly higher intention to-quit-scores than the two highest education groups

2.13.1.4 Gender

“The relationship between gender and organizational commitment has remained unclear” (Rashed, 2006, p. 2). There are however, several studies which suggest that

gender may affect employees' perceptions of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Gurses and Demiray (2009) found a significant relationship between gender and organizational commitment. The researchers suggest an explanation for this could be that females are reluctant to consider new job opportunities because of factors like children and marriage. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) view is that aside from age, women generally have more commitment than men. Wahn (1998 cited in Mathebula, 2004) agrees that women is most likely to display higher level of continuance commitment than men.

Findings of research conducted by Loscocco (1990) illustrate the following results about women in respect of organizational commitment, namely:

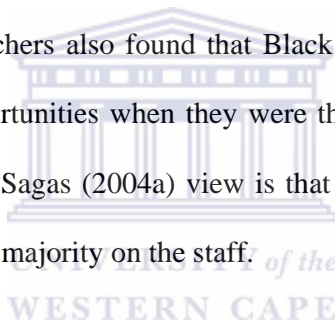
- Women tend to take up more or less any position available to remain in the organization,
- They are more likely to be happy with their employment than with their present organization and;
- Their values are aligned with that of the employer.

On the contrary, it was found by Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997) that men in their sample had displayed higher levels of commitment than the women.

2.13.1.5 Race

Muthuveloo and Rose (2005) found that race illustrates a strong influence on organizational commitment. According to Vallabh and Donald (2001), White people have reported higher levels of commitment than their Black counterparts.

In a study conducted by Cunningham and Sagas (2004a), 235 assistant basketball coaches were used to examine the effects of racial differences of organizational commitment. The study yielded Black and White coaches differed in their commitment to the organization as racial differences did not affect the groups in the same way. The researchers also found that Black coaches believed that they were pioneers for more opportunities when they were the only minority on the coaching staff. Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) view is that White coaches' work well when they are the minority or majority on the staff.



In the same vein, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) conducted a study which examined discrimination precursors of employee intent in their respective occupations. A total of 382 coaches participated in the study which indicated a statistically significant difference in intent to leave based on the coaches' racial differences. The researchers found that compared to Whites, Blacks felt there were not any job opportunities and chances for advances in the field.

2.13.1.6 Marital Status

In a study by Gurses and Dimeray (2009) it was found that those who are married are organizationally more committed than those who are single. They purport this can be as a result of the financial commitments and responsibilities which the average family is faced with.

Chughtai and Zafar (2006) posit that marital status has emerged as a consistent predictor of organizational commitment. Salami (2008) found marital status was significantly related to organizational commitment. Studies by John and Taylor (1999) and Tsui, Leung, Cheung, Mok and Ho (1994) found that married people were more committed to their organization than unmarried people. Chughtai and Zafar (2006) put forth that married people have more family responsibilities and need more stability and security in their job and therefore are more likely to be more committed to their existing organization than their single counterparts. This concurs with the findings of Bowen, Radhakrishna and Keyser (1994) who found that married workers were more committed to the organization than single workers.

Camilleri (2002 cited in Basson, 2008) proposes that married employees would display greater commitment toward the organization based on the principle that they are not only bread winners but also possess greater stability than single employees.

Sikorsa-Simmons (2005) sampled 317 staff members from 61 facilities and found that

employees who were older married and more religious reported higher levels of organizational commitment. These findings are supported by numerous researchers (Kacmar et al., 1999; Lok & Crawford, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Price & Mueller, 1981).

2.13.2. ROLE-RELATED DETERMINANTS

Although this is not the focus of the current research, a brief overview is nevertheless given to provide a content for organizational commitment.

2.13.2.1 Job Scope

Mowday et al.'s (1982) findings have supported the idea that an increased job scope concurrently increases an individual's challenge and responsibility to the organization which leads to increased organizational commitment towards the organization. According to Maxwelll and Steele (2003 cited in Morar, 2006), a wider range of responsibility and duties will cause employees to experience more challenges and therefore will become more committed to the organization.

Beckhoff (1997) examined the relationship between employee commitment and job scope and also found a consistently significant correlation between organizational commitment and job scope. Research on the contrary by Meyer and Allen (1997) found a negative relationship between organizational commitment and job scope.

2.13.2.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict arises when an employee is exposed to incompatible demands at work, or between work and his off-work situation (Spector, 2003). Robbins (2001) states that when an individual is confronted with divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict. Furthermore, the researcher is of the opinion that role conflict exists when an individual finds that compliance with one requirement may make more difficult the compliance with another.

Similarly, Brown and Harvey (2006, p. 298) posit that “role conflict occurs when there is a discrepancy between role expectations and role conception.” The researchers elaborate by stating that incongruence between formal job descriptions and actual role demands is another cause of role conflict.

Numerous studies have confirmed a negative relationship between organizational commitment and role conflict (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). However Vorster (1992 cited in Davids, 2004) conducted a study in a South African high-technology manufacturing organization and found no relationship between organizational commitment and role conflict.

2.13.2.3 Role Ambiguity

Brown and Harvey (2006) define role ambiguity as the situation where a role incumbent is unaware of or lacks sufficient understanding about the expectations for the role held by other team members. Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell and Black

(1990 cited in Davids, 2004, p. 24) posit that “role ambiguity is a direct determinant of commitment during the early stages of employment.”

According to Spector (2003), role ambiguity is the degree of uncertainty the employee experiences regarding his job functions and responsibility. Role ambiguity is also seen as the confusion a person experiences related to the expectations of others (Nelson & Quick, 2006). Furthermore, the researchers’ state that ambiguity is caused by not understanding what is expected, not knowing how to do it, or not knowing the result of failure to do it. Quite a few meta-analyses concluded that role ambiguity is negatively correlated with organizational commitment in business and industry, education, health care and human service organizations (Fischer & Gtelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Ortqvist & Wincent, 2006).



2.13.2.4 Pay/Compensation

Numerous researchers (Arnold & Boshoff, 2004; Vorster, 1992; Young et al., 1998) dispute that there is little empirical evidence to confirm that the amount of money an employee receives is related to commitment. Hoyt and Gerdloff (1999) are of the opinion that compensation offers a prospect for security, autonomy, recognition, and an improved self-worth.

McElroy (2001) contends that providing high compensation could lead to higher organizational commitment for a variety of reasons. Firstly, it permits the organization to attract a larger pool of applicants from which to select the recruit. Secondly, high compensation serves as an indication of how much an organization

values its employees thus enhancing the self-worth and feelings of importance. Thirdly, tying compensation to performance motivates the employees to exert more effort on behalf of the organization. Chughtai and Zafar (2006, p. 44) suggest that for these reasons “high compensation that is tied to organizational performance is predicted to lead to increased levels of organizational commitment.”

2.13.2.4 Empowerment

Arneson (2006) views the aim of empowerment as mobilising frail and disempowered individuals and groups to improve their situation and enabling them to take control of their own lives. The researcher further posit empowerment as a goal while literature describes it as power, control, ability, competence, self-efficacy, autonomy, knowledge, development, self-determination and strengthening of the position of the individual's own group in society.

According to Noorliza and Hasni (2006), employee empowerment significantly enhances job involvement, job satisfaction, career satisfaction and organizational commitment. Ongori (2009) supports this by stating that empowerment builds commitment and creates a sense of commitment

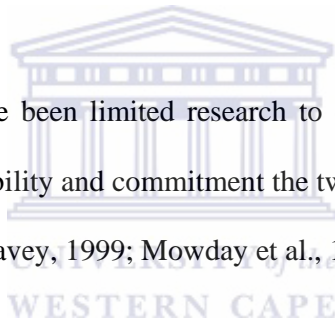
According to Liou (2008), empowerment is an important antecedent of organizational commitment amongst nurses. The researcher states that the empowerment of nurses strongly affected their organizational trust and had a positive effect on job satisfaction and affective commitment.

2.13.3 WORK EXPERIENCE DETERMINANTS

2.13.3.1 Organisational Dependability

Organizational dependability is the extent to which employees feel that they can count on the organization to protect their interests (Mowday et al., 1982). Similarly, Muthueloo and Rose (2005) posit that organisational dependability refers to the extent to which employees feel the organization can be counted on. They are also of the opinion that organizational dependability is expected to encourage a sense of moral obligation to reciprocate the organization.

Even though there have been limited research to explore the relationship between organizational dependability and commitment the two variables seem to be positively correlated (Arnold & Davey, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982).



2.13.3.2 Fulfilment of Expectation

Mowday et al. (1982, p. 20) postulate that “individuals come to organizations with certain needs, desires, skills and so forth and expect to find a work environment where they can use their abilities and satisfy many basic needs.” Vorster (1992 cited in Davids, 2004) believes that an employee’s unmet expectations will lead to the employee withdrawing from the organization or a reduction in the employee’s level of commitment.

Research findings show that there is a direct relationship between the extent to which an employee's expectations are met within the organization and the individual's level of commitment to the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). According to Cohen (1992), when an organization offers a vehicle for an individual to display his or her abilities and to satisfy his or her needs, the person reciprocates with commitment to the organization.

2.13.3.3 Personal Importance to the Organization

There appears to be a paucity of information on personal importance to the organization.

However, Gaertner and Nollen (1989 cited in Dockel, 2003) reported that an employee's psychological commitment tend to be higher if her or she believes that they are treated as resources to be developed rather than goods to buy and sell.

Bogler and Somech (2004) state that for a person who is professionally committed, work is a vital part of life. The researchers further state that both the work itself and co-workers are very meaningful to the employee in addition to the importance he or she attaches to the organization as a whole.

2.13.3.4 Leadership Style

A personal and organizational factor that is considered a key determinant of organizational commitment is leadership (Mowday et al., 1982). Scandura and

Williams (2004) postulate that the transformational leader has incremental effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the researchers are of the opinion that transformational leadership has incremental effects with idealized influence and inspirational motivation for job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Prior research suggest that organizational commitment is higher for employees whose leaders emphasize consideration (Bycio et al., 1995) and are supportive and concerned for their followers' development (Allen & Meyer, 1990; 1996).

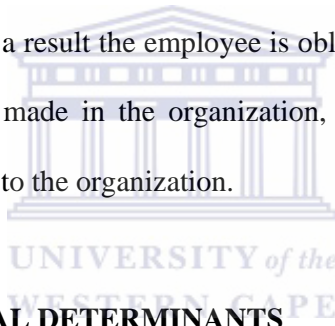
Transactional and transformational leadership have been linked to several outcomes, but the relation is particularly strong in the case of organizational commitment (Bycio, Hackett & Alen, 1995; Duchon, Green, Green & Taber, 1986; Koh, Steers & Terborg, 1995; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Nystrom, 1990; Niehoff, Enz & Grover, 1990).

Bass (1985) states that leaders display transactional behaviours based on their influence on the administration of rewards and punishments contingent on followers' performance, acting as bargaining agents and extensively using elements of extrinsic motivation. While emphasizing the economic rewards associated with staying in the organization and performing as required, by doing so, the leader makes the follower more aware of the cost of leaving the organization.

2.13.3.5 Social Involvement

Meyer and Allen (1997) maintain that a sense of moral obligation might be shaped by organizational socialization in addition to early socialization effects however, it could have been developed by individual socialization and background culture.

High levels of social interaction within a work team can lead to a shared view of an organization that may be unique to the unit (Klein, Conn, Smith & Sorra, 2001; Naumann & Bennett, 2000). Mowday et al. (1982) postulate that greater social interaction result in increased social ties the employees develops with the organization. Hence, as a result the employee is oblivious to the fact that he or she is enhancing investments made in the organization, in the form of friendships, thus increasing commitment to the organization.



2.13.4 STRUCTURAL DETERMINANTS

2.13.4.1 Decentralization

Fiorito, Bozeman, Young and Meurs (2007) developed and tested hypotheses concerning the influences of human resources practices and organizational characteristics on organizational commitment and found that decentralization of decision making increases organizational commitment.

Martinko and Gardner (1982) purport that decentralized control helps employees feel that they are contributing to the operations of the organization thereby promoting their sense of having an impact.

2.13.4.2 Formalisation

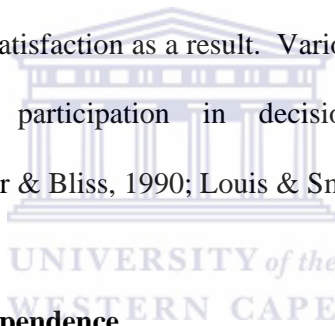
According to Kroese (n.d.), the intent of formalisation is an organizational characteristic. The researcher elaborates that it refers to the number of written documentation in an organization. The documentation can be about rules, job descriptions, procedures and policy manuals. Daft (2001) is of the opinion that the level of formalisation can be measured by counting the number of pages of documentation in the organization. The researcher further states that the purpose of this documentation is to describe behaviour and activities; it ensures that all employees respond to frequent situations in a specific way that suits the organization (Agarwal, 1999).

Agarwal (1999) is of the opinion that there is no direct relationship between organizational commitment and formalisation however, he says that the other two attitudes (that is conflict and role ambiguity) have a relation with organizational commitment. Hence, because formalisation is positively related to these two attitudes (higher formalisation -> higher role ambiguity -> role conflict), formalisation is indirectly related to organizational commitment.

2.13.4.3 Participation in decision-making

Koopman and Wierdsma (1998) define participation in decision-making as joint decision-making or decision-making that is a product of shared influence by a superior and his or her subordinate. Decision making in relation to teachers refers to participation in critical decisions that directly affect their work, involving issues relating to budgets, teacher selection, scheduling and curriculum (Short, 1994a).

According to Bogler and Somech (2004), active participation in decision-making increases an individual's involvement and professional commitment, which has a higher acceptance and satisfaction as a result. Various studies have shown a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and organizational commitment (Hoy, Tatar & Bliss, 1990; Louis & Smith, 1991).



2.13.4.4 Functional dependence

Mathieu and Zajac (1990, p. 179) postulate that “when employees experience high functional dependence, they become more aware of their own contributions to the organization and to their immediate work group this heightened awareness may enhance employees’ ego involvement and thereby increase their organizational commitment.”

2.13.4.5 Worker Ownership

Employees may also own shares in their organization on a strictly individual basis. A number of studies (Long, 1978a, 1978b, 1982 cited in Okland & Nordhaug, 2005) examined the impact employee ownership and employees' participation in decision-making had on organizational commitment. Results proved that commitment might be strengthened by each of these determinants.

Okland and Nordhaug (2005, p. 2) argue that "employees' participation in decision making is not necessarily reinforced by employee ownership, and the impact of organizational commitment does not seem to be contingent on their participation in decision making." In a study conducted by French and Rosenstein (1984 cited in Okland & Nordhaug, 2005) it was found a relationship between ownership and organizational commitment was greater amongst employees with low authority than among employees with high authority.

2.13.4.6 ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES

2.13.4.7 Promotion

Wasti (2003) conducted studies on organizational commitment in the Turkish environment and found that satisfaction with work and promotions were the strongest predictors of organizational commitment. Chughtai and Zafar (2006) contend that policies and practices concerning the movement of employees, predominantly

upward movement, once they are in the organization might also affect their organizational commitment.

In a study by Gaertner and Nollen (1989) it was evident that commitment was greater amongst employees who had been promoted and it was also positively related to employees' perceptions that the organization had a policy of promoting from within. Such policies might be perceived as evidence of organizational support, which instils a greater commitment to the organization. On the contrary, Goldner and Ritti (1967 cited in Dockel, 2003) posit that high technology employees generally feel bitter about the way their careers are blocked, as a result this has a negative impact on their commitment to their employers.

2.13.4.8 Supervision



Chughtai and Zafar (2006) state that supervisors play a crucial role in the perceptions employees form about the organization's supportiveness and the extent to which they can be trusted to look after their interests.

Vadenberghe and Bentein (2009) found among other factors that might be of relevance for predicting withdrawal behaviour, the supervisor appeared particularly important. In addition, the researchers purport that supervisors are formally responsible for monitoring performance of employees on behalf of the organization. Furthermore, as agents of the organizations (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986) supervisors are frequently involved in decisions relating to pay and promotions that affect their employees (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Numerous researchers have recognised a relationship between empowerment and commitment claiming that employees who feel more empowered are more likely to reciprocate by being more committed to their organisation (Honold, 1997; Koberg et al., 1999; Liden et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1995). Bhatnagar (2005) hypothesised that psychological empowerment is an antecedent of organizational commitment, and based on the findings the hypothesis was accepted.

Linden et al. (2000) state that empowerment may contribute to a sense of commitment through a process of reciprocation. Furthermore, the authors claim that individuals tend to be appreciative of an organization that provide opportunities for decision latitude, challenge, and responsibility, as well as feelings of meaning, impact, self-determination, and mastery that result from these conditions. Hence, they are likely to reciprocate by being more committed to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Kraimer, Seibert & Linden, 1999); that is their identification, attachment, and loyalty to the organization will increase.

Organizational commitment has been shown to be an important outcome of psychological empowerment (Liden et al., 2000). Experiencing empowerment can

result in an employee being more committed to their work and/or to the organisation as a whole. Honold (1997, p. 3) posits that “the greater the empowerment, the greater the job autonomy, the more involvement beyond the defined job of the individual, the greater the organisational commitment.”

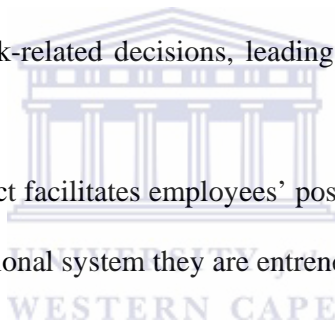
According to Janssen (2004), psychological empowerment can be seen as a way to stimulate an individual’s commitment to the organization, as it leads to a fit between work roles and a personal value system; confidence in an individual’s capability to do work well, which in turn encourages him or her exerting more effort on the organization’s behalf; more extensive participation in decision-making; and contribution to shaping organizational systems through a greater level of impact.

Regarding earlier research in this field, Sigler and Pearson (2000) found a positive relationship between certain dimensions and organizational commitment. Avolio et al. (2004) also found empowerment to increase an employee’s commitment to the organisation. According to Chen and Chen (2008), psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between work re-design and organizational commitment.

Cunningham and Hyman (1999 cited in Bhatnagar, 2005) on the other hand, conducted a study and found that not many signs of increased commitment were at hand after the introduction of empowerment initiative and management controls appeared to have tightened instead of loosened. Honold (1997, p.3) purports that “the greater the empowerment, the greater the job autonomy, the more involvement beyond the defined job of the individual, the greater the organizational commitment.”

Studies by (Locke and Schweiger, 1979; Spreitzer, 1996 cited in Vinya & Rawat, 2009) have revealed that empowerment induces organizational commitment for the following reasons:

- A meaningful job provides a suitable fit between requirements and purposes of one's organizational work roles and one's personal value system.
- A sense of competence gives workers the confidence that they are able to perform their work roles with skill and success, stimulating them to exert significant effort on behalf of the organization.
- Self-determination provides workers with control over their work and a voice in work-related decisions, leading to improved involvement in the organization.
- Having impact facilitates employees' possibilities to participate in forming the organizational system they are entrenched in.



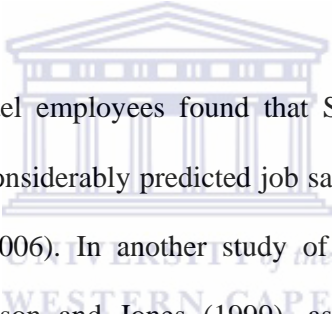
3.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION

A growing body of research supports the contention that psychological empowerment will be associated to individual performance and satisfaction (Liden et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994).

Job satisfaction has also been shown to be an important outcome of psychological empowerment (Seibert et al., 2004). The meaning dimension of empowerment is important for job satisfaction as an individual can only derive satisfaction from their work when engaged in a meaningful job (Spreitzer et al., 1997). In addition the

researcher also found the self-determination dimension of empowerment to be related to work satisfaction, suggesting that self-determination is a psychological need and a key component of intrinsic motivation.

In terms of the impact dimension of empowerment, Liden et al. (2000) mention that when employees feel that their work can influence outcomes that affect their organization, they tend to feel more involved and therefore gain a sense of satisfaction with their job. Spreitzer et al. (1997) purports that it is logical that individuals who feel more competent in their jobs are also likely to feel more satisfied with their jobs.



A study of Korean hotel employees found that Spreitzer's (1995) displayed that empowerment factors considerably predicted job satisfaction (Jun & Lee, 2000 cited in Hechanova et al., 2006). In another study of nurses in the United States of America, Fuller, Morrison and Jones (1999), as well found that psychological empowerment moderated (for example, enhanced) the association between transformational leadership, leadership and job satisfaction.

According to Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian and Wilk (2004) posits that changes in empowerment in had a direct effect in changes in job satisfaction. Okpara (2006 cited in Vinya & Rawat, 2009) adds that job satisfaction is influenced by empowerment as well as autonomous work groups. Laschinger et al. (2004) postulates that empirical studies have found positive association between empowerment and job satisfaction.

3.3 JOB SATISFCATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

A strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been noted in several studies (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mcneese-Smith, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

According to Kirkman and Shapiro (in press) job satisfaction and organizational commitment are significant as both have been related to other positive organizational outcomes namely, employees who are more satisfied are less likely to be absent (Hackett & Guion, 1985), and less likely to withdraw (Carsten & Spector, 1987), is more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviour (Organ & Konovsky, 1989) and display overall satisfaction with their lives (Judge & Wantanabe, 1993).

In relation to organizational commitment, employees who are committed are less likely to propose to leave (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), really leave (Netemeyer, Burton & Jonhston, 1995), experience less stress (Begley & Czajka, 1993) and committed tend to perform better (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Job satisfaction is so significant that a lack of it often leads to lethargy and reduced organizational commitment (Levinson, 1997; Mosser, 1997 in Tella et al., 2007). Studies on job satisfaction have shown that job satisfaction is influenced by organizational commitment (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Bartol, 1979; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984 cited in Vinya & Rawat, 2009).

4. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

The chapter firstly introduced the concept of psychological empowerment and highlighted the definitions and cognitions. Furthermore, it sought to discuss the major approaches to the construct as well as the stages in the process of empowerment. The dimensions pertaining to personal factors affecting psychological empowerment were also provided.

Secondly, it introduced job satisfaction, definitions and highlighted the motivational theories relating to job satisfaction. In addition, it endeavoured to provide an overview pertaining to job satisfaction antecedents, whereby personal determinants and organizational factors impacting on job satisfaction as well as the consequences of job satisfaction were discussed.

Thirdly, Organizational commitment was conceptualised and the different approaches were introduced. The antecedents of organizational commitment in terms of personal determinants, role- related, structural and organizational variable were listed and discussed. Lastly, the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment were highlighted.

The ensuing chapter provides the research methodology undertaken for the study.

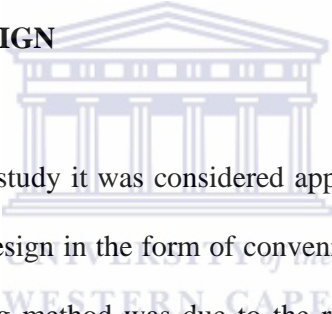
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter provides an outline of the research methodology employed in the investigation of the impact of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction on organizational commitment amongst employees in a multi-national organization.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN



For the purpose of this study it was considered appropriate to gather data by means of a non-probability design in the form of convenience sampling. The rationale for employing this sampling method was due to the researcher being employed at the organization where the study was conducted, hence ensuring easy access to the respondents, their availability, as well as it being less time consuming and inexpensive to gather the research information.

The advantages of utilizing a non-probability sample are that it is cost-effective and less time consuming. Nonetheless, its associated shortcomings relate to its restricted generalizability, particularly in terms of the higher chances of sampling errors (Sekaran, 2003). However, to overcome restrictions with respect to generalizability, Sekaran (2003) maintains that it is advisable to use larger samples.

3.2.1 Population

The population targeted for this study included all permanent employees (N=120), employed in the following departments: Administration, Engineering, Production, Quality and Commercial. This multi-national organization consists of two operations one of which is situated in South Africa and the other in Uganda. The focus was only on the South African operation

3.2.2 Sample

All permanent employees were encouraged to participate in the study. Thus one hundred and twenty (120) questionnaires were distributed, of which one hundred and ten (110) were returned, yielding a 91% response rate. Babbie (1998) posits that a response rate of fifty percent (50%) is adequate; a sixty percent (60%) is regarded as good while a (70%) response rate is considered very good. This response rate could be attributed to a number of factors namely, (i) that the participants were informed well in advance before the research was conducted with regards to the purpose of the study, (ii) the support received from management and (iii) the researcher is employed by the organization and hence was familiar with participants thus making co-operation easier. The response rate is significant in that it is an indication of the success rate of the survey research study (Frohlich, 2002; Roth & BeVier, 1998).

The sample included employees from all levels, ranging from semi-skilled to professional. The lowest level employees had a literacy level adequate for valid completion of the questionnaires.

3.2.3 Procedure

Prior to conducting the study permission was obtained from the Managing Director of the organization. A total of one hundred and twenty (120) questionnaires were distributed to all permanent employees. The questionnaires were provided to the respondents in a booklet form. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaires indicating the objectives of the study, assurance that anonymity and confidentiality would be protected as no personal information was required, and that the responses would be used for research purposes only. Furthermore, the instructions for completing each the questionnaires were also included.

Data was gathered over a period of four weeks as the sample mostly consisted of permanent shift workers. Group sessions of 30 minute each were held with each shift during which the researcher also explained to respondents what was required of them. On average, it took about 25 minutes for respondents to complete the questionnaire. The researcher was available throughout the various sessions to answer any questions.

3.3 DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENTS

For the purpose of the study a quantitative approach was adopted - questionnaire were used to gather the data. Weiers (1998) postulates there are important benefits in using questionnaires:

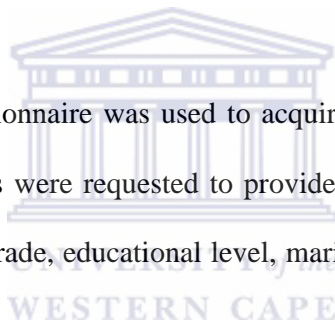
- a) The cost per questionnaire is relatively low,

- b) Structured information in the questionnaire makes analyzing somewhat uncomplicated and
- c) Questionnaires give respondents ample time to formulate accurate responses.

Sekaren (2000) however, indicates the main problems encountered by researchers issuing questionnaires would be poor response levels and the likelihood of social desirability, faking, and validity of responses provided being questioned.

3.3.1 Biographical Questionnaire

A self-developed questionnaire was used to acquire demographic information from the sample. Participants were requested to provide information with regard to their race, gender, age, job grade, educational level, marital status, and years of service in the organization.



3.3.2 The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire (MEQ)

The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire (12 items) developed by Spreitzer (1995) was used to measure the psychological empowerment of the respondents.

3.3.2.1 Nature and Composition of the MEQ

The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire is a theory-based measure of empowerment which consists of four related dimensions namely, meaning,

competence, self-determination and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). In order to develop the instrument, the four dimensions had to be adapted to some extent. Spreitzer (1995) reported that the meaning items were taken directly from Tymon's (1988) meaningfulness scale. The competence items were adapted from Jones' (1986) self-efficacy scale, while self-determination items were adapted from Hackman and Oldham's (1985) autonomy scale. The impact items were adapted from Ashforth's (1989) helplessness scale.

Each of the four subscales comprises of 12 items. Each subscale has three items - Items 5, 6, 11 = meaning; Items 1, 10, 12 = competence; Items 2, 7, 8 = impact and Items 3, 4, 9 = self-determination. Respondents indicated the extent to which they agree with each statement. The response scale was a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Based on Spreitzer's (1995) explanation, these subscales combined create psychological empowerment. In terms of scoring, the subscale scores were averaged to obtain a total score for psychological empowerment (Hechanova et al., 2006).

A number of studies show support for Spreitzer's four empowerment dimensions (Dee et al., 2002; Griggspall & Albrecht; 2003, Henken & Marchiori, 2003; Hochwalder & Brucefors, 2005; Hu & Leung, 2003; Kraimer et al., 1999; Moye & Henkin, 2006; Vardi, 1999).

3.3.2.2 Reliability and Validity of the MEQ

Reliability refers to the extent to which the same results are acquired when responses are measured at different times (Christensen, 1994). Anastasi (1990) concurs with this view that and further posit that reliability refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same test on different occasions or with different sets of the same items or under different conditions.

Dee et al. (2002) maintain that the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the four empowerment dimensions ranged from .79 to .88. Various researchers report high Cronbach alpha coefficients - Konczak et al. (2000) found a high Cronbach alpha of 0.86 in their study; Rugg (2001) found a high Cronbach alpha of 0.84. Furthermore, Sauer (2003) found an overall Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 and reported alpha coefficients for the subscales 0.92 (meaning), 0.89 (competence), 0.91 (self-determination), 0.84 (Impact) and Hlalele (2003) also found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.90.

In addition to the above, Spreitzer (1995) conducted two (2) studies where the primary sample consisted of 393 mid-level employees in an industrial organization. Questionnaires were administered at the beginning of a managerial development program; this sample yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.72. The second sample comprised of 128 lower-level employees from an insurance company. The questionnaires from the latter were administered twice in a five month period yielding a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.62, thus the overall reliabilities were acceptable (Spreitzer, 1995). According to Uner and Turan (2010), **re-test**

reliabilities were examined and the results showed that the stability level was average.

In a study conducted in Turkey by Uner and Turan (2010), data were gathered from 260 nurses and 161 physicians. In this study **internal consistency** was measured by Cronbach alpha. The authors established the following results for each of the two samples on each of the subscales (meaning 0.86, competence 0.89, self determination 0.81, impact 0.93 for nurses and meaning 0.90, competence 0.92, self-determination 0.84, impact 0.94 for physicians) and the total scale nurses - 0.83 and physicians - 0.88) may be considered very good.

Validity is the extent to which the measuring instrument is measuring what the researcher wants it to measure (Christensen, 1994).

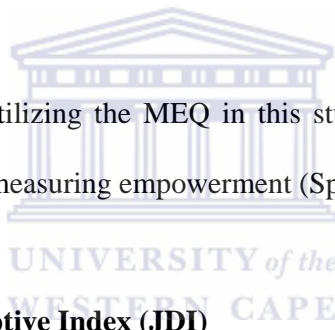
Spreitzer (1995) however suggested the need for continued work on discriminant validity. Linden et al. (2000) report that the construct validity of each of the four sub-dimensions of the scale were found to contribute to the overall degree of empowerment: 0.92 (meaning), 0.77 (competence), 0.85 (self-determination), 0.86 (impact).

Dimitriades (2005) posit that the findings regarding Spreitzer's scale compare favourably with previous research in the area. The author further mentions three (3) dimensions were significantly correlated with the total empowerment score (namely, impact $r = 0.91$, meaning $r = 0.59$, and competence $r = 0.58$) and were modestly correlated with one another (mean $r = 0.30$).

In order to establish **convergent and discriminant validity**, Spreitzer (1995) and Uner and Turan (2010) contend that second-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used. According to Spreitzer (1995), in an industrial sample an excellent fit was reported for AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit -) = 0.93, RMSR (root mean square residual -) = 0.04, NCFI (non- centralized normal fit index) = 0.97. A modest fit was achieved for the insurance sample (AGFI = 0.87, RMSR = 0.07, NCFI = 0.98).

3.3.2.3 Rationale for Inclusion

The rationale for the utilizing the MEQ in this study is that it has shown to be a reliable instrument for measuring empowerment (Spreitzer et al., 1997)



3.3.3 The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

3.3.3.1 Nature and Composition of the JDI

The JDI was developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). According to Nasser (2005, p. 233), “one of the widely used instruments for studying job satisfaction is known as the JDI.” Many researchers consider the JDI as the most carefully developed instrument for measuring this phenomenon (Malherbe & Pearse, 2003).

The JDI was designed to measure five facets of job satisfaction namely, satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion,

satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co-workers (Malherbe & Pearse, 2003). This instrument is regarded as the most comprehensive as it merges the satisfying and dissatisfying causes suggested by Herzberg's motivator-hygiene model of job satisfaction (Paulos, Seta & Baron, 1996).

The JDI consists of 72 items. Each JDI facet contains either 9 or 18 adjectives relating to the respondent's work experience, the work itself, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and co-workers (Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, Julian, Thoresen, Aziz, Fisher & Smith, 2001). Respondents are required to mark a yes (Y), no (N) or cannot decide (?) as it relates to their job (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). It is also possible to combine the five facet measures to obtain a global measure (Saal & Knight, 1988).



In terms of scoring, for those facets which only contain 9 items as compared to 18, the scores are doubled to allow each facet to have the same potential range of scores. All of the facets are then summated separately which allows for comparison amongst the facets. The JDI provides a measure of facet satisfaction and allows for an understanding of five discreet parts of the job (Smucker & Kent, 2004).

3.3.3.2 Reliability of the JDI

According to Sekaran (2003), reliability refers to whether an instrument is consistent, stable and free from error, despite fluctuations in test taker, administrator or conditions under which the test is administered.

Whisenant, Pendersen and Smucker (2004) posit that reliability assessments using Cronbach alpha coefficients have in general exceeded .80 on all the JDI scales in other studies. In a study conducted by Whisenant and colleagues (2004) the Cronbach's reliability coefficients were .88 for the facet of pay satisfaction, .78 for promotion satisfaction, .90 for supervision satisfaction, .77 for co-worker satisfaction, and .91 for the job-itself satisfaction. These correlations point towards how well the items within each facet of the instrument yield similar results from each respondent (Whisenant et al., 2004). The internal consistency reliabilities of the five JDI scales range from 0.80 to 0.88 as determined by corrected split-half correlations based on the responses of eighty male employees from two different electronic plants. The reliability as reported by Spector (1997) is between .77 to .87. Internal consistency coefficients were high for the Likert format with an alpha level of .87 (Nasser, 2005). Nasser (2005) also reports the split-half internal consistency at above +.80 for each of the five scales. According to Wheelless, Wheelless and Howard (1984) the reliability of the JDI scales are acceptable as with previous research finding ranged from .73 to .92.

Nagy (2002) reports the internal consistency of the JDI for the five facets as ranging from .83 to .90. According to Nagy (2002), the minimum reliability estimates for the single-item measures ranged from .52 to .76, with a mean minimum reliability estimate of .63.

3.3.3.3 Validity of the JDI

Johnson, Smith and Tucker (1986) found good to high short (3-week) stability and convergent and discriminant validity of the JDI. Two groups (n=50) each were required to respond to the same JDI, one with the yes/?/no format and one with the 5-point Likert-type format. The researchers established average convergent validity of .66.

McCabe, Dalessio, Briga and Sasaki (1980) did a reanalysis of the data reported by Katerberg, Smith and Hoy (1977) in order: (1) to examine the convergent and discriminant validities for the reanalysis of the four forms or methods (JDI –English, JDI-Spanish, IOR-English, and IOR–Spanish) over time and (2) to compare the convergent validities of the JDI-English and Spanish forms to the convergent and discriminant validities of the IOR-English and Spanish forms over time. In the initial study 128 employees of a large retail organization in the United States were used. McCabe et al. (1980) found the average convergent validities of the four methods ranging from .69 to .73 for time 1 and for time 2, all four methods had the same average convergent validities, .77.

Ehlers (2003, p. 22) reports that “the validity of the JDI has demonstrated good evidence for its use.”

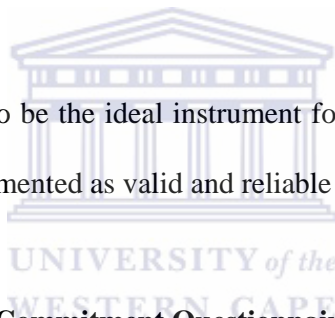
According to Smith (n.d., p. 278), “the JDI scales show a relationship with other measures of satisfaction (average $r = 0.70$) and are affected in the expected directions for worker, job, and situational differences.” She further postulates by stating that the

JDI has validity as a measure of satisfaction. The direct JDI measures also correlated highly with several entirely different sets of measures which requested the respondent to rate his job satisfaction directly, which gave additional credence to its validity (Smith, n.d.).

In an attempt to finding job satisfaction instruments with adequate reliability and validity, van Saane, Sliuter, Verbeek and Frings-Dresen (2003) used a heterogeneous sample and found convergent validity of the JDI to be .49 to .79.

3.3.3.4 Rationale for Inclusion

The JDI has appeared to be the ideal instrument for the present study as it is highly regarded and well-documented as valid and reliable (Pennington & Riley, n.d.).



3.3.4 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

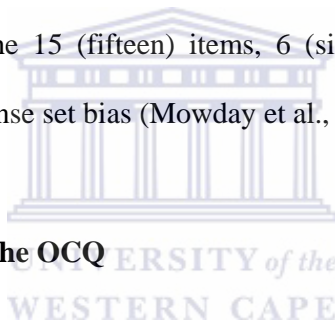
The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to elicit data on organizational commitment.

3.3.4.1 Nature and Composition of the OCQ

The OCQ was developed by Mowday et al. (1982) as a result of their discovery of the need for an instrument with acceptable psychometric properties that exclusively measures organizational commitment. A typical statement from the questionnaire would be “I am willing to do more than normally expected for the organization to be

successful” or “The organization really inspire the very best in me in the way of job performance.” Responses are obtained on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = moderately agree, 7 = strongly agree.

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire consists of 15 statements. Each statement attempts to extract the employee’s feelings towards organizational policies, goals and values, their willingness go the extra mile, and whether they are proud to be associated with the organization. With regards to scoring, results are summed and then divided by 15 (fifteen) to arrive at a summary indicator of organizational commitment. Out of the 15 (fifteen) items, 6 (six) of the items were negatively phrased to reduce response set bias (Mowday et al., 1982).



3.3.4.2 Reliability of the OCQ

To evaluate the psychometric properties, studies were done amongst 2563 employees in nine deviating organizations and satisfactory test retest reliabilities and internal consistency reliabilities were found. By the same token, cross-validated evidence of predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity surfaced from this instrument (Mowday et al., 1982). Furthermore, Reyes and Pounder (1993) state that this instrument has been tested with several groups such as public and university employees and appears to yield consistent results across different types of organizations.

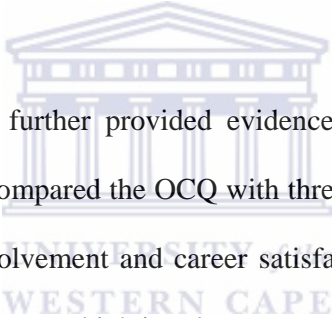
The alpha coefficient for the instrument ranged from 0.82 to 0.93 and was consistently high across all samples used, with a median coefficient of .90 (Mowday et al., 1982). The consistency of the OCQ was examined by computing the test retest reliabilities. Mowday et al. (1982) confirmed these test retest reliabilities (from $r = 0.53$ to $r = 0.75$) over periods ranging from two to four months. Cronbach coefficient for the OCQ were reported by Mottaz (1985) as follows: 0.71 for general working conditions, 0.82 for supervision, 0.82 for coworkers, 0.82 for promotion, and 0.83 for salary.

According to Mowday et al. (1982), acceptable levels of test re-test reliability and internal consistencies were determined for the OCQ. Internal consistency was calculated in three different ways namely, coefficient alpha, item analysis and factor analysis. Mowday and colleagues (1982) uphold that the coefficient alpha for the OCQ is consistently high ranging from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median of 0.90. The item analysis outcome indicate each item had a positive correlation with the total score of the OCQ; with the average ranging from .36 to .72 and a median correlation of .64. Finally, factor analyses generally resulted in a single-factor solution and yielded further evidence that the items measuring a common underlying construct (Mowday et al., 1982).

Kline and Russell (1998) conducted a study amongst eighty three (83) Mexican employees within a large division in a US manufacturing firm in Mexico. The researchers computed the coefficient alpha to determine the internal consistency reliability of the OCQ with the result being acceptable at .82.

3.3.4.3 Validity of the OCQ

According to Mowday et al. (1982), the validity of the OCQ displays evidence of convergent, discriminant and predictive validity. In order to provide support that the OCQ owns convergent validity, the researchers linked the OCQ score with the sources of the Organizational Attachment Questionnaire. Convergent validities across six (6) diverse samples ranged from .63 to .74 with a median of .70 which provided undeniable evidence of convergent validity of the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1982).



Mowday et al., (1982) further provided evidence of discriminant validity of the OCQ. The researchers compared the OCQ with three (3) other measures specifically, job satisfaction, job involvement and career satisfaction. The relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement ranged from $r = .30$ to $r = .56$ across four (4) samples. Correlations between organizational commitment and a three (3) item measure of career satisfaction displayed .39 and .40 for two (2) samples. Across four (4) studies correlations between organizational commitment and scales of the Job Descriptive Index ranged from .01 to .68 with a median correlation of .41.

Mowday et al. (1982) established convergent validity by indicating that OCQ scores were positively correlated with work-oriented life interest and supervisor ratings of subordinates' commitment. In addition they also demonstrated evidence of discriminant validity, reporting low correlations between scores on the OCQ and measures of job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction. Lastly, they

confirmed that the OCQ has predictive validity based on its correlates with voluntary turnover, absenteeism, and job performance.

3.3.4.4 Rationale for Inclusion

The OCQ has proven to be a reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.4 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The research data were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical techniques enabled the researcher to analyze the raw data precisely obtained from the measuring instruments.

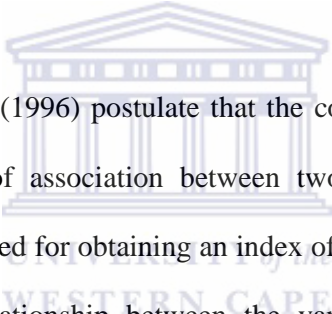
3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics describe the phenomena of interest (Sekaran, 2003) and is used to analyze data for classifying and summarizing numerical data. It includes the analysis of data using frequencies, dispersions of dependent and independent variables and measures of central tendency and variability and to obtain a feel for the data (Sekaran, 2003). The mean and standard deviation is primarily used to describe the data obtained from the MEQ, JDI and the OCQ. The results of the biographical questionnaire is comprised of frequencies and percentages obtained from on the sample characteristics.

3.4.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics allow the researcher to present the data obtained in the research in statistical format to facilitate the identification of important patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful. According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics is employed when generalisations from a sample to population are made. The statistical methods used in this research include the Pearson Product Moment Correlation, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the T-Test.

3.4.3 Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient



Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996) postulate that the correlation procedures are used to measure the strength of association between two (2) variables. The correlation coefficient is a gauge used for obtaining an index of the relationship between two (2) variables when the relationship between the variables is linear and when two variables correlated are continuous (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2002). Values that are close to zero display a weak linear relationship. At the same time as the value of the coefficient (r), moves towards either -1.00 or + 1.00, the strength of the relationship increases which indicates a positive linear correlation. By the same token, a strong negative correlation exists when the (r) is close to -1.00 (Ghiselli, Campbell & Zedeck, 1981).

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to ascertain whether a statistically significant relationship exists between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

3.4.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

According to Christensen (1994), ANOVA is a general procedure for analysing data from a research design that uses more than two levels of one independent variable and/or more than one independent variable. The simplest form of analysis of variance is the one-way analysis of variance. ANOVA requires that the sample from which the data is obtained be drawn from a normally distributed population. ANOVA was used to determine whether there are differences in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics of the sample. This statistical method is also used to establish if a statistical significant difference exist between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.



3.4.5 T- Test

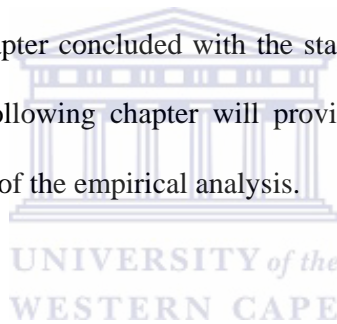
The independent samples t-test is based on the difference between the two sample means hence the expected value of "t" when the independent variable has had no effect is zero.

The t-scores were calculated to determine significant differences between gender groups. If the independent variable has had an effect, however, the "t" will differ from zero. The obtained "t" must be compared with a critical value from the appropriate t-distribution to establish if it is statistically significant (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

A 5% level of significance was used. Statistical significance is used to determine the difference between two groups. Moore and McCabe (1993 cited in Hartmann, 2003) posit that the smaller the p-value, the more support there is that a statistical significance exist. A “F” value of less than 0.05 will be accepted in this study.

3.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided a summary and comprehensive outline of the sample, the measuring instruments used, and the procedure followed to gather the data. The hypotheses as well as the various statistical techniques used to analyze the data were highlighted and the chapter concluded with the statistical techniques utilized to test the hypotheses. The following chapter will provide the findings of the study by reporting on the results of the empirical analysis.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study and provides a comprehensive discussion of these results. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, that is, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment, are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are then drawn on the basis of the obtained results. In chapter 5 which provide an overview of the research undertaking, some suggestions and recommendations are provided that may prove fruitful in future research projects of a similar nature.

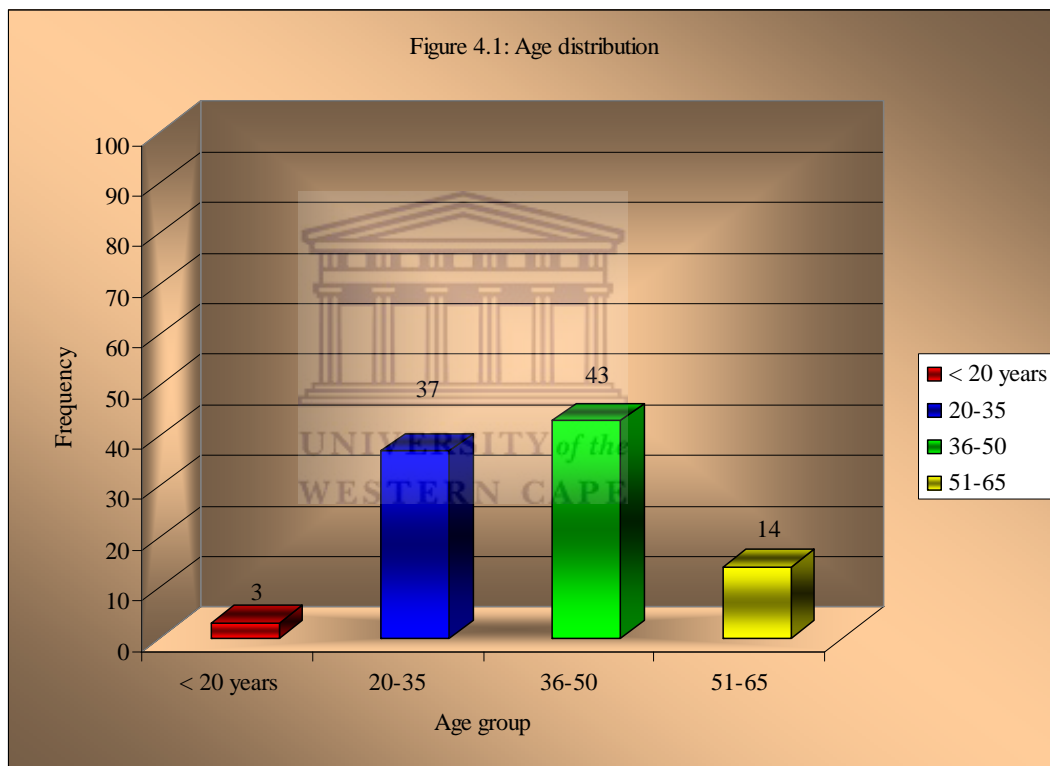
4.2 RESULTS OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the

properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented graphically for each of the above-mentioned variables.

Figure 4.1 depicts the age distribution of the sample



The majority of the respondents were in the age group between 36-50 (n=43, that is approximately 45%), followed by those in the age group 20-35 (n=37, 38%) and 51-65 (n=14, or 14%). Those younger than 20 comprised the minority of the respondents (n=3), that is 3% of the respondents.

Figure 4.2 illustrates the gender distribution of the respondents

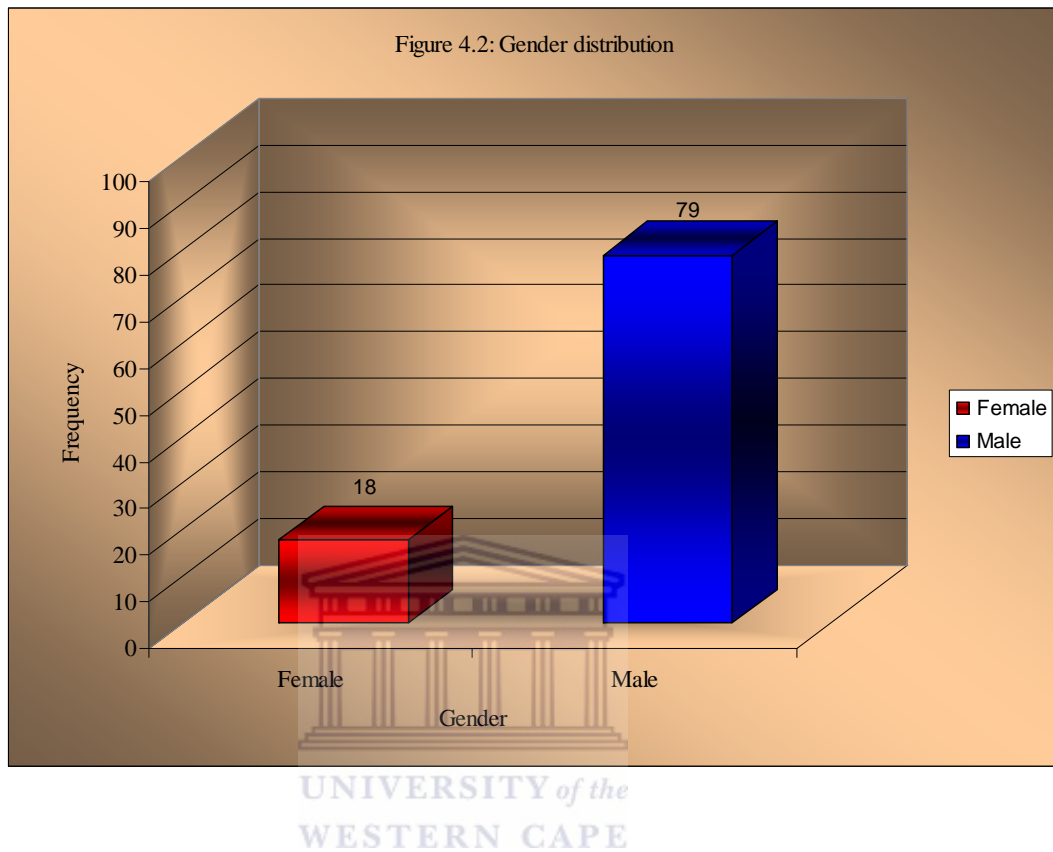
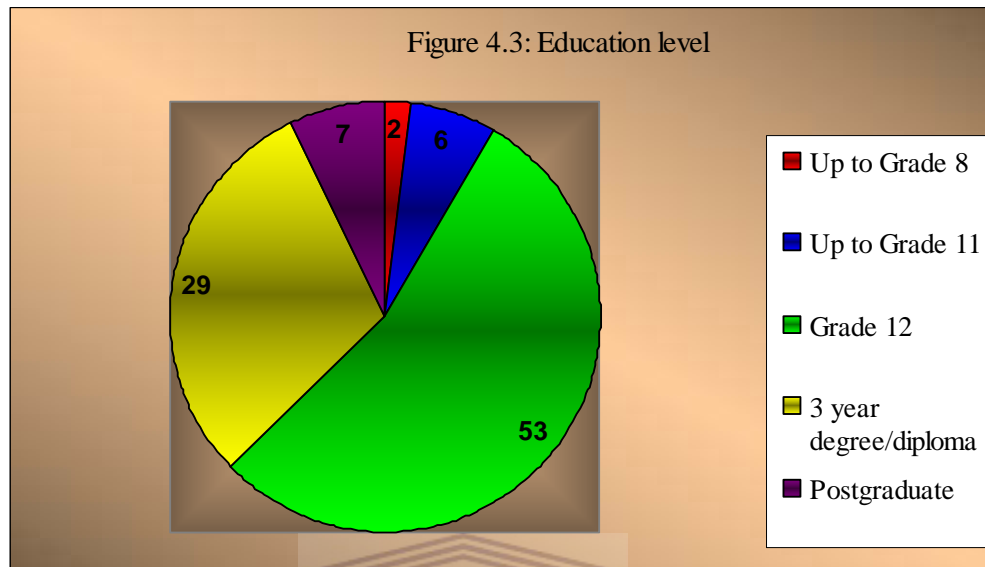


Figure 4.2 indicates that the majority of the respondents were male, that is 79 of the 97, representing 81% of the sample while the remaining 18 (19%) comprised of female respondents.

Figure 4.3 provides an overview of the educational level of the respondents



The majority of the respondents had a Grade 12 qualification (n=53, that is 55%), while a further 29, that is 30% had 3-year degree/diploma qualifications. Six (6) respondents had up to grade 11 qualification, that is 6%, while a further 7% (n=7) had postgraduate qualifications. Only 2 respondents (that is 2%) had qualifications up to grade 8.

Figure 4.4 illustrates the income distribution of the respondents

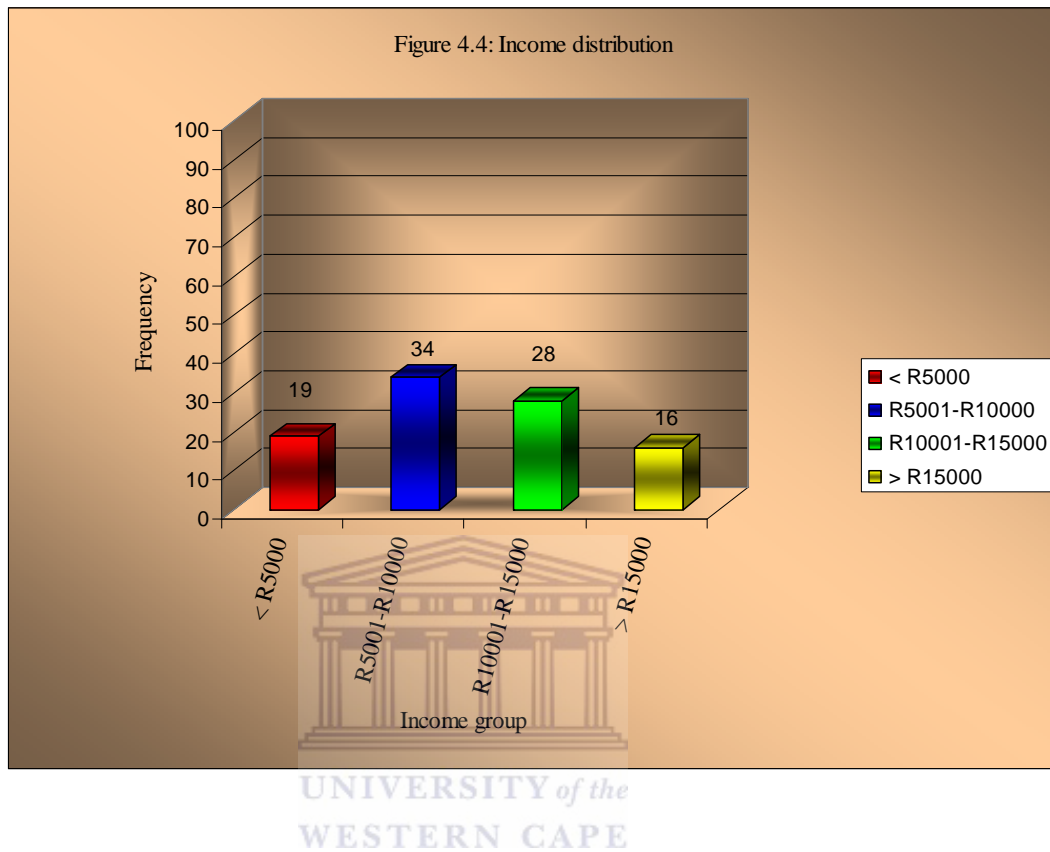
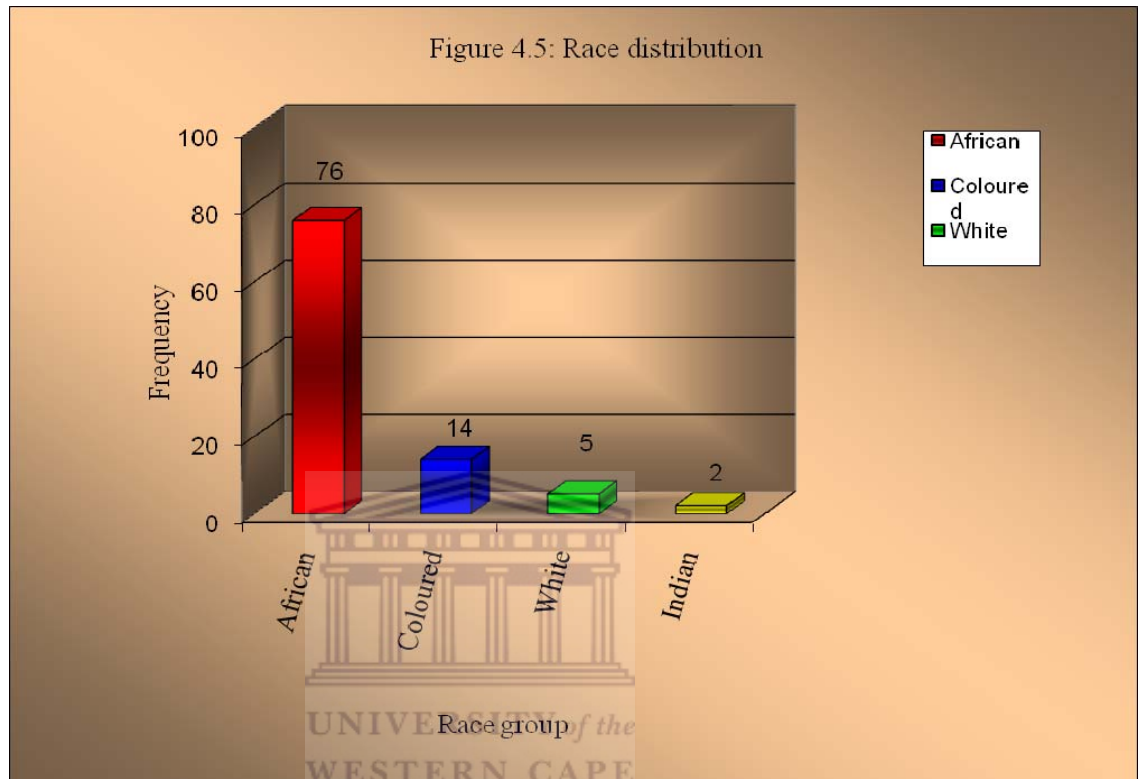


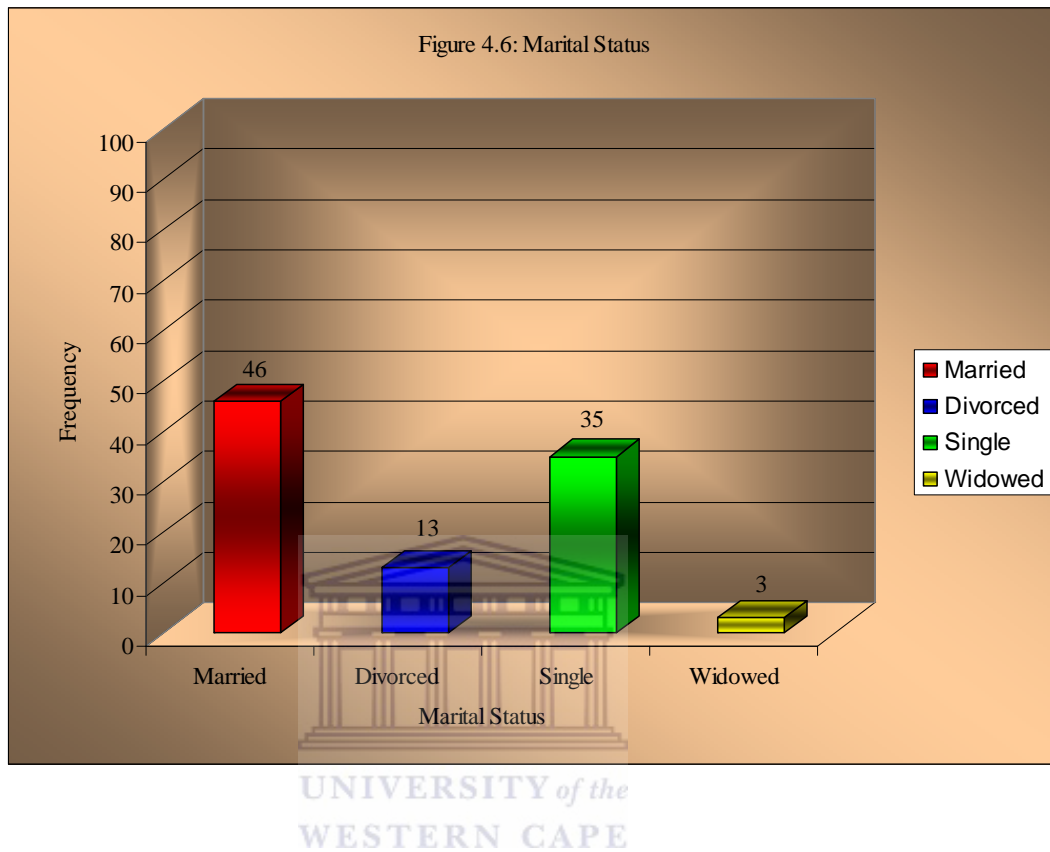
Figure 4.4 shows that the majority of the sample $n=34$ (or 35%) earned between R5001 and R10 000, while a further 28 respondents, that is 29% earned between R 10 001 and R15 000. While 19 respondents (or 20%) earned less than R5000, only 16 respondents, that is 16%, earned more than R15 000.

Figure 4.5 presents the race group of the respondents



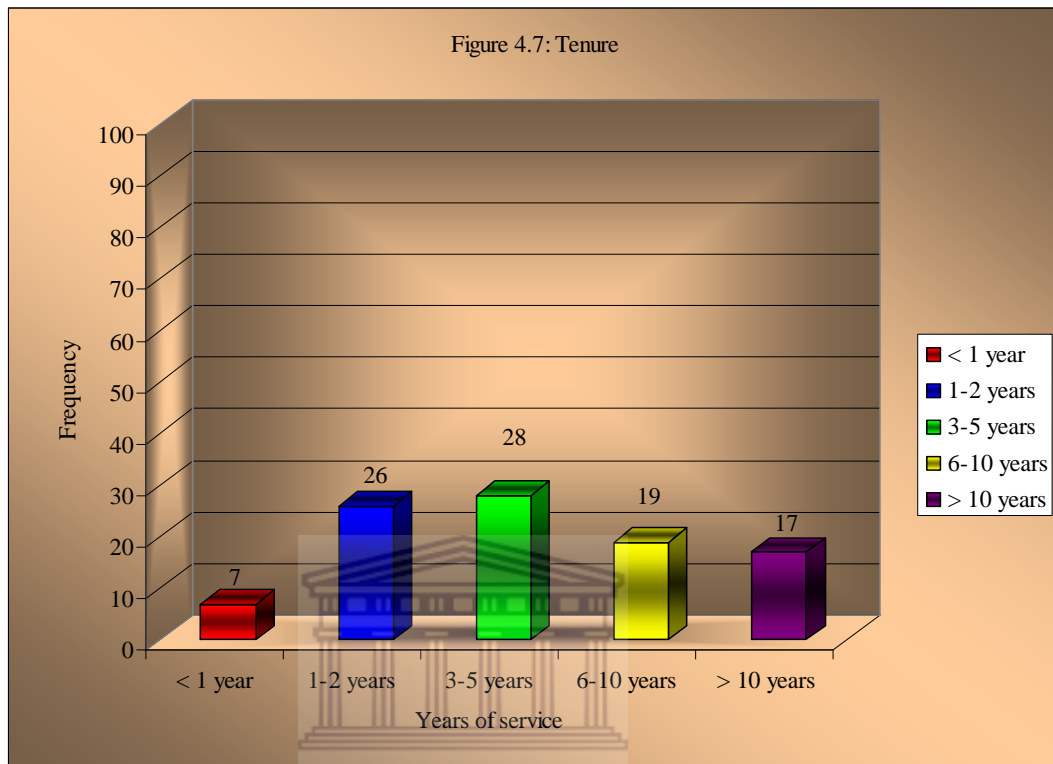
The majority of the sample was African ($n=76$, that is 78%), followed by Coloured respondents ($n=14$, or 15%). White ($n=5$) represented 5% of the sample, while Indian respondents comprised the minority ($n=2$), that is 2%.

Figure 4.6 depicts the marital status of the respondents



The majority of the sample was married (n=46 or 47%), while a further 35 respondents, (36%), was single. Thirteen (13) employees indicated they were divorced (13%), and widowed employees comprised the smallest group of respondents (n=3 or 3%) of the sample.

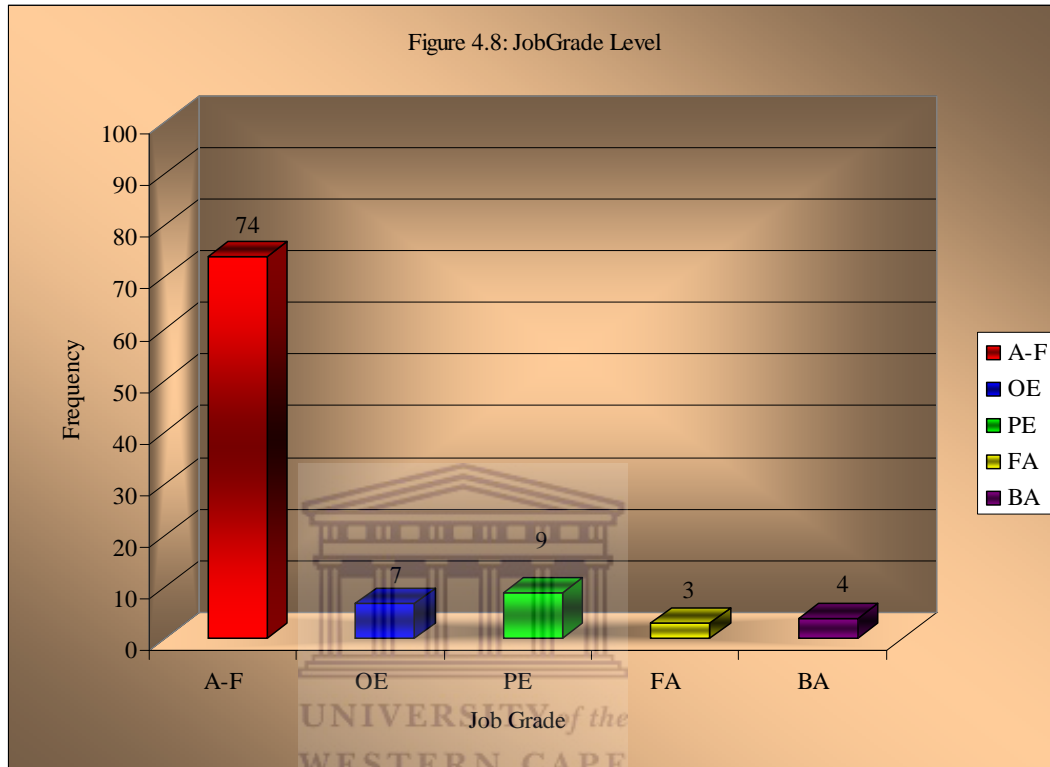
Figure 4.7 illustrates the length of service in the organisation



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The majority of the respondents have been employed in the organisation for between 3-5 years (n=28 or 29%), with 26 respondents (27%) working in the organisation for between 1-2 years. While 19 employees have been in the organisation for 6- 10 years (19%), and a further 17 employees have been with the organisation for more than 10 years (18%), only 7 employees (7%) have worked in the organisation for less than 1 year.

Figure 4.8 presents the job grade level of the sample

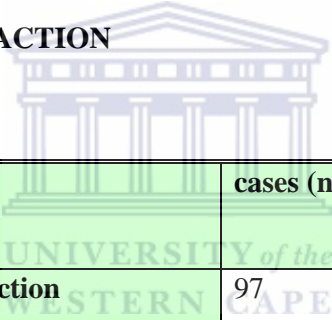


The majority of the respondents were employed at job grade level A-F ($n=74$), that is 76%, with 9 employees (that is, 9%) working at grade level PE. While 7 employees (or 7%) of the respondents occupied Grade OE, only 3 employees (that is 3%) were working at grade level FA (3%) and 4 employees (or 4%) were at grade level BA.

4.3 RESULTS OF THE JOB SATISFACTION, PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRES

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the various dimensions assessed by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Psychological Empowerment and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The results are presented in Table 4.1 and 4.2, respectively.

TABLE 4.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION



Variable	cases (n)	Mean	standard deviation
Job satisfaction	97	142.117	26.205
Nature of the job	97	43.066	7.552
Pay	97	14.672	5.003
Supervision	97	41.117	7.141
Promotion	97	13.963	5.088
Co-workers	97	40.423	9.198

Table 4.1 indicates that the arithmetic mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample is 142.117 with a standard deviation of 26.205. Given that an average level of job satisfaction, as measured by the JDI, would be represented by a mean of approximately 144, it may be concluded that the overall job satisfaction of the sample is relatively low. The standard deviation for the overall level of job

satisfaction is also not high, indicating that most respondents are close to the mean on this dimension.

With respect to the dimensions of job satisfaction assessed by the JDI, Table 4.1 indicates that the arithmetic means for the work, supervision and co-workers subscales are 43.066, 41.117 and 40.423, respectively. When it is considered that a mean of approximately 36 would constitute an average level of satisfaction on these scales, it appears as though the majority of the employees in the sample are relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, with the supervision that they receive, as well as with their co-workers. Furthermore, means of 14.672 and 13.963 were obtained for the pay and promotions subscales, respectively. Average levels of satisfaction on these subscales would be represented by a mean score of approximately 18. It may therefore be concluded that respondents' satisfaction with their pay and their opportunities for advancement are below the average for these scales.

Moreover, it may be concluded from Table 4.1 that respondents are most satisfied with the supervision that they receive, followed by their co-workers and the nature of the job itself. They appear, however, to be least satisfied with their compensation and with their opportunities for promotion. Table 4.1 further indicates that the standard deviations for the nature of the job (7.552), pay (5.003), supervision (7.141), and promotion (5.088) subscales are not very high. The standard deviation for the co-workers subscale (9.198) is slightly higher. Nevertheless, it appears as though most of the employees in the sample are relatively close to the mean on these dimensions.

TABLE 4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DIMENSIONS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dimension	Number of items	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Affective commitment	5	97	13.43	4.11	1	5
Normative commitment	5	97	15.32	3.23	1	5
Continuance commitment	5	97	13.28	3.95	1	5
Total commitment	15	97	47.38	6.11	15	75

Table 4.2 depicts the results for the dimensions of organizational commitment as well as total organizational commitment as determined by the OCQ. The results in Table 4.2 indicate that the mean and standard deviation for the organizational commitment of the sample are 47.38 and 6.11, respectively.

A mean score of approximately 60 is typically indicative of an average level of organizational commitment. However, in the current research, it may be seen that this level is substantially lower, thereby indicating below average levels of organizational commitment.

Given that the respondents' levels of organizational commitment were lower than what constitutes an average level, it can be concluded that respondents display below average belief in the organization's goals and values (Mean = 13.43, SD = 4.11), express below average willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the

organisation (Mean = 15.32, SD = 3.23), and have a below average desire to maintain membership of the organization (Mean = 13.28, SD = 3.95).

TABLE 4.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Dimension	N	Mean	SD
Meaning	97	9.14	4.32
Competence commitment	97	18.98	3.19
Self determination	97	17.32	4.02
Impact	97	16.54	3.43

In terms of the dimensions of psychological empowerment it may be seen that respondents do not feel that their work has meaning to them (Mean = 9.14, SD = 4.32). However, they feel that they have the ability to do their jobs competently (Mean = 18.98, SD = 3.19), and also experience a sense of self determination (Mean = 17.32, SD = 4.02). Moreover they also consider the impact of what they do to be large (Mean = 16.54, SD = 3.43).

4.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

In the sections that follow the results of the inferential statistics employed in the study are presented. For the purposes of testing the stated research hypotheses, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated; t-tests and

analysis of variance were performed. With the aid of these statistical techniques conclusions are drawn with regard to the population from which the sample was taken and decisions are made with respect to the research hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

There is a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2

Employees who are psychologically empowered are likely to exhibit job satisfaction

Table 4.4 below makes reference to these two hypotheses.

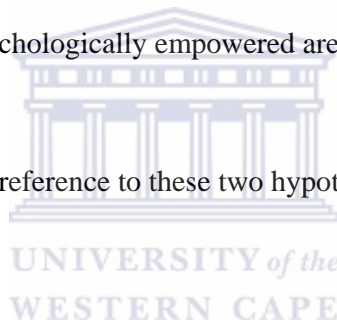


Table 4.4: Relationship between **psychological empowerment** (competence commitment, meaning, self determination and impact), **job satisfaction** and **organizational commitment**

	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Commitment
Job satisfaction	1	
Organizational Commitment	r (0.783) p = 0.00**	1
Meaning	r (0.524) p = 0.00**	r (0.343) p = 0.04*
Competence commitment	r (0.446) p = 0.02*	r (0.265) p = 0.04*
Self determination	r (0.516) p = 0.00**	r (0.676) p = 0.00**
Impact	r (0.754) p = 0.00**	r (0.722) p = 0.00**
Psychological Empowerment	0.675 P = 0.00 **	0.564 p = 0.00**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

The Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed for the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The results indicate that there was a significant and direct relationship between job satisfaction and psychological empowerment ($r = 0.675, p < 0.01$). In addition, there was a direct relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. The relationships between meaning ($r = 0.524, p < 0.01$), competence commitment ($r = 0.446, p < 0.05$), self determination ($r = 0.516, p < 0.01$) and impact ($r = 0.754, p < 0.01$), respectively and job satisfaction, were all statistically significant.

There was also a statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment ($r = 0.564, p < 0.01$). The results indicate that there was a significant relationship between meaning ($r = 0.343, p < 0.05$), and competence commitment ($r = 0.265, p < 0.05$) with organizational commitment respectively. Moreover, there was a direct relationship between self determination ($r = 0.676, p < 0.01$) and impact ($r = 0.722, p < 0.01$) and organizational commitment. The strongest relationship was, however, between job satisfaction and organizational commitment ($r = 0.783, p < 0.01$).

The results provide evidence that the greater the job satisfaction, the higher is an employee's organizational commitment. Moreover, employees who feel psychologically empowered are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. **Hence, hypotheses 1 and 2 are accepted for both.**

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics (namely tenure, gender and race).

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference between job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on biographical characteristics (namely tenure, gender and race).

Table 4.5 makes reference to the biographical variable, **gender for job satisfaction and organizational commitment.**

Table 4.5: Independent Samples t-test to determine **gender** differences in job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
		F	Sig.	T
Psychological empowerment	Equal variances assumed	7.973	.006**	-1.064
Job Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	5.927	.064	.132
Organizational Commitment	Equal variances assumed	6.118	.045*	1.207

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.5 depicts whether there are significant gender differences in psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in psychological empowerment based on gender ($t = -1.064$, $p < 0.01$). **Hence, the hypothesis is accepted for hypothesis 3 with respect to gender.** There are also statistically significant differences in organizational commitment based on respondents' gender ($t = 1.207$, p

< 0.05). There was no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction based on the respondents' gender ($t = .132, p > 0.05$). **Hence, the hypothesis is partially accepted for hypothesis 4.**

Table 4.6: ANOVA illustrating differences in psychological empowerment based on tenure and race.

		F	Sig.
Tenure	Between Groups	2.242	.008**
	Within Groups		
	Total		
Race	Between Groups	2.340	.059
	Within Groups		
	Total		

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$



Hypothesis 3

Table 4.6 provides the results for the ANOVA depicting differences in psychological empowerment based on the biographical variables of tenure and race. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in psychological empowerment based on the number of years in the organization ($F = 2.242, p < 0.01$). There were however, no statistically significant differences in psychological empowerment based on race ($F = 2.340, p > 0.05$). **Hence, the hypothesis is partially accepted.**

Hypothesis 4

Table 4.7: ANOVA illustrating differences in **job satisfaction** based on **tenure** and **race**.

		F	Sig.
Tenure	Between Groups	3.651	.000**
	Within Groups		
	Total		
Race	Between Groups	2.978	.036*
	Within Groups		
	Total		

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$



Table 4.7 provides the results for the ANOVA depicting differences in job satisfaction based on tenure and race. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction based on tenure ($F = 3.651$, $p < 0.01$) as well as on race ($F = 2.978$, $p < 0.05$). **Hence the null hypothesis is accepted for the biographicals tenure and race.**

Hypothesis 4

Table 4.8: ANOVA illustrating differences in **organizational commitment** based on **tenure and race**.

		F	Sig.
Tenure	Between Groups	3.132	.000**
	Within Groups		
	Total		
Race	Between Groups	2.476	.043*
	Within Groups		
	Total		

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$



Table 4.8 provides the results for the ANOVA depicting differences in organizational commitment based on tenure and race. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in organizational commitment based on tenure ($F = 3.132$, $p < 0.01$) and based on race ($F = 2.476$, $p < 0.05$). **Hence the hypothesis is accepted for the biographical tenure and race.**

4.4. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach's Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and/or multi-point formatted questionnaires or

scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient, however, the closer Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

TABLE 4.9: CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENT ALPHA FOR JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

	Number of cases	Number of Items	Coefficient Alpha
Psychological empowerment	97	12	0.943
Job satisfaction	97	69	0.891
Organizational commitment	97	15	0.915

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According to research, such a score can be regarded as excellent in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence within the current study, this was exceeded, indicating a high degree or reliability of all questionnaires that were utilised.

Table 4.10 **Summary of Hypotheses**

	Hypothesis	Findings
H1	There is a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.	Accepted
H2	There is a significant difference in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics (namely, tenure, gender and race).	Accepted
H3	Employees who feel psychologically empowered are likely to exhibit job satisfaction.	Partially Accepted
H4	There is significant differences between job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on biographical characteristics (namely, age, tenure, gender and race)	Partially Accepted

4.5 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

This chapter has provided an overview of the most important findings which emerged from the empirical analysis. The next section presents a discussion of the findings obtained and compares findings obtained with other research conducted in this field.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter discusses prominent findings of the study and makes reference to relevant research from various environments to substantiate the findings of the current study. This chapter include demographic information of the sample, results obtained from the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Conclusion are drawn based on the obtained results, limitations and recommendations are put forth.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SAMPLE

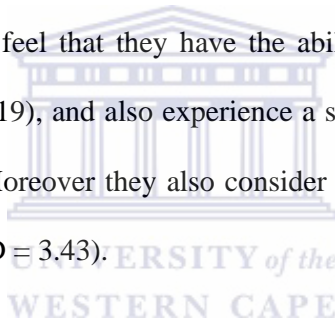
The sample consisted of 110 permanent employees in a multi-national organization. The majority of the sample was Coloured (n = 50, that is 52%), followed by African (n = 36, or 37%), with the sample being more representative of males than females (n = 79 or 81%).

The majority of the respondents were in the age group 36-50 (n = 43, that is 45%), followed by those in the age group 20-35 (n = 37 or 38%). Most of the respondents had a Grade 12 qualification (n = 53, that is 55%), with the majority earning between

R5001 and R10 000 (n = 34 or 35%). Most of the respondents were married (n = 46 or 47%), and most have been employed in the organisation for between 3-5 years (n = 28 or 29%). The majority of the respondents were employed at job grade level A-F (n = 74 or 76%).

5.3.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

In terms of the dimensions of psychological empowerment it is reported that respondents do not feel that their work has meaning to them (Mean = 9.14, SD = 4.32). However, they feel that they have the ability to do their jobs competently (Mean = 18.98, SD = 3.19), and also experience a sense of self determination (Mean = 17.32, SD = 4.02). Moreover they also consider the impact of what they do to be large (mean = 16.54, SD = 3.43).



5.3.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

With respect to the dimensions of job satisfaction assessed by the JDI, the arithmetic means for the work, supervision and co-worker subscales are 43.066, 41.117 and 40.423, respectively. When it is considered that a mean of approximately 36 would constitute an average level of satisfaction on these scales, it appears as though the majority of the employees in the sample are relatively satisfied with the nature of the work that they perform, with the supervision that they receive, as well as with their

co-workers. Furthermore, means of 14.672 and 13.963 were obtained for the pay and promotions subscales, respectively. Average levels of satisfaction on these subscales would be represented by a mean score of approximately 18. It may therefore be concluded that respondents' satisfaction with their pay and their opportunities for advancement are below the average for these scales.

It may be concluded that respondents are most satisfied with the supervision that they receive, followed by their co-workers and the nature of the job itself. They appear, however, to be least satisfied with their compensation and with their opportunities for promotion. Furthermore, the findings indicate that the standard deviations for the nature of the job (7.552), pay (5.003), supervision (7.141), and promotions (5.088) subscales are not very high. The standard deviation for the co-workers subscale (9.198) is slightly higher. Nevertheless, it appears as though most of the employees in the sample are relatively close to the mean on these dimensions.

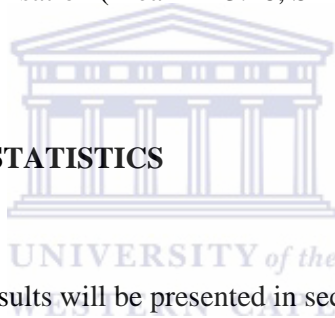
5.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The results for the dimensions of organizational commitment as well as total organizational commitment as determined by the OCQ indicate that the mean and standard deviation for the organizational commitment of the sample are 47.38 and 6.11, respectively.

A mean score of approximately 60 is typically indicative of an average level of organizational commitment. In the current research, the mean is below substantially 60 hence, indicating below average levels of organizational commitment.

Given that the respondents' levels of organizational commitment were lower than what constitutes an average level, it can be concluded that respondents display below average belief in the organization's goals and values (Mean = 13.43, SD= 4.11), express below average willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Mean = 15.32, SD= 3.23), and have a below average desire to maintain membership of the organisation (Mean = 13.28, SD = 3.95).

5.6 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS



The discussion of the results will be presented in sections as per hypothesis stipulated in chapter 1.

5.6.1 HYPOTHESIS 1

There is a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The results of the current study indicate that there was a significant and direct relationship between job satisfaction and psychological empowerment ($r = 0.675$, $p < 0.01$). There was also a statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment ($r = 0.564$, $p < 0.01$). The strongest

relationship was however, between job satisfaction and organizational commitment ($r = 0.783, p < 0.01$). **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.**

Numerous researchers have reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; McNeese-Smith, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Popoola (n.d.) investigated organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions amongst records management personnel in Nigeria. The researcher expected no significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The null hypothesis was however rejected. The finding suggests that the higher the job satisfaction of records management employees, the more likely they would be organizationally committed and vice versa.

According to Linden et al. (2000), empowering individuals could result in higher levels of work satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance. Many researchers have indicated that empowered individuals tend to be highly concentrated, self-motivated and resilient (Avolio et al., 2004; Kanter, 1983; Kraimer et al., 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Hartline and Ferrell (1996) conducted a study of 279 hotel unit, the findings revealed that empowerment, under the correct conditions, increased job satisfaction and service quality. The researchers posit that it is logical that providing customer-contact employees with the discretion in serving customers would result in many positive influences on their responses and the service encounter.

Psychological empowerment has been found to be significantly related to job satisfaction though the individual constructs have received mixed results (Carless, 2004; Seibert, Sliver & Randolph, 2004; Spreizer et al., 1997). Nonetheless, several studies (for example, Koberg & Colorado, 1999; Silver, 2000; Hancer, 2001) point towards a statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Seibert et al. (2004) conducted a study by collecting data from 375 employees in one division of a Fortune 100 manufacturer of high technology office equipment situated in the North Eastern United States. They hypothesised that psychological empowerment will be positively related to job satisfaction. Their hypothesis was accepted as psychological empowerment was significantly and positively related to individual performance and job satisfaction. In a South African study by Buckle (2003) with a sample of $n = 137$ employees in a chemical organization, results showed positive correlations of large effect between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Buitendach and Hlalele (2005) with a sample of $n = 91$ engineers in a chemical organization in South African, hypothesised that there is a relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Their hypothesis was accepted.

In a study by Linden et al. (2000) a sample of 337 employees and their immediate supervisors were utilized to investigate the mediating role of empowerment in relations between job characteristics, leader-member exchange, team-member exchange and work outcomes. They predicted empowerment to be positively related to work satisfaction and organizational commitment. Results yielded partial support for their hypotheses. “The mediating effects uncovered were meaning and competence dimensions of empowerment in the relations between job characteristics,

job satisfaction and organizational commitment” (p. 414). The researchers also found that empowering conditions, such as opportunities for decision autonomy, challenge and responsibility make employees appreciate what they have. As a result, such appreciation fosters feelings of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.

Ahmad and Oranye (2010) conducted a study amongst 556 registered nurses and found a relatively weak relationship between structural empowerment and organizational commitment in samples for, England and Malaysia. These findings are consistent with Wilson and Laschinger’s (1994 cited in Ahmad & Oranye, 2010) research on Kanter’s theory of structural empowerment, which stated that high perceptions of power have strong positive relationships with organizational commitment. Ahmad and Oranye (2010) postulates that it seems that the nature of the profession is likely to conclude which dimension of empowerment will produce greater organizational commitment.

Jansen (2004) investigated conflict with superiors in respect to employee empowerment and organizational commitment amongst a sample of $n = 91$ secondary school teachers in the Netherlands. The results on the other hand, showed that a positive relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment disappears in the event that employees experience higher levels of conflict with superiors. The researcher concludes that superiors are the most significant agents of the organization who ultimately assign job products to their subordinates. Hence, empowered workers who keenly take initiatives in their work roles and environment might be hindered by superiors who resist those initiatives.

In a study by Avolio et al. (2004) questionnaires were administered to a sample of 520 staff nurses at a large hospital in Singapore. They hypothesised that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The hypothesis was supported only for indirect level of leadership. The researchers attribute this finding to the “in part by the differences in how empowered employees feel with respect to working with their senior or indirect supervisor.” (p. 962)

5.6.2 HYPOTHESIS 2

Employees who are psychologically empowered are likely to exhibit job satisfaction.



The results indicate that there was a significant and direct relationship between job satisfaction and psychological empowerment ($r = 0.675$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, there was a direct relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. The relationships between meaning ($r = 0.524$, $p < 0.01$), competence commitment ($r = 0.446$, $p < 0.05$), self determination ($r = 0.516$, $p < 0.01$) and impact ($r = 0.754$, $p < 0.01$), respectively and job satisfaction, were all statistically significant. The results provide evidence that employees who feel psychologically empowered are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction.

Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.

Spreitzer and Quinn (1997 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005) studied each of the four cognitions of empowerment and their association with job satisfaction. They

found meaning, self-determination and competence to be related to job satisfaction. Parker and Price (1994 cited in Buitendach & Hlalele, 2005) clarify that self-determination seems to boost confidence, making tasks less stressful and more intrinsically worthwhile.

In addition, Carless (2004) studied a sample of $n = 174$ customer service employees (59% female and 39% male) to determine the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. After a detailed assessment of the cognitions of empowerment the researcher found that meaning and competence were significant predictors of job satisfaction. The findings on impact were unclear, but was however, found to be a predictor of present job satisfaction, and not general job satisfaction. Self-determination was also not linked to job satisfaction. The researcher's conclusion is that when employees find the work they perform to be consistent with their beliefs, attitudes and behaviours they tend to be happier with their job.

Linden et al. (2000) postulated that of the four empowerment dimensions, the strongest theoretical argument for a positive relationship to work satisfaction has been made for meaningfulness. For the impact dimension, individuals should derive a sense of job satisfaction when they feel they have been directly involved in decision-making; the more satisfied they should be with the work itself (Niehoff et al., 1990). Fulford and Enz (1995) postulate state that empowered employees are likely to be more satisfied with and committed to their job.

In a South African study by Buitendach and Hlalele (2005) amongst 91 employees from the petrochemical industry, it was found that a large effect was found for

meaning, self-determination and impact, however, a medium effect was found for competence. The researchers concluded that improved levels of meaning, impact, self-determination and competence accordingly appear to be linked with increased levels of intrinsic job satisfaction.

On the contrary, various studies failed to support the relationship between some of the dimensions of empowerment and job satisfaction. Thomas and Tymon (1994 cited in Carless, 2004) study on a sample of employees from a research hospital, electronics company and computer services (n = 164) accounted that meaning, self-determination and impact were significant predictors of job satisfaction however, competence was not linked to general job satisfaction. Linden et al. (2000) explored the mediating effects of empowerment on the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction with a group of 337 lower-level employees of a large service organization. Results showed meaning and competence to be significantly mediating variables however, the same were not true for self-determination and impact.

In another study by Spreitzer et al. (1997) which investigated the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction in two different samples (namely, Sample 1 comprised of middle-level managers n = 393 and Sample 2 was lower-level employees n = 128 meaning was found to be the strongest predictor of job satisfaction whereas impact was not linked to job satisfaction. Indefinite findings were however, reported on self-determination and competence.

5.6.3 HYPOTHESIS 3

There is a significant difference in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics (namely gender, race and tenure)

5.6.3.1 Gender

The results derived from this study indicate a significant statistical difference in psychological empowerment based on gender (Table 4.5- $t = 1.064$, $p < 0.01$).

Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.

There have been mixed views for the relationship between gender and empowerment. According to Dimitriadis and Kifidu (2004), the relationship between gender and empowerment has been identified as an area with diverse findings. However, Kotze et al. (2007, p. 801) on the other hand, posits that “the relationship between gender and empowerment has been an under researched topic.”

Nonetheless, Hechanova, Alampay and Franco (2006) surveyed 954 employees in the Philippines and their results showed that men reported greater psychological empowerment than females even when controlling job level and job performance. The researchers postulate that their results are in line with that of previous findings with regards to subtle discrimination in Philippine organizations and also the fact that men get more opportunities for development and responsibilities. In support, Koberg

et al. (1999) delineates that some women tend to feel less empowered than men because they typically assume less powerful positions in organizations.

Kim and George (2005) examined the relationship between leader-member exchange and psychological empowerment amongst 173 casual employees from 20 restaurants in the United States and noted that the strongest relationship were between leader-member exchange and psychological empowerment among females with long tenure. Earlier studies conducted by Fulford and Enz (1995) and Hancer and George (2003) also support the above findings.

In contrast to the above studies and the results of the current study, Miller et al. (2001) found no relationship between the total empowerment score and any of the demographic variables being investigated (namely, gender, years in practice and education). Similarly, Dimitriades and Kifidu (2004) found no relationship between gender and empowerment in their study of Greek working students.

Faulkner and Laschinger (2008) conducted a study amongst 500 randomly selected hospital staff nurses and also found no significant relationships between empowerment and the demographic variables gender, age, work status, type hospital employed, educational level and years in nursing.

Kotze et al. (2007) studied 2232 employees of the SANDF and hypothesised no significant difference between males and females. The results proved that males and females appeared to be evenly competent in their work however, females generally experienced less psychological empowerment. Furthermore, females tended to feel

less in control of their work, and found it difficult to associate themselves with the organizational goals to the same degree as males. Possible reasons for the lack of control could be that women are mainly appointed in support structures and these positions are considered lower than combat positions, as well as in the African culture women are considered subordinate to men, possibly enforcing their feelings of powerlessness.

5.6.3.2 Race

Table 4.6 indicate that the results show no statistically significant difference in psychological empowerment based on race ($F = 2.340, p > 0.05$). ***Hence, the research hypothesis is rejected.***

Kotze et al. (2007, p. 803) posit that “there seems to be a paucity in reporting on the influence of race or culture on psychological empowerment.”

Nevertheless, amongst the few scholarly publications indicating empowerment, Koberg et al. (1999) investigated the consequences of psychological empowerment among 612 technically skilled, professional, and managerial hospital employees studied (129 women and 483 men) and found that Whites and non-Whites reported no significant differences in feelings of empowerment.

Gecas (1989 cited in Fourie, 2009) commented on a few studies where White men have indicated a considerably higher sense of personal control than Black men, whereas other studies found no little difference in the self esteem of Blacks and

Whites. In another South African study, Menon and Kotze (2004) concludes that non-Whites in the South African military experienced less psychological empowerment than their White counterparts.

Kotze et al. (2007) conducted a study amongst 2232 in the South African Defence Force to determine whether there are any significant differences between Coloureds, Asians, Blacks and Whites regarding their subjective experiences of empowerment. The study made use of the Bonferroni pairwise comparisons which indicated that Coloureds and Asians experienced more control, followed by Whites however, Blacks scored the lowest on control in their work situation. With regards to competence, Coloureds and Asians felt more competent, whereas by Whites and Blacks felt the least competent. The results elucidate that Coloured and Asian respondents' felt significantly more empowered than Blacks and Whites appeared to feel least empowered. The fact that Coloured and Asian respondents felt more empowered in all dimensions can only be speculated about. "In both eras, before and after 1994, both these groups occupied the middle position between Blacks and Whites- they were disadvantaged, but not to the same extent as the Blacks" (p. 810). It is possible that these groups did not have high prospects of the new dispensation, and it is likely that the current situation, in which they are considered to be disadvantaged groups, is beyond their expectation.

5.6.3.3 Tenure

The results depicted in Table 4.6 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in psychological empowerment based on the number of years in the organization

($F = 2.242, p < 0.01$). *Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.*

Koberg et al. (1999) studied the consequences of psychological empowerment amongst 612 employees in a hospital setting and found that employees with greater organizational tenure are more likely to experience feelings of empowerment. Similarly, Ozaralli (2003) found that employees who have a longer organizational tenure with their employer feel more empowered than those with shorter organizational tenure and suggested that this increase in empowerment related to tenure was due to an increase in experience.

Dickson and Lorenz (2009) reviewed the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of $n = 1500$ students who worked as temporary and part-time non-standard workers. They hypothesised that the organizational tenure of temporary or part-time nonstandard workers will be positively associated with the employee's psychological empowerment however, the hypothesis was not substantiated. As an explanation the researchers attest that it may be as a result of the sample consisting of undergraduate nonstandard workers. Furthermore, college students may possibly not anticipate remaining in a nonstandard work arrangement for long.

Conversely, Faulkner and Laschinger (2008) did a secondary analysis of a sample of 500 randomly selected hospital staff nurses in an attempt to determine the relationship between structural and psychological empowerment and their effect on hospital nurses' perceptions of respect no significant relationship was found between the demographic variables age gender, level of education and nursing experience and

psychological empowerment. The results imply that employees who gave access to empowering structures in the workplace generally have more positive attitudes towards their work, in particular, feelings of personal empowerment and respect.

5.6.4 HYPOTHESIS 4

There is a significant difference between job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on biographical characteristics (namely, gender, race and tenure).

(i) ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS



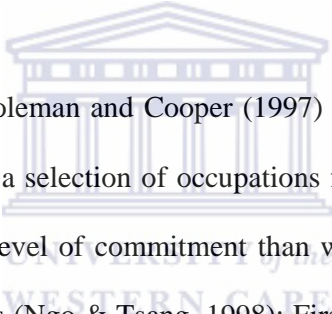
5.6.4.1 Gender

The results depicted in Table 4.5 reveal a statistically significant difference in organizational commitment based on respondents' gender ($t = 1.207, p < 0.05$).

Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.

Findings of the current study are consistent with various other studies which have been conducted with gender and organizational commitment. Gurses and Demiray (2009) studied a sample of $n = 134$ employees of a TV Production Centre to assess organizational commitment and found a significant relationship between gender and organizational commitment. The researchers explain the significant relations as a result of females being hesitant to consider new job opportunities due to family responsibilities like children and marriage.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) used a meta-analysis and found that women tend to be more committed than men however, the magnitude of the effect was small. An explanation for this finding was that women have to overcome more barriers than men to membership of organizations (Grusky, 1966) cited in Clayton, Petzall, Lynch & Margaret (2007) however, posit though that the problem is probably changing. Kwon and Banks (2004) conducted a study with a sample of internal auditors, they corroborate the greater commitment by females compared to their male counterparts. They put forward the reason as a difference in apparent alternate employment opportunities.



In their study Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997) studied responses from 232 (166 men and 66 women) in a selection of occupations from one organization and found that men had a higher level of commitment than women. This controversy may be explained by two factors (Ngo & Tsang, 1998); Firstly, the sexual division of labour may limit and diminish women's involvement and commitment to work. Secondly, men and women may build-up different career strategies and may have diverse perceptions and reactions to the same employment situation.

On the contrary, Wei, Zhejiang and Xin (2007) studied 123 employees from a China-based company and found gender not to be significantly associated with organizational commitment. Similarly, Karrasch (2003) who surveyed 1270 male and 142 female United States army captains attending a two week course found that affective and continuance commitment did not differ significantly based on gender however, a variance on continuance commitment showed that men were significantly

higher in continuance commitment than women. The researchers does not give an explanation for the variance however, they mention that United States service men and women remain in the army regardless of the hardships (for example, long hours, relocation, multiple deployments etcetera).

In another study Salami (2008) surveyed 320 employees randomly selected from five service and five manufacturing organizations (both private and public) in Nigeria. The researcher found no significant relationship between organizational commitment and gender.

In a study conducted by Kwon and Banks (2004) with a sample of 157 internal auditors to determine their professional and organizational commitment, results indicated that the only demographic variables which had a positive significant relationship with organizational commitment, were organizational size and gender. According to the researcher, this finding may be explained as a result of differences in perceived alternate employment opportunities. Clayton et al. (2007) conducted a study to determine the extent of organizational commitment amongst 312 financial planners. The findings reveal that a statistically significant higher level for females than males.

5.6.4.2 Race

The results reflected in Table 4.8 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in organizational commitment based on race ($F = 2.476, p < 0.05$). ***Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.***

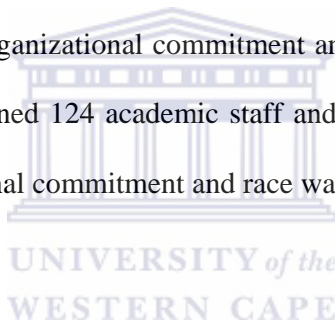
Muthuveloo and Rose (2005) investigated the major factors that contribute to organizational commitment amongst 380 engineers in Malaysia, their study consisted of. They found that race, academic background, country of graduation and religion have a strong influence on organizational commitment as these four elements are linked to the values and beliefs of respondents, which they are classified as attitudinal characteristics.

Rosser (2004) conducted a study to determine faculty members' intention to leave, with a sample of 12 755 full-time faculty members from two private and public post secondary institutions. Results displayed that the minority faculty (Caucasian) as a group had lower organizational commitment than the White faculty and was more likely to leave. It was postulated this might be explained by the fact that departmental climate, role model responsibility, and chosen line of inquiry could be an obstruction to the retention and recruitment of minority faculty members (Aquirre, 2000; Johnsrud & Sadoa, 1998; Turner & Meyers, 2000 cited in Rosser, 2004).

Al-Aameri (2000) conducted a study amongst 290 nurses working in public hospitals and found that the means of the level of nurses' commitment differed according to their nationality. On the one hand, Arab nurses were found to be more committed to their hospitals than other nationalities whereas, Europeans were found to be less committed to their hospitals than Arab nurses. Moreover, the other nationalities did not differ from one another or from these two groups.

In an attempt to explore the variance in race and gender differences in job satisfaction and commitment, Wantanabe (2010) conducted a study amongst 452 faculty members, the study revealed a significant gender and race variance for organizational commitment. The researcher adds that with regard to race variation, 84% of White faculty members intended to remain while 57% non-White faculty members intended to stay.

According to Morar (2006) there is a limited number of studies that take into account the impact of race on the level of commitment in South Africa. Morar (2006) used a sample of 120 employees from the Department of Health and found no significant relationship between organizational commitment and race. Another study conducted by Laher (2001) examined 124 academic staff and also no significant difference in the level of organizational commitment and race was found.



5.6.4.3 Tenure

Table 4.8 there is a statistically difference in organizational commitment based on tenure ($F = 3.132, p < 0.01$). ***Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.***

In a meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) the findings showed that age and organizational tenure are positively related to organizational commitment. Several other studies have confirmed that the length of service is positively associated to the level of internalization of organizational values which results in greater commitment from the individual (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 1995; O' Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991)

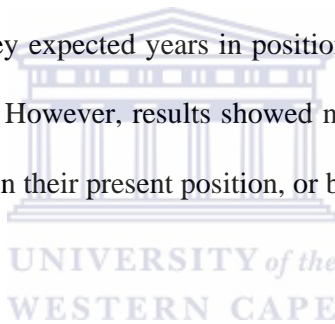
Newstrom (2007) posits that commitment is usually stronger among long-term stay employees. Meyer, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) found a positive relationship between organizational commitment and tenure. Furthermore, the researchers propose the likelihood that the longer a person works in an organization and the older they become, their feelings for responsibility for outcomes relevant to them also increases. Likewise, Salami (2008) conducted a study amongst n = 320 employees in Nigeria and also recognized a strong relationship between tenure and organizational commitment. The researcher explains that this might as a result of the fact that the longer an individual stays with an organization the more he or she has to appraise their relationship with the organization.

In a recent study by Iqbal (2010) in the Pakastani knitwear industry, results indicated that length of service is significantly positively associated with organizational commitment. This study is consistent with several previous findings which found that length of service is correlated with organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Newstrom, 2007; Salami, 2008). They further proposed that the likelihood that the longer an individual works for an organization and the older they become their feelings of responsibility for outcomes relevant to them also increases. This argument was also confirmed by Newstrom (2007), who noted that the organizationally committed workers in general, is likely to have good attendance records, demonstrate a willingness to conform to company policies and will be less likely to leave the organization. Previous research have also displayed that position tenure (Brief and Aldag, 1980; Gregreson & Black, 1992, Mottaz,

1988b) and organizational tenure (Mathieu & Hammel, 1989; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) have positive impact on commitment.

In contrast to the findings of this study, Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007) studied 200 librarians in Nigeria, and their results yielded no relationship exists in the organizational commitment of library personnel based on their years of experience. The researchers ascribe this finding to particular local situations.

Furthermore, Lok and Crawford (1999) conducted a pilot study based on data collected from 32 questionnaires at a selection of hospitals in the Sydney metropolitan region, they expected years in position and experience to be positively related to commitment. However, results showed no significant correlation between commitment and years in their present position, or between commitment and years of clinical experience.



Kwon and Banks (2004) examined internal auditors and found no significant relationship between tenure and organizational commitment. Similarly, Clayton et al., (2007) found no statistically significant difference between organizational commitment between respondents with less than 3 years and those with length of tenure of more than 3 years. An explanation provided is that years spent in particular position is likely to increase an individual's psychological attachment to the organization to an organization, while extensive tenure also increases their investment with regards to benefits such as pension plans (Mathieu and Zajac,1990).

(ii) **JOB SATISFACTION AND BIOGRAPHICAL
CHARACTERISTICS**

5.6.4.3 Gender

There is no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction based on gender ($t = .132, p > 0.05$). *Hence, the research hypothesis is rejected.*

Patah et al. (2009) investigated the influence of psychological empowerment on overall job satisfaction amongst $n = 210$ front office receptionists in Kuala Lumpur's-star hotels. They hypothesised that employees' overall job satisfaction differ significantly based on their demographic and work profile information. The findings indicated that there were no significant difference between males and females. Several researchers (Busch & Bush 1978 in Roos, 2005; Huddleston et al., 2002; Mason, 1997) concur with this result and posit that it is the specifics of the job that impacts on job satisfaction and not the gender of the individual itself, and hence could be an explanation for the absence of a significant direct relationship between job satisfaction and gender. Busch and Bush's (1978 in Roos, 2005) view is that in the instances where gender differences and jobs satisfaction have been noted, these differences were probably more related to the employee's role in the specific job rather than his or her gender. Robbins et al. (2003) concur that no support was found to suggest that gender have a direct effect on job satisfaction.

Seifert and Umbach (2008) conducted a study amongst 18043 employees in post-secondary institutions and found women's lower-levels of satisfaction with pay and advancement becomes non-significant after the introduction of disciplinary characteristics in the full model. Past research Smith et al, 1996 and Tierney and Bensimon, 1996 cited in Seifert & Umbach, 2008, p. 376 suggest "that women and some faculty of colour may not have been mentored and/or socialised as graduate students in the art of salary negotiation or as junior faculty to know what "counts" for tenure and this might contribute to decreased levels of satisfaction on the salary dimension."

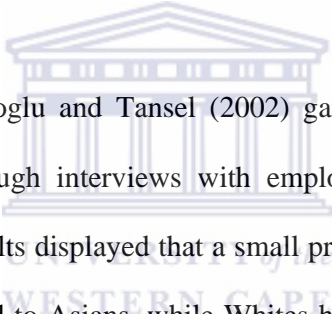
Wantanabe (2010) conducted a study with a sample of n = 452 faculty members - the findings displayed no significant gender differences in job satisfaction with means for job satisfaction across gender being practically equal.

Vallejo, Vallejo and Parra (2001) examined the level of job satisfaction of n = 366 bank clerks in a branch in the Balearic Islands. The researchers found that women are somewhat less satisfied with the work they accomplish than men. The researchers cautioned however, against the analysis of the data for the following reasons: Firstly, of the 366 surveys administered, 72 did not reply to the issue of sex, secondly women made 19.16% of the total sample and, thirdly, it is necessary to take into account the positions that women are occupying compared to men. Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) studied 28240 British employees and found that women are more satisfied (or very satisfied) with various aspects (for example, pay) of their jobs. The researchers postulate that this might be due to the fact that men and women have different expectations and hold different types of jobs with different qualifications.

Clark (1997) noted that despite women's jobs being considerably worse than men's in terms of job security and content, promotion opportunities and sexual harassment, nevertheless women still generally report higher levels of job satisfaction than men.

5.6.4.5 Race

The results provided in Table 4.7 show that there is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction based on race ($F = 2.978$, $p < 0.05$). *Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.*



In a study where Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) gathered information from 28 240 British employees through interviews with employees and managers from 3000 organizations, their results displayed that a small proportion of Blacks were satisfied with their pay compared to Asians, while Whites have a higher level of satisfaction with pay than Asians. Moch (1980 cited in Moyes & Redds, 2008) adds that the level of job satisfaction differed by race.

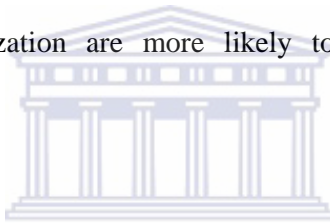
Sabharwal and Cowley (2009) investigated the differences in job satisfaction among faculty and found that Asians were more satisfied than Whites, but African Americans were equally or more satisfied than Whites. Greenhaus et al. (1990) examined 828 manager/supervisor pairs and found that Blacks reported receiving fewer promotions and being less satisfied with careers and were more likely to report negative experiences than Whites. Igarria and Wormley (1992) conducted a study

amongst IT professionals and found evidence that Blacks receive less career support than Whites and tended to have lower career satisfaction than Whites.

5.6.4.6 Tenure

The results indicate a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction based on tenure ($F = 2.978, p < 0.05$). *Hence, the research hypothesis accepted.*

According to Oshagbemi (2003), tenure refers to the years employee has spent with an organization. Schneider (1987 cited in Dickson & Lorenz, 2009) supports a positive relationship between tenure and job satisfaction suggesting that employees who fit in an organization are more likely to be satisfied and have longer organizational tenure.



Cano and Miller (1992 cited in Martin, 2007) on the other hand, found no association between years of experience and overall job satisfaction amongst agricultural education teachers. Several others who support the finding that job satisfaction and years of experience indicate no association (Bedeian et al., 1992; Bertz & Judge, 1994; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975; Ma, Samuels & Alexander, 2003). A study by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) using a sample of $n = 310$ government employees found no significant difference between job satisfaction amongst employees as a result of years service.

The findings of Patah et al. (2009) a study assessing the influence of psychological empowerment on overall job satisfaction amongst 210 front office receptionists in 5-star hotels in Malaysia found significant differences in job satisfaction scores based

on respondents' age and hotel tenure. It is suggested that the longer the respondents' worked with the hotel the more likely they are to experience overall state of job satisfaction as compared to those with less tenure in the hotel.

In contrast, the findings of a study conducted by Donahue and Heywood (2004) comparing of a sample of 6 000 males and females between the ages of 23-31 indicated a negative relationship between tenure and job satisfaction however, they point towards a U-shaped relationship based on their results. The researchers state that the negative relationship between tenure and job satisfaction could possibly be proof of a lack of psychological empowerment over time leading to greater dissatisfaction as tenure increases.

In a South African study conducted by Josias (2005) a sample of 472 employees from an electricity department was utilized to determine the relationship between absenteeism and jobs satisfaction. The findings showed a negative relationship between tenure and jobs satisfaction. The researcher suggest this might be due to more tenured employees have been in the same position for a number of years and tend to find their jobs unchallenging.

5.7 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Like other studies, this study also has various limitations:

- Firstly, the generalisability of the findings is restricted because a convenience sample was used for the study.
- Secondly, the findings cannot be generalised to other industries as it was conducted in a manufacturing organization.
- Also, the study was conducted in a South African context hence, it cannot be generalised to its international counterpart.
- Thirdly, all information generated for the study was on the basis of participants' self-reports. Therefore, an element of bias may have affected the results. Also, some respondents might have completed the instrument to get it done, whereas others might have shown more interest.
- There is a dearth of information available on psychological empowerment research conducted in South Africa.
- Finally, the sample in the current study consisted of more males than females, which might have had an impact on the findings.

Based on the findings of the current research recommendations are put forth for future research:

- Future research should use a larger sample with equal representation of race and gender.
- Duplication of the current research could be performed to identify similarities and differences with the present findings.
- Future research could incorporate a qualitative approach in addition to a quantitative focus. A qualitative approach (for example, interviews) might

provide a better understanding of whether employees are psychologically empowered.

- Stratified random sampling rather than convenience sampling could be used in future research. Sekaren (2003) is of the opinion that stratified random sampling minimises sampling errors and enhance the external validity of research findings.

5.8 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION

The aim of this research was primarily to determine the impact of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction on organizational commitment amongst employees in a multi-national organization. The results from this study indicate a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The following empirical findings emerged from the examination of the stated hypotheses:

- There is a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.
- There is a significant difference in psychological empowerment based on biographical characteristics, namely gender and tenure with the exception of race.
- Employees who are psychologically empowered are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction.

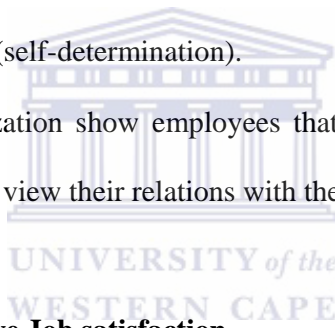
- A significant difference was found between job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on biographical characteristics (namely, gender, race and tenure). However, there was no significant difference in job satisfaction based on gender.

5.8.1 Ways for the organization to increase organizational commitment:

- Managers can increase organizational commitment through communicating that they value employees' contribution and that they care about employees' well being
- (Concentrate on a training structure formal, formal and informal communication and considering with their followers. Interviews can be used to assess what employees' views are on management's ability to address these issues (Iqbal, 2010).
- Leadership (top management and senior managers) can provide the insurance that of and commit themselves to modelling the required behaviour together with the values needs to be institutionalised (Iqbal, 2010).
- Lastly, it is also vital to promote good communication with employees and create a secure rapport, encourage employees to offer and consider carefully what is said (Fox & Dale, 2008)

5.8.2 According to Siegall and Gardner (1999) there are various ways the organization can create a feeling of empowerment amongst employees, namely:

- The organization can introduce a sense of meaning and impact for hourly workers by rewarding supervisors for providing feedback about job performance.
- Listen to employee ideas clearly outline the work to be executed (supervisory communication). Employees will then likely start to care about the work they perform (meaning) and observe that their co-workers listen to their ideas.
- Salaried employees who receive related feedback and encouragement is likely to sense that they have the ability to influence their co-workers (impact), and might perceive themselves as free to choose the work that they perform (self-determination).
- If the organization show employees that they are appreciated this could cause them to view their relations with the employer in a positive light.



5.8.3 Ways to improve Job satisfaction

Depending on the underlying source for job dissatisfaction there are several ways to increase job satisfaction, namely:

1. **Staff rewards** – Results from this study have shown that employees are not satisfied with their compensation, hence awarding staff appropriately is important. Experienced human resource consultancies involved in staff selection, assessment and recruitment are often able to evaluate and assess the needs and wants of individuals' fairly accurately. By doing so, organizations can develop strategic and creative benefits and wages to attract, retain and

motivate talent who will achieve high performance for the organization and job satisfaction for themselves.

2. **High job satisfaction** – Achieving high job satisfaction require some simple strategies. (i) Team members can be offered a variety of meaningful tasks (ii) Repetitive work often leads to job dissatisfaction. Think about introducing application of creativity in their work. (iii) Rotate the staff in order to carry out of different tasks at regular intervals so that their work remains challenging. (iv) If supervision is necessary do so it unobtrusively. (v) Give responsibility by empowering team members. (v) Allow them opportunity to self.
3. **Effective communication amongst employees** - Unclear targets and objectives and poor communication can contribute to dissatisfaction and eventually lead to poor work performance. If the organization administers awards, make sure it matches their expectations. If their expectations are unrealistic take the time to explain to them why. Team members need have awareness of departmental and organizational changes, which affect their job. Critical to this, is listening to employees' feedback and their perception as it is more likely to affect their job satisfaction and performance.
4. **Promotions** – Management could have set standardized promotional guidelines readily available at all levels of the organization. These guidelines could provide equal access to employees and be consistent throughout the organization. These standards could be emphasized from the first day of hire, during evaluations and in company literature such as newsletters. Opportunities for promotion is influenced by the structure of the organization

and the availability of positions, this should be communicated to team members.

This chapter dealt with the final stage and steps of the research design. Results were reported, with the particular purpose of integrating it with the objectives of the research, from an empirical as well as a theoretical perspective. The aim of the study was achieved, its limitations outlined and recommendations for future research and for the organization were put forward.



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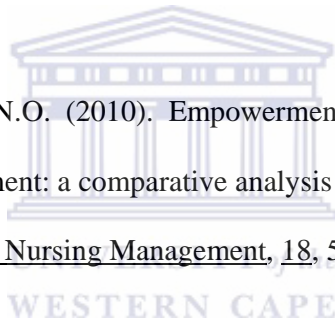
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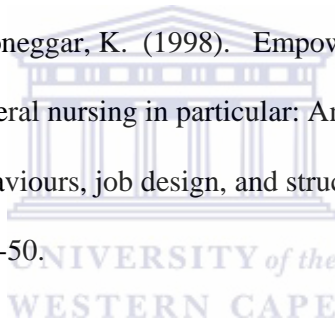
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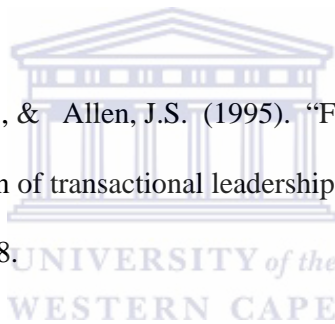
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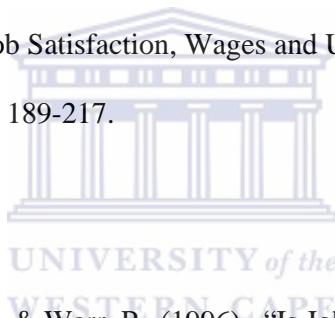
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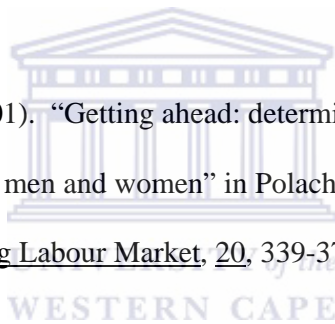
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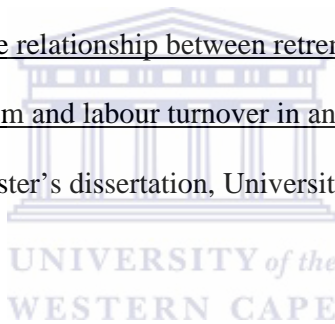
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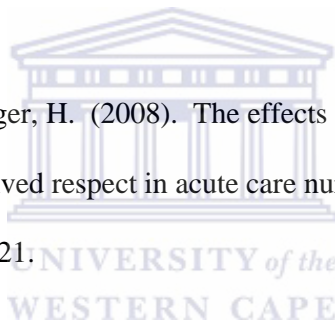
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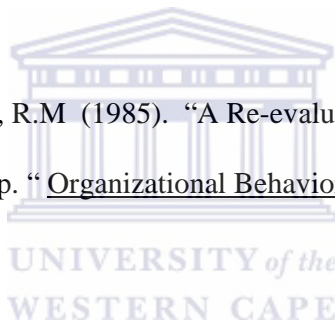
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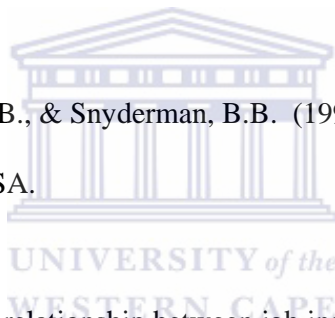
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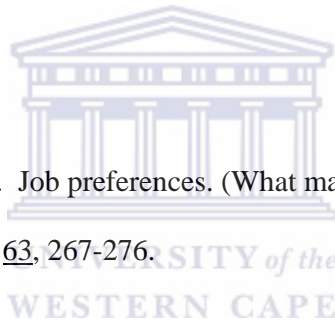
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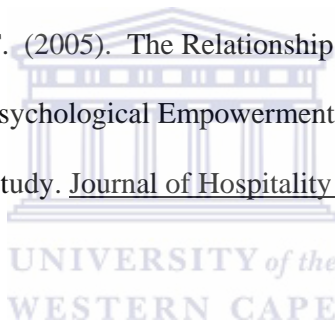
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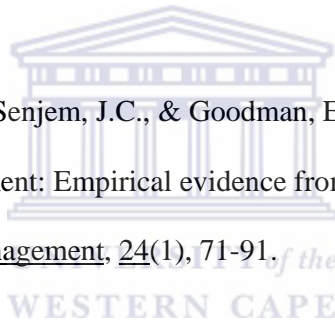
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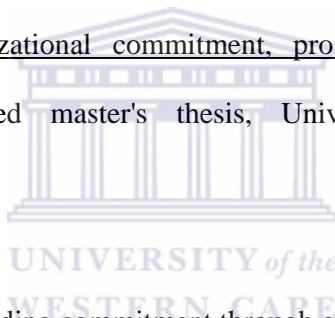
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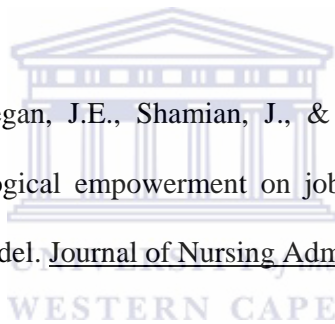
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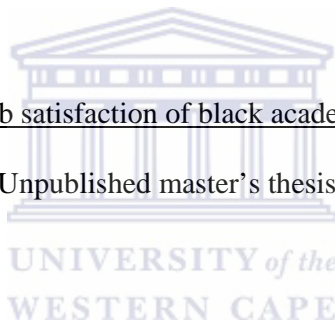
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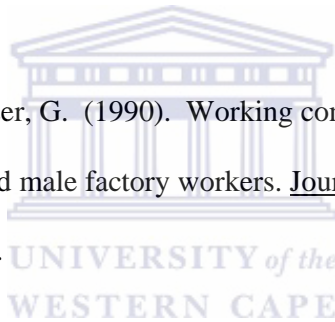
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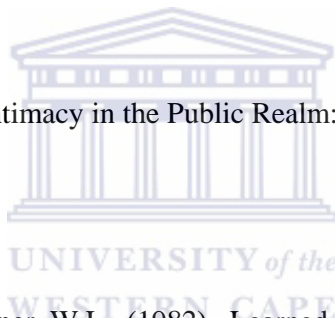
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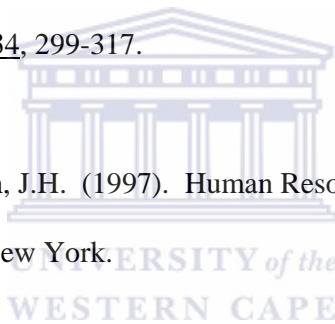
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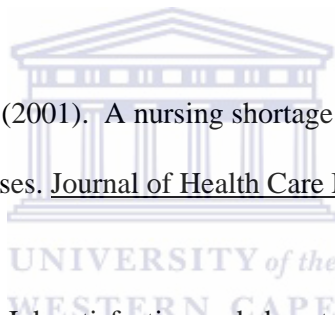
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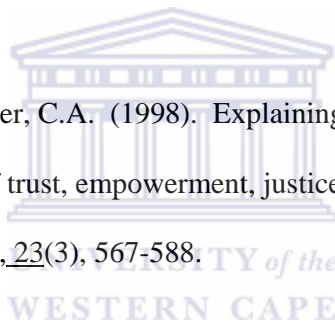
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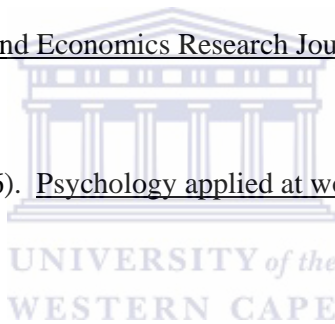
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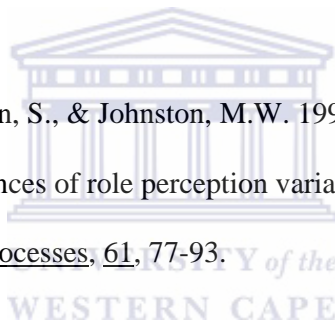
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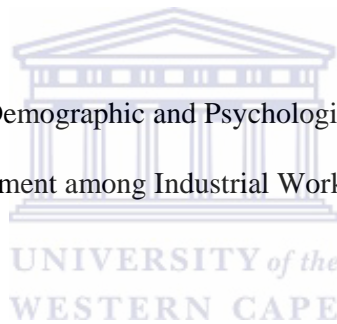
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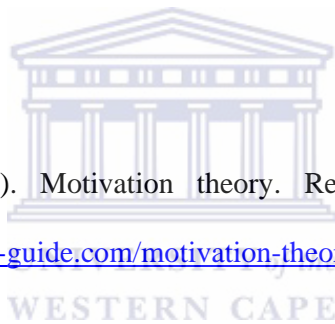
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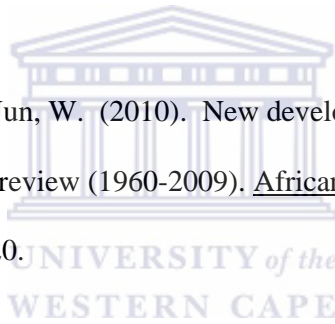
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