THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATION JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF STAFF MEMBERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA.

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Abstract:

The ability of organisations to be innovative and to empower their employees would lead to the organisation gaining that competitive edge. The process would start with managers feeling empowered and committed to the organisation (Bhatnagar, 2005). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment as a set of four cognitions reflecting an employee’s orientation to his/her role in terms of meaning competence, self-determination and impact.

Job satisfaction is defined as “a state that depends on the interaction of employees, their personal characteristics and expectations with the working environment and the organisation” (Pinikahana & Happell, 2004, p. 120). It was found that when employees are more satisfied with their jobs, committed to their organisation and psychologically empowered, this could help organisations to thrive instead of trying to survive in a competitive environment (c. Bhatnagar, 2005; Bhatnagar, 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997).

Robbins (2003) defined organisational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to be part of that organisation.

Equity theory of work motivation is categorised into content and processes approach. A major input into job satisfaction and performance is the degree of equity (or inequity) that employees perceive in their work situation. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) also explained the cognitive model to be the more comprehensive explanation, to the way in which individuals react to their environmental and personal experiences
to shape their cognition. The model also resembles the social learning sequence of stimulus, organism, behavior and consequences (S-O-B-C).

It was found in this research that PE-2 (Impact) predicted SAT-1 (Autonomy), PE-2 (Impact) predicted SAT-2 (Social), PE-1 (Attitude) and PE-2 (Impact) predicted SAT-3 (Intrinsic), PE-2 (Impact) predicted SAT-4 (Advance), PE-2 (Impact) and SAT-1 (Autonomy) predicted Normative commitment, SAT-2 (Social) and SAT-4 (Advance) predicted Affective Commitment. Based on these findings it’s clear that psychological empowerment could make employees more satisfied in some areas of their jobs and more committed to the organization, making organizations thrive and prosper instead of just trying to survive.
Dedication:

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my mother, Elizebeth Pieters and my grandmother Regina Coetzee, thanks for always believing in me.
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CHAPTER 1:

1. INTRODUCTION.

1.1 Title of the study:

The relationship among Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment on staff at the University of Namibia (UNAM).

1.2 Keywords:

Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, tertiary institution.

1.3 Orientation of the study:

The ability of organisations to be innovative and to empower their employees would lead to the organisation gaining that competitive edge. The process would start with managers feeling empowered and committed to the organisation. It was found that if managers are empowered they are able to build capacities, resources, competencies and strategies to respond pro-actively to the environmental pressures caused by economic liberalisation (Bhatnagar, 2005).

“The hard and competitive work conditions in the 21st century force organisations to be willing to re-evaluate themselves and make changes to reach their objectives” (Özel, Bayındır, Inan & Özel, 2009, p. 358). During the past 25 years many organisations have experienced change including institutions of higher education. It
was found that not only does traditional academic roles change, sometimes the working conditions have become unfavourable and unsupportive of staff’s efforts to pursue the mission of higher education (Mapesela & Hay, 2006). This research would also aim at identifying the levels of psychological empowerment employees at UNAM are experiencing during times of transformation.

Psychological empowerment is not an enduring personality trait generalisable across situations but rather a set of cognitions shaped by the working environment. Psychological empowerment is a continuous variable; people can be viewed as more or less empowered instead of being empowered or not at all. It’s not a global construct generalisable across different life situations and roles but rather specific to the working domain (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment as a set of four cognitions reflecting an employee’s orientation to his/her role in terms of meaning (the value of his or her work), competence (his or her capability to perform the work), self-determination (choice in initiating and regulating actions) and impact (the ability to affect or influence organisational outcomes).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggested that psychological empowerment is important for stimulating and managing change in organisations. Thomas and Velthouse (1990)
posited a link between psychological empowerment and individual flexibility, which may contribute to innovative behavior.

Identifying these factors that have a positive influence on empowerment would allow organisations to be operating at their highest levels of productivity and also yield the best results from employees (Bhatnagar, 2007).

Menon’s (2001) survey determined that the greater the level of psychological empowerment experienced by employees, the higher the level of their job satisfaction. Thus it would seem logical that there would be a relation between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Robbins (2003) defined organisational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to be part of that organisation. Luthans (2005) added that organisational commitment is also the willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of that organisation.

According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Robbins (2003) and Luthans (2005), empowerment evokes organisational commitment because: (a) a meaningful job provides a suitable fit between the requirements and purposes of one’s organisational work roles and one’s personal value system; (b) a sense of competence gives workers the belief that they are able to perform their work roles with skill and success,
stimulating them to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; (c) self-determination gives workers control over their work and a voice in work-related decision processes, leading to enhanced involvement in the organisation, and (d) having impact facilitates workers’ possibilities to participate in shaping the organisational system in which they are embedded. Menon (2001) found that the greater the level of empowerment experienced by the employees, the greater the organisational commitment will be.

Allen and Meyer (1996) defined organisational commitment as the psychological link between the employee and the organisation that makes it less likely for the employee to want to leave voluntarily. A committed employee identifies with the organisation, makes personal sacrifices, performs beyond normal expectations, works selflessly and contributes to the organisation’s overall effectiveness (job satisfaction).

It was found that the satisfaction of academic staff is becoming more important thus would require periodical assessment and evaluation since the quality of higher education depends on the environment and how stable and supportive it is but also on the performance of the academic staff (Winter, Taylor & Sarros, 2000). It would also be necessary to measure the level of job satisfaction experienced by UNAM staff members to ensure that intervention strategies can be implemented if job satisfaction is negatively affected by change in the environment and the organisation.
A study in the United Kingdom found that university staff members are underpaid, demoralised and demotivated (Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005). This study would also give an indication of how is the University of Namibia is looking after its staff.

Coetzee and Rothmann (2004) stated that with the change in the environment, the expectation of the quality of higher education also increases and directly impacts on the experience of work at tertiary institutions.

The research would investigate the level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced at UNAM. The research is aimed at an investigative approach; trying to establish the level psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisation commitment that the employees experience.

1.4 Statement of the problem:
Organisations are constantly transforming, trying to improve production and profitability, being able to adapt to change, compete with the best in your environment, be able to keep employees satisfied and committed to organisation, organisation need to empower their employees, make they feel empowered (psychological empowerment) rather than failing under the pressure of the competing organisations.
It was found that when employees are more satisfied with their jobs, committed to their organisation and psychologically empowered, this could help organisations to thrive instead of trying to survive in a competitive environment (c. Bhatnagar, 2005; Bhatnagar, 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997). Based on what was found by Bhatnagar (2007), organisations are becoming so dynamic and require the best employees to be effective and remain effective; it is required from the organisation to equip employees with all the necessary skills as well as other aspects that would influence their effectiveness. Empowerment heightens the employees’ sense of personal control and motivates them to engage in work, which could lead to positive managerial and organisational outcomes (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997).

According to Kaarna, Polluste, Lepnum and Thrtloft (2004), job satisfaction can be increased when employees attend to motivating factor (recognition, influence, internal and profit), to make work more interesting, allow for jobs that would require initiative, creativity and planning. Motivation factors would include recognition, influence, internal and profit. People that are motivated by recognition are interested in respect, admiration, regard, esteem and celebrity. Those who find influence to be a motivating factor would find power, control, competition, independence and order to be the most important. Morals, duty, intellect and honour would be important aspects for people that are motivated by internal motivating factors. People that are motivated
by profit motivation factors will strive for success with money, possessions, wealth, income and growth (www.marketingideashop.com).

Robbins (2003) also found that opportunities for promotion, the ability of supervisors to provide emotional and technical support, the support from other employees, the working environment, the fair remuneration on tasks done and the work itself would also influence the level of job satisfaction that would be experienced by employees. Furthermore, allowing employees in decision making and problem solving processes would improve job satisfaction and make them feel part of the organisation (organisational commitment).

Stander and Rothmann (2009b) found that if organisations want to have a more productive and healthy workforce it would require leaders who would be able to empower their followers in all aspects of the business in pursuit of a healthy organisation. Leaders in service and government organisations need to be trained in the principles of leader empowerment behavior and organisational support. These are factors that would support the retention strategies of the organisation and improve on the wellness of employees.

Due to the changing environment, curriculum and restructuring of higher education institutions (in South Africa) demands and expectations of staff has also changed. It was found (Mapesela & Hay, 2006) that if higher education institutions want to prosper they should adapt to the changes (political, social, technological and
economical) in order to prosper. These changes in the environment and the institutions have also heightened the expectation on the performance and quality of the graduates that directly places higher levels of strain and expectations to perform on the staff of these institutions (Mapesela & Hay, 2006, Tytherleigh et al., 2005; Coetzee & Rothmann, 2004).

Considering what was found in the studies cited above its clear that these constructs are some of the aspects that organisations, specifically tertiary institutions should focus on and target to enhance the coping and functioning of staff.

1.5 Objectives and Research Questions:

The objective of the study is to determine whether there is a relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The research is aimed at an investigative approach, establish the level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisation commitment experienced by the employees of the organisation.

Based on these objectives the following research questions will be addressed in the research:

1. What is the level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by the target population?
2. Is there a relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment?

3. Does different groups (academic and administrative staff, low, middle and high levels of employees, different faculties) experience psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment differently?

4. Does Psychological empowerment predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment?

1.6 Research Design:

The research will make use of survey research method to collect the data. Survey research can be defined as when research would include cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection, with the intent of generalising from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2003). The questionnaires will only be administered and these findings will be used to generalise it to the rest of the organisation.

1.7 Significance of the study:

The organisation where the research was done will also make use of these results to implement/consider implementing strategies to try and enhance psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This could also increase the well being of the employees as well as increasing productivity and profits of the organisation.
In the future organisations could also make use of these findings to help them thrive in the dynamic, ever changing and competitive environment.

Psychological empowerment is also a new phenomenon and no research has been done in the Namibian environment. This would help the Namibian nation by filling the missing gaps in knowledge and encourage other organisations to do similar research in their organisation to assist their employees.

This study would also add new knowledge in the field of Industrial Psychology and encourage research to be conducted on similar studies in Namibia.

1.8 Key explanations in the study:

Psychological empowerment, defined by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as a set of four cognitions reflecting an employee’s orientation to his/her role in terms of meaning (the value of his or her work), competence (his or her capability to perform the work), self-determination (choice in initiating and regulating actions) and impact (the ability to affect or influence organisational outcomes). However in this study psychological empowerment is defined as a two-component construct namely Attitude (meaning and competence) and Impact (self-determination and impact).

Job satisfaction was defined by Hirschfeld (2000) defined intrinsic job satisfaction as the way in which a person feels about the nature of the tasks itself and extrinsic job satisfaction as the way an employee feels about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks. In this study we found a four-component model of job
satisfaction, *Satisfaction Autonomy, Satisfaction Social, Satisfaction Intrinsic and Satisfaction Advancement*.

The rest of this paper would consist of a chapter on the different views of the authors on the three constructs, another on the methods used to empirically measure these construct, going on to present the finding followed by a chapter of interpreting these findings and summing up the paper with some recommendations and listing some of the limitations experienced during the completion of the study.
CHAPTER 2: Literature review and theoretical framework:

2.1 INTRODUCTION:

This chapter deals with defining what psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment is. Previous studies (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Spreitzer, 1995; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Menon, 2001; Robbins, 2003; Pinikahana & Happell, 2004) have found a relationship between at least two of these constructs and other sources gives an in-depth definition and understanding of these constructs and sub-components of these constructs. There are three types of empowerment namely structural, motivational and leadership approach. This research would be assessing emotional empowerment (psychological empowerment) since even when empowerment is done through a structural or leadership approach employees might still not experience empowerment. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment would also be defined and discussed from different viewpoints of the authors and also focusing on how they overlap. Will start with psychological empowerment, continue with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and theoretical framework for each construct being discussed and conclude with literature about research at tertiary institutions.
2.2 Psychological empowerment:

2.2.1 Definitions.

Empowerment has been defined by different authors throughout the years and some authors had similar views on what empowerment is although other explains it a bit differently.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as a process of enhancing the feelings of self-efficacy among organisational members, which would also include that the employees perceive themselves to be empowered.

It was also stated that when looking at empowerment it doesn’t make employees limited by the bureaucratic paradigm of strict controls combined with contingent rewards and punishment that employees have to adhere to but rather more relaxed controls and an internalised commitment to the task. At this time to empower employees stemmed from what management can do to empower employees through their actions within the organisations. The focus was more on what management can do to push employees to perform better and what they can do if employees didn’t comply (Block cited in Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

To empower means to give power to (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Defining power from a legal point of view, power means authority, to empower could also be authorization.
Thomas and Velthouse (1990) emphasised that psychological empowerment is multifaceted and can’t be fully explained by one concept like explained by Conger and Kanungo (1988). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) explained empowerment to be influenced by two personality traits and two aspects from the work context. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment as four cognitions reflecting an employee’s orientations towards his/her job namely impact (the ability employees have to affect organisational outcomes); competence (an employee’s capability to perform the work); meaningfulness (the value of the work) and choice (how and deciding on the time to execute tasks).

Spreitzer (1995) somewhat changed what Thomas and Velthouse (1990) found by defining psychological empowerment as manifested in four cognitions reflecting an employee’s active orientations to his/her work that included meaning (the value of the work in relation to expectations); competence (the ability to skilfully execute tasks); self-determination (deciding on the method, pace and effort when completing tasks) and impact (ability to influence outcomes at work).

Together, these four cognitions reflect an active, rather than a passive, orientation to a work role (an orientation in which an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context). These four dimensions collectively make up the overall construct of psychological empowerment. The lack of any of these dimensions will reduce, though not completely eliminate, the overall degree of felt empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).
Meaning is the value of a task goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual’s own ideal standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Meaning works like a driving force of empowerment; if employees don’t like working at a specific place, if the job they are doing are clashing with their value system, they would not feel that much empowered.

The South African Students Dictionary (1996) defined meaning as something that is important or purposeful to an individual.

Brief and Nord; Hackman and Oldham cited in Spreitzer (1995, p. 1443) defined meaning as “a fit between the requirements of a work role and beliefs, values, and behaviors”.

Competence can be defined as the feeling of accomplishment after skilfully completing a task that has been undertaken. When feeling competent about the task that has been performed employees would also be more open to confront difficulties instead of refraining from attempting to engage in these activities. When feeling competent employees are more likely to also experience job satisfaction. This is also related to feelings of self-efficacy and this would also influence how tasks are going to be approached in the future (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Self-efficacy is a person’s belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation Bandura cited in Thomas and Velthouse (1990) stated that our sense of self-efficacy can play a major role in how we approach goals, tasks, and challenges. Banduras’ theory believed that people with a high self-efficacy would be those people
who believe they perform well, do something instead of refraining from taking on that specific task. It was also found that people with a high self efficacy “View challenging problems as tasks to be mastered, develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate, form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities and recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments, while people with a low self efficacy tend to avoid challenging tasks, believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities, focus on personal failings and negative outcomes and quickly lose confidence in personal abilities” (http://psychology.about.com).

Chen and Chen (2008) stated that employees would feel more valued when empowered and can encourage employees to enhance their level of self-efficacy. In this way employees can also identify with the organisation and encourage them to exert more effort on the job making them more committed to the organisation. This could also enhance the level of organisational commitment of the employees at UNAM, by making them feel more valued and could also encourage their levels of self-efficacy.

❖ Self-determination is another key component of intrinsic motivation that is a key determinant of satisfaction. Competence and self determination is also key component and an essential ingredient for intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Velthouse,
Self-determination relates to the opportunity to select task activities that make sense to perform in ways that seem appropriate and also the sense of freedom about how to do their own work (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998).

Deci, Eghrari, Patrick and Leone (1994, p.119) further explained self determination that “(a) people are inherently motivated to internalise the regulation of uninteresting though important activities; (b) there are two different processes through which such internalisation can occur, resulting in qualitatively different styles of self-regulation; and (c) the social context influences which internalisation process and regulatory style occur.” It was also stated that the self-determination theory uses two concepts of introjection and integration to describe different types of internalisation resulting in different qualities of regulation. Introjection would be partial or sub optimal internalisation leading to internally controlling regulation while integration refers to optimal internalisation leading to self-determined behavior. Integration would be when the person identifies with the value of a task and accepts full responsibility for doing that task.

- **Impact** is the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative and operating outcomes of work. It can also be defined as the degree to which behavior can influence the overall outcome of the task. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) explained that empowered employees would also feel that they have an impact on the task (are better able to influence the outcome of these tasks) would also be
more engaged in the tasks that they do. Rogers and Blenko (2006, p.1) also stated that “every success, every mishap, every opportunity seized or missed stems from a decision someone made—or failed to make”. These are the type of employees that would be expected to make the aim and objectives of the university a reality and not remain aims and objectives on paper.

Menon (2001) classified empowerment research in three broad categories, namely situational (structural), motivational (psychological) and leadership empowerment. The situational approach emphasises the redistribution of authority and granting decision-making authority and power down the organisational hierarchy. The psychological approach to empowerment refers to the internal processes of the individual being empowered. The leadership approach focuses on the leader who energises his followers to act with the leader in providing future vision. Menon (2001) identified (a) power as perceived control, (b) power as perceived competence and (c) power as being energised towards achieving valued goals as the three main dimensions of the experience of power underlying the empowerment process. This was also a turning point in the field of research concerning empowerment, classifying empowerment into the different categories to be able to clearly differentiate between the types of empowerment. This study is aimed at looking at psychological empowerment rather than focusing on structural or leadership empowerment.
Spreitzer and Quinn (2001) stated that empowered employees will see themselves as having the necessary power, freedom and discretion to make decisions (self determination), have that personal connection to the organisation (meaning), feel confident in their abilities to perform their duties (competence) and believe that they can make a difference in the system in which they are functioning (impact).

Employees who perceive that their values, beliefs and behavior are congruent with the requirements of the job are also confident about their work performance.

Pasmore and Fagans (1992) stated that empowering acts may actually yield negative outcomes when the employees being empowered are unprepared to take on more or higher levels of responsibility or unable to process greater amounts of information. Thus it’s important to time interventions strategies that would yield the desired effect, if introduced too early or too late it could cause resistance or lack of participation from the employees. Employees would perceive these interventions as counterproductive if it doesn’t take into account the situation, life styles and individual attributes of these employees. It doesn’t necessarily mean that if the employer tries to introduce these empowerment interventions that it would necessarily be seen or experienced as empowering.

Empowering employees would thus involve decision-making being moved down the hierarchy of the organisation and granting employees the ability to significantly affect organisational outcomes (Menon, 2001).
It was also stated that even though the transfer of power down the hierarchy occurs, the perception of the employees would also be a determining factor that would influence them feeling empowered or not at all (Menon, 2001). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) also stated that empowerment would depend on the perception of the employee which doesn’t necessarily reflect the reality of the situation. Menon (2001) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) noted that even though management may try and empower employees through the changes they made, it might not be enough for employees to feel empowered.

2.2.2 Models of psychological empowerment:

2.2.2.1 Cognitive model of psychological empowerment.

To best explain the different literature of psychological empowerment, the SOBC (Stimulus, organism, behavior and consequences) or cognitive model has been used. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) explained the cognitive model to be the more comprehensive explanation, to the way in which individuals react to their environmental and personal experiences to shape their cognition. The model also resembles the social learning sequence of stimulus, organism, behavior and consequences (S- O- B- C). It also goes further by focusing on intrapersonal cognitive processes; consequences and stimuli are simplified into single external elements, environmental events and intrapersonal cognition is extended into several elements. This would also be the theoretical model that has been used to better understand or explain the different constructs.
Environmental events are sources of data about consequences of the individual’s ongoing behavior and about conditions relevant to that person’s future behavior. Task assessment or judgments are made of these data with respect to the specific tasks. The four dimensions of assessment are included as cognitive components of intrinsic motivation: *impact* (making a difference), *competence* (the degree to which a person can perform task activities skillfully when he or she tries), *meaningfulness* (value of
the task goal or purpose, judged in relation to the individuals own ideals or standards) and *choice* (causal responsibility for a person’s actions). It was also noted by Conger and Kanungo (1988) that empowerment is a cognitive variable that determine motivation in the employees. Behavior can be explained as the activity and concentration of energy upon the task (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Looking at the interpretive styles that employees’ use, employees can contribute to their own level of empowerment or disempowerment. The way employees interpret their work situation or tasks would influence their level of empowerment or disempowerment.

### 2.2.3 Measurement of psychological empowerment.

The psychological empowerment questionnaire was developed by Spreitzer (1995) making use of different questionnaires to develop a measure that will be able to assess the four dimensions of psychological empowerment as conceptualized by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) and Spreitzer (1995).

The psychological empowerment questionnaire (PEQ) consisted of 12 items that measured the four dimensions namely meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Each of the four dimensions was assessed by three of the 12 items in the questionnaire with a likert-scale response format. The sample items include “The work I do is meaningful” (meaning), “I am confident about my ability to do my job” (competence), “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job” (self
determination) and “My impact on what happens in my department is large” (impact) (Spreitzer, 2005).

2.3 Job satisfaction:

2.3.1 Definitions.

Many authors have defined job satisfaction from different viewpoints through time and considering different models to substantiate their views.

Hirschfeld (2000) defined intrinsic job satisfaction as the way in which a person feels about the nature of the tasks itself and extrinsic job satisfaction as the way an employee feels about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks.

Robbins (2003) found that the level of job satisfaction is influenced by the work itself, promotional opportunities, the ability of the supervisors to provide emotional and technical support, the extent to which fellow workers are supported, working conditions and the equitability of remuneration. Considering Hirschfeld (2000) definition it seemed that Robbins (2003) was mostly referring to extrinsic factors of satisfaction.

Job satisfaction seems to be influenced not only by what the job can offer for the employees but also the expectations of the employees in relation to what the job offers. To a great extent the environment influences the satisfaction being
experienced although in similar working environments different levels of satisfaction could be influenced by other factors such as age, sex, race or educational experience (Robbins, 2003; Hirschfeld, 2000 and Lu, White & Barriball, 2005). This is also another indication that satisfaction stems from the cognition of the employee since employees could be exposed to the same working environment although experience it distinctly different.

Job satisfaction is defined as “a state that depends on the interaction of employees, their personal characteristics and expectations with the working environment and the organisation” (Pinikahana & Happell, 2004, p. 120). They have highlighted that this is a state, meaning that it can be altered and influenced depending on how the employee see/experience these interventions.

Lu, White and Barriball (2005, p. 211) defined job satisfaction, based on the traditional Model as “…all feelings an individual has about his/her job.” Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is not only influenced by the nature of the job but also the expectations of the individual, what the job should provide. This was also supported by the findings of Robbins (2003); Hirschfeld (2000) and Lu, White and Barriball (2005), emphasising that what might satisfy one employee would necessarily not be the same for another considering the different expectations and characteristics of each employee.
Buitendach and De Witte (2005) distinguished that job satisfaction can be categorised into two dimensions namely intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. “Extrinsic satisfaction refers to satisfaction with aspects that have little to do with the job tasks or content of the work itself, such as pay, working conditions and co-workers. Intrinsic satisfaction refers to the job tasks themselves (e.g. variety, skill utilisation, autonomy)” (Buitendach & De Witte; 2005, p. 28).

Job satisfaction was also defined by Hausknecht, Hiller and Vance (2008) as the shared sense of enjoyment that individuals derive from their experiences on the job and within a work unit. Considering the support of colleagues, supervisors and how team members interact could also be influence job satisfaction positively or negatively. This will only be the case for employees that value the support of colleagues and this was also supported by Robbins (2003); Hirschfeld (2000) and Lu, White and Barriball (2005), emphasising the unique expectations of employees.

Tsourela, Mouza and Paschaloudis (2008, p. 485-486) stated that “intrinsic job satisfaction can be considered to be a person’s value concerning his or her inventiveness, conveniences, job expansion, enrichment and evolvement while extrinsic refer to relationship between employees and employers, promotions, salaries and the quality of the job environment”. Their findings also support those of Buitendach and De Witte (2005), emphasizing the two dimensions of job satisfaction namely intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.
Zangaro and Johantgen (2009) found that nurses who perceive opportunities for promotion will also be regarded as more satisfied with their jobs. Being able to provide quality health care to patients, having the necessary resources available also influence job satisfaction of these nurses. Co-worker support has also been reported to positively influence the working environment and also the job satisfaction experienced by the nursing staff.

2.3.2 Models or Theories of job satisfaction:

2.3.2.1. Discrepancy Theory.

“A discrepancy is a perceived difference between an adopted anchor and a personal understanding of accomplishment along the same dimension” (Locke; Oliver cited in www.business.uq.edu.au). Your level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be influenced by the discrepancy between by the type of job that you are doing at the moment and the type of job you describe as your ideal job. Locke stated on www.business.uq.edu.au that depending on what facets of the job an employee values, would also influence (positively/negatively) the satisfaction with the job if these expectations of the job are met or not (e.g. when an employee values the facet such as autonomy, his/her satisfaction with the job will be greater influenced, positively or negatively, if this expectation is met or not).
2.3.2.2. Two-Factor theory (Motivator-Hygiene theory).

Herzberg cited in Tsourela, Mouza and Paschaloudis (2008), named the two factors that produce satisfaction motivators and the factors that produce dissatisfaction hygiene. Hygiene factors are extrinsic factors such as “working conditions, quality of supervision, salary, status, security, company, job, company policies and administration, interpersonal relations. Motivators are factors that are intrinsic to the job such as achievement, recognition for achievement, responsibility for task, interest in the job, advancement to higher level tasks, growth” (Tsourela, Mouza & Paschaloudis; 2008, p.484-485). This theory has been criticized that it doesn’t take individual differences into consideration meaning that all employees would react similar to the hygiene and motivator factors.

2.3.2.3. Equity theory of work motivation.

Based on these findings stated above, it seems reasonable to select the equity theory of work motivation as the theoretical background. Equity theory of work motivation is categorised into content and processes approach. A major input into job satisfaction and performance is the degree of equity (or inequity) that employees perceive in their work situation. Inequity occurs when an employee perceives his/her outcomes to inputs are unequal in relation to the inputs and outcomes by other employees. The inputs and outcomes of the employees are based on their personal perception. Age, sex, education, organisational position, qualification and the efforts that the employee puts into his/her job are some of the factors that would influence how the employees
perceive their inputs. Outcomes will consist of rewards such as pay, status, promotion and intrinsic interest in the job. The perception of the employee about the inputs in relation to the outcomes differs from employee to employee and this wouldn’t necessarily be the truth (Luthans, 2005).

2.3.2.4. Job characteristics model.
The job characteristics model is explained to have five primary job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. It was also stated in Chen and Chen (2008) that these job characteristics have an impact on employees’ production, motivation and satisfaction. During organisational change process, if the organisation could change these job characteristics to enhance the perception of psychological empowerment making the employees experience more meaning, impact, self-determination and self-efficacy in their work, employees’ loyalty and commitment could be sustained.

2.3.3. Measurement of job satisfaction.
The Revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire has been used to measure job satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the workplace (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire is an instrument that was developed to measure satisfaction or dissatisfaction with different aspects (how you get along with colleagues and supervisors, is the pay satisfying, how is conflict handled with the organisation) of the working environment. This questionnaire has 20
questions having a five point scale response format from 1(very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). The questionnaire measures Intrinsic job satisfaction with items like “The chance to do things that make use of my abilities” and Extrinsic job satisfaction with items like “The competence of my supervisor in making decision”.

2.4 Organisational Commitment:

2.4.1. Definitions.

Mowday, Porter and Steers cited in Siu (2002) defined organisational commitment as the identification and involvement of an individual in the organisation. This would include accepting the goals and values of the organisation, willingness to work hard in the organisation and the desire to stay with the organisation.

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), distinguished between three dimensions of organisational commitment. Firstly continuance commitment refers to an employee’s behavioral orientation, this would be related to the cost of leaving are too high or whether other alternatives seem not to be so suitable since the personal costs of leaving are too high. They would be committed to the organisation staying with the organisation more out of desperation rather than anything else. Affective commitment refers to the employees’ emotional attachment to, identifies with and is actively involved in the workplace. Normative commitment refers to when employees feel that they are obligated to stay, ought to stay (Meyer & Allen; 1991; Meyer et al., 1993).
It has been established that organisational commitment is “a multidimensional construct and that the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of commitment vary across dimensions” (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky; 2002, p. 21). Indicating that employees might be very committed overall although specific dimensions of the overall commitment could be very low.

Robbins (2003) defined organisational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation, its goals and wishes to be part of the organisation. Luthans (2005) added that organisational commitment is also the willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of that organisation. This means that employees that are committed to an organisation might be working harder and engage in actions that will be to the best interest of the organisation.

Organisational commitment has been defined by Lok, Westwood and Crawford (2005) as the identification, loyalty and involvement experienced by employees. This would also include how you think about your relationship with the organisation and the attitudes you develop towards the organisation.

Salancik cited in Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2005, p. 6) defined commitment as “a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and it is these actions that sustain his activities and involvement”.

2.4.2. Models of organisational commitment.

2.4.2.1. Three component model of organisational commitment (TCM).

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) suggested that organisational is multidimensional, consisting of Affective, Continuance and Normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the employees’ emotional attachment to the organisation. Continuance commitment refers to an employee’s behavioral orientation; the personal costs of leaving are too high. Normative commitment refers to when employees feel that they are obligated to stay. Buitendach and De Witte (2005) stated that affective commitment was found to be more reliable than the other components and in some studies researchers (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005) only aimed to measure this component of organisational commitment.

2.4.3 Measurement of organisational commitment.

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was used to measure organisational commitment of the employees. This instrument measures affective (“I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation”), continuance (“One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives”) and normative (“I would feel guilty if I leave my organisation right now”) commitment and it consist of 18 items. The questionnaire also makes us of a 5-point likert-scale response format (1-strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree).
2.5. Relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Spreitzer (1995) also found a moderate relationship between empowerment cognitions and performance related outcomes such as effectiveness and innovation. Employees would also feel in control of their work, having an influence on positive outcomes that include higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of job stress (Spreitzer, 1995). Knol and van Linge (2008) also found that psychological empowerment was also statistically significant to innovative behaviour, emphasising that impact being the most important sub-variable.

According to Stander and Rothmann (2009b) indicated that leader empowering behaviour predicts job satisfaction, which in turn predicts organisational commitment. The way that the leaders empower employees through their behaviour will impact positively on employees’ attitude toward the job (job satisfaction). The positive attitude that they develop towards the organisation would create the desire to remain with the organisation (organisational commitment).

Chiang and Jang (2007) found that self determination (psychological empowerment) is positively associated with job satisfaction. This study would also aim to explore whether this is similar in a Namibian setting or not.
Buitendach and De Witte (2005) also found that the relationship between affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction show statistical significant correlation, suggesting that the higher the level of job satisfaction the higher the level of affective commitment within the organisation.

Robbins (2003) proposes that psychological empowerment reflects the ongoing fade and flow of peoples’ perceptions and attitudes about their work environment (both local and broader organisation context) in relation to themselves. Thus, the more psychologically empowered a manager, the higher would the organisational commitment be within the organisation. Menon (2001) also found that the greater the empowerment the greater the organisational commitment.

They also found that “job satisfaction is very strongly associated with stress (negatively) and commitment (positively)” (Pinikahana & Happell, 2004, p. 120). Gardner (2005) also stated that general well-being; levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are decreasing as a result of the experience occupational stress. Considering the psychological empowerment has a positive relation with both job satisfaction and organisational commitment, job satisfaction a negative association with stress, this means that if organisations are able to enhance employees psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and commitment levels will increase and job stress will decrease (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005; Chiang & Jang, 2007;
Menon, 2001; Pinikahana & Happell, 2004; Robins, 2003; Spreitzer, 1995; and Stander & Rothmann, 2009b).

Krishna cited on www.google.com “goal internalization and perceived control have significant positive relation with affective and normative commitment”. This indicated that some of the dimensions of psychological empowerment have a positive relation with some of the dimensions of commitment.

Based on the above models and literature (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Allen & Smith, 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Menon, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Spreitzer, 1995; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Pinikahana & Happell, 2004; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Robbins, 2003; and Thomas & Velthouse, 1990;) the researcher has developed the following model in relation to the study:
2.5 Tertiary Institutions:
Mishra and Spreitzer (1998, p.578) stated that, “people fear and tend to avoid situations they believe exceed their skills whereas they get involved in activities and behave assuredly when they judged themselves capable of handling situations that would otherwise be intimidating”. Feeling that you don’t have control over a situation could make employees withdraw instead of trying to resolve the difficulty; this withdrawal could be through absenteeism, resignation or presenteeism. Being expected to perform whilst feeling like you don’t have control over the situation could cause employees not to be productive or functioning to their maximum capacity. These feelings of having no control could also be positively influenced by feelings of perceived psychological empowerment.

Bazargan (1999) identified the three factors that have affected tertiary education in the past decade, which are socio-economic changes, technological changes and the move to globalisation. These changes have also impacted on the awareness of efficiency and effectiveness. The University of Namibia is also aimed at making the services of the university available to all (responding to the needs of society) and with rapid expansion of the student population and the limited finances, higher education institutions in general have been expected to produce more with less (Ed. Hangula, L., Mwandemele, O., Tjiramba, E., Fledersbacher, A., Aochamus, S., Murray, C. & Smit, T., 2008). The researcher is also aware of the situation with some of the classes being offered at UNAM where more than four hundred students have one lecturer and is expected to pass the course and understand the work. With improvements in
technology, teaching methods have been adapted requiring additional training to operate these equipments. This isn’t only an adaptation for the teaching staff but also for the students, having an impact on the effectiveness of the teaching and overall performance of students (www.unam.na).

Changes in the organisation can be advantageous although these changes may also add additional psychological and physical strain, these stressors can lead to ill health and possible actions in the organisation (Millet & Sandberg, 2005). It was also noted that if the resources and support during change were available the employees would also feel more empowered and decrease psychological and work strain. UNAM is expected to change with time and meet the expectations not only on a national but also on an international level. When the support and resources are made available the employee would cope much better during such times of change.

During the past 25 years many organisations have experienced change including institutions of higher education. It was found that not only does traditional academic roles change, sometimes the working conditions become unfavourable and unsupportive of staff’s efforts to pursue the mission of higher education (Mapesela & Hay, 2006). Coetzee and Rothmann (2004) stated that with the change in the environment, the expectation of the quality of higher education also increases and directly impacts on the experience of work at tertiary institutions.
Transformation has “heightened the expectations of all the stakeholders in higher education, leaving them to struggle to clarify their existence and roles in the new nature of environment that is emerging” (Mapesela & Hay, 2006, p. 713). The environment changes, support are reduced due to the environment and the quality of higher education is expected to improve. Little has been done to accommodate the transformation in terms of academic staff satisfaction and no clear indication of roles and responsibilities. This research would also aim at identifying the level of psychological empowerment for the employees at UNAM.

“In a changing environment, employee commitment to any organisation is easily disrupted” (Chen & Chen, 2008, p. 279). This also applies to organisations that offer tertiary education like the University of Namibia. Staff from tertiary education institutions is expected to perform, compete on an international rather than a national level, deal with diverse students and staff alike and changes not only within the organisation but also in the environment in which the organisation is functioning.

It was also found that if tertiary institutions don’t assess the quality and effectiveness of the tertiary education they would be wondering into tomorrow without knowing what to expect. This would force institutions to accept the reality instead of creating the intended reality through research, planning and management functions that would foster this process (Bazargan, 1999).
According to Winter, Taylor and Sarros (2000) the satisfaction of academic staff should be measured periodically since the predicted quality of higher education worldwide doesn’t only depend on environmental aspects of education that is supportive and stable but also on the performance of the academic staff that provide the education. This is also an indication that even though the academic environment is supportive, academic staff satisfaction is also an important aspect to achieving the desired quality of higher education. It would also be necessary to measure the level of job satisfaction experienced by UNAM staff members to ensure that intervention strategies can be implemented if job satisfaction is negatively affected by change in the environment and the organisation.

To give quality education isn’t the optimal aim of the university, but to give quality education to all its students and also to be an institution that is not only locally competitive but also nationally and internationally. Being able to meet these requirements will mean that they need to have the best employees in the field to meet these standards (www.unam.na). Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) also emphasised that it’s required from employees to take responsibility for their actions, be creative and use their initiative to perform on and above these expected standards. Ghani, Hussin and Jusoff (2009) found that psychological empowerment has a significant relationship with innovative behavior and also a significant predictor of innovative behavior. This emphasizes the importance of trying to enhance psychological empowerment in employees, if they are feeling psychologically empowered they would also be more
innovative and find innovative ways to adapt and perform in these transforming academic environments.

Coetzee and Rothmann (2005) also found that academic staff experience low levels of commitment from the side of the institution. It was also stated that since commitment acts like a motivator, a moderator of stress is important to establish interventions that will improve the level of commitment from and to the organisation.

“In today’s world of rapid societal changes, knowledge-driven economies, and increasing global integration, higher education can make the difference between a dynamic economy and a marginalized one” (Salmi, 2003, p. 65). Since Namibia also wants to develop towards knowledge base economy, one of the main contributors would be tertiary institution like UNAM. The tertiary education institutions could provide the nation with the necessary human resources, that are competent and educated to help Namibia reach its’ goal of becoming a knowledge based economy instead of being a marginalized economy.

Due to the changing environment, curriculum and restructuring of higher education institutions demands and expectations of staff has also changed. It was found that if higher education institutions want to prosper they should adapt to the changes (political, social, technological and economical) in order to prosper (Salmi, 2003). These changes in the environment and the institutions have also heightened the
expectation on the performance and quality of the graduates that directly places higher levels of strain and expectations to perform on the staff of these institutions (Mapesela & Hay, 2006; Tytherleigh et al., 2005; and Coetzee & Rothmann, 2004).

Mapesela and Hay (2006) stated that all higher education institutions were expected to rewrite and redesign the curriculum, modules and qualifications to remain competitive and drive towards national and international standards of higher education. These changes required academics to engage in burdensome administrative procedures and processes whilst at the same time needed to create knowledge through research, service and teaching. All these added to the changes and demands for academic staff which indicates higher expectations while little was done in order to assist them to cope and remain effective in their tasks.

It was also found by Catano, Francis, Haines, Kirpalani, Shannon, Stringer and Lozanski (2007, p. 3) that work stress were found to stem from “Work Load (85%), Work Scheduling (73%), Role Conflict (82%), Role Ambiguity (71%), Work-Life Balance (76%), Fairness-Administration (55%), Fairness-Rewards (51%), Job Control (14%), Skill Use (3%) and Fairness-Chairperson (20%)”.

“Increasingly the social, educational, cultural, linguistic, religious and racial diversity of South African society is finding expression within South African institutions of higher education” (Cross, 2004, p. 387). UNAM is also an institution
of Higher education that caters for students in SADC, Africa and the world in general. This would also require the University to accommodate these students and cater for the diverse needs that they experience, placing another strain on the staff and adding to the challenges faced by the staff.

Mapesela and Hay (2006) also found that academic staffs are affected by change and transformation. “Academics seemingly are mostly affected by issues such as the change in their roles, which involve, among other things, the increasing demand for academics to excel in both teaching and research, still attaching more value to service learning”(Mapesela & Hay, 2006, p. 720). According to these authors academics indicated that the change and transformation is vital to higher education although these forces were perceived to be responsible for the change in their roles of lecturers, researchers, service providers’ and even administrators. This added to the demands of academics and forced them to lack in some areas that required them to perform. Considering the development of academic staff, the developmental opportunities were either limited, didn’t match their needs, limited or no funding and those opportunities that were available, most of them didn’t have the time to attend these developmental programs. With the demands in the changes, transformation and added workload, academics were unable to attend these developmental programs and still be effective in their tasks.
Mapesela and Hay (2006, p. 731) further stated that “…academics were not adequately supported financially and did not have time to participate in matters of higher education globally and internationally. Academics regarded this lack of funding as a serious impediment to the pursuance of scholarship and thus a serious cause for dissatisfaction”. The research will also be aimed at assessing the level of satisfaction that academic staff experience, which could prompt further investigation and possible intervention strategies.

A low level of remuneration and compensation were also found to be a major contributing factor to staff turnover and dissatisfaction among academic staff. These competent academic staff members tend to be attracted to private organisations that meet their financial needs resulting in talented academics being lost due to low levels of pay and compensation. The Job satisfaction Questionnaire would also be used in this study to assess the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction due to pay and compensation (Mapesela & Hay, 2006). Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008) also found that occupational stress for academics stem from pay and benefits, overload and work-life balance. They also reported that staff are experiencing above average levels of psychological ill health and average levels of commitment from and towards the organisation. This was also found by Mapesela and Hay (2006), academics are expected to perform, meet deadlines that requires sacrifices (neglecting family life) also considering the other work that the employees need to do, comparing it to the incompatible pay and benefits resulting in work stress and psychological ill health.
Tella, et al (2007) found that financial incentives motivate employees, increasing productivity and that no significant difference was recorded between professional and non-professional librarians. In the study by Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008), pay and benefits lead to occupational stress, in the study of Tella, et al (2006) it was found that the financial incentives motivate employees, indicating that depending on what motivates employees; organisations should design incentives that meet these expectations (financial incentives are good motivators).

A study in the UK found that university staff members are underpaid, demoralised and demotivated (Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005). If it’s able to identify these problems than it would be able to develop interventions that are tailor made and effective to deal with these problems. This study will also give an indication of how is the University of Namibia is looking after its staff and allow for some recommendation to improve the situation if needs be.

In this chapter different literature were looked at, defining the constructs from different viewpoints, starting with psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. We also looked at the theoretical frameworks in relation to these constructs and concluded by looking at literature regarding tertiary institutions and the challenges they face.
CHAPTER 3: Methodology.

3.1 INTRODUCTION:
In the previous chapter the literature study with regards to the variables was discussed. This chapter focuses on the composition of the study, population groups, the measuring instruments, and procedure for scoring and interpretations. The questionnaires have been administered to the employees as allowed by the organisation. The research made use of Quantitative Research, making use of three questionnaires to measure the level experienced by the employees in terms of these constructs. The participants included employees from different levels within the organisation, academic and administrative staff from different Faculties/Centres and levels.

3.2 Research objectives:

3.2.1 General objectives:
The general objective of this study is to ascertain the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment at a tertiary institution. The research is aimed at an investigative approach, establish the level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisation commitment experienced by the employees of the organisation.
3.2.2 Specific empirical objectives:

1. What is the level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by the target population?

2. Is there a relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment?

3. Does different groups (academic and administrative staff, low, middle and high levels of employees, different faculties) experience psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment differently?

4. Does Psychological empowerment predict job satisfaction and organisational commitment?

3.3 Research Design:

The research made use of survey research method to collect the data. Survey research can be defined as when research including cross-sectional and longitudinal studies is using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection, with the intent of generalising from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2003). Survey methods are inexpensive, can be used to assess a large group of participants, it can be administered from another location (you can send it by mail, telephonically or email), you can make use of standardized questionnaires to assess and compare groups using the same measure and in most instances the subjectivity of the researcher is minimized. Some areas of weakness considering the survey research include; making use of standardized questionnaires can influence the appropriateness of the
questionnaires in relation to the participants, with survey research it’s also important to get a good response rate in order to generalize your findings and it might also be difficult to recall information about the question or to tell the truth about a controversial questions (http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/research/survey/com2d1.cfm).

The questionnaires were administered and these findings will be used to generalise it to the rest of the organisation. Quantitative research design was used.

3.4 Population:

The population included male and female employees from UNAM, from different levels in the organisation (lower level employees, supervisors and managers). These employees were selected from the main campus in Windhoek, making use of convenience sampling. The university employs 778 people, 389 academic staff and 389 administrative staff.

Table 1: Distribution of staff in different Faculties/Centres.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty/Centre</th>
<th>Number of employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Economics and Management Sciences</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Education</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Engineering and Information Technology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Ed. Hangula, Mwandemele, Tjiramba, Fledersbacher, Aochamus, Murray & Smit, 2008, p. 14). Staff members (academic or administrative) were excluded if not working at the main campus (Windhoek), since this would be the focus of the research.

The sample comprised of employees of lower as well as upper level employees, this allowed for correlation of results between the different levels, Faculties/ Centers and between administrative and academic staff. Participation in this study was voluntary hence only those staff members who volunteer to take part completed the questionnaire. 250 questionnaires were distributed and 218 returned or collected from the participants (return rate: 87.2%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institute</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and Health Sciences</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre for External Studies</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Centre</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRCC</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNAM Library</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>323</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Biographical Information of sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item:</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Category:</th>
<th>Percentage:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic/Administration</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>Academic Administration</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>104</td>
<td></td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age:</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>22 to 32 years</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>33 to 42 years</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
<td>43 years and older</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Average age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>129</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications:</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the employees that participated in the study, 114 were academic staff (52.3%), 104 administrative staff (47.7%), 78 males (35.8%) and 129 females (59.2%). Fifty one employees were between the ages of 22 to 32 years (23.4%), 67 employees
between the ages of 33 and 42 years (30.7%) and 73 employees 43 years and older (33.5%). Their qualifications ranged from grade 12 (20 participants- 9.2%), certificate (11 participants- 5%), diploma (36 participants- 16.5%), degree (60 participants- 27.5%), masters degree (62 participants- 28.4%) and PhD (28 participants- 12.8%).

3.5 Measuring Instruments.
In this section of the paper, the various measuring instruments used in the study will be discussed, focusing on the rationale, development, description, administration, scoring, interpretation and the reliability and validity. The research battery consisted of a biographical questionnaire, the psychological empowerment questionnaire, the job satisfaction questionnaire and the organisational commitment questionnaire.

3.5.1 Psychological empowerment questionnaire.
3.5.1.1 Development:
The measure of psychological empowerment is based on four facets, meaning, competence, self-determination and impact as developed by Spreitzer (1995) aimed at assessing the four dimensions conceptualised by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). The questionnaire consists of 12 items; three items each measure one of the four components of psychological empowerment.
3.5.1.2 Reliability and validity:
Sauer (2003) reports an overall Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 and 0.89 (competence), 0.92 (meaning), 0.84 (impact) and 0.91 (self-determination) while Stander and Rothmann (2009a) also found reliability of 0.91 and 0.81 (competence), 0.89 (meaning), 0.86 (impact) and 0.85 (self-determination) for the subscales. This is also an indication that this is a reliable instrument to use.

3.5.1.3 Description, administration and scoring:
This questionnaire consists of 12 items with 3 items for each of the 4 dimensions. The dimensions are meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. The sample items include “The work I do is meaningful” (meaning), “I am confident about my ability to do my job” (competence), “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job” (self determination) and “My impact on what happens in my department is large” (impact) (Spreitzer, 2005).

The participants rate their experience on a Likert scale (7 point scale); from very strongly disagree to very strongly agree.

3.5.1.4 Rationale for the choice:
Based on the reliability of the Psychological Empowerment questionnaire it proved to be the best tool for measuring this construct, it’s also short and efficient to use. This is also an instrument that measures the employees’ orientation to his/her job, about different aspects of the job, the environment and the social environment (relations
with colleagues and superiors). Arneson and Ekberg cited in Stander and Rothmann (2009a) looked at nine instruments measuring psychological empowerment and concluded that Spreitzer’s (1995) psychological empowerment questionnaire (PEQ) have undergone the most comprehensive investigation considering the dimensions of psychological empowerment.

3.5.2 Job satisfaction.

3.5.2.1 Development:
During the Work Adjustment Project, the first measure of satisfaction used consisted of the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank (short form), the Employee Attitude Scale developed at Industrial Relations Centre and 22 experimental items. They later found that this measure were cumbersome to score and led to the development of the 20-scale Likert format questionnaire. The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire has been used to measure job satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the workplace (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire is an instrument that was developed to measure satisfaction with different aspects (how you get along with colleagues and supervisors, is the pay satisfying, how is conflict handled with the organisation) of the working environment.

3.5.2.2 Reliability and validity:
Previous studies (Stander & Rugg, 2001) reported that Cronbach alpha coefficients were found ranging from 0.87 to 0.95 Stander and Rothmann (2009b) also reported
Cronbach alpha coefficients for intrinsic job satisfaction of 0.86 and extrinsic job satisfaction of 0.77.

3.5.2.3 Description, administration and scoring:
This questionnaire aims to assess the level of job satisfaction employees experience by rating themselves on a 5-point scale (1 very dissatisfied to 5 very satisfied). The original model consists of 20 items that measures intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 15, 16 and 20 measures intrinsic satisfaction and items 5, 6, 10, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18 and 19 measures Extrinsic satisfaction.

3.5.2.4 Rationale for the choice:
Based on the reliability of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire it proved to be the best tool for measuring this construct, it’s also short and efficient. This was also a measure that the researcher was familiar with, gives an indication from the employees’ side on intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of the job, the environment and the coworkers/superiors. It’s also a measure that assesses both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, having items that look at different aspects of satisfaction within the organisation.
3.5.3 Organisational commitment.

3.5.3.1 Development:
Allen and Meyer (1984) initially proposed to make the distinction between affective and continuance commitment although in 1990 they introduced normative commitment. During these times the tool consisted of 24 items (8 items for each scale). The later version was developed in 1997 with only 18 items (6 items for each scale). Organisational commitment would be measured using the Organisational commitment questionnaire, consisting of 18 items and measuring normative, effective and continuance commitment (Brown, 2003).

3.5.3.2 Reliability and validity:
Stander and Rugg (2001) found an alpha coefficient of 0.86. Lee, Allen, Meyer, and Rhee (2001) also found the following Cronbach alpha coefficients for affective commitment (0.86), continuance commitment (0.76) and normative commitment (0.84).

3.5.3.3 Description, administration and scoring:
The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) is a self-scoring questionnaire assessing three components of commitment; namely normative, continuance and affective commitment. Responses to each of the 6 items are rated using a 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
3.5.3.4 **Rationale for the choice:**

Based on the reliability of the Organisational commitment questionnaire it proved to be the best tool for measuring this construct, it’s also short and efficient. This is also a questionnaire that assesses different types of commitment, determined by the respondents’ own perspective. The organisational commitment questionnaire also taps into all three dimensions of commitment, affective, continuance and normative commitment.

3.6 **Research Procedure:**

Firstly permission was granted by UNAM, the questionnaires were distributed by hand, either by the researcher himself or by the research assistants. The participants had the choice to complete the questionnaire and submit or to complete at a later stage and after the questionnaires have been completed they were collected. Most of the time leaving the questionnaires was difficult since the participants were either in class, out of the office or off campus when we wanted to take back the questionnaires. The researcher made use of three (3) self-assessment questionnaires to gather the information, the Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire.

3.7 **Statistical analysis:**

The statistical analysis was carried out by using SPSS program 17.0 (SPSS, 2009). In the first step descriptive statistics was calculated to describe the data. “Factor analysis
is a collection of methods used to examine how underlying constructs influence the responses on a number of measured variables” (DeCoster, 1998, p. 1). Starting with “collecting measurements, obtaining the correlation matrix, selected the number of factors for inclusion, extracting your initial set of factors, rotating your factors to a final solution, interpreting your factor structure and construct factor scores for further analysis” (DeCoster, 1998, p. 2-3).

Effect sizes were used in addition to statistical significance to determine the significance of the relationships (Cohen, 1988). Effect sizes indicate whether the obtained results are important (while statistical significance may often show results which are of little practical relevance).

A cut off point of 0.50 (medium effect) were set for practical significance of difference between means (Cohen, 1988).

Pearson Correlations were done in order to describe the distribution of the data (Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire, Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire).

Regression analysis was also used to investigation the relationships between variables (psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment).

This chapter has looked at how the study was completed, the population that was studied, the instruments used to measure the different constructs and the procedure for administering, scoring and interpreting these questionnaires.
CHAPTER 4: Results.

4.1 INTRODUCTION:

This chapter is aimed at presenting what has been done, what statistical procedures have been followed and present the results of this study. Simple explanations and tables would be used to present these findings although the discussion and interpretation would only follow in the next chapter. Analysis was conducted on the scales of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results of the principal components are discussed in table 3, 4 and 5.

4.2 Analysis of the Measurement model:

Psychological empowerment:

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on all variables. First, a simple principal compared, the data didn’t fit with the proposed four-factor model in the literature but rather a two-factor model namely Attitude and Impact. Cronbach alpha of 0.84 were recorded for Attitude and Impact with 0.76. Six items loaded positively on the first factor (attitude) and five items loaded positively on the second factor (impact).

When making use of principal axis factoring, three factors recorded eigenvalues (> 1.00), which suggested that a three-factor model would suit the data best. The percentage of variance ranged from 10.18 to 41.96. With some closer scrutiny on the different items it made more sense to use a two-factor model that suited the data even better. The first factor presents Attitude and the second factor Impact. The two-factor
model recorded cumulative percentages of 37.33 and 47.77 respectively. A two-factor model was also supported by the scree plot (figure 1) indicating that a two-factor model would explain the data best.
Table 3: Pattern matrix for Psychological empowerment and how the different items loaded on the two factors, Attitude and Impact.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PE12- I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td>-.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE1- I am confident about my abilities to do my job.</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td>-.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE11- The work that I do is meaningful to me</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE5- My job activities are personally meaningful to me.</td>
<td>.669</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE10- I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.</td>
<td>.617</td>
<td>.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE6- The work that I do is important to me.</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE2- I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.</td>
<td>-.117</td>
<td>.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE7- I have significant influence over what happens in my department.</td>
<td>-.088</td>
<td>.751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE8- My impact on what happens in my department is large.</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE9- I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE3- I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.</td>
<td>.274</td>
<td>.426</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor 1: Attitude and Factor 2: Impact.
Item number 4 (*The work that I do is important to me*) on the questionnaire didn’t add significantly on any of the two factors indicating that it doesn’t have much importance for academic staff or people working at a tertiary institution.

The correlation between attitude and impact was recorded at 0.50*++ (practically significant large effect- the higher the attitude the higher the impact). Cronbach alpha was recorded for Attitude 0.84 and Impact 0.76 (Psychological Empowerment questionnaire).

**Job satisfaction:**

The literature suggested a two-factor model although the data didn’t support a two-factor model but rather a four-factor model for job satisfaction, namely Autonomy, Social, Advancement and Intrinsic. Cronbach alpha of 0.75 were reported for Autonomy, Social with 0.75, Advancement with 0.70 and Intrinsic with 0.77. Four items loaded significantly on the first factors Autonomy, Social and three for Advancement while six factors had significant loadings on the fourth factor called Intrinsic.

When doing principal component analysis, six factors recorded eigenvalues (> 1.00). After looking closely at the different items on the questionnaire it made better sense to use a four-factor model that explained the data even better. Cumulative percentages for the four factors ranged from 27.28 to 42.22 respectively.
Table 4: Pattern matrix for Job satisfaction and how the different items loaded on the four factors, Autonomy, Social, Advancement and Intrinsic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JS15- The freedom to use my own judgement.</td>
<td>.890</td>
<td>-.097</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>-.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS16- The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td>-.146</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS3- The chance to do different things from time to time.</td>
<td>.432</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>-.034</td>
<td>.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS2- The chance to work alone on the job.</td>
<td>.408</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>-.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS6- The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>-.820</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS5- The way my boss handles his/her workers.</td>
<td>-.016</td>
<td>-.796</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>-.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS19- The praise I get for doing a good job.</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>-.609</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS18- The way my co-workers get along with each other.</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>-.337</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS12- The way company policies are put into practice.</td>
<td>-.117</td>
<td>-.089</td>
<td>.687</td>
<td>-.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS14- The chances for advancement on this job.</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>-.137</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS13- The pay and the amount of work I do.</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS9- The chances to do things for other people.</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.270</td>
<td>.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS8- The way my job provides for steady employment.</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td>.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS7- Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.</td>
<td>-.067</td>
<td>-.090</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS11- The chances to do something that makes use of my abilities.</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS4- The chance to be “somebody” in the community.</td>
<td>.261</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS20- The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>-.180</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.355</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factor 1: Autonomy, Factor 2: Social, Factor 3: Advancement and Factor 4: Intrinsic

Items number 1 (Being able to keep busy all the time), 10 (The competence of my supervisor in making decisions) and 17 (The working conditions) didn’t load significantly on any of the four different factors that could be as a result of cultural differences or other unknown variables and would require further investigation. The Job satisfaction questionnaire recorded Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.75 Autonomy, 0.75 Social, 0.70 Advancement and 0.77 Intrinsic (Job Satisfaction questionnaire). These results indicate that these instruments are reliable as they meet the reliability requirements.

Organisational Commitment:

The data supported the literature that found a three-factor model with Affective Normative and Continuance commitment. Cronbach alpha of 0.71 were recorded for Affective commitment, 0.71 for Normative commitment and a reliability of 0.71 was recorded for Continuance commitment with five items each loading significantly on the three factors.

When making use of Principal component analysis it seemed best make use of a three-factor model. Three factors recorded eigenvalues (> 1.00), which was also supported by the literature and a three-factor model would explain the data best. The three factors would be Normative, Continuance and Affective commitment. Cumulative percentages ranged from 19.74 to 41.46 respectively.
The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire recorded Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.71 for Affective commitment, 0.71 for Normative commitment and 0.71 for Continuance commitment. These results indicate that these instruments are reliable as they meet the reliability requirements.

**Table 5: Pattern matrix for Organisational commitment and how the different items loaded on the three factors, Affective, Normative and Continuance.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OC16- I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation. (AC)</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>-.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC10- I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation. (AC)</td>
<td>.746</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>-.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC7- I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation. (AC)</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC15- I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of belonging to the people in it. (NC)</td>
<td>.155</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC18- I owe a great deal to my organisation. (NC)</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC9- I would feel guilty if I leave my organisation right now. (NC)</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.486</td>
<td>-.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC12- My organisation deserves my loyalty. (NC)</td>
<td>-.182</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>-.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC3</td>
<td>I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.</td>
<td>.245</td>
<td>- .304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(NC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC11</td>
<td>One of the few negative consequences of leaving this</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>- .126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives. (CC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC5</td>
<td>Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation right now. (CC)</td>
<td>- .151</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC14</td>
<td>I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation. (CC)</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC2</td>
<td>It would be very hard for me to leave the organisation right now, even if I wanted to leave. (CC)</td>
<td>- .144</td>
<td>.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC8</td>
<td>Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (CC)</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>- .048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor 1: Affective, Factor 2: Normative and Factor 3: Continuance.
4.3 Analysis of the Structural model:

Pearson Correlation coefficient:

These were the results produced from the data collected and analysed. The results would also be discussed and interpreted to shed more light on the significance of this study.

The findings from Stander and Rothmann (2009b) was also supported by Hechanova, Alampay and Franco (2006) stating that empowerment had significant correlation with job satisfaction ($r = 0.50$, $p < 0.05$). Seibert, Silver and Randolph (2004) also found a significant positive relation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction ($r = .54$, $p < .01$).

In Table 13, Pearson Correlation was recorded for Attitude and Autonomy recorded correlation of $0.35^*$+ (practically medium effect), Attitude and Social $0.19^*$ (statistically significant), Attitude and Advancement $0.14^*$, Attitude and Intrinsic $0.52^{++}$ (practically significant large effect), Attitude and Affective $-0.08^*$ (statistically significant), Attitude and Normative $0.13^*$ (statistically significant) and Attitude and Continuance $-0.5^*$ (statistically significant).

Impact and Autonomy recorded correlation of $0.53^{++}$ (practically significant large effect), Impact and Social $0.33^*$+ (practically significant medium effect), Impact and Advancement $0.32^*$+, Impact and Intrinsic $0.47^*$+ (practically significant medium effect), Impact and Continuance $-0.47$ (statistically significant), and Impact and Affective $-0.32^*$ (statistically significant).
effect), Impact and Affective –0.10* (statistically significant), Impact and Normative 0.18* (statistically significant), Impact and Continuance 0.02* (statistically significant). The higher their levels of impact the more they would experience autonomy (making decisions), the better their relations with co-workers and managers (social), and they would also feel internally more satisfied (intrinsic).

Autonomy and Affective –0.19* (statistically significant), Autonomy and Normative 0.14* (statistically significant) and Autonomy and Continuance –0.10* (statistically significant). The more employees are able to make decisions or are satisfied with the way their superiors make decisions they would be committed to the organisation because they want to instead of out of desperation or feeling that they ought to stay.

Pearson correlation reported correlations for Social and Normative 0.28* (statistically significant) and Social and Continuance –0.07* (statistically significant). The more satisfied employees are with the relations with their colleagues they would be committed to the organisation since they feel they owe it to their colleagues or due to the cost of leaving.

Advancement and Normative 0.29* (statistically significant) and Advancement and Continuance –0.03. Pearson correlations were recorded for Intrinsic and Normative 0.28* (statistically significant) and Intrinsic and Continuance –0.02* (statistically significant). If employees are satisfied cause the chances for advancement or they are
intrinsically satisfied, they could also feel committed to the organisation since they feel they owe it to their colleagues or due to the cost of leaving.

Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model that was analysed used Normative commitment as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1) and SAT autonomy, SAT social, SAT intrinsic and SAT advancement (model 2). The results are reported in Table 6.
Table 6:

*Multiple Regression analysis with Normative commitment being the dependant variable and Attitude, Impact, SAT autonomy, SAT social, SAT intrinsic and SAT advancement being the independent variables.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>7.012</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Autonomy</td>
<td>-0.174</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>-1.80</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Social</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Intrinsic</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Advance</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ – statistically significant
As can be seen from Table 6, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis produced a statistically significant model \((F_{(2.214)} = 3.87; \ p < 0.04)\), accounting for approximately 3% of the variance. Impact \((\beta = 0.16; \ t = 2.04; \ p < 0.04)\) predicted normative commitment. In the second step of the regression analysis, job satisfaction was entered. Job satisfaction added at this step made a statistically significant contribution to the model, \((F_{(6.210)} = 5.95; \ p < 0.00)\), which explained an additional 12% of the total variance. Looking at this together with job satisfaction, SAT Autonomy \((\beta = -0.16; \ t = -1.80; \ p < 0.04)\) predicted normative commitment.

Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model that was analysed used Affective commitment as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1) and SAT autonomy, SAT social, SAT intrinsic and SAT advancement (model 2). The results are reported in Table 7.
Table 7:

*Multiple Regression analysis with Affective commitment being the dependant variable and Attitude, Impact, SAT autonomy, SAT social, SAT intrinsic and SAT advancement being the independent variables.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Beta</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td>0.00*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>-0.05</td>
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<td>0.60</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.95</td>
<td>0.34</td>
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</tr>
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<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td>Attitude</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-0.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAT_Social</td>
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<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>-2.17</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Intrinsic</td>
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<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.88</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAT_Advance</td>
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<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>-2.86</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ – statistically significant
As can be seen from Table 7, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis didn’t produce a statistically significant model ($F_{(2,214)} = 1.22; p < 0.00$) and percentage of variance explained was not statistically significant. In the second step of the regression analysis, job satisfaction was entered. Job satisfaction being added at this step made a statistically significant contribution to the model, ($F_{(6,210)} = 4.85; p < 0.00$), which explained an additional 10% of the total variance. Taken together, it appears that significant predictors of Affective commitment were SAT social ($\beta = -0.17; t = -2.17; p < 0.03$) and SAT Advance ($\beta = -0.22; t = -2.86; p < 0.01$).

Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model that was analysed used Continuance commitment as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1) and SAT autonomy, SAT social, SAT intrinsic and SAT advancement (model 2). The results are reported in Table 8.
Table 8:

Multiple Regression analysis with Continuance commitment being the dependant variable and Attitude, Impact, SAT autonomy, SAT social, SAT intrinsic and SAT advancement being the independent variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>B</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td>8.11</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>0.059</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td>0.00*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAT_Autonomy</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAT_Social</td>
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<td>-0.05</td>
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<td>0.57</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Intrinsic</td>
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<td>0.76</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT_Advance</td>
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<td>0.99</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05 – statistically significant.
As can be seen from Table 8, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis didn’t produce a statistically significant model ($F_{(2,214)} = 0.41; p < 0.00$) and account for 10% of the variance. In the second step of the regression analysis, job satisfaction was entered. Job satisfaction being added at this step also didn’t make any statistically significant contribution to the model, ($F_{(6,210)} = 0.82; p < 0.00$), which explained an additional 10% of the total variance. Taken together, it appears that there are no significant predictors of Continuance commitment.

Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model was analysed using SAT autonomy as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1). The results are reported in Table 9.
Table 9:

*Multiple Regression analysis with SAT autonomy being the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact being the independent variables.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>44.45</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>5.61</td>
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<td>0.11</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.89</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.25</td>
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<td>7.20</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ – statistically significant

As can be seen from Table 9, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis produced a statistically significant model ($F_{(2,215)} = 44.45; p < 0.00$) and account for 29% of the variance. It appears that the only significant predictor of SAT autonomy were Impact ($\beta = 0.48; t = 7.20; p < 0.00$).

Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model was analysed used SAT social as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1). The results are reported in Table 10.
Table 10:

*Multiple Regression analysis with SAT social being the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact being the independent variables.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
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<td>12.96</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05 – statistically significant

As can be seen from Table 10, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis produced a statistically significant model ($F_{(2,215)} = 12.96; p < 0.00$) and account for 10% of the variance. It appears that the only significant predictor of SAT social were Impact ($β = 0.31; t = 4.17; p < 0.00$).

Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model was analysed used SAT intrinsic as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1). The results are reported in Table 11.
Table 11:

Multiple Regression analysis with SAT intrinsic being the dependent variable and Attitude and Impact being the independent variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Beta</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>8.56 1.58</td>
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<td>52.62</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>0.38</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>0.20 0.05</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ – statistically significant

As can be seen from Table 11, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis produced a statistically significant model ($F_{(2,14)} = 56.62; p < 0.00$) and account for 32% of the variance. It appears that the only significant predictors of SAT intrinsic were Attitude ($\beta = 0.38; t = 5.82; p < 0.00$) and Impact ($\beta = 0.29; t = 4.44; p < 0.00$).
Multiple regression analyses were performed. The first model was analysed used SAT advance as the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact as the independent variables (model 1). The results are reported in Table 12.

Table 12:

*Multiple Regression analysis with SAT advance being the dependant variable and Attitude and Impact being the independent variables.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact</td>
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<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ – statistically significant

As can be seen from Table 12, entry of Attitude and Impact at the first step of the regression analysis produced a statistically significant model ($F_{(2,215)} = 12.53; p < 0.00$) and account for 10% of the variance. It appears that the only significant predictor of SAT advance were Impact ($\beta = 0.33; t = 4.48; p < 0.00$).
Figure 3: Analysis of the structural model.

- Attitude ($\beta = 0.38; t = 5.82; p < 0.00$) predicted SAT intrinsic.
- Impact ($\beta = 0.48; t = 7.20; p < 0.00$) predicted SAT autonomy and SAT Autonomy ($\beta = -0.16; t = -1.80; p < 0.04$) predicted normative commitment.
- Impact ($\beta = 0.31; t = 4.17; p < 0.00$) predicted SAT social and SAT social predicted Affective commitment ($\beta = -0.17; t = -2.17; p < 0.03$).
- Impact ($\beta = 0.33; t = 4.48; p < 0.00$) predicted SAT advance and SAT advance predicted Affective commitment ($\beta = -0.22; t = -2.86; p < 0.01$).
- Impact ($\beta = 0.29; t = 4.44; p < 0.00$) predicted SAT intrinsic.
• Impact ($\beta = 0.16; t = 2.04; p < 0.04$) predicted normative commitment.

• No significant predictors of Continuance commitment were found.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that psychological empowerment (Attitude and Impact) predicted job satisfaction (Autonomy; Social; Advancement and Intrinsic) which predicted organisational commitment (Affective and Normative)

4.4 Descriptive Statistics:
The mean, standards deviation (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis, Cronbach Alpha were determined and reported in Table 13.
(Insert Table 13 here).
The two factors for Psychological empowerment, Attitude recorded a mean of 36.73 and 25.56 for Impact. The four-factor model for Job satisfaction measured a mean of 15.52 for Autonomy, 13.80 for Social, 12.98 for Advancement and 24.02 for Intrinsic. Means for the Three-factor model of Organisational commitment were recorded for Normative (13.51), Continuance (15.65) and for Affective (7.36). Standard deviation for Attitude 5.03, Impact 5.44, Autonomy 2.84, Social 3.63, Advancement 3.20, Intrinsic 3.80, Normative 3.18, Continuance 4.09 and Affective 2.83 were recorded.

Skewness for the two factor model of Psychological empowerment were measured, Attitude (-1.91) and Impact (-0.77). Kurtosis for Attitude (6.60) and Impact (1.29) were also recorded.

Skewness for the four-factor model of Job satisfaction were recorded, Autonomy (-1.12), Social (-0.60), Advancement (-0.55) and Intrinsic (-1.00). Kurtosis for Autonomy (1.60), Social (-0.40), Advancement (-0.22) and Intrinsic (1.90) were also recorded.

Organisational commitment recorded skewness for Normative (-0.10), Continuance (-0.15) and Affective (0.17). Kurtosis for Normative (-0.50), Continuance (-0.16) and Affective (-0.04).

The two factors for Psychological empowerment, Attitude recorded means of 6.12 and 5.11 on Impact for the entire population. The four-factor model for Job
satisfaction measured a means of 3.88 on Autonomy, 3.45 on Social, 3.24 on Advancement and 4.00 on Intrinsic for the entire population. Means for the Three-factor model of Organisational commitment were recorded on Normative (3.38), Continuance (3.13) and on Affective (2.45) for the entire population.

Standard deviations for the entire population were also recorded with Attitude 0.84, Impact 1.09, Autonomy 0.71, Social 0.91, Advancement 0.80, Intrinsic 0.63, Normative 0.80, Continuance 0.82 and Affective 0.94.
CHAPTER 5: Discussion:

5.1 INTRODUCTION:

This chapter is aimed at discussing the results that was recorded in the preceding chapter. The relations between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and commitment will be discussed, how these results support or reject what previous authors found and evidence from the study to support what is being presented.

5.2 Psychological empowerment and Job satisfaction:

Menon’s (2001) survey determined that the greater the level of psychological empowerment experienced by employees, the higher the level of their job satisfaction. Thus it would seem logical that there would be a relation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) also found that there were no statistically difference between the levels of job satisfaction of males and females in South Africa. This research also aims to identify whether there is differences in the levels of job satisfaction experienced by Namibian employees specifically comparing males and females.

Self-determination is another key component of intrinsic motivation that is a key determinant of satisfaction. Competence and self determination is also a key component and an essential ingredient for intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Spreitzer and Quinn (2001) stated that empowered employees will see themselves as having the necessary power, freedom and discretion to make decisions
(self determination), have that personal connection to the organisation (meaning), feel confident in their abilities to perform their duties (competence) and believe that they can make a difference in the system in which they are functioning (impact).

This was also evident with the regression analysis using the two factors (Impact as independent variables) having statistically significant relations with SAT autonomy ($\beta = 0.48; t = 7.20; p < 0.00$), SAT social ($\beta = 0.31; t = 4.17; p < 0.00$), SAT intrinsic ($\beta = 0.29; t = 4.44; p < 0.00$) and SAT advance ($\beta = 0.33; t = 4.48; p < 0.00$). Attitude proved also to be a strong indicator of SAT intrinsic ($\beta = 0.38; t = 5.82; p < 0.00$). The more employees feel that they have an Impact in the organisation regarding tasks and decisions, they are likely to develop a more positive attitude towards the job resulting in higher levels of job satisfaction.

This was also supported by the data since Attitude and Autonomy recorded correlation coefficient of 0.35$^{*+}$ (practically significant medium effect- the higher the levels of attitude the higher the level of autonomy). This was also the case with how Attitude correlated with Intrinsic (0.52$^{*++}$, practically significant large effect) and Attitude and Social (0.19$^{*}$ statistically significant), when employees feel more competent about their abilities they also experience higher levels of job satisfaction. The higher their levels of competence (attitude) the more they would experience autonomy (making decisions), they would also feel internally more satisfied (intrinsic) and the better their relations with co-workers and managers (social).
When feeling competent about the task that has been performed employees would also be more open to confront difficulties instead of refraining from attempting to engage in these activities. When feeling competent employees are more likely to also experience job satisfaction (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Impact and Autonomy recorded Pearson correlations of $0.53^{++}$ (practically significant large effect), Impact and Social $0.33^+$ (practically significant medium effect), Impact and Impact and Intrinsic $0.47^+$ (practically significant medium effect), which is evident that when employees feel they have an impact in the organisation they will experience higher levels of job satisfaction. The higher their levels of impact the more they would experience autonomy (making decisions), the better their relations with co-workers and managers (social), and they would also feel internally more satisfied (intrinsic).

5.3 Psychological empowerment and Organisational commitment:

According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Robbins (2003) and Luthans (2005), empowerment evokes organisational commitment because: (a) a meaningful job provides a suitable fit between the requirements and purposes of one’s organisational work roles and one’s personal value system; (b) a sense of competence gives workers the belief that they are able to perform their work roles with skill and success, stimulating them to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; (c) self-determination gives workers control over their work and a voice in work-related
decision processes, leading to enhanced involvement in the organisation, and (d) having impact facilitates workers’ possibilities to participate in shaping the organisational system in which they are embedded. Menon (2001) found that the greater the level of empowerment experienced by the employees, the greater the organisational commitment will be.

Considering the tables for the regression analysis, part of what was found by the above-mentioned authors is true whilst part of it was disproved by this study. Looking at psychological empowerment, Attitude didn’t predict any of the three components of organisational commitment although Impact predicted Normative commitment ($\beta = 0.16; t = 2.04; p < 0.04$) but didn’t record significant relations for the other two components of organisational commitment.

Pearson correlation coefficient for Attitude and Affective $-0.08^*$ (statistically significant), indicates that the more competent (attitude) they feel about their abilities to do their jobs the lower their levels of affective commitment. However this doesn’t meant that when employees feel competent (attitude) they will be in search of better opportunities since this relation between attitude and affective is statistically significant but not practically significant. This was also the same for impact and affective commitment (Impact and Affective $-0.10^*$, statistically significant). Correlation coefficient for Attitude and Continuance $-0.5^*$ (statistically significant) were recorded meaning that the higher the competence (impact) the lower the level of
continuance commitment. This relation is statistically significant although not practically significant.

Pearson correlations were also recorded for Attitude and Normative 0.13*, statistically significant, regression analysis recorded (β = 0.03; t = 0.63; p < 0.53) indicating that even though there are statistical significant correlations Attitude doesn’t predict Normative commitment; Impact and Normative 0.18*, statistically significant; Impact and Continuance 0.02, statistically significant, which indicates that the higher the competence (impact) the higher the normative commitment, the higher the impact the higher normative commitment and the higher the impact the higher the continuance commitment. Even though these are positive correlations, they are statistically significant but not practically significant.

5.4 Job satisfaction and Organisational commitment:
Allen and Meyer (1996) defined organisational commitment as the psychological link between the employee and the organisation that makes it less likely for the employee to want to leave voluntarily. A committed employee identifies with the organisation, makes personal sacrifices, performs beyond normal expectations, works selflessly and contributes to the organisation’s overall effectiveness (job satisfaction). Chiang and Jang (2007) also found that job satisfaction is positively associated with organisational commitment, the higher the levels of job satisfaction the higher the level of organisational commitment.
When doing multiple regression analysis it was found that SAT autonomy predicts Normative commitment ($\beta = -0.16; t = -1.80; p < 0.04$).

Robbins (2003) also found that opportunities for promotion, the ability of supervisors to provide emotional and technical support, the support from other employees, the working environment, the fair remuneration on tasks done and the work itself would also influence the level of job satisfaction that would be experienced by employees. Furthermore, allowing employees in decision making and problem solving processes would improve job satisfaction and make them feel part of the organisation (organisational commitment). Doing multiple regression analysis it proved that SAT autonomy predicts Normative commitment ($\beta = -0.16; t = -1.80; p < 0.04$) and also that SAT social ($\beta = -0.17; t = -2.17; p < 0.03$) and SAT advance ($\beta = -0.22; t = -2.86; p < 0.01$) predicts Affective commitment.

They also found that “job satisfaction is very strongly associated with stress (negatively) and commitment (positively)” (Pinikahana & Happell, 2004, p. 120).

Buitendach and De Witte (2005) also found that the relationship between affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction show a statistical significant correlation, suggesting that the higher the level of job satisfaction the higher the level of affective commitment within the organisation (a statistically and practically significant relationship). Regression analysis indicated that SAT social ($\beta = -0.17; t = -
-2.17; \( p < 0.03 \)) and SAT advance (\( \beta = -0.22; t = -2.86; p < 0.01 \)) predicts Affective commitment.

Robbins (2003) found that the levels of job satisfaction are influenced by the work itself, promotional opportunities, the ability of the supervisors to provide emotional and technical support, the extent to which fellow workers are supported, working conditions and the equitability of remuneration. According to the regression analysis Impact predicts SAT social (satisfaction with co-workers) (\( \beta = 0.31; t = 4.17; p < 0.00 \)) and also that SAT social predicts Affective commitment (\( \beta = -0.17; t = -2.17; p < 0.03 \)).

Correlation coefficients for Autonomy and Affective \(-0.19^*\) (statistically significant), and Autonomy and Continuance \(-0.10^*\) (statistically significant), Intrinsic and Affective \(-0.15^*\) (statistically significant), Intrinsic and Continuance \(-0.02\), Social and Continuance \(-0.07^*\) (statistically significant) and were recorded. This indicates that the higher autonomy and intrinsic satisfaction experienced by employees the lower their level of affective and continuance commitment. The higher their level of social satisfaction experienced by employees the lower their level of continuance commitment. This relations was recorded although isn’t practically significant but only statistically significant.
Autonomy and Normative $0.14^*$ (statistically significant), Intrinsic and Normative $0.28^*$ (statistically significant) were recorded. This indicates that the higher the level of autonomy and intrinsic the higher the levels of normative commitment experienced by employees. This relation is only statistically significant although not practically significant.

Pearson correlations were recorded for Social and Affective $0.27^*$ (statistically significant) and Social and Normative $0.28^*$ (statistically significant). This is indicative that the higher the levels of social satisfaction experienced by employees the higher their levels of affective and normative commitment. These relations were statistically significant but not practically significant.

The final chapter would include some recommendations, limitations and some suggestions for future research.
CHAPTER 6: Conclusion and recommendation.

6.1. INTRODUCTION:

This paper gave a brief introduction to the three concepts; psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Different perspectives from the vast range of authors were explored (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Spreitzer, 1995; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Menon, 2001; Robbins, 2003; Pinikahana & Happell, 2004) as well as how their perspectives through empirical research brought light to these constructs. This paper further went on to explain the methods to empirically test these construct in a Namibian environment, recorded these findings with the use of tables and brief explanations, followed by an in depth explanation and interpretation regarding these results. This section of the paper summarises the main findings, give some guided recommendations and shed some light on the challenges and limitations throughout the study.

“The hard and competitive work conditions in the 21st century force organisations to be willing to re-evaluate themselves and make changes to reach their objectives” (Özel, Bayındır, Inan & Özel, 2009, p. 358). During the past 25 years many organisations have experienced change including institutions of higher education. It was found that not only does traditional academic roles change, sometimes the
working conditions have become unfavourable and unsupportive of staff’s efforts to pursue the mission of higher education (Mapesela & Hay, 2006).

6.2 Synopsis of the study:
Research was conducted at the University of Namibia, main campus, focusing on academic and administrative staff and measuring their levels of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. From the population, 218 employees participated voluntarily, the questionnaires were completed and the data analysed.

Psychological empowerment and Job satisfaction:
In this study, Impact predicted job satisfaction (autonomy, social, intrinsic and advancement- all four components of job satisfaction). This means that if organisations are being able to improve the way employees feel about their levels of Self-determination and Impact, being able to feel that what they are doing has immense impact in the organisation and is able to decide about how to complete their tasks, they would also be more satisfied in most aspects of their job (the ability to make decisions/ decisions being made by superiors; being satisfied with the relations they have with colleagues and co-workers; feeling satisfied with him/herself as a person; and satisfied about the possibility for advancement on the job, regarding it as fair and possible).
Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined self-determination as the choice in initiating and regulating actions and impact as the ability to affect or influence organisational outcomes. This was supported by the findings in the study; employees experiencing Impact would be able to decide how to complete their duties and also feel that what they are doing in the organisation will have an impact leading to higher levels of job satisfaction.

**Psychological empowerment and Organisational commitment:**
Impact also predicted Normative commitment (feelings of an obligation to the organisation, they ought to stay). Looking at this, considering how Impact also predicts job satisfaction (autonomy, social, intrinsic and advancement - all four components of job satisfaction), when employees are experiencing Impact they would also feel obligated to stay with the organisation and not necessarily because they don’t have alternative options.

**Job satisfaction and Organisational commitment:**
Experiencing job satisfaction in relation to how you are able to make decisions or how your superiors make decisions (Job satisfaction autonomy), employees would also be experiencing Normative commitment.

It was also found that Job satisfaction (Social and Advancement) predict Affective commitment. Social (job satisfaction) would be how employees get along with
colleagues and co-workers, Advancement (job satisfaction) refers to the opportunity for and the possibility for advancement on the job, whilst Affective commitment refers to the feeling of being committed to the organisation because you want to, not out of desperation or guilt feeling when you consider leaving. It seems to make sense that Affective commitment would be the ultimate commitment that employers would like their employees to experience. When employees perceive their relations with their colleagues to be fair and satisfied with it they would probably also believe that if they perform, the chance for advancement exists and it’s possible that they might be awarded an advancement depending on their work performance.

6.3 Recommendations:
Considering the distribution of the participants, it seemed that the larger amount of employees is in their pre-retirement phase and also having the necessary qualifications. This is a positive thing for the moment, having the more educated staff and with more experience. During the later stages of the organisation it could be that those employees have retired, died or chose alternative employment, the organisation would be at a stage where no transfer of knowledge or experience might have taken place. The university can start by looking at awarding bursaries to dedicated students
for further studies, allowing internships for graduates, mentorship’s and possible coaching within the organisation. Allowing the older generation to start passing down their knowledge and skills to the next generation, talent management would be a way to invest instead of paying more at the end of the day.

When making employees feel that they are able to complete a task successfully they would be more willing to attempt more difficult tasks. In situations when employees don’t have the necessary skills allow for skill development or training to acquire those skills. Reward employees for a job well done, a simple praise or even some form of incentive boost the level of self determination and impact experienced by the employee. Feeling that you have an impact in what happens in your organisation you are likely to experience feelings of job satisfaction (autonomy- able to make decisions about ways to complete your duties; social- having better relations with colleagues and co-workers; intrinsic- feeling more satisfied with the work and giving internal satisfaction; and advancement- believing that you are able to be awarded an advancement if performance meets the expected standards) and initially leading to Affective commitment (being part of the organisation by choice and exerting higher levels of effort towards achieving organisational goals.

Kaarna, Polluste, Lepnum and Thrtloft (2004) also stated that if we attend to the factors that motivate employees it might also enhance their level of job satisfaction. If the organisation is able to identify what motivates employees their jobs and activities could be structured in such a way that it enhances their level of motivation.
6.4 Limitations:

During the data collection many people decided not to participate in the study since they were busy with finalizing Continuous Assessment marks or setting up a last test. Some of the participants, even though they were busy, decided to participate since many knew how it is to collect data and the importance of the research not only for my studies but also for the possible interventions that could be implemented based on the data collected.

Some of the other limitations included people not completing the questionnaires in full, sometimes their interpretation were different from what was meant by the researcher although most of the participants completed in full. Problems were also encountered with some of the wording of the psychological empowerment questionnaire since English is only the median of communication and not their mother tongue.

The researcher had to leave some questionnaires with the participants to allow them enough time to complete the questionnaires at their own pace. This allowed more participants to want to participate although when collecting the questionnaires seemed difficult at times since some were in classes, out of the office or have forgotten to complete it. In situations where some participants were out of the office the researcher had to go back and check until the questionnaires were collected. The
researcher also decided to wait for some participants that forgot to complete the questionnaires until it was done.

Making use of research assistants seemed like a viable option although most of the research assistance were either busy attending classes, finalizing their last course work, writing tests or unavailable.

6.5 Future research:

This study was able to prove that psychological empowerment predicts satisfaction, although being satisfied doesn’t necessarily mean that employees would also be performing. The researcher would encourage further research to possibly explore engagement and productivity.

Since some of the participants had some difficulty with different interpretations of the psychological empowerment questionnaire, future research could also try and standardize this instrument for Namibian population.

This study was only aimed at exploring the relations of the different constructs; another project could also try and develop some program to enhance employees’ levels of psychological empowerment.
Item 4 (*The work that I do is important to me*) on the Psychological empowerment questionnaire and item 1 (*Being able to keep busy all the time*), 10 (*The competence of my supervisor in making decisions*) and 17 (*The working conditions*) of the Job satisfaction questionnaire didn’t load significantly on any of the factors and could mean that they are seen as different or that they could be removed since people from Namibia has a different understanding of these items, thus would also require further investigation.
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