

**PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, JOB SATISFACTION,
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB INSECURITY IN DIVISIONS
OF A PACKAGING ORGANISATION.**

**MAMORENA MARGARET MOELETSI
BA (HONS)**

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Study Supervisor: Dr J. H. Buitendach
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REMARK

The reader is reminded that the references And the editorial style as prescribed by the Publication Manual (5th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA) were followed in this dissertation. This is in line with the policy of the programme in Industrial Psychology of the PU for CHE, to use APA-style in all scientific documents as from January 1999.

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ABSTRACT

PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB INSECURITY IN DIVISIONS OF A PACKAGING ORGANISATION

Many organisations globally are in a quest to produce better products (in terms of quality), faster (in terms of time frame) and at less cost. This in turn creates a competitive environment. This competitive environment is characterised by deregulation and converging markets, complex customer needs, corporate restructuring and downsizing. In their quest to achieve their goals, the organisations need to put more emphasis on their employees. They need to recognise that to be winners in this competitive environment the most important factor lies in their employees and how they work. Organisations today are frequently searching for innovative ways to enhance the creative potential of their work force and gain that extra competitive advantage. Employees must learn to take initiative, be creative, set objective and be committed to achieve them and accept responsibility for their actions. They need to perceive themselves as empowered and to derive satisfaction from what they are doing.

In the business world, what compels organisations to implement the empowerment process is the promise of enhanced operational and financial performance as it results from an increase in employees' job satisfaction, commitment and decrease in job insecurity. Studies have shown psychologically empowered employees to be more *effective* and to experience more job satisfaction than their less empowered counterparts.

The empirical objective of this study was to determine the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity of employees in a packaging industry and to determine whether psychological empowerment can predict the level of job satisfaction,

organisational commitment, job insecurity. The study also focuses on the relationship of these four constructs (psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity) to other variables. The variables being referred to are gender, age, length of service, years in current job position and grade.

A correlation design was used to determine the relationship between the constructs of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. Data from the sample population of employees at the packaging industry (n=119) was gathered and explained in terms of descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations). Cronbach alpha coefficients were determined for the measuring instruments. Pearson-product moment correlations and multiple correlations were also calculated. A regression analysis was performed to determine the extent to which sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity of employees at the packaging industry. Factor analysis was measured to analyse interrelationships within a set of variables.

The findings suggested that a relationship exists between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. A significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment. These findings indicate that individuals who experience psychological empowerment have a tendency to be more satisfied with their jobs and vice versa. Practically significant and statistical significance correlations were found between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment. Correlation was also found between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. This clearly confirms what is expected that if levels of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are high then job insecurity level should be low or vice versa.

A practical significant correlation was found between psychological empowerment, organisational commitment and biographical variable (age, years of service and years in current job position). There was no correlation recorded between job satisfaction and age and years in current job position. There was correlation found between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job insecurity and grade.

Regarding the predictive value of the sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment in relation to job satisfaction, the findings indicated that the psychological empowerment subscales predicted 51% of the total job satisfaction, 25 % of organisational commitment and 28% of job insecurity. Lastly limitations for this study as well as recommendations for the organisation and for future research were made.

OPSOMMING

SELKUNDIGE BEMAGTIGING, WERKBEVREDIGING, ORGANISATORIESE VERBINTENIS EN WERKONSENSEKEHEID IN 'N VERPAKKINGS ORGANISASIE.

Baie organisasies is wêreldwyd betrokke in die najaging van die produksie van beter produkte (ten opsigte van kwaliteit), vinniger (ten opsigte van tydbestele) en teen minder uitgawe. Dit skep op hul beurt 'n mededingende omgewing. Hierdie mededingende omgewing word gekenmerk deur deregulasie en konvergerende markte, komplekse klandisie-behoeftes, korporatiewe herstrukturering en afskaling. In hul ywer om hul doelwitte te bereik, behoort die organisasies meer klem op hul werknemers te plaas. Hulle behoort te beseef dat die belangrikste faktor in die stryd om weners in hierdie mededingende omgewing te wees, in hul werknemers lê en hoe hulle werk. Vandag soek organisasies dikwels na innoverende maniere om die kreatiewe potensiaal van hul mannekrag te verhoog en daardie ekstra mededingende voordeel te behaal. Werknemers moet leer om leiding te neem, kreatief te wees, teikens te stel, hulle te verbind tot verkryging daarvan en verantwoordelikhed te aanvaar vir hul optrede. Hulle behoort hulself te beskou as bemaagtig, en bevrediging te put uit wat hulle doen.

In die sakewêreld is dit die belofte van verhoogde operasionele en finansiële prestasie wat organisasies verplig om die bemaagtigingsproses te implementeer, aangesien dit voortspruit uit 'n verhoging van werknemers se werkbevrediging, verbintenis en 'n vermindering in werk onsekerheid. Studies het aangetoon dat seilkundigbemaagtigde werknemers meer effektief is en meer werkbevrediging ervaar as hul minder bemaagtigde eweknieë.

Die empiriese doelwit van hierdie studie was om te bepaal wat die verhouding is tussen die sielkundige bemaagtiging, werkbevrediging, organisatoriese verbintenis

en werksensekeheid van werknemers in 'n verpakkings industrie, en om te bepaal of sielkundige bemagtiging die vlak van werkbevrediging, organisatoriese verbintenis en werksensekeheid kan voorspel. Die studie fokus ook op die verhouding van hierdie vier konstrakte (sielkundige bemagtiging, werkbevrediging, organisatoriese verbintenis en werksensekeheid) met ander veranderlikes. Die verguderlikes waarna verwys word, is geslag, ouderdom, dienstyid, jare in huidige werkposisie en graad.

'n Korrelasie ontwerp is gebruik om die verhouding tussen die konstrakte sielkunde bemagtiging, werkbevrediging, organisatoriese verbintenis en werksensekeheid te bepaal. Gegewens is versamel vanuit die ewekansige steekproef van die werknemers-populasie in die verpakkings industrie (n=119) en is verklaar ooreenkomstig beskrywende statistiek (gemiddeldes en standaard afwykings). Cronbach alpha koëffisiënte is bepaal vir die meetinstrumente. Pearson korrelasies koëffisiënte veelvuldige korrelasie is ook berekens. 'n Regressie-analise is uitgevoer om te bepaal in watter mate sub-dimensies van sielkundige bemagtiging (betekenis, bedrewenheid, selfbeskikking en impak) die werkbevrediging, organisatoriese verbintenis en werksensekeheid van werknemers in 'n verpakkings industrie voorspel. Faktor-analise is gemeet om onderlinge verhoudings binne 'n stel veranderlikes te analiseer.

Die bevindings dui daarop dat daar 'n verhouding bestaan tussen sielkundige bemagtiging en werkbevrediging. 'n Betekenisvolle verhouding is bevind tussen werk bevrediging en sub-dimensies van sielkundige bemagtiging. Hierdie bevindinge dui daarop dat individue wat sielkundige bemagtiging ervaar, 'n neiging toon om meer tevrede met hul werk te wees, en andersom. Prakties-betekenisvolle en statisties-betekenisvolle korrelasie is bevind tussen sielkundige bemagtiging en organisatoriese verbintenis. Daar was ook korrelasie tussen sielkundige bemagtiging, werkbevrediging, organisatoriese verbintenis en werksensekeheid. Dit bevestig duidelik wat verwag word: as vlakke van

sielkundige bemagtiging, werkbevrediging en organisatoriese verbintenis hoog is, behoort werkonsekerheid-vlakke laag te wees, en andersom.

Met betrekking tot die voorspellende waarde van die sub-dimensies van sielkundige bemagtiging in verhouding tot werkbevrediging, het die bevindings aangetoon dat die sielkundige bemagtiging sub-skale 52% van die totale werkbevrediging, 26 van die organisatoriese verbintenis en 28% van die werkonsekerheid voorspel het.

Laastens is beperkinge vir hierdie studie bepaal en aanbevelings vir die organisasie en vir verdere studie gedoen.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this mini-dissertation is to investigate the relationship between Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity in divisions of a packaging industry.

In this chapter, the problem statement will be discussed. Research objectives are set out, including the general and specific objectives. The research methods are determined and a division of the chapters for the whole study will be given.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Duvall (1999) states that empowering people is vital to the success of the 21st century organisations. When an organisation creates an environment in which its members choose empowerment as a way of being, the probability for organisational success is increased because the efforts of individuals are focused towards the same goal. There is personal commitment to, and ownership of outcomes.

Empowering people includes:

- ❖ Fostering and encouraging cooperation and team work within work groups.
- ❖ Encouraging the participation of others.
- ❖ Encourage people to make their own decisions and to accept responsibility in their jobs.
- ❖ Developing a win-win atmosphere in a work group based on mutual trust, and respect.
- ❖ Creating a sense of ownership in others for their projects.

Linden, Sparrowe, and Wayne (2000) state that empowering individuals may result in higher levels of job satisfaction. They also state that individuals who perceive their jobs to be significant and worthwhile feel higher levels of job satisfaction than those who perceive their jobs as having little value.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1998) define job satisfaction as the process whereby employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. The correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of individuals fulfilling the experience requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individuals. Job satisfaction can also be regarded as an internal, conscious interpretation of real outcomes of the job against the ideal outcomes.

According to Pretorius and Rothmann (2001) job dissatisfaction is related to patterns of behaviour such as tardiness, absenteeism and high labour turnover, whereas job satisfaction is related to behaviour that indicates a positive organisational orientation.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are good indicators of individual's attitudes towards their work. There seems to be a general consensus that job satisfaction can be described as an affective or emotional reaction to a job, resulting from the comparison of actual outcomes within those that are desired, expected or felt to be deserved (Cranny, Smith & Stoner, 1992).

Organisational commitment is defined by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) as a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation. Wagner and Hollenbeck (1995) conceptualised organisational commitment as the identification with one's employer that includes the willingness to work hard on

behalf of the organisation and the intention to remain with the organisation for an extended period of time.

Organisational commitment can be affected by job insecurity. Employees with a perception of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour, and report lower organisational commitment, which often lead to employee turnover (Probst, 1998). Employees who perceive their jobs as adding little to the organisation may experience some level of job insecurity.

Employees are often said to be the most valuable asset in an organisation, yet world-wide plant closures with mass redundancies seems to be the order of the day, while mergers and restructuring menace the jobs of thousand more (De Witte, 1997). Downsizing, outsourcing, and re-engineering have created lean organisations in which the management mantra has become "do more with little", in an attempt to survive in difficult economic conditions, and this almost inevitably implies the rationalising of jobs. More importantly, as we move into the global information society, a profound restructuring of work is taking place in order to be competitive. This edge-competitiveness then creates some job insecurity for employees.

Job insecurity can be defined in different ways. It relates to people in their work context who fear they may lose their jobs and become unemployed. The concept job insecurity does not only refer to the amount of uncertainty an employees' feel about their job continuity, but also to the permanence of certain dimensions of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities (De Witte, 1999).

Klandermans, Van Vuuren and Jacobson (1990) conceptualise job insecurity as the concern felt by a person for the continued existence of his/her job and identifies three components. The first refers to subjective experience or perception; the second to the uncertainty about the future and the third

component includes doubt concerning the continuation of the job. Job insecurity of individual employees may decrease productivity, increase absenteeism and thus result in the undermining of the organisation's competitive strength.

Job insecurity is not problematic for employees only, but also for the organisation. De Witte (1997) found that the impact of job insecurity on individual employees might result in erosion of effectiveness within the organisation. People develop attitudinal attachments towards their work place over time, which are demonstrated by high levels of commitment, satisfaction and trust. Feelings of job insecurity may threaten such attachments. This in turn can lead to decrease in productivity and increase in absenteeism.

The researcher will focus on whether there is a correlation between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

Accordingly, the following research questions can be formulated:

- ❖ How are the constructs of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity, conceptualised in the literature?
- ❖ What are the level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity of employees in divisions of a packaging organisation?
- ❖ What is the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity?
- ❖ Can psychological empowerment predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity?

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives are divided into general and specific objectives

1.2.1 General Objectives

With references to the above formulation of the problem, the general objective of the research is to investigate the relationship between Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity of employees in a packaging industry, and whether psychological empowerment can predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

1.2.2 Specific objectives

The following specific objectives are discussed:

- ❖ To conceptualise Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.
- ❖ To determine the level of Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity in divisions of a packaging industry.
- ❖ To determine the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.
- ❖ To determine whether psychological empowerment can predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

1.3 RESEARCH METHODS

This study consists of a literature study and an empirical study.

1.3.1 Literature study

A literature study will be undertaken to gather information on Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

The following database will be used as primary sources:

- ❖ Library catalogues
- ❖ Internet
- ❖ Social science index
- ❖ Psychinfo

1.3.2 Empirical study

The empirical study consists of a research design, study population, measuring battery, research procedures and statistical analysis

1.3.2.1 Research design

A survey design is used to reach the research objectives. The specific design will be used, whereby a sample is drawn from a population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister; 1997). Information collected is used to describe the population at that time and it is appropriate for studying various groups at different stages of development (Burns & Grove, 1993). This design can also be used to assess interrelationship among variables within the population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997) this design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correctional research.

1.3.2.2 Study population

The study population will consist of employees employed at various divisions of the packaging industry and will be dependent on the availability of respondents. The sample will be randomly stratified. The sample size will be $n=119$. The sample taken will be representative of all sections and includes members of different gender, age, job grade, year of experience and department excluding lower level workers due to poor reading and writing abilities that can contaminate data.

1.3.2.3 Measuring batteries

The following four questionnaires will be used in the empirical study:

- ❖ The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire (Spreitzer, 1995). This is a theory-based measure of empowerment developed by Spreitzer (1995) based on four facets: meaning, competence (self-efficacy), self-determination (choice) and impact of psychological empowerment, hypothesised by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). It has construct validity. Dywer (2001) found an alpha coefficient of 0,92 for reliability.
- ❖ Job satisfaction will be measured by using the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist (1967). The short version is used in the study and consists of 20 items (Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner & Laukau, 1993). The manual for the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist, 1967) reports Cronbach alpha coefficients (α) of the short version to be varied from 0,87 and 0,92. Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr (1981) report that the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (1967) offers a reliable and valid measure of general job satisfaction. Studies conducted in South Africa have demonstrated this instrument to be reliable (Buckle, 2003; Kaplan, 1990; Khwela, 2001; Naude, 1999)

- ❖ **Organisational Commitment Questionnaire by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993).** This questionnaire will be used to measure the organisational commitment of employees. This questionnaire is based on the premises that organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct. It has the following constructs: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. A batch of 18 items, which are characteristics of affective, continuance and normative commitment, was compiled by the authors. Inter-correlation between factor counts of the different samples could indicate that the factor is congruent over different populations. Inter-correlation between populations were often above 0,90 which indicated that the combined factor is congruent. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was above 0,80 (Suliman & Iles, 2000).

- ❖ **Job Insecurity Survey Questionnaire (De Witte, 2000).** From this questionnaire, only the 11 items relating to job insecurity will be used to measure the perceived job insecurity of participants. These items encapsulate both cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity and are arranged along a 5-point scale with 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree. De Witte reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,92 from the questionnaire.

1.3.2.4 Research procedure

The measuring batteries will be compiled and appointment will be made with Human Resources Directors of various divisions to obtain authorisation for distribution and administration of the questionnaires. A letter from the researcher endorsed by the business unit manager indicating the purpose of the study will be attached to the measuring batteries.

1.3.2. 5 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis is conducted with the aid of the SAS program (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlations will be used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity and unidimensionality of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995).

All statistical analyses will be undertaken through the statistical consultation services at Potchefstroom University.

- ❖ Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviation skewness and kurtosis will be determined.
- ❖ Statistical techniques such as alpha coefficients, inter-item correlations and confirmatory factor analysis will be used to determine the internal consistency and construct validity of the questionnaires.
- ❖ A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient will be used to specify the relationship between the variables.
- ❖ A multi-regression analysis will be used to determine those variables best able to predict psychological empowerment.

According to Cohen (1988) the cut-off point for practical significance of differences between groups are: (0,30), medium effect (0,50) and large effect. Values larger than 0,50 will be regarded as practically significant for the purpose of this research. In terms of the differences between sub-groups in the sample, t-tests will be used.

1.4 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Literature review: psychological empowerment and job Satisfaction

Chapter 3: Literature review: organisational commitment and job

insecurity

Chapter 4: Empirical study

Chapter 5: Results and interpretation

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1.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In chapter 1, which serves as an introduction, the problem statement, purpose and objectives of the study and research methodology were provided, as well as an indication of the content of the chapters to follow. In Chapter 2, a literature review of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION

INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the researcher has introduced the problem statement, research questions, concepts psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. In this chapter, the researcher will focus on psychological empowerment and job satisfaction.

In the psychological empowerment discussion, the researcher will focus on the background to it, conceptualise the construct, discuss its four cognitions, its approaches, its importance and lastly its outcomes.

In job satisfaction, the researcher will focus on its background, conceptualise the concept, discuss its importance, factors that influence it and lastly its outcomes.

2.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

2.1.1 Background

In the West, the idea of workers' self-management has always been the Cinderella of industrial relations theory. But there is evidence today that it is being reinvented under the concept of "empowerment" (Anon, third way article, 1998).

(Anon, third way article, 1998) states that workers' self-management represents a third way in industrial relations and, in this era of "rolling back the frontiers of

the state" it is a valid alternative to government control and capitalist gigantism. The idea of people literally employing themselves, taking communal responsibility for their working lives, would seem obvious good sense to anyone raised in a pre-capitalist society.

In the recent past, the boldest experiments in workers' self-management have taken place in post-colonial societies seeking a distinctive political and economic model (Anon, third way article, 1998). Kinlaw (1995) also adds that more recently, native people have started forming co-operatives whose principles integrate their tribal and political pasts with today's economic pressures. He also maintains that empowerment as a construct can be divided into political, financial (economical) and organisational levels. He contends that it is a term, which appears in political discussions that propose empowering the poor, and disenfranchised people of a country.

The researcher believes, that empowerment in South Africa generally, focusing on what Kinlaw (1995) mentions, takes the form of political issue, particularly in the form of Black empowerment. Turner (1999) adds that the most marked feature of corporate South Africa since 1994, has been the rapid growth of black corporations in depth, breadth and credibility. A few black-owned firms have emerged into sizeable and significant players, notably in the financial sector. The ownership of media organisations has been substantially overhauled. A few large and prestigious corporations are now black-controlled.

What is the issue surrounding black empowerment? Turner (1999) contends that the main debate around empowerment is no longer so much on its merits and demerits, but rather how to bring blacks with limited resources and experience into the economic mainstream. It is generally accepted that to ensure a stable economic environment, the success of South Africa's transition depends largely on economic empowerment. South Africa cannot wait for the usual evolutionary process of business development to take place.

Even though the concept psychological empowerment is not directly mentioned by Thomas and Velthouse's (1990), they maintain that Empowerment when understood as the psychology of an individual, can be regarded as an increased intrinsic task motivation generated by meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) contend that empowerment is a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organisational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal, both by formal organisational practices and informal techniques of providing self-efficacy information. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) build on this work by Conger and Kanungo (1988) with their cognitive model of empowerment and they argue that empowerment is multifaceted and that it's essence cannot be captured by a single concept (self efficacy). They define empowerment as intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's active orientation to his/her work role.

Intrinsic task motivation involves positively valued experiences that individuals derive directly from a task. The core of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model involves identifying cognitions called task assessment. This model resembles the social learning sequence of stimulus, organism, behaviour and consequences. Its focus is on the intra-personal cognitive process, and the core of the model is the on going cycle of environmental events, task assessments and behaviour. Task assessments are presumed to be the proximate cause of intrinsic task motivation. They in turn energise and sustain the individual's behaviour, which in turn impacts environmental events.

Environmental events provide data to the individual about the consequences of on-going task behaviour and about conditions and events relevant to the future behaviour. This data along with interpretive style and global assessment, shapes

and influences the individual's task assessments relative to impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice (Thomas & Velthouse. 1990).

Now that the researcher has touched on these two aspects, which are empowerment and psychological empowerment, the next topic will be to define or conceptualise these two constructs in detail.

2.1.2 Conceptualisation of psychological empowerment

Fox (1998) mentions that empowerment is a term that everyone thinks they understand, but few really do. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990) empowerment has no agreed upon definition, rather, the term has been used often to capture a family of somewhat related meanings.

Fox (1998) states that some authors indicate that empowerment consists of sharing power and authority. The common Oxford dictionary states that empowerment is to *give official authority to; delegate power to; commission, authorise*. Gandz (1990) states that empowerment means that management vests decision-making or approval authority in employees where traditionally, such authority was a managerial prerogative.

Caudron (1995) articulates empowerment as existing when employees own their jobs; when they are able to measure and influence their individual success, as well as the success of their departments and their companies. Bowen and Lawler (1992) define empowerment as sharing with the front-line employees four organisational constructs: information about the organisation's performance; knowledge that enables employees to understand and contribute to organisational performance. The other two constructs this authors noted are reward based on the organisational performance and power to make decisions that influence organisational directions and performance.

In their latest article, Bowen and Lawler (1992) conclude that research suggests that empowerment exists when companies implement practices that distribute power, information, knowledge and rewards throughout the organisation. They went on and note that if any one of the four elements is zero, nothing happens to redistribute that ingredient, and empowerment will be zero.

According to Lee and Koh (1998) a combination of concepts can be used to define psychological empowerment. Even though, Thomas and Velthouse (1990), they do not clearly mention the construct psychological empowerment, the concepts they used are they one that encompasses psychological empowerment therefore it can be concluded that they regard psychological empowerment as the psychological state of perceiving four dimensions: meaningfulness, competence, self-determination and impact which are affected by empowering the behaviour of supervisors in the organisations.

As mentioned in the background of this construct, empowerment when understood as the psychology of an individual, is according to Thomas and Velthouse (1990) an increased intrinsic task motivation generated by meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.

Spreitzer (1996) adds to the work of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) and provides an operational definition of these concepts. She regards empowerment as a Gestalt of four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact, and each of these cognitions contributes to the overall construct of psychological empowerment. To emphasise this, she contends that these cognitions are not predictors or outcomes of empowerment, but rather comprise its very essence. In other words, the lack of a single dimension will deflate, though not completely eliminate, the overall degree of felt empowerment.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher defines psychological empowerment as a state generating meaning, competence, impact and self-

determination within the organisation, leading to employees' feelings of intrinsic motivation.

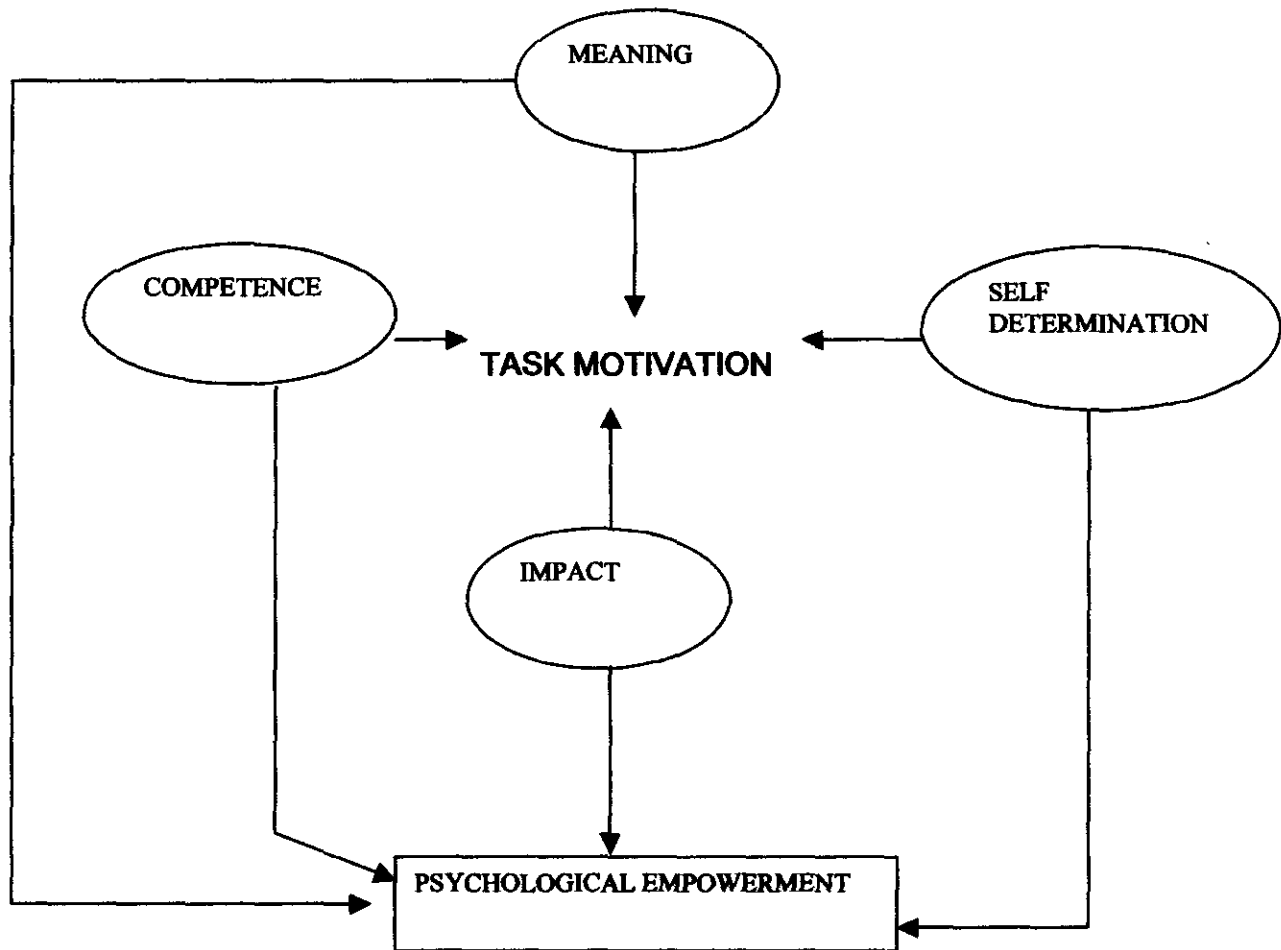


Figure 1:
Cognitions of Psychological empowerment

To have a clear understanding of these cognitions, the researcher will then discuss each of themes in detail.

2.1.3 Cognitions of empowerment and psychological empowerment

In the following section, the cognitions of psychological empowerment namely meaning, competence, self-determination and impact will be discussed.

2.1.3.1 Meaning

Meaning is the value of a work or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideal standard (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). According to Brief and Nord (1990), meaning involves a fit between requirements of a work role and beliefs, values and behaviours. It involves the individual's intrinsic caring about a given task. Meaningfulness is according to Appelbaum and Honeggar (1998), the opportunity to pursue a worthy task purpose. They further stated that the feeling of meaningfulness is the feeling that you are on a path that is worth your time and energy, that you are on a valuable mission, that your purpose matters in the larger scheme of things. Meaningfulness is closely linked to motivation through challenge and self-expression.

Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (1997) mention that meaning serves as the engine of empowerment. If employees' hearts are not in their work, if work activity conflicts with their value system, then they will not feel empowered. Menon (2001) adds that employees need to internalise the goals of the organisation because goals are important for energising, particularly if they are meaningful. If individuals believe and cherish the goals of the organisation, they will act on its behalf. The goal internalisation dimension is a unique feature of the present day conceptualisation of empowerment.

Dwyers (2001) mentions that in order to build feelings of meaningfulness the following should be in place:

- ❖ Non-cynical climate,
- ❖ Clear value and existing vision,

- ❖ **Relevant task purposes and whole task.**

Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) stated that empowered employees with strong sense of meaning are seen as charismatic by people who work for them. This charisma facilitates their ability to bring transformational change to their organisation.

The researcher agrees with Appelbaum and Honeggar (1998) when they stated that the feeling of meaningfulness is the feeling that you are on a path that is worth your time and energy, that you are on a valuable mission, that your purpose matters in the larger scheme of things. The researcher is also on the opinion that if this situation exists, people tend to excel and have a feeling of competence when performing their tasks. This lead to the next cognition to be discussed which is competence.

2.1.3.2. Competence

Appelbaum and Honeggar (1998) define competence as the accomplishment you feel in skilfully performing task activities you have chosen. The feeling of competence involves the sense that you are doing good, quality work on a task.

Competence is analogous to self-efficacy, and the construct of self-efficacy refers to people's beliefs about their capacity to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives. Empowerment is not something bestowed by default, it is gained through development of personal efficiency (Bandura, 1991).

Spreizer (1995,1996) adds that competence should refer to self-efficacy specific to work. For example, if the delegated employee is competent, but has weak perception of his ability to influence the organisation or of actual autonomy in his work role, it will prevent him from feeling empowered. Furthermore, self-efficacy does not necessarily involve the empowering behaviour of supervisors. Self-

efficacy can be increased without supervisors empowering the workers. Thus, self-efficacy lacks the behavioural aspect of empowerment and cannot substitute empowerment.

High self-efficacy feeling tends to result in initiating high effort and persistence in the face of obstacles. Self-efficacy also determines how much effort people will expand and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles or aversive experiences (Bandura, 1997).

Locke (1991) maintains that personal mastery has powerful direct effects on performance. Empowered employees have a sense of competence, this means that they are confident about their ability to do their work well. Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) agree that empowered people have a sense of competence and are confident about their ability to do their work well. Individuals who hold themselves in high esteem are likely to extend their feelings of self-worth to a work-specific sense of competence. Bandura (1989) also stresses that self-efficacy makes a difference to how people think, feel, and act.

Senge et al., (1994) adds by stating that there is a sense of effortlessness and joyousness in personal mastery. It stems from the individuals' ability and willingness to understand and work with these forces around us. The discipline of personal mastery suggests that we can, as individuals, cultivate a way of thinking that leads us gradually to it. The more we practise this way of thinking, the more we feel competent and confident.

As mentioned empowered employees have a sense of confidence about their ability to do their work (Locke, 1991). The researcher believes that, because of this feeling of competence, they acquire more and more initiative, and become capable of making choices regarding their work performance. This leads to the discussion of self-determination.

2.1.3.3. Self-determination

Self-determination is a sense of choice in initiating and regulating actions. It reflects autonomy over the initiation and continuation of work behaviour and processes, and examples include making decisions about work methods, pace and effort (Bell & Staw, 1989). Appelbaum and Honegger (1998) states that choice is the opportunity a person feel in selecting task activities that make sense to them and performing them in ways that seem appropriate. The feeling of choice is the feeling of being free to choose, of being able to use your own judgement and of acting out your own understanding of the task.

Self-determination may increase effectiveness through enhanced employee motivation, using a framework of intrinsic motivation. Thomas and Tymon (1994) found that employees, who had choice regarding how to do their work, were found to be higher performers than those with little work autonomy. Individuals who had more control over work-related decisions were found to be rated higher performers by their superiors than those with less control over their work (Linden et al., 1993).

Bandura (1997) states that most behaviour is determined by many factors operating interactively. He asserts that, within a reciprocally deterministic system, events produce effects probabilistically rather than inevitably. Given the same environmental conditions, people who have the ability to exercise many opinions have greater freedom to make things happen, than those who have limited means of personal agency.

The researcher agrees with Brown and Brown (1996) when they mentions that the essence of empowerment is to liberate employees by giving them more autonomy over their actions, providing them with freedom to choose how and where they want to contribute.

2.1.3.4. Impact

Ashforth (1989) defines impact as the degree to which individuals can influence strategic, administrative or operating outcomes at work. Empowered employees have a sense of impact according to Spreitzer and Quinn (1997). This according to them means, that people believe that they can have an influence on their work unit and that others listen to their ideas. The impact dimension of empowerment extends the notion that individuals have some control over their own jobs, that they have some influence over larger organisational matters (Spreitzer, 1996).

Coetsee (1996) maintains that the term “locus of control” is used when referring to perceived impact. Locus of control can be defined as a personality variable which denotes to which degree individuals perceive that they are controlled by their environment. Coetsee (1996) refers to locus of control as being what you ascribe responsibility to or blame for what is happening to you or occurs in your life.

Locus of control, according to Coetsee (1996), has an influence on work behaviour. Individuals with internal locus of control will probably feel that they can manage situations in the work context, because these situations are seen as being within their personal control.

If individuals believe that they can have an impact on the system in which they are embedded, that they can influence organisational outcomes, then they will be more likely to actually have an impact on their system through their work, and thus will be seen as being more effective (Ashforth, 1989, 1990).

When looking at all the four constructs of empowerment, the researcher is of the opinion that when people find their jobs more interesting and valuable, they tend to strive to master it and be competent in performing it, which will in turn, render them with a sense of choice and autonomy and from here it becomes easier for

them to have a certain impact on it. A person must experience all four cognitions of psychological empowerment in order for the organisation to achieve its desired results. The questions might be: How can one experience them? Which approach must one follow?

It is clear from research already done that empowerment and psychological empowerment has three distinctive approaches, leadership, structural and motivational. The next discussion will be on these approaches.

2.1.4 Psychological Empowerment approaches

The following section will focus on psychological empowerment approaches, namely leadership, structural and motivational approaches.

2.1.4.1 The Leadership Approach

Emphasis is based on the energising aspect of empowerment. Leaders energise and hence empower their followers to act by providing an existing vision for the future (Spreitzer, 1995). Yukl (1989) states that leaders inspire subordinates to participate in the process of transforming the organisation.

Blanchard et al., (1999) mention that people now need direction much more than support in order to be empowered. They add that leaders should identify desired outcomes and share an image of what a successful change to empowerment would look like, provide an action plan to reduce the gap between reality and people's idealised concept of empowerment, share the information that clarifies where the organisation is now and where it is going, and also provide information that allows employees to reach their own conclusion.

The researcher agrees with Spreitzer (1995), Yukl (1989) Menon (2001) and Blanchard (1999) that leaders play an important role in psychologically

empowering their subordinates, but their visibility/presence cannot be regarded as the only important aspect that can provide this empowerment. What about organisational processes? Are they playing any important role? This leads to the discussion of structural approach.

2.1.4.2. Structural Approach

The first step in gaining insight into the concept of empowerment in the workplace is to examine the notion of power itself and how it influences the process of empowerment, be it from the perspective of organisational leadership or from the perspective of the employee in the workplace (Appelbaum, Hebert & Leroux, 1999).

In the competitive world, individuals continually strive for power and control over their environment. It is the most fundamental and most easily recognised of primal needs. There is never enough of it and without it, people feel powerless. Acquiring power is in everything people say, do and read. Power has always been at the centre of human motivation (Appelbaum et al., 1999).

Therefore Menon (2001) contends that empowerment is understood as the granting of power and decision-making. According to the structural version of empowerment, employees should be empowered by being granted power and decision-making authority, stemming from hierarchical authority, control of resources and network centrality (Glor, nd).

Employment as a set of management practices, tells us little of the empowering experience from the point of view of the individual employee, or what it means for attitudes such as satisfaction, commitment or involvement. Noting this, Conger and Kanungo (1988) question whether the sharing of formal authority and resources is sufficient for creating an empowered individual, and whether the conditions necessary for and the consequences of participation and resource

sharing are the same as those for empowerment from an individual perspective. They argue that, in identifying the underlying psychological mechanisms of empowerment, its cause and its consequences for attitudes and behaviour, a valuable contribution towards our understanding of the specific nature of empowerment as an individual experience will ensue.

As far as the first dimension of power is concerned, business empowerment practices transfer some resources to employees. But senior managers often retain control of many important resources (Bernstein, 1992; Eccles, 1993; Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998; Steward, 1989; Vloeberghs & Bellens, 1996).

Empowered employees may secure access to some decision-making processes from which they were previously excluded. However, ultimate control of these processes usually rests with senior managers, who set the parameters within which subordinates may operate (Bernstein, 1992; Eccles, 1993; Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998; Steward, 1989; Vloeberghs & Bellens, 1996).

This approach according to the researcher, still does not satisfy the intrinsic need of psychological empowerment from the individual perspective, therefore the main focus of this study will be explained clearly by motivational approach, which the researcher will discuss next. This approach according to Kizilo (1990) emphasise the individual motivational aspects of empowerment.

2.1.2.3. The Motivational Approach

This approach was pioneered by Conger and Kanungo (1988) and they conceptualised empowerment as psychological enabling. Menon (2001) contends that the expected benefits of empowerment will be realised only if the employees actually experience empowerment, that is, if they are in the psychological state of empowerment. Hence, to understand the empowerment process, it is more efficacious to study empowerment from individual employee

perspective. In this approach, factors such as personal mastery, self-efficacy and self-esteem are important (Appelbaum & Honeggar, 1998; Kizilos, 1990).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) argue that psychological literature considers power and control as key elements in influencing individual expectancy and/or motivational belief-states. Individuals' power needs are satisfied when they perceive they have sufficient personal resources to cope with challenges presented by events, the environment and interpersonal relationships, with satisfaction being reduced when they perceive their personal resources are insufficient to meet these challenges. This idea is best encapsulated in research concerning an individual's intrinsic desire for self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986), with its attendant implications for satisfaction (Koberg, Boss, Senjem, Goodman, 1999; Spreitzer et al., 1997).

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he/she can successfully perform the behaviour necessary to produce an outcome (Bandura, 1986). Under this formulation, an individuals' primary source of power reflects their motivational disposition (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In an organisational context, managerial techniques that enhance employee self-efficacy will make them feel more powerful. In this respect McClelland's (1975) idea of empowerment as an enabling process is illuminating.

The focus of this research according to the researcher is on the motivational approach, which emphasises the individual motivational aspects of the process (Kizilo, 1990). Spreitzer (1995) states that psychological empowerment differs from structural empowerment in that it focuses on intrinsic motivation (psychological empowerment) rather than on the management practice used to increase individuals' level of power. Menon (2001) stresses that from the structural approach, empowerment denotes the act of empowering, which is done by others. Menon also states that as a process, empowerment denotes the internal processes of the individual being empowered.

Now that the researcher has discussed the background of empowerment and psychological empowerment, defined the concepts, discussed their cognitions and approaches, what is then the importance of psychological empowerment? What are its benefits or outcomes for the organisations? The researcher will first investigate the importance of psychological empowerment and secondly the outcome of psychological empowerment.

2.1.5. Importance of empowerment and psychological empowerment

Empowerment can be a powerful tool. The now advanced leadership style can increase efficiency and effectiveness inside an organisation (Eylon & Herman, 1999). It increases productivity. It gives managers freedom to dedicate their time to more important matters. Managers can highlight the talents and efforts of all employees.

Organisations take advantage of the shared knowledge of workers (Hatten, 1997). Empowered employees can make decisions and suggestions that will improve service and support down the line, saving money, time and disputes in companies (Sitterly, 1998).

Empowerment also brings benefit to employees. It makes them feel better about their input to the company. It promotes greater productivity, and provides them with a sense of personal and professional balance (Bourke, 1998). Boone and Kurtz (1998) add that empowerment exercises employees' minds to find alternative and better ways to execute their jobs, and it increases their potential for promotion and job satisfaction. Eylon and Herman (1999) mention that empowerment result in personal growth since, the whole process enlarges their feeling of confidence and control in themselves and their companies. Sitterly (1998) stresses that empowerment is a process that makes workers utilise their full potential. This enables them to maintain their decisions, assume risks, participate and take action.

Psychological empowerment provides employees with a sense of responsibility and trust in themselves. This may even enhance some attitudes within the organisations.

The importances of empowerment are discussed and known, the next discuss will be on the outcomes of psychological empowerment.

2.1.6 Outcomes of psychological empowerment

The following outcomes of psychological empowerment will be addressed:

❖ Innovative behaviour

This behaviour reflects the creation of something new. Innovative behaviours are regarded as change oriented, because they involve the creation of new products, service, ideas and procedures (Woodman, Sawyer & Griffin, 1993).

Intrinsic motivation contributes to innovative behaviour. Glynn (1996) shows that empowered employees, particularly engineers, tend to be self-motivated individuals who thrive on autonomy, challenges, initiative and innovation.

❖ Managerial effectiveness

Managerial effectiveness is generally defined as the degree to which manager fulfil work role expectations. Empowered managers see themselves as competent and able to influence their jobs and work environment in meaningful ways. They are likely to execute their job responsibilities proactively by, for instance, anticipating problems and acting independently, hence they are likely to be seen as effective (Spreitzer, 1995).

❖ **Job performance**

When individuals feel that their jobs are meaningful and that by completing their job responsibilities they have an impact on others within and outside the organisation, they are motivated to perform well. Linden et al (2000) states that individuals who possess self-determination at work are able to respond to the demands of each unique situation.

❖ **Organisational commitment**

Empowerment may contribute to a sense of commitment to the organisation through a process of reciprocity. Individuals tend to be appreciative of organisations that provide opportunities for decision latitude, challenges and responsibility, as well as for feelings of meaning, impact, self-determination and competency that result from these conditions (Linden, Wyne & Sparrowe, 2000).

Kraimer et al. (1999) mention that employees are likely to reciprocate by being committed to the organisation. Workplace climate which communicates respect for employee rights and needs will also have an impact on workers' commitment to the organisation and its mission (Gorden, Anderson & Bruning, 1992).

To summarise the concept of psychological empowerment, it has been conceptualised as having four cognitions that drive employees' intrinsic motivation. These cognitions are meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. There are also three approaches to psychological empowerment: leadership, structural and motivational approaches. For the purpose of this study, motivational approach will be used, as it focuses on individuals, rather than on the impact of a leader or management. Psychological empowerment has importance and benefits for both organisations and individuals. It can enhance self-esteem, improve work performance, enable the employees to come up with innovative behaviour and become more committed to their organisations.

The researcher has discussed the concepts of empowerment and psychological empowerment in detail, the next concept to be discussed is job satisfaction.

2.2. JOB SATISFACTION

2.2.1. Background to job satisfaction

Zalewska (2001) states that job satisfaction has been one of the central subjects of interest of psychology for years. Wilson (1996) also mentions that the study of job satisfaction grew out of several schools' of management theories, dating back to Frederick Taylor's early applications of scientific method to factory problems in the first part of this century.

Zalewska (2001) and Wilson (1996) maintains that information generated by research in this area has practical implication for individuals and organisations alike. Wilson (1996) continued by stating that as employees strive for the best quality of life possible, managers in organisations are faced with the ever-increasing challenges of operating efficient, effective organisations, using the human and technological resources available to them. Understanding job satisfaction and what it means is not a desirable but a critical aspect of life for both organisations and individuals. The researcher agrees with Wilson (1996) and maintains that job satisfaction is an important and rather imperative attitude that should prevail within the organisations in order to maintain sound working relationships and better work performance.

In the following section job satisfaction will be conceptualised.

2.2.2 Conceptualisation of job satisfaction

Steers (1988) suggests that job satisfaction is best understood as a discrepancy between how much a person wants or expects from the job and how much the person actually receives. When individuals perceive that the outcomes of the job are met or exceeded, they are satisfied. When their expectations are not met, they feel betrayed by the management and develop a sense of mistrust.

Moorman (1993) regards job satisfaction as a combination of cognitive and affective contentment for an individual within a company. He describes affective satisfaction as satisfaction that is founded on an overall positive emotional assessment of the employees' jobs. This satisfaction focuses on their mood when working, for instance whether the jobs evoke a good mood and positive feelings while working. Positive feelings or positive moods displayed by individuals may indicate job satisfaction. Moorman (1993) further describes cognitive satisfaction as satisfaction that is established on a more logical and rational appraisal of job satisfaction. Therefore cognitive satisfaction is an assessment based on comparison that do not rely on emotional judgement, but are evaluations of conditions, opportunities and/or outcomes.

Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) defines job satisfaction as an affective reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired. Brief (1998) regards this definition by Cranny et al, (1992) as reflecting the extent to which employees' derive feelings of pleasure from salient aspects of their jobs or places of employment and cognitive components of satisfaction.

Locke (1976) stresses that a job has diverse meanings for different individuals, thus job satisfaction is caused by person-environmental fit. Brandstätter (1991) and Furnham (1991) therefore define job satisfaction as motivational fit between

personal needs and environment offers to gratify them and instrumental fit between personal skill and environmental demands.

Job satisfaction is an attitude or internal state, which is associated with achievement, recognition, challenging work, responsibility, success and happiness (Harvey & Brown, 1996; Mullins, 1995). This statement is also supported by Tietjen and Myers (1998) when they state that advancement, responsibility, possibility of growth and recognition have the potential to create job satisfaction. Job satisfaction, like any other construct, can be affected by a wide range of variables related to the individual: social, organisational and environmental factors, as well as outcomes valued by the individual. (Mullins, 1995).

Job satisfaction is defined by Berry (1997) as an individuals' reaction to the job experience. He further maintains that there are various components that are considered to be vital to job satisfaction. These variables are important because they all influence the way a person feels about his/her job. These components include the following: pay, promotion, benefits, challenges, supervision, co-workers, working conditions, safety, productivity and the work itself. Each of these components/variables according to Berry (1997) figures into an individuals' job satisfaction differently. The research also maintains that the way this component influences job satisfaction will depend on the uniqueness of individual employees. For instance, one might think that pay is the most important component regarding job satisfaction, the other might consider conducive working conditions or challenging work to be the important component regarding his/her job satisfaction.

The researcher contends that this conceptualisation bring into focus two components/sub-dimensions of job satisfaction which are intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Hirschfeld (2000) distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction is how people feel about the nature of the job

tasks themselves, while extrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks. Adkins and Naumann (2002) further define intrinsic job satisfaction as that part of satisfaction which involves the work process itself like, the extent to which individuals derive growth and security from the job. These researchers further define extrinsic job satisfaction as the part which is concerned with aspects of the job that are contingent on the job occupancy, but are not an essential part of the work process, like for example pay satisfaction, recognition and supervisory satisfaction.

Robbins (2001) defines job satisfaction as an individual's general attitude towards his/her job. He further states that a job requires interaction with co-workers and immediate supervisor, following organisational rules and policies, meeting performance standards and living with conditions that are conducive. This means that an employees' assessment of how satisfied or dissatisfied he/she is with his/her job is a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements.

There seems to be a general consensus among researchers that job satisfaction can be viewed as a multi-dimensional concept encompassing individual's general attitude towards work or to specifics of the work (Greenberg & Baron, 1993; Reyers & Shin, 1995; Tosi, Rizzo & Carrol, 1994).

Many job satisfaction definitions have been provided by different researchers, and the researcher defines job satisfaction as an attitude of employees towards their job situation based on the actual rewards against the anticipated or expected rewards from those jobs. It is important to highlight the fact that what might be satisfying to one person, may not be the case for the next person.

Now that conceptualisation of job satisfaction has been discussed, the next aspect to be discussed is the importance of job satisfaction.

2.2.3 Importance of job satisfaction

Like psychological empowerment, job satisfaction carries important implications for both individual employees and the organisation.

Job satisfaction is an important aspect of people's lives, as most people are supposed to spend a large part of their lives at work. Tietjen and Myers (1998) state that instilling of satisfaction within workers is a crucial task of management, because satisfaction creates confidence, loyalty and ultimately improved quality in the output of the employed. Rust and Stewart (1996) states that organisations with satisfied employees have satisfied customers. This results in organisations with satisfied employees having higher levels of customer retention, which increases overall productivity.

According to Silberstand (1996), satisfied workers have been found to be committed to the organisation, to have more favourable attitudes towards work and the organisation, to be more conscientious, to be more likely to help co-workers, to have greater willingness to report unethical behaviour, and to be less likely to leave their jobs than are dissatisfied workers. Cranny et al., (1992) note that job satisfaction has been shown to influence attendance at work, pro-organisation behaviour or to retirement and psychological withdrawal behaviour.

Job satisfaction plays an important role in employee retention. Quality employees will become increasingly difficult to attract and it will become imperative for organisations to improve their ability to retain competent workers (Rust & Stewart, 1996). To achieve this, organisations are obliged to measure employees' satisfaction in respect of their work environment, like pay, supervision, co-workers, opportunities for promotion and the work itself. The information gathered will assist organisations to determine areas where improvement can be made (Rust & Stewart, 1996).

Similarly, job satisfaction becomes important as employees' needs are satisfied when they perceive that rewards from the organisation meet or exceed their expectations (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Locke, 1976). Then what could possibly influence this job satisfaction? The next section will address this issue.

In addition to what the already stated researchers have mentioned, the researcher maintains that for the organisation to survive and acquire as many customers as possible, it needs to retain and maintain satisfied employees, and it can do this by encouraging and paying more attention to aspects that influence their job satisfaction. This lead to the next discussion, which focuses on the factors that influence job satisfaction.

2.2.4 Factors that influence job satisfaction

Cranny et al., (1992) identify several factors that influence job satisfaction. They also find that job satisfaction is substantially influenced by intrinsically rewarding conditions such as interesting work, challenges and autonomy. They find that rewards such as pay and security also influence job satisfaction.

2.2.4.1. The work itself

Important ingredients of a satisfying job uncovered by surveys include interesting and challenging work, work that is not boring and a job that provides status. (Luthans, 1998). In the absence of acceptable cognitive challenges or when the task becomes too much of routine, employees will become bored. Du Toit (1994) reports that the job must be challenging and that variety is needed to make the job challenging and satisfying. Task variety refers to the amount of competencies that must be used in one job.

Lee (1992) concludes that positive changes in the job design improve employees' level of motivation and that, at the same time, improves their attitude toward the job and the organisation.

The researcher agrees with Luthans (1998) and Du Toit (1994) and also highlight or rather cautions the fact that jobs, though should be challenging, but they should not be in a way that employees cannot handle them, causing them to suffer from work-related stress. It should rather provide rewarding feelings. This leads to the next aspect which is compensation.

2.2.4.2. Compensation

Included in a person's job satisfaction are the rewards for doing the job and performing it well. If a person is rewarded for high performance or stands to gain a reward for doing the work, he/she may find the job more satisfying. These rewards range from improved work environment to higher security and more responsibility. Of all these types of incentives, money is one of the few that we can quantify and measure. Due to social influence, described by Bandura, money can often have a powerful effect on job satisfaction, regardless of how important a motivator money is to a person (Bell, 1997).

Wages and salaries are considered to be the significant but cognitively complex and multi-dimensional factors in job satisfaction (Luthans, 1998). According to him, employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organisation. Ivancevich and Glueck (1983) contended that satisfaction with pay is important because when pay is lower, job satisfaction will be lower, and consequently, absenteeism and turnover will be higher and costlier.

Contrary to what Bell, Ivancevich and Glueck (1983) state, Hoyt and Gerloff (1999) argue that compensation will motivate an employee to produce creative

and innovative results only if that employee values monetary rewards. Jain and Triandis (1997) find that the use of bonuses and other non-periodic forms of compensation are the preferred means of motivating technical employees. They state that this is because technical accomplishments are generally the result of cooperative actions among many individuals.

The researcher contends that even though monetary motivation can play a part in promoting job satisfaction, organisational processes, like promotions and good working environment are also important in promoting job satisfaction.

2.2.4.3 Promotions

Promotions take a number of different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards. Individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction, but not as much as those who are promoted on the basis of performance. Satisfaction with promotion can be viewed, like pay, as a function of the frequency of promotion in relation to what is desired and the importance of promotions to the individual.

The roots of the desire for promotion would include the desire for psychological growth, the desire for justice, the desire for higher earnings and the desire for social status (Oshagbemi, 2000; Robbins, 2000).

2.2.4.4. Work conditions

If the working conditions are good, clean and attractive, the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs than in a poor, dirty and noisy environment (Luthans, 1998). Weiss et al., (1967) states that the need for physical comfort, based on physical needs and the need for facilities which would assist employees in accomplishing their aims, is the basic need underlying employees' preference for pleasant working conditions. Baron (1986) reports that, if the work environment

is comfortable and facilitative of the attainment of work goals, it usually produces higher levels of job satisfaction than an uncomfortable and chaotic environment.

The researcher maintains that if positive working conditions exist, they can prolong an individuals' working duration within the organisation. This brings up the next topic on the length of employment.

2.2.4.5 Length of employment

Comparing the length of employment with job satisfaction raises issues that are important to understand (Reudavey, 2001). This relationship is not only indicative of the employees' understanding of how the current employer views the workers, but also how the prospective employers can perceive the employees abilities.

Shaffer (1987) maintains that employees' who have been working for number of years have qualities and experience that can make them a valuable asset, not only to their present company, but also to many other organisations. He continues by stating that if employees are praised and rewarded for their work consistently by the current organisation, the employees' may then not often take any action to look for other employment.

Positive job satisfaction has been shown to reduce irregular attendance at work, the need for the replacement of workers, resignation and the occurrence of accidents. With such specific benefits, it is not surprising that an employees' job satisfaction within an organisation is closely related to the length of service (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001).

2.2.4.6 Supervisory Practices

Babin and Boles (1996) found in their study find that employees' perceptions of co-workers, involvement and supervisory support reduce stress and increase job satisfaction. Medley and Larochelle (1996) states that a supervisory leadership style affects job satisfaction, where supervisors who have a transformational style could have staff with higher job satisfaction than those who have a transactional style.

Pollack (1996) further suggests that supervisors can make a significant contribution to employees' satisfaction by evaluating performance regularly and directly, by giving employees personal attention, by broadening their responsibility as soon as possible and by helping them to achieve more. Turbide (1994) mentioned that the first requirement of good management is good job descriptions, and effective empowerment of employees' makes management easier and enhances employees' job satisfaction.

The researcher has highlighted the importance of work, compensation, promotion, working conditions, length of employment, and supervisory practices in job satisfaction. The last aspect for job satisfaction that need to be discussed in this study are its outcomes.

2.2.5 Outcomes of job satisfaction

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) mention that from an individual employee standpoint and due to significant managerial implications, job satisfaction is a desired outcome.

❖ **Satisfaction and productivity**

Are satisfied workers more productive than their less satisfied counterparts? Luthans (1998) states that this satisfaction-performance controversy has ranged over years. A preponderance of research evidence indicates that there is a strong linkage between satisfaction and productivity.

As quoted by Rothmann (2000), Bassett express that it is not assumed that a more satisfied employee will be a more productive employee, nor is it assumed that job satisfaction is the result of high performance. This Luthans (1998) attributes to possible moderating variables, the most important of which seems to be rewards. If people receive rewards that they feel are equitable, they will be satisfied and this is likely to results in greater performance effort.

❖ **Satisfaction and motivation**

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) state that in a meta-analysis of nine studies, workers revealed a significant positive relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. They state that, because satisfaction with supervisors was significantly correlated with motivation, managers are advised to consider that their behaviour affects employee satisfaction. As quoted by Tietjen and Myers (1998), Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) state that motivators (e.g. recognition, achievement, advancement and responsibility) cause positive attitudes because they satisfy the worker's need for self-actualisation, which is the individual's ultimate goal.

❖ **Satisfaction and turnover**

Turnover is disadvantageous to both organisations and managers, because it disrupt both organisational continuity and is costly. Luthans (1998) states that increasing job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does

seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be increased turnover.

❖ **Satisfaction and absenteeism**

Absenteeism is also costly and disadvantageous to both the organisation and managers. When satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low, when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Luthans, 1998). However, as with other relationships concerning satisfaction, there are moderating variables such as the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important. Luthans (1998) argues that, while increasing satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is likely to bring about increased absenteeism.

❖ **Organisational citizenship behaviour**

According to Organ and Konovsky (1989), there is a strong relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is behaviour that goes beyond what is formally required by the organisation, for example suggestions for improvement and caring for organisational property.

Rothmann (2000) cites that individuals' who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to be better ambassadors for the organisation and show more organisation commitment. In support of this, Luthans (1998) expresses that satisfied employees are likely to exhibit pro-social citizenship behaviour and activities, such as helping co-workers and customers and being more cooperative. This pro-social behaviour includes a range of actions in which organisational participation goes beyond prescribed roles for the good of the organisation or others in it.

In conclusion, the concept job satisfaction grew out of several schools' management theories. It was conceptualised as discrepancy between how much a person wants or expects from the job and how much the person actually receives, and for purpose of this study it was conceptualised as the attitude of an individual towards his/her job situation based on the actual reward against the anticipated or expected reward for that job. It carries important implications for both individuals and the organisation. It can influence attendance at work, pro-organisation behaviour and psychological withdrawal behaviour. It can also play an important role in employee retention. Job satisfaction can be influenced by various factors such, as among others, promotion, the work itself, compensation, supervisory practices and length of employment. It also provides some outcomes such as satisfaction and productivity, motivation, and citizenship behaviour.

2.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter two constructs, namely psychological empowerment and job satisfaction were discussed. Psychological empowerment was regarded as the process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organisational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal, both by formal organisational practices and informal techniques of providing self-efficacy information and also defined as intrinsic task motivation, manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's active orientation to his or her work role. Those four cognition being meaning, competence self-determination and impact. The three approaches (leadership, structural and motivational), and the outcomes of psychological empowerment were also discussed.

Job satisfaction was highlighted as being an important and rather imperative attitude that should prevail within the organisation in order to maintain sound working relationships and better work performance. Job satisfaction was conceptualised, and regarded as having two sub-dimensions being: intrinsic and

extrinsic job satisfaction. The importance of job satisfaction, factors that influences it, and the outcomes of job satisfaction were also discussed.

The researcher has in this chapter discussed the constructs psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. The next chapter will focus on organisational commitment and job insecurity. The researcher contends that, if the employees are satisfied, shows positive attitudes and feelings of organisational citizenship, then they become more committed to their organisation.

CHAPTER 3

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB INSECURITY

INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter will be on organisational commitment and job insecurity. The researcher will firstly investigate organisational commitment and focus on the background of organisational commitment, conceptualise this construct and also its approaches. The importance of this construct, its consequences and its impact on predominant behaviour within the organisation will also be highlighted.

The second and last construct of this study namely job insecurity will also be investigated in this chapter. The researcher will discuss its background, conceptualise it, discuss its origin, its manifestation, its approaches, factors that influence it and lastly its consequences. This chapter will also discuss the different studies done on the four constructs (psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity) of this study.

3.1. ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1.1 Background to organisational commitment

Previous research done, for example by Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Meyer and Allen (1997); Mowday, Porter and Steer (1982), indicates that among the various work-related commitments in management science, organisational commitment has been most extensively studied. Bagraim and Hayes (1999) maintain that organisational commitment, the psychological bond between employees and their employing organisation, has been researched for 30 years.

To understand the background of organisational commitment, the researcher contends that it will be advantageous to focus on the theory of Beckers (1960) and Porter and Smith (1970), which explain the nature of organisational commitment.

Becker's side-bets theory (1960) explains the process by which employees attach themselves to organisations through investments such as time, effort and rewards. These investments, however, have a cost which reduces to some degree an employee's freedom in his/her future activity, that is, employees get locked into the organisation because of the cost incurred upon leaving, like pension funds, organisation specific knowledge and seniority (Becker, 1960).

The theory of Porter and Smith (1970) suggests that the psychological attachment of employees to the organisation should predict certain employee behaviour, including turnover and performance. In addition, the theory suggests that the stability of organisational commitment (Porter, Steer, Mowday & Boulian, 1974) makes it a better predictor of employee behaviour than job satisfaction, which is more likely to be affected by various transitory events, such as changes in pay or supervisory tactics (Mowday, Porter & Steer, 1982).

The following discussion will be based on the conceptualisation of organisational commitment.

3.1. 2. Conceptualisation of organisational commitment

There is still some disagreement among researchers over the definition of organisational commitment (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). They further contend that commitment is considered to comprise of two distinct but related concepts or components, which are attitudinal and behavioural commitment.

Previous researchers such as Porter et al., (1974) states that the attitudinal component of commitment represents the degree of loyalty an individual has for an organisation. This form of commitment according to them emphasises an individual's identification and involvement in the organisation. These researchers further regarded behavioural commitment as reflecting the process by which individuals link themselves to an organisation and it focuses on the actions of the individuals.

In contrast to what Porter et al (1974), mentioned, organisational commitment according to Allen and Meyer (1990) comprises three levels. These researchers view affective, normative and continuance commitment as components of attitudinal commitment. They further define affective commitment as employees' emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation.

Continuance commitment, which is sometimes called calculative commitment by Hackman et al., (1994) as well Mthieu and Zajac (1994) is commitment based on the cost that employees associate with leaving the organisation. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), in what appears to be the first explicit definition of organisational commitment in the form of calculative commitment, focus on those things that might be lost if an individual were to leave an organisation. These losses can be, for instance, seniority, established relations with others inside and outside the organisation, pension and other retirement benefits, insurance and so forth. It is argued that these factors tend to bind individuals to the organisation and therefore form side-bets or investments overtime (Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole & Owen, 2002).

Normative commitment can be seen as an employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. Allen and Meyer (1990) maintain that, in contrast to affective and continuance commitment, normative commitment focuses on the right or moral thing to do and concentrates on the obligation and moral

attachment of employees which is produced by socialisation of employees to the organisation's goals and values.

Even though there is a disagreement between researchers regarding the components of organisational commitment, it is clear, according to the researcher that this construct is multi-faceted.

Other researchers like Hulin (1991) define organisational commitment as an attitude-like attraction to an organisation. Greenberg and Baron (1997) define organisational commitment as the extent to which an individual identifies and is involved with his/her organisation and is unwilling to leave it.

The researcher maintain that organisational commitment has something to do with some form of attachment and further defines it as an emotional attachment, identification and feelings of obligation of the employee towards his/her organisation and also his willingness to be part or member of that organisation.

Even though the researcher has formulated the definition of organisational commitment, she agrees more with the definition provided by Allen and Meyer (1990) and proposes that it can be used for this study.

The researcher has conceptualised definitions of organisational commitment provided by different researchers, the next important aspect that need to be focused on is the approaches of organisational commitment.

3.1.3 Approaches of organisational commitment

In order to demonstrate the complex nature of commitment, some approaches of organisational commitment will be considered.

3.1.3.1 Behavioural commitment

The behavioural approach refers to the way an employee can get commitment to an organisation through his own actions (Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994). The behavioural approach may lead to the development of affective commitment attitudes, for example through processes such as retrospective rationalisation or justification, which leads to additional behavioural commitment that furthers the psychological attachment (Dunham et al., 1994). Mowday et al., (1982) describes behavioural commitment as the binding of the individual to the behavioural acts, which is caused by the employees' identification with specified behaviour. The degree to which an employee feels obligated towards his own behaviour is determined by the:

- ❖ Visibility of the behaviour
- ❖ Irrevocability of the behaviour and
- ❖ Will expression of the behaviour.

3.1.3.2 Work commitment

Work commitment is the measure to which employees identify psychologically with their work. Work commitment can be described as the internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work, in the worth of the person (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.1.3.3 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment is a tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity based on the individuals' recognition of the cost (or lot side bets) associated with discontinuing the activity (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment seems to be the best explained by participation and level of education. Both have negative effects. People who participate more tend to

feel less continuance commitment than those who participate less. The reason being for this may be twofold:

- ❖ Firstly, it may be that those participating most are also the most central persons in the organisation. This centrality may give them a good position on the labour market giving them a perception that they do not really have to stay in the organisation.
- ❖ Secondly, people who feel less continuance commitment may feel more free to participate. They do not have to hide their discontent from their superiors because they have a bargaining power founded in a feeling that they do not have to stay in the organisation.

3.1.3.4 Career commitment

Darden, Hampton and Howell (1989) described career commitment as the measure in which employees identify with the career, and the value which they add towards their specific career direction

3.1.3.5 Moral commitment

Moral commitment represent a positive and intense orientation towards the organisation based on internalising organisational objectives, goals, values, norms and identification with authority (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.1.3.6 Attitudinal commitment

According to this approach, organisational commitment is the relative strength of an individuals' identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Bollian, 1974). Three factors characterise attitudinal commitment, namely, a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's

goals and values, a willingness to have inputs into the organisation and a strong desire to remain a member of this organisation (Heymans, 2002). Allen and Meyer (1990) described attitudinal commitment as a psychological statement that reflects an individual's relationship to the organisation.

3.1.3.7 Multi-dimensional approach of organisational commitment

This is the recent approach and various researchers seems to prefer this approach to the single dimension approach to organisational commitment (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Suliman & Iles, 2000b). It assumes that organisation commitment does not develop simply through emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation, but through the interplay of all the mentioned components of organisational commitment (Suliman & Iles, 2000b). The multi-dimensional approach of organisational commitment comprises affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Affective commitment is concerned with the extent to which the individual identifies with the organisation. Continuance commitment, on the other hand is more calculative. It concerns the individuals' need to continue working for the organisation. Normative commitment is commitment that is influenced by society's norms about the extent to which a person ought to be committed to the organisation. In simple terms people stay with the organisation because they want to (affective), because they need to (continuance), or because they feel they ought to (normative) (McDonald & Makin, 2000).

Allen and Meyer (1990) suggested that the levels of all three types of commitment are related to the relationship between the individual and the organisation. The advantage of this approach, according to Heyman (2002), is that a more realistic reflection of the nature of the employee-employer relationship, according to the perceptual experience of the employees', is

presented and conflict between commitment and its effect on the employees' relationship with the organisation is emphasised.

Multidimensional approach by Allen and Meyer (1990) is used for this study.

The next aspect to be discussed is the importance of organisational commitment.

3.1.5 Importance of organisational commitment

Camilleri (2002) contends that the employees' level of commitment to an organisation may make them more eligible to receive both external and internal benefits such as better wages and psychological rewards associated with belonging. He adds that organisations value commitment among their employees because it is typically assumed to reduce undesirable behaviour such as lateness and absenteeism.

Katz and Kahn (1978), as quoted by Camilleri (2002) maintain that committed employees may also be more likely to engage in extra-role behaviour, such as creativeness or innovativeness, that are vital for maintaining the organisation's competitiveness.

In addition to what Katz and Kahn (1978) mention, the researcher maintains that organisational committed employees, because of their loyalty to the organisation, can exert much more effort in their work performance to the success of that company, and have no intention or rather low intention to leave the organisation. The researcher also asserts that these employees, because they identify themselves with the organisation, will avoid failure at all cost and become more committed in their work.

Suliman and Iles (2000a) identified the following important aspects of organisational commitment:

- ❖ It improves employees' performance, i.e. committed employees are assumed to be motivated to work harder and put more effort than the less committed employees;
- ❖ It fosters better superior-subordinate relationships;
- ❖ It enhances organisational development, growth and survival; it improves work environment;
- ❖ It negatively influence withdrawal behaviour such as turnover, absenteeism and tardiness; and
- ❖ It has positive impact on employees' readiness to innovate and create.

The researcher contend that a high level of organisational commitment can also reflect job satisfaction. The reason being that, if employees are satisfied within the organisation, they will show their intention not to leave and this will, in turn, reflect affective and normative commitment.

The researcher has detailed the background of organisational commitment, conceptualised it and proved its importance. All of these aspects show the positive side of organisational commitment. What then are the consequences of organisational commitment?

3.1.4 Consequences of organisational commitment

Camilleri (2002) asserts that, from an organisational point of view, it is important to consider whether employees who are strongly committed differ from those with weak commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that desperate outcomes or behaviour are associated with the different factors motivating employees to remain within organisations. They maintain that employees high in affective commitment demonstrate emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the

organisation. According to them this explains, why these employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour and more willing to accept changes.

Camilleri (2002) explain further that this situation might not be said about those employees whose main relationship to the organisation is based upon a strong continuance organisational commitment. These employees remain with the organisation because the costs of doing otherwise are too high. It is possible that this type of organisational commitment could create feelings of resentment or frustration that could lead to inappropriate work behaviour.

Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) propose that normative commitment is also expected to have similar consequences as affective commitment. As already mentioned in conceptualisation, part type of commitment focuses on moral obligation. Hackett et al., (1994); Meyer et al., (1993) and Somers (1995) states that employees have an obligation to reciprocate to the organisation's attitudes and are therefore less likely to leave or be absent and be more receptive of changes.

Camilleri (2002) argues that normative commitment has a particular impact on the manner in which the work is carried out. He maintains that employees' who remain in an organisation primarily because of strong normative commitment might occasionally resent their sense of indebtedness or obligation to the organisation. Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, and Sincich (1993) further state that these employees' would be less likely to leave but be often absent.

Employees with strong organisational commitment are more valuable employees to the organisation, however when this commitment is based primarily upon financial aspects or cost associated with leaving, then the organisation may experience a higher employee retention rate at the expense of reduced job satisfaction, reduced self-esteem and higher employee stress (Camilleri, 2002).

The researcher will conclude the discussion of this construct by focusing on the impact of organisational commitment and predominant behaviour in the organisation that are more prone to it.

3.1.5 Impact of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment does have some impact on turnover, job performance, and organisation citizenship behaviour. The following discussion focuses on these aspects.

3.1.5.1 Turnover

Beck and Wilson (1995) provide compelling empirical evidence (Steer, 1977; Ostroff, 1993; Abelson, 1987; James & Hendry, 1991) demonstrating a relationship between low organisational commitment and high staff turnover. These researchers contend that employees who were not committed to the organisation were very likely to leave in search of the other employment.

Organisational commitment is an important determinant of turnover decision, despite the myriad of other factors, such as availability of alternative employment and family concerns, which also affect such a decision (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990). The current researcher agrees with Beck and Wilson (1995) when they state that turnover of experienced employees means that the organisation must expend resources to recruit and train replacements. They also maintain that valuable experience is lost to the organisation in terms of employees who are capable of working with limited supervision.

3.1.5.2 Job performance

The evidence for a link between organisational commitment and job performance is much more tenuous than link between organisational commitment and

turnover. For instance, Steer (1977), as quoted by Beck and Wilson (1995), suggests that organisational commitment can explain the motivation and intention of employees to perform well, but cannot always counteract other restrictions such as the ability of the employee, the external environment in which they work, the limitations inherent in the job itself or the rating of performance.

In another study by Johnson and Snizek (1991), performance of direct sales distributors, as measured by sales is positively related to individual levels of organisational commitment. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson (1989) find that supervisors' performance ratings of employees are directly related to the employees' organisational commitment levels.

Becks and Wilson (1995) states that there is some evidence for a relationship between organisational commitment and job performance, where performance is measured by either objective or subjective methods. The researcher agrees with the statement made by these researchers when they stress that individual performance is critical to the efficiency of the overall organisation.

3.1.5.3 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker (1990) have contended that looking for a relationship between in-role performance (performance stated in job description) and organisational commitment is conceptually inappropriate. They point out that organisational commitment is purported to explain extra effort by the employees' on behalf of the organisation beyond their in role performance. This extra-role performance is defined by (George & Brief, 1992; Kanungo & Conger, 1993; McFarlene Shore & Wayne, 1993; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) as an organisational citizenship behaviour.

Randall et al., (1990) found that organisational commitment was not related to turnover or absenteeism in their study from manufacturing plant. They however

found the relationships between organisation commitment and two set of organisational citizenship behaviour. One of the sets indicates sacrifice orientation and the other willingness to share knowledge.

According to Beck and Wilson (1995) there are other researches supporting this view. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) found relationship between self-reported willingness to participate in extra role behaviours, specifically the voluntary helping of other employees and a willingness to work unpaid overtime, and organisational commitment. Gregersen (1993) reported that supervisors rating of extra-role behaviours of a sample of hospital employees were positively related to the employees organisational commitment.

Beck and Wilson (1995) mention that together these studies support the view that there are behaviours, in addition to turnover, absenteeism and job performance, which are related to organisational commitment and which, in turn, have the potential to impact upon organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

The researcher contends that this aspect truly indicates organisational commitment of employees to the organisation. The researcher also asserts that it does not only represent a certain component of it but the all three of them. If employees show this citizenship behaviour, they indicate that they aspire to see their organisation being more competitive and effective (construct). This again indicates that they are not only there to perform a certain duty but that they are part of that organisation emotionally, psychologically and physically.

In summary, when focusing on organisational commitment in general, it is found to be multi-dimensional. It is conceptualised by researchers as indicating affective, normative and continuance commitment of employees to their organisation. Organisational commitments also one of the construct which are regarded as important within the organisation, for instance it is hypothesised that it reduces undesirable behaviour such as lateness and absenteeism, and that

commitment employees may also be more engaged in extra-role behaviour, such as creativeness or innovativeness, that are vital for maintaining the organisation's competitiveness.

Even though it produces this desirable behaviour, organisational commitment also has its shortcomings. Employees who are having a certain type of commitment can be affected by the other types of organisational commitment, for example, employees with normative commitment can feel frustrated because they are not emotionally attached (affective) to the organisation. Organisational commitment can also impact on behaviour such as job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour and turnover.

The next construct to be discussed is job insecurity.

3. 2 JOB INSECURITY

3.2.1 Background to job insecurity

The very last construct to be discussed for this study is job insecurity. Many organisations in the industrialised countries have engaged in restructuring, downsizing and plant closures in their attempt to remain cost effective and to improve competitiveness (Sverke, Naswall, Hellgren, Chirumbolo, De Witte & Goslinga, 2003). Along with this trend, almost every employer in the industrialised countries are moving towards numerical flexibility in terms of staffing the organisation (Purcell & Purcell, 1998; Sparrow & Marchington, 1998). Sverke et al., (2003) further states that as a consequence of these trends, millions of workers have lost their jobs and still others have become involuntary part-time unemployed, or hired on temporary employment contract. Jacobson (1991) contend that for many employees, this generates a fundamental and involuntary change in their set of beliefs about the employing organisations and their place in it. To add on this, Greenhalgh (1982) states that job insecurity has been

identified as an important intervening variable between workers' beliefs about changes that take place in their organisation and their attitudinal behavioural responses to those changes.

The most frequently asked question in this era is "How secure is your job?" Canaff (2002). To answer this question the researcher will firstly conceptualise this construct and then provide its origin.

3.2.2. Conceptualisation of job insecurity

Job insecurity relates to people in their work context who fear they may lose their jobs and become unemployed (De Witte, 1999). He argues that the concept job insecurity does not only refer to the amount of uncertainty an employee feels about his or her job continuity, but also about the permanence of certain dimension of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities.

Davy, Kinicki, and Sheck (1997) define job insecurity as the worry a person feels about the future of his/her employment situation. It has also been defined by Heaney, Israel and House, (1994) as the sense of a threat to the continuation of employment an employee feels. Job insecurity has been defined by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) as an individual's "perceived powerlessness to maintain the desired continuity in a threatened job situation". It involves a subjective threat of involuntary job loss, the extent of which is dependent on the severity of the threat and the perceived powerlessness to counteract the threat. What this definition means is that a person who does not particularly care about the job loss, will not experience job insecurity nor suffer its consequences.

Petzall, Parker and Stoeberl (2000) defines job insecurity as the perception of the potential loss of continuity in a job situation that can range from permanent loss of the job itself, to loss of valued job features. This researchers also maintained

that the loss of must be involuntary, if not, the individual is not powerless to maintain the continuity of the position and therefore true job insecurity would not be experience,

The researcher defines job insecurity as the negative and uneasy feeling and attitude of employees towards their work, which can be caused by changes within the organisation and, in turn, harm their lives.

De Witte (1997) maintains that job insecurity lies in between stress, burnout and its complement on one side and the psychological consequences of unemployment on the other side.

The researcher has provided the definitions of job insecurity. The next aspect that needs focus is to determine how this job insecurity came into being, so the origin of this job insecurity will be discussed forthwith.

3.2.3. Origin of job insecurity

Wooden (1999) states that it is widely believed that employment is far less secure today than at any other point in the post-war period. He further states that the nature of the workforce is changing rapidly with, increased use of casual employment, contractors and various forms of fixed term employment.

Spark, Faragher and Cooper (2001) support Wooden (1999) and outline the beginning of job insecurity. They contend that over the last four decades of the 20th century, the nature of work has changed dramatically for some people. They also state that the 1960's and 1970's saw the introduction of new technology, particularly the use of computers, into the workplace and this was followed in the 1980's by a huge shift towards globalisation, with many organisations undergoing mergers, acquisition, strategic alliances and privatisation. According to Wooden (1999), the facts do not bear out the belief that these changes have been accompanied by a rise in job insecurity.

The researcher agrees with Wooden (1999), that there is no doubt that many employees feel insecure in their employment and that the number of employees who feel insecure in their jobs, is outweighed by the number who feel secure.

From the above detailed origin of job insecurity it is clear that job insecurity originates from various changes within and outside the organisation. Then how does this job insecurity manifest? The next topic will focus on manifestation of job insecurity.

3.2.4 Manifestation of job insecurity

Ameen, Jackson, Pasewalk & Strawier, (1995) and Ashford et al, (1989) maintained that job insecurity is both an antecedent and consequence of numerous variables. Mauno and Kinnunen (2000) added by stating that a variety of technological, organisational and broader social changes or antecedents have changed the nature of jobs, resulting in less job security. Perceived intensity of job security is influenced by organisational changes, such as mergers, downsizing, new technology, social factors such as economic instability and political factors such as governmental policies (De Witte, 1999; Greehalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991; Klandermans, & Jacobson, 1991; Mauno and Kinnunen, 2000; Van Vuuren).

Orpen (1993) reported that employees feel more insecure about their jobs with onset of organisational restructuring. Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) stated that one of the greatest concerns experienced by employees during organisational changes is uncertainty about the continuation of ones job. Job insecurity then, is a manifestation of the more general uncertainty people experience throughout their lives in modern society with the old certainties and stabilities of life, community and work disappearing and replaced by constant change, uncertainty and insecurity (Hartley et al.,).

Empirical research has also demonstrated that layoffs in organisations engenders feelings of job insecurity in survivor employees (Davy et al., 1997). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) and Hartley et al., (1991) reported a drop in satisfaction with job insecurity after an acquisition.

Cooper (1999) views long hours worked as an antecedent of job insecurity. Management of many organisations reason that if fewer people are employed and are given more responsibilities, which will probably lead to longer hours worked, it provides for a cost effective use of human capital, since industry works on the gross assumption that long means efficient. This being the argument, employees will work long hours and experience some false sense of job security, rather than not being willing to work those hours and face replacement. Studies by Cooper (1999) stress that working long hours on a constant basis, reflects itself in employee ill health, both physically and psychologically.

The growth in the use of contingent workers as antecedent of job insecurity has contributed to perceptions of unemployment (Haymans, 2002). The structural changes in industrial and labour market that has altered the types of jobs available, and the shift in world economy from manufacturing to service and retail industries has generated more-skill, low wage, high turnover jobs, which are filled by contingent workers (Nasar, 1994; Tilly, 1991). Appelbaum, (1991) and Pfeffer and Baron (1988) mentioned that increase in global competition has forced organisations to respond rapidly to fluctuations in demand, and the use of contingent workers permits this without requiring organisations to hire and layoff full time workers.

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) regarded role ambiguity, role conflict and locus of control, as important causes of individuals experiencing job insecurity. Role ambiguity and role conflict both threatens an individual's sense of control and thereby may create perceptions of job insecurity. Ashford et al, (1989) content that role ambiguity denotes a lack of information about job requirements

and procedures, and role conflict occurs when the roles members fulfil are clouded with issues of conflict, control, expectations and security. Both role ambiguity and role conflict induce some anxiety about fulfilling part of the psychological contract with employers, which will heighten feelings of job insecurity (Ashford et al 1989).

Heymans (2002) stated that the experience of job insecurity relates to both cognitive and affective phenomena. The cognitive aspect of job insecurity relates to the individual's belief of the likelihood of losing the job; whereas, the affective component of job insecurity is the concern about the likelihood of losing continuity of ones job (De Witte, 2000).

The experience of job insecurity has been linked to several different negative outcomes. The mere anticipation of the possible occurrence of a stressful event may become a stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Therefore a situation becomes stressful when individuals perceives that handling the situation would demand more resources than he/she feels he/she has available (Jacobson, 1991). Job insecurity has been described as such a stressor because individuals feels that they do not posses the necessary abilities or powers to make sure that their jobs are not terminated against their wishes (Klandermans, Van Vuuren & Jacobson, 1991).

Next the researcher will discuss the approaches to job insecurity.

4.2.5 Approaches to job insecurity

The researcher contends that manifestation of job insecurity discussed above can be clearly understood by focusing on approaches used in job insecurity. These approaches are the multi-dimensional approach (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt 1984) and parsimony approach (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, R. & Pinneau, 1975; Jacobson, 1991; Johnson, Messe & Crano, 1984).

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) identify two dimensions of job insecurity. The first dimension, is the feeling of threat to one's total job, example of this according to this researchers may be that an employee may be moved into a lower position, or be moved to another job at the same level within the organisation or even be temporarily laid-off. They also maintain that the extreme of this is that the job loss may be permanent or one may be fired or even be forced into an early retirement.

The second dimension mentioned by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) is the feeling of threat to job features. To outline this dimension this researchers mention three aspects:

- ❖ They maintained that organisational changes may make it difficult for employees to get ahead in the organisation, and this may also affect their position and pay in the organisation.
- ❖ Threat to job features may also take the form of difficulty in having access to resources that were readily available.
- ❖ Job insecurity may take the form of employees' feelings of lack of power or inability to control events that they oppose in their work environment.

From this dimension Uguro and Obeng (2001) argue that signs of employees' job insecurity occur when they feel powerless and when they feel that the features of their jobs or entire jobs are threatened.

This approach by Greenbalgh and Rosenblatt (1994) is being criticised by Reisel and Banai (2002). These researchers actually critique the theoretical expansion of job insecurity that includes job features and powerlessness as part of the construct. They argue that a parsimonious solution to job insecurity measurement is achievable via attention to its affective component. This approach is useful to practicing managers who wish to understand and measure job insecurity.

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) conceptualise job insecurity as a multidimensional construct modeled, in large part, upon expectancy-theory type formulations (Vroom, 1964). This is a decidedly cognitive theoretical perspective.

Reisel and Banai (2002) maintain that Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) did not include an affective component in their operationalisation of job insecurity. They state that among previous researchers, only Johnson, Messe, and Crano (1984) conceptualised and measured the affective element of job insecurity. Their item wording illustrates a concern with affect, for example, "I am currently worried about the possibility of losing my job".

Reisel and Banai (2002) contend that dictionary treatment of insecurity includes apprehension in its descriptions. Apprehension has been defined as the fearful anticipation of the future, dread. This is certainly consistent with the literature that recognises the inter-relationship of job insecurity, job loss, stress and coping (Caplan et al., 1975; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Because the stress and coping literature recognises the importance of affect, but the job insecurity literature has largely avoided inclusion of affect, Reisel and Banai (2002) argue that affect needs to be infused into the operationalisation and measurement of job insecurity. These researchers further state that job insecurity is most likely to be accurately identified when an individual recognises threat to his/her job and is worried about those threats.

According to Canaff (2002), one of the results that has led to a large increase in job insecurity can be stress and anxiety that workers feel regardless of how well they are doing their jobs. Canaff also stresses that even though their jobs may not be actively at risk, its not unusual for them to feel insecure. Based on this note by Canaff, the researcher will discuss factors influencing job insecurity.

3.2.6 Factors influencing job insecurity

Factors influencing perceived job insecurity exist on different levels. Factors existing on the particular environmental and organisational conditions including organisational change and communication. Factors relating to the employee's individual and positional characteristics are found to be age, gender and socio-economic status factors relating to the employees personality characteristics such as; an internal versus an external locus of control, optimism versus pessimism and sense of coherence (Greenhagh, & Rosenblatt, 1984; Kinnunen, Manuno, Nätti, Happonen, 2000; Klandermens, Van Vuuren & Jacobson, 1991).

The amount of the variance in perceived job insecurity explained by these factors or predictors has been $\pm 20\%$ (Kinnunen et al., 2000). The best predictor have usually been positional factors, for example, earlier unemployment experiences or temporary job contracts (Kinunnen & Nätti, 1994), personality factors (Roskies & Louis-Gruerin, 1990); and signals of threats, for example, rumours of re-organisation or changes of management (Ashford et al., 1989; Kinnunen et al., 2000). Furthermore, failure to communicate about the future by management and manager's ability to maintain the job security of the surviving employees can influence job insecurity, since the key feature of job insecurity is the subjective or perceptual nature of the assessment by the individual and the failure to communicate might aggravate these perception (Kinnunen et al.)

The factors influencing job insecurity have been outlined, the next discussion will be on the consequences of job insecurity.

3.2.6 Consequences of job insecurity

Job insecurity has many negative effects even if it is only perceived according to Canaff (2002). This researcher also states that research on job insecurity shows that insecurity increases stress levels, negative job attitudes, lack of trust,

ignorance of workplace safety and causes health issues, often more than an actual job loss.

Spark et al., (2001) mentions that organisations may suffer financially from heightened employee perceptions of job insecurity. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa (1986) as quoted by Perverett (1994) contend that individuals will decide what to give an organisation on the basis of what the organisation can provide them. If perceived job insecurity is manifested in this psychological contract because of changes in an organisation that are seen to impose on career progress, income expectations and job properties, then the psychological contract may be negatively disposed. King (2000) found that white collar workers who reported a high job insecurity were less supportive of organisational goals, gave less effort to produce quality work and were more actively seeking alternative employment.

Jacobson and Hartley (1991) suggest that low job security can lead to behavioural withdrawal in terms of absenteeism and resignation. However, this propensity to withdraw does not necessarily lead to increased turnover in the organisation. Sutton (1987) has proposed that propensity to leave will lead to turnover only where alternative opportunities exist and where no strong dependencies are at work. Burchell et al., (1999) also supports this and states that job insecurity has a serious effect on the job attitudes of employees. He maintains that employees who feel that their jobs are not secure have a strong intention of leaving their jobs and less commitment to their employers than employees who believe that their jobs are relatively secure.

Probst and Brubaker (2001) state that employees who report high perceptions of job insecurity exhibit decreased safety motivation and compliance which, in turn, are related to higher levels of workplace injuries and accidents. They further speculate that insecure employees may feel that the employers are placing greater emphasis on meeting production quotas than on quality and safety,

leading workers to dedicate more time and energy to working quickly and less to worry about safety.

Brockner, Grover, Reed and Dewitt (1990) theorise that layoff survivors' level of job insecurity is high when they perceive threat to a job or job features. Burchel, Day, Hudson, Lapido, Mankelew, Nolan, Reed, Wichert, and Wilkinson (1999) further maintain that many employees are not unduly worried about redundancy or losing their jobs per se, but are extremely concerned about the loss of valued job features, such as their control over the pace of work and their opportunities for promotion.

The researcher agrees with the above-mentioned researchers and concludes that job insecurity is detrimental to both the employees and the organisation, and that when employees becomes insecure, they tend to be more vulnerable and experience stress. When they start reacting like this, they are more likely to look for an alternative organisation, therefore putting less effort in their production.

Sverke et al., (2002) provided a structure outlining the indirect and direct effects of job insecurity.

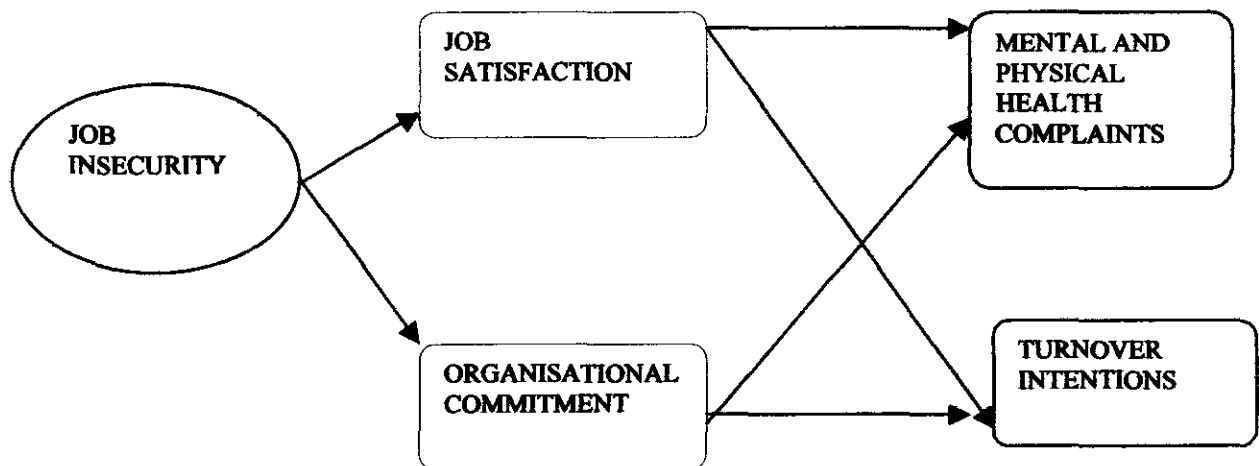


Figure 2: Proposed model of indirect and direct effects of job insecurity by Sverke et al (2002)

This figure simply implies that job insecurity can have a negative impact on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This negative impact can, in turn, harm both the organisation and the employees. For example, it can affect employees' mental and physical health, and affect the organisation through turnovers.

To summarise this construct, job insecurity can be defined as fear people experience at the workplace that they may lose their jobs and become unemployed. It originates from some changes that take place within the organisation, such as mergers, acquisitions and re-engineering. Job insecurity puts some strain on both the individuals and the organisation, for instance, it can affect their live, work attitude and morals, and for the organisation it can have an impact on the productivity at large.

Studies have been conducted that focused on the correlation and relationship between the four construct (psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity) of this study. The next discussion will look at these correlations.

3.3 STUDIES DONE ON PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB INSECURITY

❖ Correlation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction

When focusing on the correlation between these two variables, research findings vary according to the four dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. The meaning dimension of empowerment was found by Spreitzer and Kizilos (1997) to be significantly related to work satisfaction in two organisations.

Linden et al., (2000) finds a positive correlation between the competence dimension of empowerment and work satisfaction. They state that individuals who possess confidence in being able to succeed, appeared to be happier with their work than those who fear that they may fail.

Contradictory to the findings of Linden et al., (2000) Spreitzer and Kizilos (1997) maintain that there is no relationship between competency and work satisfaction. They conclude that the competence dimension has a strong performance implication and buffers the dysfunctional aspect of the job strain, but has no feelings of work satisfaction.

Consistent with prior research, Spreitzer and Kazilos (1997) find a correlation between self-determination and work satisfaction. Self-determination explains the small variance above and beyond the other three dimensions. They find no support for the relationship between impact and job satisfaction.

❖ Correlation between psychological empowerment and commitment

Research done on downsizing by Mthieu and Zajac (1990) indicates that commitment is an important predictor of individual well-being. Yet downsizing and its accompanying job insecurity may alter employees' attitudes, especially those dealing with their relationship to the organisation. Commitment is often reduced because survivors experience downsizing as a violation of their psychological well-being, including psychological contract or because their jobs security may be threatened.

Brooks and Hartfield (2000) maintain that, to understand and explain possible changes in employees' commitment, the findings are situated in the context of their changing psychological contract.

❖ Correlation between job satisfaction and job insecurity

Dunbar (1993) in his study on psychological stress and employee safety finds that negative affect, anxiety and depression are all negatively related to the use of personal protective equipment. One explanation for the proposed link between job insecurity and safety outcomes is therefore that job insecurity causes negative job attitudes in the form of anxiety regarding job security, for example job satisfaction, and reduces satisfaction with other facets of the job like payment and promotion opportunities. He also maintains that these, in turn, might result in a reduction in adherence to safety policies. In fact, decreased perception of job security, according to him, has consistently been found to be related to decreased job satisfaction.

❖ Correlation between job insecurity and commitment

According to a study done by Fowkes (1998) on layoff, continuance commitment and other variables such as planning of the layoff by the organisation are the exogenous variables leading to job insecurity. These variables reveal the extent to which survivors of layoffs are dependent on the downsized organisation and believe the organisation has a plan in place to realise the intended benefit of the downsizing. Yet survivors who think that there is no plan and that the layoff is disorganised, will obviously have no assurance that the layoff will have the desired effects on the organisation's success. Survivors would be left wondering if an additional round of poorly planned layoffs would be undertaken with similar haste and would affect them this time.

Continuance commitment can be interpreted in different ways. Allen and Meyer (1990) view it as loyalty to the organisation caused by a lack of desirable alternatives to work elsewhere. According to Fowkes (1998), this commitment indicates the extent to which the layoff has made employees feel trapped in the organisation. Survivors who feel trapped by inadequate opportunity or personal

cost outside the organisation will feel as though their eggs are all in one basket and will perceive higher levels of job insecurity.

❖ **Correlation between job insecurity, organisation commitment and job satisfaction**

Many studies have established relationships between job security on the one hand and organisational commitment and job satisfaction on the other. Rosenblatt and Ayalla (1996) have studied the impact of job security on attitudes toward work. They find that job insecurity adversely affects organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, intention to quit and resistance to change. The importance of employees' affective commitment to an organisation is underscored by Meyer, Paunonen, Gallatly, Richard, and Jackson (1989).

Esty (1984), Mone (1994), Luthans and Sommer (1999), and Tomasko (1990) have examined the relationship between downsizing, organisational commitment and job distress (job security) in organisations. Peripheral researches on outsourcing include recent works of Abraham and Taylor (1996), Deavers (1997), Perry (1997), and Sharpe (1997). These works have found that downsizing reduces organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job security. Additionally, organisations that downsized had less satisfied and more depressed employees.

Angle and Perry (1981) have studied the relationship between organisational commitment, i.e., affective commitment of lower-level employees of organisations offering bus services, and organisational adaptability, turnover, tardiness, absenteeism and operating costs. They found a mixed perception of the relationship between organisational commitment and organisational adaptability. While lower-level employees perceived the association between organisational commitment and organisational adaptability as positive, managers did not. They

also found organisational commitment to be associated with turnover and tardiness but, not with absenteeism and operating costs.

Begley and Czajka (1993) examined the moderating effects of organisational commitment on job satisfaction and intent to quit during organisational turmoil. Their findings show that organisational commitment buffers the relationship between stress and job displeasure interpreted to be job dissatisfaction. Kobasa (1982) argues that commitment shields or protects employees from the adverse effects of stress such as caused by organisational hardship (layoffs), because it enables them to attach direction and meaning to their work. In their view, committed employees are better prepared to confront organisational problems that have employment-related implications, insecurity, and the threat to belonging. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) found that organisational commitment gives employees a feeling of stability and belonging.

3.4. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion this chapter dealt with organisational commitment and job insecurity. It provided background and conceptualisation of both the constructs. It highlighted the consequences, importance and impact of organisational commitment. The manifestation of job insecurity, and its consequences were also outlined. The studies done for the entire constructs for this study, which are organisational empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity, were also discussed. The next chapter will focus on the empirical study of these four constructs in a Packaging industry.

CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL STUDY

INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the literature study was taken with regards to organisational commitment and job insecurity. In this chapter, the research process and the empirical research will be discussed. The population group, measuring batteries and methodology regarding the scoring and interpretation of the instruments as well as the relevant statistical analysis will be discussed. Lastly the research hypothesis will be formulated.

4.1. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

4.1.1 General Objectives

The general objective of the research is to investigate the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity of employees in a packaging organisation, and to determine whether psychological empowerment can predict job satisfaction, organisational empowerment and job insecurity.

1.1.2 Specific Objectives

The following specific objectives are formulated:

- ❖ To conceptualise psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity from the literature.

- ❖ To determine the levels of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity in divisions of a packaging industry.
- ❖ To determine the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.
- ❖ To determine whether psychological empowerment can predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design as explained by Huysamen (1993) is the plan to which data is collected to investigate the research hypothesis or question in the most economical manner. Mouton and Marais (1992) maintained that the purpose of the research design is to plan and structure the research project in such a way that it enhances the ultimate validity of research findings.

In this study a cross-sectional design will be used together with a survey. A survey will be used as a technique of data collection to reach the research objectives. A survey research according to Kerlinger and Lee (2000) studies large and small populations by selecting and studying a sample chosen from population to discover the relative incidence, distribution and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables. Cross-sectional design are used to examine groups of subjects in various stages of development simultaneously, while the survey describe a technique of data collection in which questionnaires are used to gather data about identified population (Burns & Grove, 1993). Information collected is used to describe the population at that time and it is appropriate for studying various groups at different stages of development (Burns & Grove, 1993). This design can also be used to assess interrelationship among variables within population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997)

this design will be well suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlation research, whereby relationships between variables are examined.

4.3 STUDY POPULATION

The study population consists of employees employed at various divisions of packaging organisation. The sample was randomly stratified. Kerlinger and Lee (2002) defined stratified sample as the sample where population is divided first into strata, then random sample are drawn from each strata. Stratified sampling adds control to the sampling process by decreasing the amount of sampling error. This design is recommended when the population is composed of sets of dissimilar groups. Randomised stratified sampling allows one to study stratum differences. It allows special attention to certain groups that would otherwise be ignored because of their size (Kerlinger & Lee, 2002).

The sample taken was representative of all sections and includes members of different gender, age, grade, year of experience and department except lower level workers due to poor reading and writing abilities that can contaminate data. The total population of both divisions used is 1000 and the total numbers of questionnaire distributed were 125. From that 125, 119 questionnaires were received back. The researcher personally collected the questionnaires. This makes the sample size $n=119$. This further indicates that 95% of the sample population responded.

4.4 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The researcher firstly did set up an appointment with the Group Human Resources Director and explained her intention to do a study at their company. Approval was given and the divisional Human Resources were informed by the group director that the researcher would be visiting their division to do a study

there. After consent was given questionnaires were distributed to the individuals. Some of the respondents were allowed to take the questionnaire and fill them at home. Out of 125 questionnaires distributed 119 were received back.

4.5 MEASURING BATTERIES

The measuring batteries consist of 4 questionnaires namely the Empowerment Questionnaire (Spreitzer, 1995); the revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weis, Davis, England and Lofquist, 1967), Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993) and Job Insecurity Survey Questionnaire (De Witte, 1999).

4.5.1 Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire

Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire (12 items) developed by Spreitzer (1995) was used to measure psychological empowerment of the respondents. Next, the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, reliability and validity, as well as the motivation for the choice of the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire, are discussed.

4.5.1.1. Rationale and development of the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire

The measuring empowerment questionnaire is a theory-based measure of empowerment and it was developed by Spreitzer (1995). The purpose of it according to Spreitzer (1995) is to contribute to the growing literature on empowerment by developing and validating a measure of psychological empowerment in a workplace context. It is composed of four related dimensions (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) hypothesised by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). These dimensions assess different aspects of a single construct, namely psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995). She strongly

felt that these dimensions reflect personal experiences or beliefs employees have about their roles in the organisation. It focuses on the psychological state of the employee that determines success or failure of the empowerment initiative.

4.5.1.2 Description of the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire

The instrument consists of 12 items with 3 items for each of the 4 subdimensions (Items 5, 6, 11 = meaning; 1, 10, 12 = competence; 2, 7, 8 = impact and items 3, 4, 9 = self-determination). In order to develop the instrument, the four dimensions had to be adapted to some extent. Spreitzer (1995) reported that the meaning items were taken directly from Tymon's (1988) meaningfulness scale. The competence items were adapted from Jones's (1986) self-efficacy scale while self-determination items were adapted from Hackman and Oldham's (1985) autonomy scale. The impact items were adapted from Ashforth's (1989) helplessness scale.

4.5.1.3 Administration and scoring of the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire

The instrument can be administered individually or in groups. The respondents read the instructions on the questionnaire themselves. The items are answered by deciding to what extent the respondents experience or believe the environment to be empowering. An average score of all 12 items is determined.

4.5.1.4 Interpretation of the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire

Three items per dimension are employed, each using a seven-point Likert response format ranging from 1-7. The lowest levels of psychological empowerment felt are indicated by 1 and the highest levels are indicated by 7. Spreitzer et al., (1997) mention that the three item measure has been shown to be stable and reliable. 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).

The average score of the 12 items is an indication of general psychological empowerment experienced. Scores are also determined for each sub-dimension of psychological empowerment. Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of each dimension. Lower scores are indicative of lower levels of each dimension. Scores in the middle would be indicative of average psychological empowerment.

4.5.1.5 Reliability and validity of the Measuring Empowerment

• Questionnaire

The Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) for the overall empowerment construct of the industrial sample in Spreitzer's (1995) study was 0,72 and 0,62 for the insurance sample, indicating that the overall reliabilities are acceptable. Kończak et al. (2000) found a high Cronbach alpha of 0,86 in their study. Rugg (2001) found a high Cronbach alpha (α) of 0,84 for reliability. Hlalele (2003) found the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) of 0,9. It can be regarded as a reliable instrument to measure empowerment construct.

4.5.1.6 Motivation for the choice of the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire

This instrument is used in this study because it focuses on the individual's experience of a dimension rather than a description of a work environment that might result in that experience (Spreitzer, 1995). Therefore the responses reflect the individual employee's experiences or beliefs about his working environment.

4.5.2 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Job satisfaction will be measured using the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss et al., (1967). This instrument was developed as a measure of one of the primary indicators of work adjustment, namely job satisfaction. The short version of Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire that consists of 20 items is used in this study. Spector (1997) and Schriesheim et al. (1993) state that the short version is a popular facet measure that is frequently used in job satisfaction research as it determines the level of job satisfaction in general.

Next, the rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, reliability and validity, as well as the motivation for the choice of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, are discussed.

4.5.2.1 Development and Rationale

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire has been developed as a measure of one of the primary indicators of work adjustment, namely job satisfaction. The theory of work adjustment was developed and it states that the principal reason or explanation for observed work adjustment outcome, i.e job satisfaction is the correspondence (or lack of it) between the work personality and the work environment, the theory, therefore, focus on the integration of the individual personality (needs and abilities) with the environment (reinforcers for needs and opportunity to use ability).

This Questionnaire is very useful for this study in the sense that it measures intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Although researchers show that individuals differ in terms of the reinforcers they need to be satisfied in their job environment, however in this study the level of satisfaction would be measured in general.

The rationale for the use of short-version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is that it is not as time consuming as the long-version.

4.5.2.2 Description

There are two forms of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire the long version and the short version. The short version of the questionnaire is used in the present study and consists of 20 items. From these 20 items, the following item 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16 and 20 measures intrinsic satisfaction, and the following ones 5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18 and 19 measures extrinsic satisfaction. Although the short version does not measure specific aspects, the advantage is that determined the level of job satisfaction in general. The five-point scale has been used. Choices on the end (5) of the scale indicates total agreement with the item, whereas choices as the beginning of the scale (1) indicates total disagreement with the statement made in the item.

4.5.2.3. Administration and scoring

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire can be administered individually or in a group setting (Weiss et al, 1967). The respondents read the instruction on the questionnaire themselves. The 20 items are answered according to the feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. In scoring the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire an average score of all items are determined.

4.5.2.4 Interpretation of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The average score of the 20 items is an indication of the general job satisfaction of the respondents. A percentile score of 75 or higher would be indicative of a high degree of job satisfaction, while a percentile score of 25 or lower would be indicative of a lower level of satisfaction. Score in the middle of the range of percentile would indicate average satisfaction (Weiss et al, 1967).

4.5.2.5. Reliability and validity of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

There is a variance reported on the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) between Minnesota job satisfaction developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) and the short version of Minnesota job satisfaction developed by Schreissheim et al, (1993). This findings is also supported by Lam, Baum and Pine (2001), when they found that the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the five sample to range from 0,87 and 0,95. Reliability showed that the Cronbach alpha coefficients (α) for the 20 job factor.(short version) attributes ranged from 0,77 to 0.92, which were considered relatively high and internally consistent (Hair, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

Reliability coefficients using the short version are reported in South African studies. Kaptan (1990) found a reliability coefficient of (0,90) and Dwyer (2001) found a reliability coefficient of 0,92. Thomas and Tymon (1994) found it to be 0,87 and Naude (1999) reported high reliability coefficients of 0,96 for the long version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire. Thomas and Tymon (1994) found it to be 0,87 and Naude (1999) reported high reliability coefficients of 0,96 for the long version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire. Merison (1999) stated that the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short version) offers a reliable and valid measure of general job satisfaction.

4.5.2.6 Motivation for the choice of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Various factors in the work environment have been stated to influence job satisfaction of employees, but for the purpose of this study, those factors are not going to be measured. The measurement and interpretation would be based on job satisfaction in general, therefore the short version of Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire will be used because it measures job satisfaction in

general instead of measuring specific factors. The short version is also easy to complete and less time consuming.

4.5.3 Measuring of Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment was measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire of Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993). This questionnaire consist of 18 item questionnaire. In this section the development and rationale, description, administration and scoring, interpretation, reliability and validity, as well as the motivation for the choice of the organisational commitment questionnaire will be discussed.

4.5.3.1 Development and Rationale of the Measuring Organisational Commitment

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire has emerged as a very important construct in organisational research owing to its relationship with such important work related constructs as absenteeism, job involvement and leadership (Farrel & Stamm, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

According to Sulliman and Iles (2000) despite the plethora of studies of organisational commitment, and its nature, antecedents, consequences and correlations, the issue remains ill-defined and ill-conceptualised. However, the concept's popularity may be due to the assumed impact organisational commitment has on employees and organisational performance. Lawrence (1958) study provoked the necessity and rationale for research in this area when he assert that ideally, we would want one sentiment to be dominant in all employees from top to bottom. This means that organisation's employees from all different levels within the organisation will have to share one vision, goal and direction in order for organisation to survive.

Today the issue is even more important than it was for decades ago. Given this, Dubois and associates (1997) has argued that the level of organisational commitment is the driving force behind an organisation's performance.

The questionnaire consists of 18 items. There is useful in a sense that it measures organisational commitment in different subscales (affective, continuance and normative). Research indicates that individuals differ in terms of their commitment. This implies that different individuals become committed for different reasons. In this study different sub-dimensions of commitment which are affective, continuance and normative would be measured and the total organisational commitment would be measured. From the questionnaire items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13 and 16 measures affective commitment, items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17 measured continuance commitment and the items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 and 18 items measured normative commitment.

The rationale for the use of Meyer, Smith and Allen's (1993) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire is that it provides levels of commitment in three different sub-dimensions.

4.5.3.2 Administration and scoring of the Measuring Organisational Commitment

This questionnaire can be administered individually or in a group setting (Meyer, et al., 1993). The respondent in this study read the instructions on the questionnaire themselves. The 18 items are answered according to the feeling of commitment in terms of each subscale. However, for the study organisational commitment would be measured in general.

In the scoring of Organisational Commitment Questionnaire an average score of all 18 items are determined.

4.5.3.3. Interpretation of the Measuring Organisational Commitment

In this study the average score of subscale/sub-dimension (affective, continuance and normative) would be used. Therefore the average score of 18 items which are measured by four subscales would be an indication of the general commitment of the respondent in the organisation. A percentile score of 75 or higher would be indicative of a high degree of organisational commitment, while a percentile score of 25 or lower would indicate a low level of organisational commitment. Scores in the middle of range of percentiles would indicate an average degree of organisational commitment (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993).

4.5.3.4. Reliability and Validity of the Measuring Organisational Commitment

Bagaim and Hayes (1999) mentioned that the Organisational commitment Questionnaire is currently being standardised for South African Circumstances and that the preliminary results support the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Bagaim et al., (1999) further stated that although in other countries they used a 7-point scale to measure organisational commitment, in South Africa it has been proven that a 5-point scale provides reliable and valid results. The cronbach alpha coefficient found by Sulliman and Iles (2000a) was above 0,80. Khwela (2001) found the alpha coefficient (α) of 0,87, Dwyer (2001) found Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) of 0,79, Rugg (2001) found alpha coefficient (α) of 0,87.

4.5.3.5 Motivation for using the Measuring Organisational Commitment

It has been considered that various aspects in the working environment have an impact and influence on organisational commitment, however for the purpose of this study the overall commitment is taken into consideration. The organisational

commitment questionnaire measures the commitment of employees in terms of three components which are, affective, continuance and normative, and their average score will be used for interpretation of the total commitment.

4.5.4 Job Insecurity Survey

The job insecurity survey was used to measure participants perceived job insecurity. The rationale and development, description, administration and scoring, interpretation, reliability and validity of the job insecurity survey are discussed next.

4.5.4.1 Development and rationale of the Job insecurity survey

De Witte (1999, 2000) notes that the intention to compare the experience of unemployment and that of job insecurity inevitably implies the choice of a global measuring instrument. The comparison of unemployment and job insecurity is possible only with a reliable measurement of global job insecurity. Measurement via only one item, can deliver unreliable and unstable results. De Witte (2000), therefore, decided to determine whether a new measurement of the concept "job insecurity" could be created. The JISQ (Job Insecurity Survey Questionnaire) could be created. The JISQ also provides differentiation between cognitive job insecurity (concern) and emotional job insecurity (worry).

Inspired by the instrument of Borg (1992, as cited in De Witte, 2000), eleven items were established. De Witte (2000) notes that a requirement was to ensure that the items referred to the same concept, resulting in a reliable scale. Based on Borg's conceptualisation of job insecurity as a two dimensional construct, consisting of an affective and cognitive component, it was attempted to design a two-dimensional measuring instrument.

4.5.4.2 Description of the JISQ

The eleven items of the JISQ summarise both the cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity and are arranged along a 5-point scale, with 1 representing “strongly agree” and 5 representing strongly disagreement. From the questionnaire items 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 measured affective job insecurity and items 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 measured cognitive insecurity. De Witte (2000) found, with regards to the JISQ, that two factors can be distinguished, which, together predicts 68,2% of the total variance. The first factor (self worth=6,47; 58,8% predicted total variance) is undeniably the most important. De Witte (2000) states the following “I am sure I can keep my job” as an example in this regards. The affective aspect, for example “the fact that I might become unemployed, frightens me” emerged as the second factor which predict total variance.

4.5.4.3 Administration, scoring and interpretation of the JISQ

Respondents are required to read the instructions prior to commencement. Thereafter, they must indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the eleven statements on the five-point scale.

The questionnaire comprises of positive and negative items, in order to avoid answer trends. Consequently, items 6,9,10 and 11 must be considered conversely, when scoring the JISQ. Respondents with high scores can be considered to be low on felt job insecurity, whereas low scores would imply that the respondent is job-insecured.

4.5.4.4 Reliability and validity of the JISQ

The items of the JISQ measuring global job insecurity, are reported by De Witte (2000) to have a Cronbach alpha coefficient α of 0,92. De Witte also found that

the overlap between both predictive factors (cognitive and affective) is of significance, making it complicated to distinguish between the two dimensions. With items, which primarily refer to one of both dimensions, two scales were created. Both scales were shown to be highly reliable, with the six items measuring cognitive job insecurity, displaying a Cronbach alpha coefficient α of 0,90; and the five items of the affective job insecurity having a Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) of 0,85. De Witte (2000) notes that the items content of these two scales does not overlap, but nevertheless, have a high underlying correlation ($r=0,76$, $p<0,0001$). This once again indicates that both aspects strongly refer to one another, and are not accurately differentiated in the perception of the respondents.

De Witte (2000) found that of the 20% of respondents in the sample who indicated that they felt insecure regarding their employment, all were significantly less satisfied with their jobs, and experienced considerably more emotional and mental exhaustion

4.5.4.5 Motivation for using the JISQ

The JISQ measures not only cognitive perceptions of job insecurity, but also affective indicators of job insecurity. In addition, rather than making use of one statement, eleven statements are used, making it a more reliable measure of job insecurity.

4.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

According to Mouton and Marais (1992) a hypothesis is a statement used in research to help clarify the research question. It is presented as a declarative statement of prediction. Two formats of hypotheses used in this study are the basic and specific hypotheses.

4.6.1 Basic hypothesis

There is no relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

4.6.2 Specific hypothesis

The following specific hypotheses if this study will be formulated:

- ❖ **H₀₁**: There is no significant correlation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction.
- ❖ **H₀₂**: There is no significant correlation between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment.
- ❖ **H₀₃**: There is no significant correlation between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.
- ❖ **H₀₄**: Psychological empowerment does not predict the level job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

4.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics was used in this research. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997) description refers to the procedures by which events and their relationships are defined, classified, catalogued or categorised. Statistical analysis was computed with the assistance of the statistical services department at Potchefstroom University (Vaal Triangle Campus). Statistical analysis was done with the help of the SAS- program (SAS Institute, 2000). The SAS program

will be used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability, validity, construct equivalence and predictive bias of the measuring instrument, descriptive statistics, t-test, analysis of variance, correlation coefficients and moderated multi regression analysis.

Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to indicate the internal consistency of the measuring instrument. Pearson product-moments correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationship between variables. A cut-off points 0.30 (medium effect) and 0.50 (large effect) as recommended by Cohen (1988) was set for practical significance of correlation coefficients. Factor analysis was used to describe a number of methods designed to analyse interrelationships within a set of variables. A multi regression analysis was done to determine the percentage variance.

Skewness and kurtosis were also used. Skewness is a descriptive indication of symmetry, which gives an indication of the level of skewness (positive or negative) of a population, whereas kurtosis indicates the level of pointedness of a distribution of scores (Steyn, 1990). Skewness measures the deviation of the distribution from symmetry. If the skewness is clearly different from 0, then that distribution is sysmmmetrical, while normal distributions are perfectly symmetrical. If the kurtosis (which measures peakness of the distribution) is clearly different from 0, then the distribution is either flatter or more peaked than normal.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the methodology that has been followed to complete the empirical study. The following aspects were highlighted: research objectives, research design and procedures, study population, measuring instruments, research hypotheses, and statistical analysis. Chapter 5 will discuss research results and findings resulting from this empirical study.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the empirical study was outlined. In this chapter the findings and results will based on the empirical study will be discussed. Focus will be based on, descriptive analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis factor analysis and multi-regression analysis

5.1 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS FOR BIOGRAPHICAL VARAIBLES OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

The sample population of 119 was used in this study. Table 1 indicates the biographical details of the population.

Table 1:

Descriptive analysis of biographical details of the population

Gender	Male	70	58, 82
	Female	49	41,18
Age	24 years and younger	15	12, 61
	25-35 years	49	41,18
	36-45 years	31	26, 05
	46-55 years	22	18, 49
	56 years and older	2	1, 68
Years of service	Less than a year	9	7, 56

Continuation of Table 1

	1-2 years	24	20,17
	3-4 years	22	18,49
	5-10 years	28	23, 53
	11-15 years	26	21, 85
	16-20 years	7	5, 88
	Longer than 20 years	3	2, 52
Years in current job position	Less than a year	18	15, 13
	1-2 years	27	22, 69
	3-4 years	27	22, 69
	5-10 years	36	30, 25
	11-15 years	8	6, 2
	16-20 years	3	2, 52
Grades	2-4	6	5, 36
	5-7	31	27, 68
	8-11	47	41, 96
	12-15	26	23, 21
	16-19	1	0, 89
Reporting subordinate	Yes	24	20, 69
	No	92	79, 31
Section	IT	9	7, 56
	Finance	11	9, 24
	HR	13	10, 92
	Marketing	12	10, 08
	Manufacturing	26	21, 85
	Sales	18	15, 13

Continuation of	Table 1		
	Office Management	12	10, 08
	Logistics	0	0
	Engineering	0	0

From the exposition provided above, it can be seen that 59% of the research population are male participants and 41% are females. From this population 41% is between the ages of 25-35 years and have been working for the company for more than 5-10 years. In this population 42% is on Peromnes grade 8-11, 28% is on grade 5-7, 23% on grade 12-15. From this population 21% have subordinates reporting directly to them. Most of the population came from Manufacturing (22%), Marketing and Office Management both made up 10% of the population, 11% came from Human Resources, 15% from Sales department, 9% from Finance department and 8% is from Information Technology department. In general the research population appears to be biographically balanced, except that it significantly consist of more males than females.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

The mean (X), standard deviation (SD), skewness and kurtosis were determined for the questionnaires and their sub-scales. This is indicated in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics of the measuring instruments

Psychological Empowerment	119	5,37	1,18	-0,35	-0,77	0,93	0,57
Meaning	119	6,13	1,21	-2,19	6,51	0,88	0,74
Competence	119	6,00	1,06	-1,25	1,32	0,85	0,67
Self-Determination	119	1,63	0,57	-0,58	-0,79	0,91	0,78
Impact	119	4,40	1,80	-0,09	-1,07	0,92	0,80
Job Satisfaction	119	3,64	0,88	-0,65	1,23	0,93	0,43
Intrinsic	119	3,63	0,93	-0,64	0,96	0,89	0,44
Extrinsic	119	3,65	0,91	-0,78	1,01	0,87	0,49
Organisational commitment	119	3,33	0,66	-0,32	-0,24	0,84	0,25
Affective	119	3,40	0,88	-0,27	-0,61	0,79	0,42
Continuance	119	3,36	0,66	-0,07	0,01	0,52	0,16
Normative	119	3,24	1,08	-0,07	-0,90	0,89	0,60
Job Insecurity	119	2,24	0,93	0,30	-0,60	0,93	0,59
Affective	119	2,26	0,94	0,26	-0,65	0,86	0,57
Cognitive	119	2,22	0,99	0,32	-0,73	0,91	0,66

Table 2 indicates the mean values for four measuring batteries used in this study and their sub-dimensions. The overall mean value for psychological empowerment is 5,37, which indicates that the employees at this packaging organisation feel psychologically empowered. Hlalele (2003) reported 4,87 and Buckle (2003) reported 5,36. The highest rating of 6.13 for psychological empowerment sub dimension is found in meaning. This explains that employees find their jobs meaningful and also indicates the positive feelings that they experience with regard to their work roles, values, beliefs and behaviour.

Competence was the second highest rated 6,00 sub dimension for psychological empowerment. This indicates that there is a positive experience within employees that they are able to perfectly execute their job and that they have control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives. Saleh and Desai (1990) and Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby and Herron (1996) in their study found that when engineers become involved in their jobs and when they perceive their jobs to be important, this condition promotes a situation of control over environment. Bandura (1997) stated that competent people perceive themselves as valued resources having talent worth contributing and that they are likely to assume an active orientation with regard to their work and work units.

Even though these employees are able to successfully execute their job competently, they may lack some enhanced motivation. This is indicated by a low rating for self-determination sub dimension 1,63. Self-determination dimension rated lower than other three sub dimensions

These findings are supported by Dwyer (2001) who reported mean scores of 5,41 (meaning); 5,76 (competence); 5,23 (self-determination) and 4,88 (impact). The rating for self-determination was reported to be low in the present study. These scores are positive and indicate that employees perceive themselves as being empowered. Spreitzer and Quinn (1997) explain that the four sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment are not specific management practices, but rather characteristics reflecting personal experiences or beliefs about employees' roles in the organisation. Based on the findings, it can then be concluded that employees in this packaging company perceive themselves as having freedom and discretion. They also feel personally connected to the organisation, and they are confident about their abilities and capable of having an impact on the system in which they are embedded.

The overall mean value for job satisfaction is 3,63. The research can conclude that employees are satisfied with their jobs and that there is a congruence between their expectations from the job and what they receive from it. Keller and Dansereau (1995) as quoted in Hlalele (2003) mentioned that for employees to feel empowered, they must perceive that their work environment is liberating rather than constraining. If this happens, they will realise that their actions matter and that outcomes are affected by their decisions.

The overall mean value for organisational commitment is 3,33. This also indicates that employees in this organisation are committed to both their jobs and organisation. The skewness and kurtosis values of the overall psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity are indicative of a normal distribution, except the kurtosis of psychological empowerment meaning which appears to be more higher than expected and for the purpose of this study it will be ignored. These findings in general indicate that participants perceive themselves as psychologically empowered and because of this they are more satisfied with their job. This in turn lead them to be committed to both their jobs and organisation.

The next focus will be on determining the reliability and validity of the four batteries used in this study.

5.3 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Cronbach alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation were calculated to determine internal consistency of the measuring batteries and it is contained in Table 3 on the next page.

Table 3

Reliability and validity of measuring batteries

Psychological Empowerment	0,93	0,57
Meaning	0,88	0,74
Competence	0,85	0,67
Self-Determination	0,91	0,78
Impact	0,92	0,80
Job Satisfaction	0,93	0,43
Intrinsic	0,89	0,44
Extrinsic	0,87	0,49
Organisational commitment	0,84	0,25
Continuance	0,52	0,16
Normative	0,89	0,60
Job Insecurity	0,93	0,59
Affective	0,86	0,57
Cognitive	0,91	0,66

The reliability coefficient of the total psychological empowerment on the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire was determined at 0,93. The Cronbach alpha of 0,93 compares favourably with the guideline ($\alpha > 0,80$) of Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). These findings indicate that the results from the questionnaire are reliable. Results reported in this study are higher than those reported by Spreitzer (1995) for her industrial sample 0,72 and her insurance sample 0,62. Hlalele (2003) reported Cronbach alpha (α) higher than of this study 0,94. Konczak et al., (2000) reported a Cronbach alpha (α) of 0,86, which is lower than the one reported in this study. These findings indicate that the results from the questionnaire are reliable.

Cronbach alpha reliability for psychological empowerment sub-dimensions in this study is high, for instance: Meaning = 0,93; Competence = 0,85; Impact = 0,91 and Self-determination = 0,92. These findings are supported by Kraimer, Seibert and Liden (1999) findings when they reported alpha coefficients of meaning 0,92; competence 0,77; impact 0,86 and self-determination 0,85. The competence dimension of Hlalele (2003) is lower than the one reported in this study.

The inter-item correlation for psychological empowerment was found to be 0,57, which is marginally above the guideline of 0,50 as suggested by Clark and Watson (1995). A possible reason for this high score may be the fact that the items are narrowly defined. Four factors were extracted from this instrument which explained 86% of the total variance. Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire Based on these findings, appears to have satisfactory internal consistency and construct validity.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) of the total job satisfaction on the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was determined at 0,93 in this study. In South African studies Buckle (2003) reported a Cronbach alpha (α) of 0,88; Khwela (2001) reported reliability coefficient of 0,91 and Kaplan (1990) reported alpha coefficient (α) of 0,90, which are all lower than the one reported in this study.

The internal correlation coefficient found in this study for job satisfaction is 0,43, which can be regarded as acceptable. From the findings, it appears that the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire has satisfactory internal consistency and construct validity.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) of the total organisational commitment on the measuring Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was determined at 0,84 in this study. Even though the Cronbach alpha α of 0,84 compares favourable with the guideline of 0,80 the Cronbach alpha for continuance sub-dimension appeared to be low 0,52. Literature studies done previously also highlighted the

fact that there is problem with Cronbach alpha coefficient for continuance commitment, and therefore it will be ignored for this study. . Khwela (2002) reported Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) of 0,87 his study, which is higher when compares to the findings of this study. Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni, as cited in McDonald & Makin (2000) in their study of the organisational commitment of temporary staff in one of the organization's in the UK, found the reliability for the scales to be 0,84. The inter-item correlation coefficient found for organisational commitment was reported in this study is 0,25.

The items of the JISQ measuring global job insecurity, are reported by De Witte (2000) to have a Cronbach alpha coefficient α of 0,92. The total Cronbach alpha coefficient α for job insecurity on job insecurity survey questionnaire is 0,93 which also can be regarded as favourable.

The inter-item correlation for job insecurity was reported as 0,59 which is marginally above 0,50 as suggested by Clark and Watson (1995). Job insecurity survey Questionnaire appears to have satisfactory internal consistency based on the findings.

Factor analysis was also computed.

- ❖ Psychological empowerment consist of four factor and only two factors were extracted the reason being that their Eigenvalues were less than one. The cumulative percentage of those two extracted factors is 73,10%.
- ❖ Job satisfaction consist of two factors and both of them were extracted and their percentage was 57,92%.
- ❖ Organisational commitment consists of three factors which were all extracted and their percentage was 62,09%.

- ❖ Lastly job insecurity consists of two factors and only one factor was extracted and its cumulative percentage was 62, 69%. The reason for this is that the Eigenvalue is less than one.

This finding therefore indicates that employees at this company experience empowerment more than the other three factors, which are job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

5.4 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Pearson-product moment correlations (r) are determined to give an indication of the strength of the linear relationship between the variables (Cohen, 1988). This section will also focus on both the basic and specific hypotheses of this study. The correlations between psychological empowerment including its sub-dimensions (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) and job satisfaction are indicated in Table 3 below.

5.4.1 Relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction

Table 4:

Relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	0, 80 ^{**+}	0, 51 ^{**+}	0, 63 ^{**+}	0, 75 ^{**+}	0, 76 ^{**+}
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*Correlation is practically significant: $r > 0,30$ (medium effect)

** Correlation is practically significant: $r > 0,50$ (large effect)

+Correlation is statistically significant: $p < 0,05000$

According to Table 4, there is a practical significant correlation of large effect (0,80) between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. The relationship is also statistically significant. The result is supported by both Buckle (2003) who reported 0,73 and Hlalele (2003) who reported 0,71. There is

likelihood that an increase in employees' level of psychological empowerment would increase their level of job satisfaction.

Table 4 also indicates a practical correlation of large effect (0,51) between job satisfaction and meaning. This Table also indicate a statistical correlation between job satisfaction and meaning. The meaning sub-dimension of empowerment was also found by Spreitzer and Kizilos (1997) to be significantly related to work satisfaction in two organisation. Dwyer (2001) found the meaning dimension to be positively related to job satisfaction. Hlalele (2003) also support these findings and reported 0,62. It can then be said that employees' in packaging industry find their work to be meaningful, and that there is a fit between the requirements of the work roles and their beliefs, values and behaviour.

There is a practical and statistical correlation of 0,63 between job satisfaction and competence. Hlalele (2003) reported practical correlation of 0,31, which is practically significant with medium effect. Based on the findings reported in this study, it can be deduced that the responded feel more confident and have control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1991), also that they have a sense of confidence about their abilities to do their work (Locke, 1991).

A practical and statistical correlation of large effect (0,75) was found between job satisfaction and self-determination. Linden R.C., Sparrowe, R.T., and Wayne, S.J. (2000) reported correlation of 0,45 and Malan (2002) reported correlation of 0,52, which are lower than the findings from this study. It can be deduced that the more employees perceive that they can use their own judgement and act out of own understanding of the task, the more the likelihood that they will be satisfied. Parker and Price (1994) stated that self-determination appears to enhance confidence, making task less stressful and more intrinsically rewarding.

A practical correlation relationship between job satisfaction and impact was found to be of large effect of 0,76. This indicates that employees' in packaging industry regard themselves as having influential ability to influence strategic, administrative or operating outcomes at work. The respondents believe that they can have an influence on their work unit, and that others listen to their ideas. If individuals believe that they can have an impact on the system in which they are embedded, that they can influence organisational outcomes, then they will be more likely to actually have an impact on their system through their work, and thus will be seen as more effective (Ashforth, 1989, 1990). Conclusion can therefore be made that when the level of psychological empowerment increases, there would be a likelihood that the level of job satisfaction would increase and vice versa. There was also an indication of a statistical correlation between job satisfaction and impact reflected on Table 4.


The results from Table 4 indicate that there is both practical and statistical correlation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction in general. **The first hypothesis from the specific hypotheses states that there is no significant correlation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. From these finding the researcher can comfortable conclude that there is a practical and statistical correlation with large effect between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, thus this hypothesis is rejected.**

5.4.2 The relationship between Psychological empowerment and organisational commitment

The following Table 5 will depict the relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment.

Table 5:

Relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment



Psychological Empowerment	0, 42* ⁺	0, 47* ⁺	-0, 22	0, 52** ⁺
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*Correlation is practically significant: $r > 0,30$ (medium effect)

**Correlation is practically significant: $r > 0,50$ (large effect)

+ Correlation is statistically significant: $p < 0,05000$

The Table 5 above indicates that there is a practical significance correlation and statistical significance between organisational commitment and psychological empowerment 0,42. The researcher therefore concluded that the more employees feel empowered the more they become committed to their jobs. There is a practical significance with medium effect 0,32 between meaning and organisational commitment. This indicates that when the people feel that their jobs are meaningful then they become more committed to it. Medium effect correlation of 0,38 was found between competence and organisational commitment, meaning that the more employees feel competent in their capabilities in their job the more they become committed to the organisation and their jobs. This is no statistical significance between organisational commitment and self-determination.

There is practical and statistical correlation significance of 0,47 between affective and psychological empowerment. A conclusion can be drawn that as employees get increased motivation generated by meaning, competence, self-determination

and impact, they become more morally attached to, identify with and be more involved in their organisation.

A practical significance relationship with large effect of 0,51 was found between impact and affective commitment. A practical significance with medium effect was found between, affective and self-determination and there was no relationship reported between affective commitment and meaning.

There is also no practical and statistical significance correlation found between psychological empowerment and continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is known to have problem. This is evident from previous researches on. There is a practical significance with large effect between psychological Empowerment and normative commitment therefore it can be concluded that when employees feel empowered they will become morally attached to the organisation. The practical significance correlation was recorded between competence and normative commitment and also between self-determination and normative commitment. There was no significance found between meaning and normative commitment.

The second specific hypothesis of this study state that there is no practical correlation between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment, and from the above findings there is a practical correlation with medium effect between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment, therefore the second hypothesis is rejected.

5.4.3 The relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity

The next table will depict the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational empowerment and job insecurity

Table 6:

The relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity

Meaning	-0,23	-0,14	-0,19
Competence	-0,41	-0,30	-0,87
Impact	-0,61	-0,43	-0,53
Self-determination	-0,48	-0,36	-0,43
Intrinsic	-0,63	-0,56	-0,62
Extrinsic	-0,51	-0,48	-0,51
Affective	-0,66	-0,62	-0,67
Continuance	0,22	0,18	0,21
Normative	-0,67	-0,59	-0,65

***Correlation is practically significant: $r > 0,30$ (medium effect)**

****Correlation is practically significant: $r > 0,50$ (large effect)**

+Correlation is statistically significant: $p < 0,05000$

From Table 6 provided above, it is clearly recorded that there is significance relationship job insecurity and the other three constructs of this study (psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment). This clearly confirms what is expected that if levels of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are high then job insecurity level should be low or visa versa. The findings indicates that the employees at this organisation feel more empowered, They are also satisfied with their job and show commitment to their organisation. This is indicated by low level of job insecurity.

Hypothesis 3 of this study states that there is no significant correlation between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. Based on the findings this hypothesis is rejected.

5.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis was also computed with the aim of answering hypothesis four, which state that Psychological empowerment does not predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. Table 7 indicates regression analysis of psychological empowerment, (as independent variable), and job satisfaction as dependent variable. Table 8 will indicate regression analysis of psychological empowerment again (as independent variable), and organisational commitment as dependent variable and lastly table 9 will indicate regression analysis of psychological empowerment again (as independent variable), and job insecurity as dependent variable.

Table 7:

Regression analysis regarding psychological empowerment and job satisfaction

R=0,72				
R²=0,51				
Adjusted R²=0,50				
P=0,0000				
Std Err. Of Estimate=11.63				
Variables in the equation				
Independent Variable	B	Standard error of B	t-value	P
Intercept	30,66320	7,703851	3,980243	0,000123
Meaning	1,10999	0,406925	2,727744	0,007405
Competence	-0,39322	0,51208	-0,76788	0,444170
Impact	1,01139	0,40996	2473169	0,014894
Self-determination	3,25890	1,283412	2,539245	0,012481

Table 7 indicates that 51% of the variance of job satisfaction is explained by sub-dimension of psychological empowerment. The multi correlation of 0,51 is practically significant with large effect. These findings indicate that meaning, competence, impact and self-determination predict approximately 51% of the variance in job satisfaction. In his study Hialele (2003) found that 70,5% of the variance of job satisfaction is explained by the subdimensions of psychological empowerment. His findings are higher than the one reported in this study. Malan (2000) reported that 66% of the variance in job satisfaction is explained by sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment, which is also higher than the findings of this study.

These findings suggest that if employees perceive their work to have meaning, they will execute or perform it skillfully and competently. Moreover if they can determine the methods to follow, they will experience more job satisfaction.

Table 8:

Regression analysis of psychological empowerment and organisational commitment

R=0,50				
R²=0,25				
Adjusted R²=0,23				
P=0,0000				
Std Err. Of Estimate=10,56				
Variables in the equation				
Independent Variable	B	Standard error of B	t-value	P
Intercept	35,31023	6,665332	5,29759	0,00001
Meaning	0,83219	0,369288	2,25349	0,026157
Competence	0,22847	0,449061	0,50877	0,611906
Impact	1,47517	0,372327	3,96203	0,000130
Self-determination	-2,94199	1,164015	-2,52745	0,012872

Table 8 demonstrates that a total of 25% of the variance of organisational commitment as measured by the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire is explained by sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment. The multiple correlation of 0,30 is practically significant with medium effect. The findings indicate that meaning, competence, impact and self-determination predict approximately 25% of the variance in organisational commitment.

Table 9:

Regression analysis of psychological empowerment and job insecurity

R=0,53				
R²=0,28				
Adjusted R²=0,25				
P=0,0000				
Std Err. Of Estimate=8,86				
Variables in the equation				
Independent Variable	B	Standard error of B	t-value	P
Intercept	37,10938	5,589098	6,63960	0,00000
Meaning	0,18283	0,309660	0,59043	0,556083
Competence	-0,21122	0,376552	-0,56093	0,575954
Impact	-1,15331	0,312208	-3,69403	0,000342
Self-determination	0,66303	0,976064	0,67929	0,498345

Table 9 demonstrates that a total of 28.2% of the variance of job insecurity as measured by the Job Insecurity Survey Questionnaire is explained by sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment. The multiple correlation of 0,28 is practically significant with large effect. The findings indicate that meaning, competence, impact and self-determination predict approximately 28.2% of the variance in job insecurity.

According to Hypothesis 4 Psychological empowerment does not predict the levels job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity, but then Based on the above findings it is clear that psychological empowerment does actually predict the levels job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity, thus this hypothesis is rejected.

5.6 DISCUSSION

The empirical result indicates that there is a high level of psychological empowerment experienced by employees at this packaging company. The level of sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment, which are meaning, competence, impact and self-determination are also reported to be high. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined empowerment as intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's active orientation to his or her work role. This intrinsic task motivation involves positively valued experiences that individuals derive directly from a task. Spreitzer (1995) reported that empowerment is a gestalt of all of these four constructs, and each of these sub-dimension contributes to the overall construct of psychological empowerment. The highest of the sub-dimensions is the meaning dimension (6,13). Hlalele (2003) reported ratings of 5,01. The second highest dimension is competence dimension 6,00. Dwyer and Malan (2002) reported ratings of 5,76 and 6,23 respectively. These ratings indicate that people feel confident about their ability to perform task activities skilfully.

The findings also indicate that employees experience high level of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is best understood as a discrepancy between how much a person wants or expects from the job and how much the person actually receives. When individuals perceive that the outcomes of the job are met or exceeded, they are satisfied. When their expectations are not met, they feel betrayed by the management and develop a sense of mistrust. Malan (2002) reported job satisfaction of 3,97, which is higher than that reported in this study 3,64. Hlalele (2003) reported job satisfaction of 3,55.

Employees were also found to have a high level of organisational commitment. Based on the results of the present study, a conclusion can be made that the different forms of organisational commitment, Affective, Continuance and Normative, form part of the same construct due to the fact that practical

significant correlations of medium to large effect have been found between them. According to Meyer (1997) studies have revealed the expected correlations between affective and normative commitment, suggesting that feelings of affective attachment and sense of obligation to an organisation are not independent of one another. This correlation is supported by Allen, Meyer and Smith (1993) when stating that affective and normative commitments have to be higher and good correlation with one another than continuance. This is then in accordance with the results of the present study were both affective and normative commitment were higher when compared to continuance commitment.

The empirical findings particularly from table 6, indicated clearly that job insecurity correlates with other constructs (Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment). This clearly demonstrates what is expected that when people experience high level of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and commitment their level of job insecurity will be low. Job insecurity is conceptualised as the worry a person feels about the future of her or his employment situation. Job insecurity does not only refer to the amount of uncertainty an employee feels about his or her job continuity, but also about the permanence of certain dimension of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities (De Witte, 1999). Job insecurity for this study was reported to be 2,24. The highest sub-dimension rated is affective dimension 2,26.

Practical significant correlations were found between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, and also between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment. The relationship was found to be of large effect 0,80 between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. This finding is supported by both Hialele (2003) who reported 0,71 and Buckle (2003) also reported 0,73 on his study in chemical organisation in South Africa. A correlation with large effect was also reported between sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Multi regression analysis

indicated that sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment predicted approximately 51% of the variance of job satisfaction.

The relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment was found to be of medium effect 0,42 in this study.

A correlation with large effect and medium was also reported between some sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment and sub-dimensions of organisational commitment. A correlation with medium effect was found between competence and self-determination dimensions of psychological empowerment and affective and normative dimensions of organisational commitment. Impact dimension was found to have a large correlation effect with both affective and normative dimensions of organisational commitment. Continuance dimension of organisational commitment was found to have no correlation significant with any sub-dimension of organisational commitment. Multi regression analysis indicated that sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment predicted approximately 25% of the variance of organisational commitment.

There was a practical correlation reported between job insecurity and other three constructs, which are psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Multi-regression-analysis also support this statement.

The findings from this chapter clearly indicates that there is a relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job satisfaction therefore the basic hypothesis of this study which state that there is no relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity, is thus rejected.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher interpreted data she collected from the sample population. This data was interpreted using different formulae and graphs. Distribution analysis, correlation analysis, descriptive analysis, factor analysis, Pearson multi-regression analysis were determined. Distribution analysis indicated that the sample population used was balanced except that it slightly consisted of male employees than female employees. The descriptive analysis indicated that the employees at this company are empowered, experience job satisfaction and therefore are more committed. In this chapter the research hypotheses were also answered. The next and the final chapter of this study which focuses on conclusions, limitations and recommendations will be discussed next.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECCOMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, synopsis of the study will be presented. The limitations pertaining to this study as well as the recommendations to assist the organisation towards empowering environment will be provided.

6.1 SYNOPSIS

The conclusions of the study will be presented from both the literature and empirical objectives.

Chapter one covered the exposition of the problem statement and outlined the research objectives and research methods to be used in the study.

Chapter two focused on the conceptualisation of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction constructs from literature.

- ❖ **Psychological empowerment** was conceptualised as increased intrinsic motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. These four cognitions reflect a mind-set that employees have about their role in the organisation. It was concluded that these four subdimensions of psychological empowerment contribute to the total degree of felt empowerment.

- ❖ **Job satisfaction** was conceptualised as an internal, conscious interpretation of real outcomes provided by the job against the ideal

outcomes. What this statement actually means is that the ideal outcomes is used as a criteria within which the real outcome will be measured against. After the result of the measurement, an individual would identify whether his or her job satisfy his needs or not. If not the real outcome exceed or equal to the ideal outcome, the individual would be satisfied with his job, however if it is below the ideal outcome an individual would feel dissatisfied. Perceptions of job satisfaction are contingent on, or are influenced by work environment characteristics and dispositional characteristics of the individual employee. Accordingly, job satisfaction is influenced by the extend to which there is a correspondence between the situational characteristics of the work environment and the dispositional characteristics of individual employee.

Chapter three focused on the conceptualisation of organisational commitment and job insecurity and also the previous studies done on all dour construct of this study.

- ❖ **Organisational commitment** is conceptualisd in the literature as the extent to which an individual identifies and is involved with his or her organisation and is unwilling to leave it according to literature study in the stated chapter, organisational commitment consist of three dimensions namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to emotional attachment and identification with the organisation. Continuance commitment refers to the calculative attachment based on the costs involved, such as pension and security. Normative commitment refers to employee's feelings of obligation to stay with the organisation. Such feelings result from a process of internalisation of normative pressures either prior or following affiliation to an organisation.

- ❖ Job insecurity relates to people in their work context who fear they may lose their jobs and become unemployed. The concept job insecurity does not only refer to the amount of uncertainty an employee feels about his or her job continuity, but also about the permanence of certain dimension of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities.

Chapter four covered the empirical methods followed in this study. The basic and specific hypotheses pertaining to the study were listed. Also covered in this chapter was the statistical analysis to be used in the interpretation of results. Biographical information of the respondents was presented.

In chapter five, tables were used to explain the empirical findings of the study. The following conclusions were drawn:

Instruments (Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and Job Insecurity Survey Questionnaire) used to measure the constructs were found to be reliable and the items were reported to have internal consistency.

Employees at this Packaging organisation were reported to experience a high level of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. The expectation that a relationship exists between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction was confirmed to be of large effect. A significant relationship was also established between job satisfaction and the four sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment. This further indicates that these two constructs can influence one another: as one construct increases there is a tendency that the other might also increase.

A relationship exists between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment. This relationship was confirmed to be of medium effect. A significant relationship was also established between organisational commitment

and the four sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment. This further indicates that these two constructs can influence one another and that psychological empowerment does predict organisational commitment.

There was practical significant correlation relationship found between job insecurity and the other three constructs.

Regression analysis has confirmed that the sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) to be good predictors of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity.

6.2 RECCOMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

According to primary results, there is a high level of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction experienced by employees in this organisation. There is also a correlation of large effect reported between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Significant correlations were reported between job satisfaction and sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment. Although these are good findings, the company can benefit by upholding these standards and keep on making some improvement on these good results.

It is important for management at this organisation to note that psychological empowerment is not a set of management practices, but rather mind set of individuals therefore they should ensure that their organisation consist of competent employees who are willing to connected to it and also to act on behalf of it.

The recommendation is that Job satisfaction is an important contributing factor to an organisation, therefore it is important for managers to understand factors that contribute to an employees' job satisfaction.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Literature on psychological empowerment in the manufacturing organisations with specific reference to the packaging industry is limited.

The long version of job satisfaction was not used. This means that aspects such as salary, achievement, recognition, and feedback were not measured. The short version concentrated on whether engineers are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs in general without focusing on employees' specific feelings about certain specific aspects such as rewards, working environment etc.

Job insecurity construct in this study has focused on attitudinal behavioural and mental health outcomes, ignoring the potential impact it has on safety (which is one of the important aspect in organisation that can influence job satisfaction and organisational commitment).

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of this study highlighted the following recommendations for the future research:

- ❖ This was conducted from different divisions of one packaging organisation, more studies on psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity within the manufacturing environment with specific reference to the packaging industry should be undertaken to determine whether the same result will be obtained.
- ❖ Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity should be researched in relation to other outcomes such

as productivity, performance, leadership behaviour and retention with the purpose of increasing awareness on how they could have an impact on individual and organisational outcomes.

- ❖ A bigger sample could be used to determine whether the same results can be obtained.
- ❖ The long version of Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire should be used in future studies. It has the advantage that it can point out exactly which constructs the employees are satisfied or dissatisfied with.
- ❖ Future job insecurity researches should also include aspect such as safety with the aim of determining the impact that safety will have on other construct such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Conclusions pertaining this study were drawn from both the literature and empirical objectives. Limitations pertaining to this study were also highlighted. Recommendations were made for the organisation involved in this study, as well as for future research. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity in divisions of packaging organisation. Furthermore, the purpose was also to determine if Psychological empowerment can predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity and also to determine the levels of Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity experienced in this organisation.

The findings from the research indicate that there is relationship between Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job

insecurity. The findings also indicates the levels of Psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity, and also clearly shows that psychological empowerment does predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job insecurity. Thus the research objectives set in chapter one have been achieved, concluding the purpose of this study.

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