

**INFLUENCE OF JOB-RELATED VARIABLES ON THE
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
WELLBEING OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-
EKITI, EKITI STATE.**

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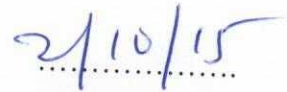


CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this thesis was carried out by ADEOYE TAIWO OLUWAFUNMILAYO (PSY/1/0198) and supervised by PROF.BENJAMIN OMOLAYO of the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Federal University, Oye Ekiti.



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DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to God Almighty for his love and mercy for seeing me through and through his infinite mercy has counted me worthy to be part of this course and making me to see the completion of this project.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My profound gratitude goes to Almighty God, the owner of the universe, the alpha and the omega for giving me the privilege to start and finish this project.

I want to also appreciate my parent Mr. and Mrs. ADEOYE for their undiluted and indisputable love and support for the success of this work .I appreciate the support of my siblings (Adeoye oluwadamilola a.k.a Suzzy, Adeoye kehinde a.k.a my motivator and Adeoye ifeoluwa) and a very close person to my heart(Ojo adebisi) . I LOVE YOU ALL.

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Adeoye Taiwo Oluwafunmilayo

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ABSTRACT

Job-related variables and organizational commitment have been widely conceptualized in the research area of psychology and operational perspectives in the field of academic and practical management. The present study investigated the influence of job-related variables and organizational environment on levels of organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing of academic staff in Federal university oye Ekiti. The study employed ex-post facto research design. Total number of (134) academic staffs were sampled. Structured questionnaire consisting of socio-demographic information, organizational commitment scale, job insecurity scale, psychological wellbeing scale and work motivation scale were administered to the participants of the study. Six (6) hypotheses were stated and they were tested using t-test for independent samples.

The result from Table 4.1 shows that Job insecurity has no significant influence on organizational commitment ($t(132) = -0.11; p > .05$). The result from Table 4.2 shows that Job insecurity has a significant influence on psychological wellbeing ($t(132) = -2.77; p < .05$). The result from Table 4.3 shows that work motivation has no significant influence on organizational commitment ($t(132) = -0.58; p > .05$). The result from Table 4.4 shows that work motivation has no significant influence on psychological wellbeing ($t(132) = 1.59; p > .05$). The result from Table 4.5 shows that organizational environment has a significant influence on organizational commitment ($t(132) = 1.92; p < .05$). The result from Table 4.6 shows that organizational environment has no significant influence on psychological wellbeing ($t(132) = -1.11; p > .05$). Based on the findings, it is concluded that job related variables are crucial in determining the level of organization commitment and commitment of academic staff. That job insecurity and organizational environment have significant influence on commitment and wellbeing.

Key words: Job-related variables, Organizational commitment, psychological wellbeing,
Federal University Oye Ekiti.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

There has been an immense contribution of universities to economic, political and social development of a nation and that is why every government is striving and making efforts to budget a huge amount to that sector. In Nigeria, the university system is faced with a lot of problems that may not allow the system to make the best amount of contribution to economic, political and social development of the nation. Among the numerous problems confronting university in Nigeria is the lack of commitment which has led to poor job performance of some academic staff.

Currently, stakeholders in the education sector complained about the job performance of academic staff in the Nigerian universities. It has been expressed publicly that academic staff no longer show commitment and dedication to the job. It appears the academic staff who are trained and expected to produce a host of cherished societal virtues such as honesty, humility, fairness, integrity, punctuality, dedication and patriotism are not dedicated and committed to the job. And there are certain factors that stand as job-related variables that are not forthcoming which is causing non commitment of universities academic staff and generally considering the organisational environment of academic staff of universities which might not be palatable and favourable for them to give out their best, which might generally have an effect on their wellbeing. In organizational behaviour and industrial and organizational psychology, organizational commitment is the individual's psychological attachment to the organization. The basis behind many of these studies was to find ways to improve how workers feel about their jobs so that these workers would become more committed to their organizations. Organizational commitment predicts work variables such as turnover,

organizational citizenship behaviour, and job performance. Some of the factors such as role stress, empowerment, job insecurity and employability, and distribution of leadership have been shown to be connected to a worker's sense of organizational commitment.

Meyer and Allen's (2007) three-component model of commitment was created to argue that commitment has three different components that correspond with different psychological states. Meyer and Allen created this model for two reasons: first "aid in the interpretation of existing research" and second "to serve as a framework for future research. Their study was based mainly around previous studies of organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen's research indicated that there are three "mind sets" which can characterize an employee's commitment to the organization:

(a) Affective commitment (AC) is the emotional attachment to one's organization.

(b) Continuance commitment (CC) is the attachment based on the accumulation of valued side bets (pension, skill transferability, relocation, and self-investment) that co-vary with organizational membership.

(c) Normative commitment (NC) is the attachment that is based on motivation to conform to social norms regarding attachment.

According to Hall et al. (1970) "The process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent" is commitment. Salancik (1977) said commitment is that "a state of being in which an individual become bound by his action and through these action to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement". Mowday et.al in (1979) defined commitment in such a way "... The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization". Scholl (1981) described "...a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function." Allen & Meyer (1990) claim

that commitment is "... a psychological state that bind the individual to the organization". According to the Meyer & Allen (1997) commitment "is a psychological state that characterizes the employees relationship with the organization and has implication for the decision to continue membership in the organization."

Wellbeing of employees

Well-being plays a central role in creating flourishing societies. Focusing on well-being at work presents a valuable opportunity to benefit societies by helping working individuals to feel happy, competent, and satisfied in their roles. The evidence also shows that people who achieve good standards of well-being at work are likely to be more creative, more loyal, more productive, and provide better customer satisfaction than individuals with poor standards of well-being at work.

For decades, organisations have tried to foster these qualities through employee engagement strategies; however, the evidence in this report demonstrates that engaging employees is just one part of the story. Improving well-being at work implies a more rounded approach, which focuses on helping employees to strengthen their personal resources flourish and take pride in their roles within the organisational system function to the best of their abilities, both as individuals and in collaboration with their colleagues have a positive overall experience of work. Through a rapid review of the academic literature in this field, NEF's Centre for Well-being has summarised the strongest evidence regarding the factors that influence well-being at work, along with possible implications for employers, and examples of how some of the organisations leading the way in terms of fostering well-being at work are addressing these implications. During the research carried out for this report, the evidence has shown that different features of individuals' working lives have varying degrees of influence over different aspects of well-being – from increasing individuals' feelings of having a sense of

purpose, to promoting greater experiences of positive emotions, morale, motivation, overall job satisfaction, and even life satisfaction.

Employees' satisfaction has remained a remarkable area of discussion in the field of management, psychology and especially in organizational behaviour and human resource management. It is extremely necessary for the management to look into the welfare and well-being of their employees such as looking into the monetary and non-monetary rewards.

Organizational rewards system and employees' satisfaction is seen as an interrelated component in an organization. Organizational rewards are known to help an organization boost the employees' motivation thus leading to employees' satisfaction. Danish and Usman (2010) stated that rewards system serve as the most contingent factor in keeping employees' self-esteem high and passionate. Consequently, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) said happy employees can create happy customers. Thus, an organization must seriously look at the contribution of rewards itself in order to control the level of employee satisfaction in maintaining the performance. The implication of rewards towards employees' satisfaction has been defined in many organizations. For instance, as founded by Ali and Ahmed (2009) in a survey at UNILEVER companies, reward has positive relationship to employee's motivation and satisfaction. Fringe benefits such as work life balance, bonus, and healthcare are normally used to provide to the employees in order to reward them. These benefits play a very important role in encouraging employees to work harder and contribute to the organizational objectives. The implementation of incentives system is also seen as the effort done by the organization to satisfy the employees. It is equally as important as promotion in which employee need to be promoted to a higher position. Salary is given to employees in exchange for work performed; usually include a range of values, and focuses on the position and duties performed rather than an individual contribution (Milcovich and Newman, 2002). Rewards in term of salary would absolutely influence the employees' satisfaction or

dissatisfaction. In a study on employees job satisfaction in telecommunication companies located in Pakistan found that employees' motivation and satisfaction have significant impact to promotion. Rao (2005) stated that satisfaction at the work place is achievable when a person is motivated to work. Thus, keeping employees motivated serves as a pre-condition for employees to remain loyal to the organization. As found from the Telekom Malaysia (TM) Berhad official website (2011), the organization has demonstrated increasing employee satisfaction, from 7.7% in 2007 to 8.6% in 2008, and this is due to the interest of its corporate responsibility to the employees.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Job variables (motivation, salaries, job insecurity) and job commitment has become the backbone of organizational victory and success. It has become the fundamental part that defines the characteristics of organizational success.

Several and numerous researchers have been made on the relationship between motivation and commitment, as well as a wide range of variables to support organizational success. These studies on workers job satisfaction have broadly been extended to both developing and developed nations of the world and which cut across different profession. Studies have been carried out on various areas of and job related variables and as it relates to commitment and wellbeing of employees. This study therefore aims at how job related variables have an impact on organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing of staff in a university. As it could be inferred from above that not much research has been conducted on the relationship between all of these constructs. In this aspect, this study aimed to contribute to the existing knowledge particularly in the sphere of organizational behaviour. A thorough understanding of 'how' and 'why' motivation, job insecurity, salaries and organizational environment is imperative to attain high performance from the employees will enable

employers in the educational sectors to adopt, adapt and integrate strategic changes towards employee's commitment and help improve their wellbeing.

Basically, the following research objectives were developed to guide the study.

Research questions

- (i) Will high level of job insecurity have any influence on the psychological wellbeing of academic staffs in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (ii) Will work motivation influence the organizational commitment of academic staffs in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (iii) Will organisational environment have any impact on the psychological wellbeing of academic staffs in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (iv) Will work motivation have any influence on the psychological wellbeing of academic staffs in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (v) Will salaries have any influence on the commitment of academic staffs in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (vi) Will organisational environment have any impact on the organizational commitment of academic staffs in federal university Oye Ekiti?

1.3 Objectives of the study

The main aims and objectives of this study was to:

- (a) Examine the influence of the high level of job insecurity of academic staff have any influence on their psychological wellbeing in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (b) Ascertain the work motivation influence the organizational commitment of academic staff in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (c) Examine the impact of organisational environment on the psychological wellbeing of academic staffs in Federal university Oye Ekiti?

- (d) Ascertain the influence of salaries on the organizational commitment of academic staff in Federal University of Oye Ekiti?
- (e) Examine the impact of job insecurity on the organizational commitment of academic staff in Federal University Oye Ekiti?
- (f) Ascertain the influence of work motivation on the psychological wellbeing of academic staff in Federal University Oye Ekiti?

1.4 Significance of the study

Generally, the study aims at developing and improving the already established data and adding to the developing body of knowledge on issues relating to relationship between job designs and welfares of employees. Findings from this study are expected to give dynamic insight into the extent to which different job variables with a suitable and conducive organisational environment can influence commitment and wellbeing of university academic staff as a whole.

The outcome should serve as empirical basis that can provide unique insights for governments, business leaders and academic workers/staff themselves to become acquainted with how different job variables and organisation environment can influence academic staff in universities as it boils down to the level of commitment and how it affects their wellbeing. Meeting job-related variables such as (salaries, job insecurity, motivation and organizational environment) is one of the newest personnel challenges in modern organization. This study hopes to provide a comprehensive document that would discuss job-related variables in Nigeria and its impact on commitment and wellbeing of academic staff. The research work is of a great importance to the employers and employees.

1.5 Scope of the study

This study will be carried out among staff at Federal University Oye Ekiti. The choice of staff of Federal University Oye Ekiti was due to the fact that it comprises of staff that has little or no commitment to their work because of job-related variables that are not in place which could affect their wellbeing negatively. Federal University Oye Ekiti was specifically chosen because it is a new institution with newly employed individuals. Furthermore, the composition is assumed to aid and enhance generalization of findings to universities staff to other part of the country. The scope of this study covers only a large spectrum of government academic institutions called Federal University Oye Ekiti.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theories that will be considered are: two-factor theory, humanistic theory and vroom's expectancy theory, theory X&Y, equity theory, theory of work adjustment. Considering the various theories above, we can infer that employees or staff of a particular organization have their aims, goals and expectations and these are attained through the jobs they do. Therefore employees are prepared to give out their best and put in their efforts only when their goals are attained.

2.1.1 Two factor theory: The studies included interviews in which employees were asked what pleased and displeased them about their work. Herzberg found that the factors causing job satisfaction (and presumably motivation) were different from those causing job dissatisfaction. (Wirralmmet 2007). He developed the motivation-hygiene theory to explain these results. He called the satisfiers motivators and the dissatisfiers hygiene factors, using the term "hygiene" in the sense that they are considered maintenance factors that are necessary to avoid dissatisfaction but that by themselves do not provide satisfaction. As regards to this study, the theory posits that an employee can experience satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job, depending on which needs are met otherwise there would be little or no commitment to their job. Considering the variables of interest which is commitment and wellbeing if employees are not satisfied there won't be optimum level of commitment and it will tell on their psychological wellbeing.

2.1.2 Humanist theories: Abraham Maslow believes that development of human potential, dignity and worth are ultimate concerns. Hierarchy of needs are categorized into five basic needs namely physiological needs, social needs, security needs, esteem needs and self actualization needs. According to him if people grew in an environment in which their needs are not met, they will be unlikely to function as healthy individuals or well-adjusted individuals. This idea was later applied to organizations to emphasize the idea that unless employees get their needs met on the job, they will not function as effectively as possible. Commitment of employees is based on whether their needs are met or not. If their physiological needs, social needs, esteem needs, security needs are not met employees are liable to show little or no commitment to their job. As regards to this study, the theory explains how workers or employees want to meet their needs, from the lower order needs to higher order needs because if they are not met systematically there won't be maximum commitment to their job which will also affect their wellbeing as a whole.

Maslow's hierarchy of need categories is the most famous example:

• self-actualization
• Esteem
• Belongingness
• Safety
• Physiological

Specific examples of these types are given below, in both the work and home context.
 (Some of the instances, like "education" are actually satisfiers of the need.)

Need	Home	Job
Self-actualization	education, religion, hobbies, personal growth	training, advancement, growth, creativity
Esteem	approval of family, friends, community	recognition, high status, responsibilities
Belongingness	family, friends, clubs	teams, depts., co-workers, clients, supervisors, subordinates
Safety	freedom from war, poison, violence	work safety, job security, health insurance
physiological	food water sex	Heat, air, base salary

According to Maslow, lower needs take priority. They must be fulfilled before the others are activated. There is some basic common sense here -- it's pointless to worry about whether a given colour looks good on you when you are dying of starvation, or being threatened with your life. There are some basic things that take precedence over all else.

Or at least logically should, if people were rational. But is that a safe assumption? According to the theory, if you are hungry and have inadequate shelter, you won't go to church. Can't do the higher things until you have the lower things. But the poor tend to be more religious than the rich. Both within a given culture, and across nations. So the theory makes the wrong prediction here.

Or take education: how often do you hear "I can't go to class today, I haven't had sex in three days!"? Do all physiological needs including sex have to be satisfied before "higher" needs? (Besides, wouldn't the authors of the Kama Sutra argue that sex was a kind of self-expression more like art than a physiological need? that would put it in the self-actualization box). Again, the theory doesn't seem to predict correctly.

Cultural critique: Does Maslow's classification really reflect the order in which needs are satisfied, or is it more about classifying needs from a kind of "tastefulness" perspective, with lofty goals like personal growth and creativity at the top, and "base" instincts like sex and hunger at the bottom? And is self-actualization actually a fundamental need? Or just something that can be done if you have the leisure time?

2.1.3 Alderfer's ERG theory

- (i) Alderfer classifies needs into three categories, also ordered hierarchically:
- (ii) Growth needs (development of competence and realization of potential)
- (iii) Relatedness needs (satisfactory relations with others)
- (iv) Existence needs (physical well-being)

This is very similar to Maslow -- can be seen as just collapsing into three tiers. But maybe a bit more rational. For example, in Alderfer's model, sex does not need to be in the bottom category as it is in Maslow's model, since it is not crucial to (the individual's) existence. (Remember, this about individual motivation, not species' survival.) So by moving sex, this theory does not predict that people have to have sex before they can think about going to school, like Maslow's theory does.

- (i) Alderfer believed that as you start satisfying higher needs, they become more intense (e.g., the power you get the more you want power), like an addiction.
- (ii) Do any of these theories have anything useful to say for managing businesses? Well, if true, they suggest that not everyone is motivated by the same things. It depends where you are in the hierarchy (think of it as a kind of personal development scale)
- (ii) The needs hierarchy probably mirrors the organizational hierarchy to a certain extent: top managers are more likely to motivate by self-actualization/growth needs than existence needs. (but try telling Bill Clinton that top executives are not motivated by sex and cheeseburgers...)

Acquired Needs Theory (McClelland)

- (i) Some needs are acquired as a result of life experiences
- (ii) Need for achievement, accomplish something difficult as kids encouraged to do things for themselves.
- (iii) Need for affiliation, form close personal relationships as kids rewarded for making friends.
- (iv) Need for power, control others kids, able to get what they want through controlling others.

- These needs can be measured using the TAT (Thematic Apperception Test), which is a projection-style test based on interpreting stories that people tell about a set of pictures.
- *Cognitive Evaluation Theory*
- This theory suggests that there are actually two motivation systems: intrinsic and extrinsic that correspond to two kinds of motivators:
 - Intrinsic motivators: Achievement, responsibility and competence. motivators that come from the actual performance of the task or job -- the intrinsic interest of the work.
 - Extrinsic: pay, promotion, feedback, working conditions -- things that come from a person's environment, controlled by others.
 - One or the other of these may be a more powerful motivator for a given individual.
 - Intrinsically motivated individuals perform for their own achievement and satisfaction. If they come to believe that they are doing some job because of the pay or the working conditions or some other extrinsic reason, they begin to lose motivation.
 - The belief is that the presence of powerful extrinsic motivators can actually reduce a person's intrinsic motivation, particularly if the extrinsic motivators are perceived by the person to be controlled by people. In other words, a boss who is always dangling this reward or that stick will turn off the intrinsically motivated people.
- Note that the intrinsic motivators tend to be higher on the Maslow hierarchy.

2.1.4 Equity Theory

Suppose employee A gets a 20% raise and employee B gets a 10% raise. Will both be motivated as a result? Will A be twice as motivated? Will be B be negatively motivated?

Equity theory says that it is not the actual reward that motivates, but the perception, and the perception is based not on the reward in isolation, but in comparison with the efforts that went into getting it, and the rewards and efforts of others. If everyone got a 5% raise, B is likely to feel quite pleased with her raise, even if she worked harder than everyone else. But if A got an even higher raise, B perceives that she worked just as hard as A, she will be unhappy.

In other words, people's motivation results from a ratio of ratios: a person compares the ratio of reward to effort with the comparable ratio of reward to effort that they think others are getting.

Of course, in terms of actually predicting how a person will react to a given motivator, this will get pretty complicated:

1. People do not have complete information about how others are rewarded. So they are going on perceptions, rumours, and inferences.
2. Some people are more sensitive to equity issues than others.
3. Some people are willing to ignore short-term inequities as long as they expect things to work out in the long-term.

2.1.5 Reinforcement Theory

Operant Conditioning is the term used by B.F. Skinner to describe the effects of the consequences of a particular behaviour on the future occurrence of that behaviour. There are

four types of Operant Conditioning: Positive Reinforcement, Negative Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction. Both Positive and Negative Reinforcement strengthen behaviour while both Punishment and Extinction weaken behaviour.

- (i) Positive reinforcement. Strengthening behaviour. This is the process of getting goodies as a consequence of behaviour. You make a sale, you get a commission. You do a good job; you get a bonus & a promotion.
- (ii) Negative reinforcement. Strengthening behaviour. This is the process of having a stressor taken away as a consequence of behaviour. Long-term sanctions are removed from countries when their human rights records improve. (You see how successful that is!). Low status as geek at Salomon Brothers is removed when you make first big sale.
- (iii) Extinction. Weakening a behaviour. This is the process of getting no goodies when do a behaviour. So if person does extra effort, but gets no thanks for it, they stop doing it.
- (iv) Punishment. Weakening behaviour. This is the process of getting a punishment as a consequence of behaviour. Example: having your pay docked for lateness.

Reinforcement theory also backs up this study in a way that if the job-related variables are not in congruence with the employees they will not be reinforced to give out their best because one good turn deserves another. Critically looking at one of the job-related variables which is salary, if academic staff are not paid their salaries they would not exert enough effort to the job, the level of their commitment decreases which in turns affect their psychological wellbeing.

2.1.6 Expectancy Theory (Vroom)

Expectancy theory originated in the 1930's, but at that time it was not related to work motivation. Vroom (1984) brought expectancy theory into the arena of motivation research and it looks at the role of motivation in the overall work environment. It is a cognitive psychological theory. Each person is assumed to be a rational decision maker who will expend effort on activities that leads to desired rewards.

According to Vroom (1962) some job-related variables (motivation, salaries and job insecurity and organisational environment) must be given serious consideration because if any of this is not in place it will affect an employee's commitment to work and possibly affect the individual's wellbeing. This theory is meant to bring together many of the elements of previous theories. It combines the perceptual aspects of equity theory with the behavioural aspects of the other theories. Basically, it comes down to this "equation":

$$M = E * I * V$$

Or

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{expectancy} * \text{instrumentality} * \text{valence}$$

M (motivation) is the amount a person will be motivated by the situation they find themselves in. It is a function of the following.

E (expectancy) = The person's perception that effort will result in performance. In other words, the person's assessment of the degree to which effort actually correlates with performance.

I (instrumentality) = The person's perception that performance will be rewarded/punished. I.e., the person's assessment of how well the amount of reward correlates with the quality of

performance. (Note here that the model is phrased in terms of extrinsic motivation, in that it asks 'what are the chances I'm going to get rewarded if I do good job?'. But for intrinsic situations, we can think of this as asking 'how good will I feel if I can pull this off?').

V (valence) = The perceived strength of the reward or punishment that will result from the performance. If the reward is small, the motivation will be small, even if expectancy and instrumentality are both perfect (high). Whereas Maslow and Herzberg look at the relationship between internal needs and the resulting effort expended to fulfil them, Vroom's expectancy theory separates effort (which arises from motivation), performance, and outcomes.

Vroom's expectancy theory assumes that behaviour results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities.

This theory relates to this study in a way that if job-related variables outlined are coupled together with the organizational environment it will facilitate and enhance the commitment and wellbeing of academic staff. Explaining further one of the variables of vroom is expectancy which goes in line with the motivation whereby employees who put in their efforts believe that there should be compensation in one way or the other.

2.1.7 Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor in his book, "The Human Side of Enterprise" published in 1960 has examined theories on behaviour of individuals at work, and he has formulated two models which he calls Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X Assumptions

The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

- Because of their dislike for work, most people must be controlled and threatened before they will work hard enough.
- The average human prefers to be directed, dislikes responsibility, is unambiguous, and desires security above everything.
- These assumptions lie behind most organizational principles today, and give rise both to "tough" management with punishments and tight controls, and "soft" management which aims at harmony at work.
- Both these are "wrong" because man needs more than financial rewards at work, he also needs some deeper higher order motivation - the opportunity to fulfil himself.
- Theory X managers do not give their staff this opportunity so that the employees behave in the expected fashion.

Theory Y Assumptions

- The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
- Control and punishment are not the only ways to make people work, man will direct himself if he is committed to the aims of the organization.
- If a job is satisfying, then the result will be commitment to the organization.
- The average man learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- Imagination, creativity, and ingenuity can be used to solve work problems by a large number of employees.

- Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average man are only partially utilized.

Comments on Theory X and Theory Y Assumptions

These assumptions are based on social science research which has been carried out, and demonstrate the potential which is present in man and which organizations should recognize in order to become more effective.

McGregor sees these two theories as two quite separate attitudes. Theory Y is difficult to put into practice on the shop floor in large mass production operations, but it can be used initially in the managing of managers and professionals.

In "The Human Side of Enterprise" McGregor shows how Theory Y affects the management of promotions and salaries and the development of effective managers. McGregor also sees Theory Y as conducive to participative problem solving.

It is part of the manager's job to exercise authority, and there are cases in which this is the only method of achieving the desired results because subordinates do not agree that the ends are desirable.

However, in situations where it is possible to obtain commitment to objectives, it is better to explain the matter fully so that employees grasp the purpose of an action. They will then exert self-direction and control to do better work - quite possibly by better methods - than if they had simply been carrying out an order which they did not fully understand.

The situation in which employees can be consulted is one where the individuals are emotionally mature, and positively motivated towards their work; where the work is sufficiently responsible to allow for flexibility and where the employee can see her or his

own position in the management hierarchy. If these conditions are present, managers will find that the participative approach to problem solving leads to much improved results compared with the alternative approach of handing out authoritarian orders.

Once management becomes persuaded that it is under estimating the potential of its human resources, and accepts the knowledge given by social science researchers and displayed in Theory Y assumptions, then it can invest time, money and effort in developing improved applications of the theory.

McGregor realizes that some of the theories he has put forward are unrealizable in practice, but wants managers to put into operation the basic assumption that:

- Staff will contribute more to the organization if they are treated as responsible and valued employees.

2.1.8 THEORY OF WORK ADJUSTMENT

The study was based on the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dais, & Lofquist, 1991). This theory suggests that work environment and employees interact to meet each other's requirements and this interaction is called environment-personality correspondence. The interaction (environment-personality correspondence) should be maintained if a long lasting employment relationship between the employer and the employee is to be achieved. Employees are more satisfied by jobs that meet their needs and they can retain such jobs longer when they are satisfied and are performing well (Roessler, 2002).

This study used Dawis and Lofquist's (1991) Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) as a way of conceptualizing intentions for lecturers to stay in their teaching jobs in Makerere University. According to TWA, individuals strive to achieve optimal balance between their personality characteristics and the environment's characteristics. In other words, individuals seek to match their personality (their abilities and needs) with the ability requirements and reinforces of the work environment and that is why this theory is at times called Person-Environment Correspondence Theory and it conceptualizes the interaction between individuals and their work environments. According to the Theory of Work Adjustment, work environments require certain tasks to be performed while an employee should bring skills to perform those tasks. In exchange, the individual requires compensation for work performance and certain preferred conditions, such as a safe and comfortable place of work. The environment and the individual must continue to meet each other's requirements for that interaction (employment relationship) to be maintained.

Through the process of correspondence, individuals gain more satisfaction in their work places and become satisfactory workers. This combination of satisfaction and satisfactoriness leads to what is called correspondence (Dawis & Lofquist, 1991).

The Theory of Work Adjustment is an alternative to Vroom's Expectancy Theory of motivation which the researcher felt could not suffice because of its emphasis on individuals' choice of a particular set of actions or behaviours believed to deliver the desired outcomes (Paper Masters, 2009) while disregarding effects of the interaction between the work environment and the employee. To study job retention one should regard it as an adaptation to on-the-job barriers and challenges (Roessler, 2002). Some have used the terms career adaptability (Cochran, 1990; Goodman, 1994) or career adaptation (Power & Hershenson, 2001) to describe this capacity. Roessler (2002) said that intentions to retain a job is a

function of three constructs that is to say, match, maturity, and mastery. The match construct determines career adaptability and is related to proper fit between a person and a job, as described in the Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis, 1964). The maturity construct relates to meeting the developmental or expectable challenges that unfold with time on the job. The mastery concept pertains to the day-to-day problems that occur in the workplace that thwart one's career motives and threaten job retention (Roessler, 2002).

Theory of Work Adjustment postulates that employees are satisfied by jobs that meet their needs leading to better performance. The more they are satisfied the better they perform and the higher the intentions of retaining the job (Roessler, 2002). In other words, lecturers with particular characteristics are best suited for academic jobs that have work demands that correspond with their individual characteristics and lack of correspondence results into job quits. Lecturers depend on the university work environment to reinforce their needs while the university depends on individual lecturer to meet the demands or requirements of the job.

The greater the correspondence between the lecturer and the university work, the greater the job satisfaction, performance, and job retention. Lack of correspondence, on the other hand, results in two outcomes that threaten intentions to stay (job retention): Employees who cannot meet critical job demands are considered unsatisfactory by their employers who ultimately terminates them; or if employees are not participating in preferred activities or receiving desired reinforcers on the job, they become dissatisfied with their work and ultimately they will voluntarily leave the workplace.

Without correspondence, (good job-person match) lecturers cannot retain their jobs. Job-person match is therefore a necessary element of career adaptability and job retention.

Job quits (a primary symptom for low job retention) is a natural response to personal and social expectations related to job satisfaction, high earnings, job security and any other job expectations. Attainment of job satisfaction, high pay or any other benefit for many lecturers may contribute or satisfy internal achievement and self actualization. Achievement of such values can manifest, in part, in an individual's commitment to their jobs (Dawis & Lofquist, 1991) and intentions to stay. According to TWA, humans strive for correspondence between their work personalities and work environments (Dawis & Lofquist, 1991). The work personality is made up of structures (the worker's abilities and values) and style (the worker's way of integrating abilities and values into the work place environment). Correspondence between the work personality and the work environment is achieved by mutual satisfaction of the individual's requirements of the individual. Most problems faced by employees result from poor person-work environment match (Dawis & Lofquist, 1991).

2.1.9 McClelland theory of motivation

Motivation research has long considered human motives and needs. However, isolating people's motivational needs can be a difficult process because most people are not explicitly aware of what their motives are.

In attempting to understand employee motivation, Abraham Maslow proposed a hierarchy of needs. David McClelland furthered this idea in his learned needs theory. McClelland's experimental work identified sets of motivators present to varying degrees in different people. He proposed that these needs were socially acquired or learned. That is, the extent to which these motivators are present varies from person to person, and depends on the individual and his or her background

McClelland's experiment -- the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) -- consisted of showing individuals a series of pictures and asking them to give brief descriptions of what was happening in the pictures. The responses were analyzed in terms of the presence or absence of certain themes. The themes McClelland and his associates were looking for revolved around the following motivators: achievement, affiliation and power.

According to David McClelland, regardless of culture or gender, people are driven by three motives:

- achievement,
- affiliation, and
- Influence.

2.2 REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES/LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on motivation has attracted academic and corporate entities over the last two decades. In recent study, authors have reviewed the intense literature to generate all possible aspects of motivation, having direct and indirect impact on motivation techniques. The ingredients of motivation lie within all and the internalized drive toward the dominant thought of the moment (Rabby 2001). Motivation directly links to individual performance that gain to organization performance and as a catalyzer form all individual employees working for an organization to enhance their working performance or to complete task in much better way than they usually do. Organization runs because of people working for it, and each person contributes toward achieving the ultimate goal of an organization. Panagiotakopoulos (2013) concluded that factors affecting staff motivation at a period where the financial rewards are kept to the least leads to stimulate employee performance. So, management personnel's responsibility to motivate their employees to work as per the expectation to enhance the organization's performance. Similarly Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) concluded that intrinsic motivation was the strongest predictor of turnover intention and relationship between mastery-approach goals and turnover intention was only positive for employees, low in intrinsic motivation. The only thing organization needs to do is to give employees with ample resources and platform to do. As per Kuo (2013) a successful organization must combine the strengths and motivations of internal employees and respond to external changes and demands promptly to show the organization's value. In this paper, we have taken various techniques of motivation from existing literature, and managed to make flow of motivation from young-age employees to old-age employees. From organization perspective managers need to understand the flow of motivation, it helps them to create a culture where employees always get motivated to do better. Barney and Steven Elias (2010) found that with extrinsic motivation there exist a significant interaction between job stress,

flex time, and country of residence. Leaders know that at the heart of every productive and successful business lies a thriving organizational culture and hardworking people collaborate passionately to produce great results (Gignac and Palmer 2011). In the body of literature, various frameworks are used by the researchers based on theory of motivation, with only few dimensions of motivation.

Gredler, Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as “the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something” (p. 106). Intrinsic motivation is motivation that is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure. As Deci et al. (1999) observe, “intrinsic motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions inherent in effective volitional action. It is manifest in behaviours such as play, exploration, and challenge seeking that people often do for external rewards” (p. 658). Researchers often contrast intrinsic motivation with extrinsic motivation, which is motivation governed by reinforcement contingencies. Traditionally, educators consider intrinsic motivation to be more desirable and to result in better learning outcomes than extrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999).

Previous studies on the level of staff motivation and job performance in the profit and non-profit organizations have yielded differing results. A study by Eze (1995) revealed that there is significant difference between the high-order motivators and the lower-order motivators and that being preoccupied with the motivators in one set would inhibit the urge to satisfy the motivators in the other set. The lower-order motivators (e.g. human physiological needs such as needs for food, clean water, clothing, shelter, and sex/marriage) are basic to Nigerian workers and more proponent than the higher order motives (Eze, 1995). Employees of the Kwara State Government, Nigeria were dissatisfied with their physiological needs (e.g. salary) (see: Gunu, 2003). Thus, Karwai (2005) argues that as long the human basic needs (or lower-order motivators) remain the major problem of workers in Nigeria, the quest for money

which is the ultimate means of acquiring goods and service through whatever means (e.g. corruption, fraud, thuggery, militancy, robbery) will remain the order of the day and as such, a serious societal problem. His study revealed low motivation among the staff, and high absenteeism from work, low punctuality to work, indolent to work, and fraudulent behaviour. Furthermore, a significant relationship was established between motivation and employees' punctuality to work, motivation and indolent behaviour, motivation and attitude to work, motivation and fraudulent behaviour, and motivation and absenteeism (Isaac, 2008). Abejirinde (2009) used two motivational indicators, namely growth and promotion, to determine the level of staff motivation in the Nigerian public and private sectors. He established high rate of growth and promotion opportunities for the employees in both private and public organization. He equally established high rate of job performance among the staff. Job insecurity has attracted considerable attention in the literature because of the volatile economic conditions and its implications in terms of organizational attitudes and well-being (Schreurs et al., 2010). In recent years, researchers have shown particular interest in job insecurity perceptions of individuals with non-standard work arrangements including temporary work and fixed-term employment. (De Witte and Näswall 2003; De Cuyper et al., 2009). Despite the progress in empirical research on non-standard work arrangements and job insecurity, there still appear to be inconclusive and inconsistent results (De Cuyper and De Witte, 2005; De Cuyper et al., 2008).

However, Ichino and Riphahn suggest two alternatives as well. One theory is that absenteeism increases over the first months because the worker has to learn what is acceptable in the firm. If work results in disutility, the worker will gradually learn how to work as little as possible. Another explanation is that in earlier months, the workers ability is unobservable and his individual output is the gauge that a supervisor uses to learn about the

workers ability. This would also lead to a pattern of high effort in early months that declines with tenure. Similarly, Engellandt and Riphahn (2004) that workers with temporary contracts provide more effort than permanent employees. One main results is that the probability of a temporary worker working unpaid overtime exceeds that of the permanent worker by 60%. Coupe et al (2006) find that tenure has a negative effect on research productivity due to lessened incentives after achieving this status. Similarly, CEOs that are offered special benefits or win specific awards are noted to underperform (Yermack 2006, Liu and Yermack 2007, Malmendier and Tate 2009). For researchers however, it remains to be seen if a decrease in quantity can be compensated by an increase in quality since once they attain tenure they have more opportunity to pursue risky projects.

Research on the psychological consequences of job insecurity is reviewed, showing that job insecurity reduces psychological well-being and job satisfaction, and increases psychosomatic complaints and physical strains. Next, three additional research questions are addressed, since these questions did not receive much attention in previous research. First, does the impact of job insecurity on workers differ according to their professional position, gender, and age? Second, how important is job insecurity compared to other stressors on the workforce? Third, how important is job insecurity compared to the impact of unemployment? To analyse these issues, data were used from a Belgian plant, part of a European multinational company in the metalworking industry (N = 336). The results of this exploratory study showed that job insecurity was associated with lower well-being (score on the GHQ-12), after controlling for background variables, such as gender and age. A significant interaction with gender occurred, indicating that gender moderated the association between job insecurity and well-being. Job insecurity was not related to psychological well-being among women. Among men, a significant increase in distress was noted among those who felt insecure, but not among the secure. Interaction terms for occupational position and

age were not statistically significant. Job insecurity turned out to be one of the most distressful aspects of the work situation. The GHQ-scores of the insecure respondents were not different from those of a representative sample of short-term unemployed, suggesting both experiences to be equally harmful. The consequences of these findings for future research are discussed.

A small number of studies have investigated whether certain personality dispositions are related to experiences of job insecurity. Given the changes taking place in working life, the construct of job insecurity itself has undergone a change of meaning. During the 1960s and 70s, the construct was often to be found in larger inventories of work climate, and was regarded as a motivator (job security) rather than as a stressor (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). In these studies, self-reported job security was treated as one variable among many which, when taken together, reflected an individual's overall sense of satisfaction in the work situation. One exception to this is Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, and Pinneau (1975) who developed a stress inventory that also contained a multi-item scale for taking job insecurity into account. In the mid-1980s, research in this area began to more systematically focus on job insecurity and along with this came a change in the construct's meaning; it went from being seen as a motivator to being defined as a stressor (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). In connection with this, a more systematic approach to this research began to take shape, regarding, primarily, empirical results and, to a certain degree, theory development (see Sverke et al., 2002, for a review).

Among the first to place job insecurity in a larger theoretical context was Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) who, with their theoretical model, summed up the definitions of job insecurity and elaborated on the potential causes, effects, and organizational consequences of the phenomenon. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt defined job insecurity as a "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (1984, p. 438).

They further maintained that job insecurity is based on the individual's perceptions and interpretations of the immediate work environment. This implies that subjectively experienced threats are derived from objective threats by means of the individual's perceptual and cognitive processes (cf. theories of psychological climate; e.g., James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni, 1978; James & Sells, 1981). With this conception of job insecurity as a theoretical starting point, a number of somewhat similar definitions have been presented in the literature. Job insecurity has, for example, been described as:

(i) "one's expectations about continuity in a job situation" (Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997, p. 323);

(II) "an overall concern about the future existence of the job" (Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996, p. 587);

(III) "an employee's perception of a potential threat to continuity in his or her current job" (Heaney, Israel, & House, 1994, p. 1431);

(IV) "a discrepancy between the level of security a person experiences and the level she or he might prefer" (Hartley et al., 1991, p. 7);

(V) "the subjectively experienced anticipation of a fundamental and involuntary event" (Sverke et al., 2002, p. 243).

According to Dagget and Habu (2004:31) "Salary administration is the method and process that an organization uses for compensating their workers". They argued that workers cannot obtain financial job satisfaction unless the organization achieved its goals Stoner and Freeman (2002:97) consider a new pay approach as an approach towards salary system that leads to the process of setting and achieving organization objectives. These scholars advance that linking pay to the labour market and variable pay to success of the organization, the managers can use the salary system to foster teamwork and other organizational goals. It is therefore necessary for the reward system not to make inflationary rate in the country into

related business to be introduced by both private and public sectors of the Nigeria economy. Strong and Freeman observed further that every good compensation or salary policy is aimed at attracting, retaining and motivating high quality employees in an organization. It is also aimed at rewarding organization members for high performance and high productivity by making sure that compensation methods are such that the organization can shoulder conformably. Obikeze and Anthony (2003:286) pointed out, salaries or wages are the reward that individuals receive from organization in exchange for their labour and that every organization has its distinct salary system. Choosing a successful salary system depends on considerations of salary levels, salary structure and individual pay determination. As relate to organisation.

Many managers and practitioners who work in the governmental or the private sectors believe that the magical way to increase the job satisfaction is to raise the salaries and financial benefits. The employees also share these ideas, believing that the increase of the salaries will absolutely increase the job satisfaction, which will reflect on the motivation to work and raise the level of human performance or the quality of products or services. According to the income, some studies noted that the level of the salary is a secondary variable that cannot stand alone and its influence may be limited when the work quality is unsatisfactory. A study conducted by Brown and his colleagues (Brown et al, 2007) supports this notion. The researchers surveyed 16266 workers and employees who work in more than 800 institutions to determine the factors of happiness at work. The results indicated that the level of salary minimally influenced job satisfaction. Yet, when the researchers looked at an employee's worker's position in a company, they found a strong link with job satisfaction and concluded that rank increased happiness to a great extent when compared with higher salaries. The researchers explained this relationship and indicate that rank influenced how proud employees were with their professional achievements.

Lawal (2006:22) argues that there are some factors that affect salary and wages level in an organization. Some of these factors are:

- (a) Influence of trade union
- (b) Prevailing salaries and wages in the industries
- (c) Government legislation
- (d) The labour market
- (e) Organization ability to pay
- (f) Productivity level.

Lawal again argues that every organisation has its salary system. Choosing a successful salary and wages depend on the consideration of salary level, structure and individual pay determination and performance (Lawal 2006: 23).

Studies on organizational environment define it in a way that it consists of physical and social factors that have the potential to influence the organization in various ways. Researchers have attempted to define the environment by elaborating, classifying and analyzing its structure and role in organizational performance. Whereas, contemporary organizational environment with its numerous affecting factors is changing so dramatically that prediction about its behaviour is practically impossible. In the developing countries especially, the complexities of organizational environment are greater in their number and strength due to greater uncertainties. Therefore, an understanding of organizational environment and its various complexities is essential to manage the organization's activities effectively. This chapter specifically focuses on the notion of organizational environment and its various dimensions discussed by organizational researchers in different research eras. A

review of this literature will provide a basis for understanding the complexity of environment of the developing countries.

Some of the pioneering researchers in this field include Dill (1958), Emery and Trist (1965), Thomson (1967), and Duncan (1972). Dill (1958) introduces the notion of task environment, and focuses on the external environmental factors. According to him these factors have an impact upon organizational goal settings. He states that: task is cognitive formulation, consisting of goals and usually also of constraints on behaviours appropriate for reaching the goals.

Emery and Trist (1965) categorize organizational environment into four types. Their work adds considerable importance to understanding the structure of organizational environment.

Duncan (1972) also attempts to define the concept of organizational environment. He states that: Environment is thought of as the totality of physical and social factors that are taken directly into consideration in the decision making behaviour of individual in the organization (p. 314). Rice (1963) explains the notion of organizational environment by classifying its structure into two broad categories: internal environment and external environment. He defines internal environment as a relationship and interaction amongst the members of the organization, and considers other organizations and individuals as external environment of the organization.

Duncan (1968) further expanded the work of Rice (1963) by defining internal and external environments in details. He holds the view that internal environment comprises of all the forces operating within the organization, while external environment comprises all the forces operating outside the organization. Duncan identifies three components of internal environment and five components of external environment. The internal environment consists of personnel, functional & staff unit, and organizational-level components. The five components of external environment are: customers, suppliers, competitors, socio-political forces and technology.

Organizational commitment has an important place in the study of organizational behaviour. This is in part due to the vast number of works that have found relationships among organizational commitment, attitudes, and behaviours in the workplace (Porter et al., 1974; Angle & Perry, 1981). The initial definition of commitment was single facet construct which portrays one's emotional attachment with an organization (Porter et al., 1974) or it can be the relative costs associated with turnover (Becker, 1960). With time and progress in this domain multi facet model of organizational commitment came into being in which three new elements of commitment were evolved namely affective, continuance, and normative (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The affective facet of commitment implies the emotional attachment to and involvement with an organization where as continuous commitment is an employee's perceived cost associated with leaving an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1990). The latest addition to the commitment model is normative commitment in which employee feels a responsibility to support and remain in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Later scholars and researchers categorized the outcome variables of commitment in two classes; based on the commitment theory and research. Cohen (2007) proposed a two facet model of commitment so that an overlap can be evaded with projecting aims and outcome variable of behaviour. His findings covered the limitations of ambiguous understanding between affective commitment and normative commitment. He defined normative commitment as tendency to predict affective commitment. According to his theory affective commitment is at the top order of the commitment comparing the basic instrumental one. Later research by Somers (2009) emphasized the combined influence of commitment on job outcomes (Weibo et al., 2010). The picture of the literature represents several advantages and limitation of concepts of organizational commitment (Becker, 1960; Allen & Meyer, 1997; Somores, 2009). In organizations the most challenging notion is commitment which has been researched intensely in the areas of human resource management, organizational behaviour, and

management. Recently Cohen proposed a two dimensional model of OC in 2007 according to him; time needs to be parted into before (propensity) and after (commitment attitudes) one's entry into the organization and Commitment needs to be parted into instrumental commitment and affective commitment. The concept was advanced by the combine theory of Somers in 2009 according to which there are 8 commitment profiles: Highly Committed, AC dominant, CC dominant, NC dominant, AC-CC, AC-NC, CC-NC dominant and Un-commitment. These concepts and theories have different and strong contribution to the present shape of organizational commitment. Most researchers of commitment treat the business firm with one set of goals, values, and beliefs to which all organizational members subscribe. It suggests that the committed employee is someone who is committed to the whole organization. Conversely, an uncommitted employee is someone who is not committed to anyone in the organization. Employee commitment is logically inseparable from organizational commitment. For instance, some researchers define employee commitment as 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Mowday et al, 1981). Some say it's, 'the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent.' Keef & Harcourt (2001) and some sees it as 'an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization' (Sheldon, 1971).

Employee commitment is important because high levels of commitment lead to several favourable organizational outcomes. It reflects the extent to which employee's identify with and organization and is committed to its goals. Biljana Dordevic (2004) stated that the commitment of employees is an important issue because it may be used to predict employee's performance, absenteeism and other behaviours. Rajendran Muthurveloo and Raduan Che Rose (2005) opined that the organizational commitment is the subset of employee commitment, which comprised to work commitment, career commitment and organizational

commitment and also added greater the organizational commitment can aid higher productivity.

Coetzee, et al.(1997:63) define wellbeing as that science and art devoted to the recognition, evaluation and control of those environmental factors and stresses arising or from workplace, which may cause sickness, impaired health and wellbeing or significant discomfort and inefficiency among workers or among the citizens of the community.

Keita and sauter (1992:201) define wellbeing as a dynamic state of mind characterised by reasonable harmony between person's abilities, needs and expectations and environmental demands and opportunities. Keita and sauter further maintain that the individuals subjective assessment is the only valid measurement of wellbeing available even though it may not coincide with the objective view of the others, for example he or she may experience a sense of wellbeing while performing a monotonous or even potentially dangerous task.

Wellbeing can also be defined as the anticipation, recognition, evaluation and control of conditions at the workplace that may cause adverse health effects and poor performance. (Keita & sauter 1992:202). Employers must provide and maintain as far as reasonably practicable a working environment that is safe and without risk to the health of his employees.

Wellbeing is a state within an individual of acceptable equilibrium or balance between his or her physical, psychological and social state.

2.3 Statement of hypotheses

- (i) Job insecurity will significantly influence organizational commitment of academic staff
- (ii) Job insecurity will have a significant influence on psychological wellbeing of academic staff.

(iii) Work motivation did not significantly influence organizational commitment of academic staff.

(iv) Work motivation did not significantly influence psychological wellbeing of academic staff.

(v) Organisational environment will have a significant influence on organizational commitment of university academic staff.

(vi) Organizational environment did not significantly influence psychological wellbeing of academic staff.

2.4 Operational definition of terms

(A) **Job-related variables:** These are variables that enhance employees to work efficiently and effectively in an organization. It can also be said to as tools that are employed into the business that can enable an employee to give out their best. This is an independent variable in the study.

There are several job variables but for the purpose of this study, I would emphasize on three variables which are as follows:

(i) Motivation (ii) Salaries (iii) job insecurity

Motivation

Motivation is something that puts the person to action, and continues him in the course of action already initiated'. Motivation is a complex phenomenon, which is influenced by individual, cultural, ethnic and historical factors. Motivation can be defined as 'a series of energizing forces that originate both within and beyond an individual's self'.

Motivation is crucial for organizations to function without motivation employees will not put up their best and the company's performance would be less efficient. This is an independent variable in the study. it will be measured with a section E on the questionnaire. It's of two categories which are high and low.

Salaries

A **salary** is a form of periodic payment from an employer to an employee, which may be specified in an employment contract. It is contrasted with piece wages, where each job, hour or other unit is paid separately, rather than on a periodic basis. This is based on range as indicated by the questionnaire in section A.

Job insecurity

Job insecurity is the lack of assurance of that an employee has about the continuity of gainful employment for his or her work life. It can also be defined as an individual's expectation of continuity about a job situation. Job insecurity is regarded as the 'overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future. As regards to the study it will be on two levels which are high or low. This will be indicated by the respondent in the Section C part of the questionnaire.

Organizational environment: Organizational environment consists of physical and social factors that have the potential to influence the organization in various ways. Researchers have attempted to define the environment by elaborating, classifying and analyzing its structure and role in organizational performance. Organizational environment is broadly categorized into two and they are the internal and external environment.

The term organizational environment is used to describe the surrounding conditions in which an employee operates. The organisational environment can be composed of physical conditions, such as office temperature, or equipment, such as personal computers. It can also be related to factors such as work processes or procedures. The work environment can involve the social interactions at the workplace, including interactions with peers, subordinates, and managers. Generally, and within limits, employees are entitled to a work environment that is free from harassment. A hostile work environment exists when

unwelcome sexual conduct interferes with an employee's job performance, or creates a hostile, intimidating, or offensive work environment. This will be indicated in the questionnaire in section A.

(C) Commitment: Commitment is an attitude reflecting an employee's loyalty to the organization, and an ongoing process through which organization As regards to the study commitment is a dependent variable in this study and will be categorized into high or low commitment. It was also measured by single item on the section B of the questionnaire. It was a close ended questionnaire that indicated respondents to tick high or low organizational commitment they felt often.

(D) Wellbeing: Well-being or welfare is a general term for the condition of an individual .High well-being means that, in some sense, the individual or group's experience is positive, while low well-being is associated with negative happenings. Well-being is an important factor in this subjective experience, as well as, contentment, satisfaction of the past, optimism for the future and happiness in the present. Emphasis will be laid on the psychological wellbeing of academic staff .This is a dependent variable in the study and it will be divided into high or low wellbeing. . It was measured on the section D of the questionnaire. The close ended item required respondents to tick either high or low wellbeing.

CHAPTER THREE.

METHOD

3.1 Research Design.

The research was a survey method which employed Ex-post facto research design. The ex-post facto research design was adopted because the study used questionnaires in collecting data on all variables under investigation simultaneously. Therefore, the structured questionnaire was only used to collect data on events which occurrence had taken place. It implies that none of the variables were actually manipulated. The independent variable in the study are job variables (work motivation, job insecurity, salaries and organizational environment). The dependent variables are organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing.

3.2 SETTING

The research took place in Federal university Oye Ekiti, Ekiti State which comprises two campuses namely oye campus and ikole campus respectively. The place was chosen specifically because it is a newly established institution with newly employed staff.

3.3 Sampling Technique.

The sampling technique adopted in this research study was purposive sampling technique. The technique was used because the researcher was fully aware of the fact that academic staff are in the university. Therefore, the researcher approached staff members and they volunteered to participate in the study; hence, the administration of the questionnaires commenced.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE.

The study population consisted of academic staff from both campuses of Federal University Oye Ekiti. The university was chosen because it is a new institution with newly employed staff. The institution has a population close to 300 academic staff; out of which 134 were sampled. The sample represents academic staff in the four faculties of the institution with age range of 23 years to 56years. The purposive sampling technique was used to select participants from various faculties in the university. The distribution of academic staff members in the four faculties was done as follows:

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE EKITI

FACULTY	DEPARTMENT	NO OF PARTICIPANTS
AGRICULTURE	Animal science	8
	Agro – economics	6
	Animal husbandry	9
	Crop rotation	6
	TOTAL	29
ENGINEERING	Mechanical	4
	Electrical electronics	9
	Civil engineering	6
	Mechatronics	3
	TOTAL	22
SCIENCE	Plant science	9
	Animal biotech	4
	Biochemistry	3
	Geophysics	8
	Physics	7
	Mathematics	6
	Microbiology	7
	TOTAL	44
SOCIAL SCIENCES	Psychology	3
	Eng& Lit studies	5
	Theatre arts	11
	Demography	6
	Sociology	10
	Economics	5
	TOTAL	39

In the sampled selected, out 134 academic staff, 92(68.7%) of them were males and 42(31.3%) were females. In terms of salary scale, 69(51.5%) were academic staff with the salary range of #80,000-#100,000, 30(22.4%) were academic staff with the salary range of #101,000-#120,000, 17(12.7%) were academic staff with salary range of #121,000-#150,000,8(6.0%) were academic staff with salary range of #151,000-#180,000, 3(2.2%) were academic staff with salary range of #181,000-#200,000, 7(5.2%), were academic staff with salary range of #201,000&Above. In terms of organizational environment 29(21.6%) academic staff perceived organizational environment to be good, 92 (68.7%) academic staff perceived organizational environment to be average, 13(9.7%) were perceived organizational to be poor.

3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Questionnaire was used as an instrument to collect data in the study. The questionnaire was divided into six sections (section A-E) as follows: questionnaire.

Section A: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

These include participant's characteristics such as age, gender, salary range and organizational environment.

Section B: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

This section measures organizational commitment using a 24-item Organizational Commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) The scale has 5 – point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores indicate higher level of organizational commitment. The authors reported a reliability

coefficient of 0.75, while in this present study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.51.

SECTION C: JOB INSECURITY SCALE

This scale is a 13-item Job Insecurity scale adapted from Kinnunen, Feldt and Mauno (2003). The first 10 items tap the threat of job while the remaining 3 items tap the threat of losing certain important dimensions of total job. The scale has Likert response format ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). High score on the scale indicates higher job insecurity while low score indicates lower job insecurity. The authors reported internal consistency of 0.79. While in this present study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient of 0.67.

SECTION D: PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING SCALE

This is an 18-item psychological well being scale developed by Ryff (1995). The scale measures an individual's level of functioning along six dimensions: autonomy, positive relationships with others, purpose in life, self-acceptance, environmental mastery and personal growth. It has a 5-point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The author reported a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.89 for the entire scale. While in this present study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient of 0.31.

SECTION E: WORK MOTIVATION SCALE

Work motivation scale was adopted by Blais (1993) Vallerand (1997). It is a 5-item question where the items measures both intrinsic & extrinsic motivation. The author reported that the reliability coefficient alpha f 0.91. While in this present study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient of 0.55.

3.6 PROCEDURE.

Questionnaires were used to collect data from participants of the study. Two members of staff assisted in the distribution of the questionnaires. Participants were purposively sampled across the various departments in the two campuses. Participation was voluntary, confidentiality and the treatment of responses was assured. The staff members that were willing to participate were given the questionnaire and were encouraged to fill them as quickly as possible. The administration of the questionnaire took three weeks. A total number of 180 questionnaires was evenly distributed but 134 were received back.

3.7 STATISTICAL TOOLS/TECHNIQUES/METHOD.

The data collected were subjected to analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data generated from the socio demographic and psychological variables. All the hypotheses for the study were subjected to t-test for independent group and tested at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0: INTRODUCTION

This study investigated influence of job variables and organizational environment on organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing among academic staff members of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. This chapter therefore presents results from data analyses and tests of hypotheses. In the course of the study, six hypotheses were tested with t-test for independent samples. Results of the tested hypotheses were interpreted in ways to address the stated research questions in the study.

Hypothesis One

The hypothesis stated that academic staff who perceived low job insecurity would significantly report higher organizational commitment than those who perceived high job insecurity. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Summary of T-test Showing Influence of Perceived Job Insecurity on Organizational Commitment

Perceived Job Insecurity	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Organizational Commitment High	82	21.42	4.81	132	-0.11	>.05
Low	52	21.52	5.14			

The result in Table 4.1 showed that perceived job insecurity did not significantly influence organizational commitment ($t(132) = -0.11; p >.05$). This non-significant difference can be confirmed in the means; where academic staff who perceived low job insecurity (mean = 21.52) were not significantly different in their organizational commitment

from those who perceived high job insecurity (mean = 21.42). The hypothesis that academic staff who perceived low job insecurity would significantly report higher organizational commitment than those who perceived high job insecurity was not confirmed.

Hypothesis Two

The hypothesis stated that academic staff who perceived low job insecurity would significantly report better psychological wellbeing than those who perceived high job insecurity. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: Summary of T-test Showing Influence of Perceived Job Insecurity on Psychological Wellbeing

Perceived Job Insecurity		N	Mean	SD	df	t	P
Psychological Wellbeing	High	82	17.46	4.73	132	-2.77	<.05
	Low	52	19.51	3.13			

The result in Table 4.2 showed that perceived job insecurity significantly influenced psychological wellbeing ($t(132) = -2.77; p < .05$). This significant difference can be confirmed in the means; where academic staff who perceived low job insecurity (mean=19.51) significantly reported better psychological wellbeing than those who perceived high job insecurity (mean= 17.46). The hypothesis that academic staff who perceived low job insecurity would significantly report better psychological wellbeing than those who perceived high job insecurity was confirmed.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis stated that academic staff with high work motivation would significantly report higher organizational commitment than those with low work motivation. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.3

Table 4.3: Summary of T-test Showing Influence of Work Motivation on Organizational Commitment

Work Motivation	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Organizational Commitment High	64	21.20	5.16	132	-0.58	>.05
Low	70	21.70	4.72			

The result in Table 4.3 showed that work motivation did not significantly influence organizational commitment ($t(132) = -0.58; p > .05$). This non-significant difference can be confirmed in the means; where academic staff with high work motivation (mean=21.20) were not significantly different in organizational commitment from those with low work motivation (mean=21.70). The hypothesis that academic staff with high work motivation would significantly report higher organizational commitment than those with low work motivation was not confirmed.

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis stated that academic staff with high work motivation would significantly report better psychological wellbeing than those with low work motivation. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Summary of T-test Showing Influence of Work Motivation on Psychological Wellbeing

Work Motivation		N	Mean	SD	df	t	P
Psychological Wellbeing	High	64	18.88	3.99	238	1.59	>.05
	Low	70	17.70	4.50			

The result in Table 4.4 showed that work motivation did not significantly influence psychological wellbeing ($t(132) = 1.59; p > .05$). This non-significant difference can be confirmed in the means; where academic staff with high work motivation (mean=18.88) were not significantly different in psychological wellbeing from those with low work motivation (mean=17.70). The hypothesis that academic staff with high work motivation would significantly report better psychological wellbeing than those with low work motivation was not confirmed.

Hypothesis Five

The hypothesis stated that academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment would report significantly higher organizational commitment than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Summary of T-test Showing Influence of Perceived Organizational Environment on Organizational Commitment

Perceived Org. Environment		N	Mean	SD	Df	t	P
Org. Commitment	Favourable	71	22.23	4.91	132	1.92	<.05
	Unfavourable	63	20.60	4.82			

The result in Table 4.5 showed that perceived organizational environment significantly influenced organizational commitment ($t(132) = 1.92; p < .05$). This significant difference can be confirmed in the means; where academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment (mean = 22.23) scored significantly higher in organizational commitment than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment (mean = 20.60). The hypothesis that academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment would report significantly higher organizational commitment than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment was confirmed.

Hypothesis Six

The hypothesis stated that academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment would report significantly better psychological wellbeing than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Summary of t-test Showing Influence of Perceived Organizational Environment on Psychological Wellbeing

Perceived Org. Environment	N	Mean	SD	Df	T	P
Psychological Wellbeing Favourable	71	17.87	3.73	132	-1.11	>.05
Unfavourable	63	18.70	4.84			

The result in Table 4.6 showed that perceived organizational environment did not influence significantly psychological wellbeing ($t(132) = -1.11; p > .05$). This non-significant difference can be confirmed in the means; where academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment (mean=17.87) were not different significantly in psychological

wellbeing from those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment (mean= 18.70). The hypothesis that academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment would report significantly better psychological wellbeing than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment was not confirmed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings of this investigation and drew support from past and recent literature to support or contest the findings. The implications of these findings to managerial and organizational practices were highlighted, while recommendations were made to management as well as employed individuals.

5.1 DISCUSSION.

This investigation of this study is based on the influence of job variables (salaries, work motivation and job insecurity) and organizational environment on organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing of academic staff at in Federal university oye ekiti, Ekiti State. The researcher's aim & purpose in this study was to explain the influence of the aforementioned job variables and organizational environment on commitment and wellbeing of academic staff in Federal university oye ekiti, Ekiti State.

Hypothesis one stated that academic staff who perceive low job insecurity would report higher organizational commitment than those that perceive high job insecurity. The result shows that Job insecurity has no significant influence on organizational commitment. The finding indicates that academic staff who are low on job insecurity reported higher organizational commitment than those who are high on job insecurity. In support of this finding, the studies perceived those that are low on job insecurity are more committed and dedicated to their job because they don't bother too much about how secured their jobs are, they are only bothered about their performance in their workplace and they face it squarely. While those who perceive high job insecurity tend to work less and less committed to the job because of the fear of losing the job. So therefore, in an academic environment where job security is being threatened employees working there tend to be less committed considering

the fact that at any point in time they may be retrenched. In such organization employees begin to contribute less to the development of the organization. Now, if the academic staff who are both low and high on job insecurity work in the same organization, the academic organization would definitely aspire to overwhelm the spheres of efficiency and output. Consequently, this phenomenon will augment the organizational commitment. Among many causes are personality dispositions, working life experience and so on.

Hypothesis two states that Job insecurity has no significant influence on psychological wellbeing. The finding indicates that academic staff who are low on job insecurity report better psychological wellbeing than those who are high on job insecurity. Psychological wellbeing differs between people in different works of life. Previous research has reported that job insecurity was not related to psychological well-being among women. Among men, a significant increase in distress was noted among those who felt insecure, but not among the secure. Interaction terms for occupational position and age were not statistically significant. Job insecurity turned out to be one of the most distressful aspects of the work situation. A small number of studies have investigated whether certain personality dispositions are related to experiences of job insecurity.

Hypothesis three stated that work motivation will significantly influence organizational commitment of academic staff. The finding indicates that academic staff that have high work motivation were not significantly different from those with low work motivation. Hypothesis three is rejected. In line with the study of Rabby (2001) he emphasized on the notion that motivation directly links to individual performance to organization performance and as a catalyzer for all individual employees working for an organization to enhance their working performance or to complete task in much better way than they usually do. With these

employers should reach out for the basic needs of employees starting from the motivational aspect which is the key factor to any successful organization.

Hypothesis four stated that work motivation would significantly influence better psychological wellbeing. . The finding indicates that academic staff that have high work motivation were not significantly different from those with low work motivation. Hypothesis three is rejected. In contrast to this finding, there is a significant relationship between work motivation and wellbeing. This means that the work motivation have an impact on the wellbeing of academic staff. This may be due style of management being adopted in the organization and how often employees get to rapport with each other. Considering the organizational institution in this study which is a university with academic staff members, that when there is a regular rapport with colleagues some tends to get motivated by some people achievement and it can trigger them to increase the level of their motivation which invariably tells on their psychological wellbeing.

Hypothesis five stated that organizational environment will significantly influence organizational commitment. This implies that academic staff who perceived a favourable organizational environment will report higher organizational commitment than those who perceived an unfavourable organizational environment. This suggests that academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment scored significantly higher than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment. Therefore hypothesis five is accepted. Considering the result of the study, it can be inferred or deduced that academic staff who pecieved the organizational environment to be favourable seems to get attached and committed to their job than those who perceived the organizational environment as

unfavourable it can be deduced that having a favourable environment significantly affect the commitment of academic staff.

Hypothesis six stated that favourable organizational environment would report significantly better psychological wellbeing than those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment. This suggests that academic staff who perceived favourable organizational environment were not significantly different from those who perceived unfavourable organizational environment. Therefore hypothesis six is rejected. This result contradicts the findings of (Boyne & Meier, 2009). Organizational environment has a strong influence on organization's strategic performance' is a widespread idea in contemporary management . Generally organizational environment depicts numerous instinctual ideas about how an organization operates in terms of structure, settings and so on. An academic environment as the case study in this research must possess some basic & unique characteristics and mustn't look like an industrial or construction company. If an organization is well structured it will be convenient and conducive for people to put extra effort toward the success of the organization.

5.2: CONCLUSION.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of job variables (motivation, salaries & job insecurity) and organizational environment on organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing of the academic staff .To address this, relevant data were collected and analyzed. From the findings of this study, the following major conclusions are arrived at:

1. Job insecurity has no significant influence on organizational commitment of Academic staff.
2. Job insecurity has no significant influence on psychological wellbeing of Academic staff.

3. Work motivation has no significant influence on organizational commitment of Academic staff.
4. Work motivation did not significantly influence psychological wellbeing of Academic staff.
5. Organizational environment significantly influence organizational commitment.
6. Organizational environment has no significant influence on psychological wellbeing of Academic staff.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Given that this study is highly limited in its scope, strong intervention based on a solid understanding of the dynamics of organizational commitment will have to await further research. This study however provides initial information to practitioner, community, private practice and institutions settings to better understand the basic concept of job variables & organizational environment and its influence on organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing of academic staff. This may help people integrate necessary job variables that needs to be satisfied and also make the organizational environment conducive and favourable to academicians in order to enhance their level of their commitment to work and for academicians to have a stable psychological wellbeing.

Measuring levels of organizational commitment among workers' should not be based on job insecurity and work motivation. Instead, organizational environment and salaries may be of significance in determining levels of organizational commitment among academic staff.

The finding also revealed that job variables if not properly put in place will affect workers and the organization, and may also affect the organization productivity level and even the society at large. Hence, enforcing remedial and effective programme on how to manage and

improve on Job variables in order for it not to affect Organizational commitment and psychological wellbeing should be put in place.

5.4: LIMITATION OF THE STUDY.

The investigator acknowledges several important limitations encountered in the course of this study. These include the following:

First, although it is conceptualized that organizational commitment are affected by job variables (job insecurity, salaries& motivation) and organizational environment, there is a need for future studies to explore the extent to which these predictor variables may be reciprocally influenced by organizational commitment levels.

The use of ex-post factor design employed in this study does not give room for manipulation of variables. Therefore, no cause-effect relationship can be inferred or established.

The study had a small sample size which makes the generalization of the result questionable. The small sample size was as a result of participants' low response rate and loss of some questionnaire during administration. For instance, a sample size of 134 was eventually obtained out of the 180 initially proposed for the study.

Due to financial constraint the investigator was relatively slow in doing the research work. The area of job variables, organizational environment, organizational commitment and attitude of workers to work shall remain an active and ongoing area of research. However, the direction of emphasis may keep modifying as dictated by the needs of workers and employers. Larger population should be used in carrying out this kind of research and more diverse nature of occupation such as nursing, industrial organizations and even the immigration services and the oil companies.

Though, Job variables has been identified as motivation, salaries and job insecurity as variables significant in the determination of organizational commitment and the psychological wellbeing of staff in an organizational environment, another possible area of further research is to investigate influence of job tension and frustration on organizational commitment. Further study may investigate the relative contribution of conditions such as decreased job performance, absenteeism and organisational aggression in determining the wellbeing of academic staff and organizational commitment.

5.4: CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEGDE.

In its widest sense, the study is aimed at improving on the existing data and contribution to the growing body of knowledge, on issues relating to the interaction between job variables (salaries, motivation& job insecurity) wellbeing, organizational environment and commitment. Finding derived from this study are expected to provide insight into the extent to which various job variables and the perception of organizational environment fused together to influence academic staff psychological wellbeing and organizational commitment. The outcome could also serve as empirical basis that provide important insight for government, policy makers ,business leaders and even workers themselves to become familiar with how different job variables influence academic staff in terms of commitment and wellbeing. The government should look strictly into these sensitive areas of education and work towards making the educational sector a place of edifice.

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APPENDIX

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE EKITI
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is to seek information only about the issues raised for research purposes. All response given shall be treated with utmost confidentiality.

SECTION A

Age.....

Gender: (a) Male () Female ()

Salary range (80,000-100,000)

(101,000-120,000)

(121,000-150,000)

(151,000-180,000)

(181,000-200,000)

(250,000& Above)

Organizational Environment: (a) Good () (b) Average () (c) Poor ()

SECTION B: Instruction, Tick the following statements as they apply to you according to your degree of agreement to disagreement as follows: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and strongly Disagree (SD)

S/N	Item	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.					
2.	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.					
3.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
4.	I do not feel like 'part of my family' in this organization.					
5.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
6.	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.					
7.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
8.	I think I could easily become attached to another organization as I am to this one.					
9.	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
10.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable sacrifice-another organization may not match the overall benefits I have.					
11.	I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.					
12.	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
13.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now even if I wanted to.					
14.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decide I wanted to leave my organization now.					
15.	It would not be too costly for me to leave my organization in the future.					
16.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another on line up.					
17.	I think these people these days move from employer to employer too often.					
18.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.					
19.	Jumping from organization does not seem at all unethical to me.					
20.	One of the major reasons I continued to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.					
21.	If I get another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it					

	would not be right to leave my organization.					
22.	I was taught to believe in the days when people stayed with one organization from most of their careers.					
23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.					
24.	I do not think that wanting to be an organizational man or woman is sensible anymore.					

SECTION C: Instruction: Tick the following statements as they apply to you according to your degree of agreement to disagreement as follows Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided

(U) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

C	Item	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	I may lose my job and be moved to a lower level within the organization.					
2.	I may lose my job and be moved to another job at the same level within the organization.					
3.	I find that the number of hours the company can offer me to work may fluctuate from day to day.					
4.	I may be moved to a higher position within the organization.					
5.	I may be moved to a higher position in another geographical location.					
6.	I may lose my job and be laid off for a short while.					
7.	I may lose my job and be off permanently.					
8.	I find my department or division future uncertain.					
9.	I may lose my job by getting fired.					
10.	I may lose my job by being pressured to accept early retirement.					
11.	I have enough power in this organization to control events that might affect my job.					
12.	In this organization I can prevent negative things from affecting my work situation.					
13.	I understand this organization well enough to be able to control things that affect me.					

SECTION D: Using the scale below, please indicate the level of your agreement with the following items by choosing the best represents your views. SA= Strongly agree, A=Agree, U=Uncertain, D=Disagree, SD= Strongly disagree.

S/N	Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	I intend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.					
2.	I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are different from the way most other people think.					
3.	I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.					
4.	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me					
5.	I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships.					
6.	People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.					
7.	I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.					
8.	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.					
9.	I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life					
10.	I like most parts of my personality.					
11.	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased how things have turned out.					
12.	In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.					
13.	The demands of everyday life often get me down.					
14.	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation.					
15.	I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.					
16.	I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.					
17.	I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.					

18.	For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing and growth.					
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SECTION E: Using the scale below, please indicate the level of your agreement with the following items by choosing the best represents your views. SA= Strongly agree, A=Agree, U=Uncertain, D=Disagree, SD= Strongly disagree.

S/N	Item	SA	A	U	SD	D
1	I chose this job because I enjoy this work very much					
2	I do this job for the moments of pleasure that this job brings me					
3	I do this job for pay check					
4	I do this job because it makes me to afford a certain standard of living					
5	I chose this job because it allows me to make a lot of money					

APPENDIX

Frequencies

		Statistics		
		Gender	Salary	Organizational Environment
N	Valid	134	134	134
	Missing	0	0	0

Frequency Table

		Gender			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	92	68.7	68.7	68.7
	Female	42	31.3	31.3	100.0
	Total	134	100.0	100.0	

		Salary			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	N80, 000-N100, 000	69	51.5	51.5	51.5
	N101, 000 -N120, 000	30	22.4	22.4	73.9
	N121, 000-N150, 000	17	12.7	12.7	86.6
	N151, 000-N180, 000	8	6.0	6.0	92.5
	N181, 000 - N200, 000	3	2.2	2.2	94.8
	N201, 000 & Above	7	5.2	5.2	100.0
	Total	134	100.0	100.0	

		OrganizationalEnvironment			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	29	21.6	21.6	21.6
	Average	92	68.7	68.7	90.3
	Poor	13	9.7	9.7	100.0
	Total	134	100.0	100.0	

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	126	20.00	53.00	34.3333	6.68132
Valid N (listwise)	126				

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary		
	N	%
Valid	113	83.7
Cases Excluded ^a	22	16.3
Total	135	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.509	9

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
B10001	2.1416	1.11697	113
B10002	2.1062	1.12093	113
B10003	2.0088	.85037	113
B10004	2.4425	1.16449	113
B10005	3.0442	1.24204	113
B10006	2.6814	1.37104	113
B10007	2.5664	1.14857	113
B10008	2.5664	1.06801	113
B10009	2.4425	1.17213	113

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B10001	19.8584	18.069		
B10002	19.8938	16.917	.241	.473
B10003	19.9912	18.402	.372	.428
B10004	19.5575	17.427	.340	.452
B10005	18.9558	16.721	.290	.455
B10006	19.3186	16.773	.329	.439
B10007	19.4336	16.748	.263	.464
B10008	19.4336	21.694	.377	.425
B10009	19.5575	20.338	-.123	.579
			-.010	.555

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
22.0000	21.607	4.64835	9

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	109	80.7
	Excluded ^a	26	19.3
	Total	135	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

b.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.671	13

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
C10001	4.5321	.84513	109
C10002	3.8716	1.27003	109
C10003	3.1009	1.17019	109
C10004	4.5505	.71345	109
C10005	3.8716	1.30598	109
C10006	4.2569	1.11724	109
C10007	4.3670	.93947	109
C10008	4.0550	1.13721	109
C10009	4.1927	1.02268	109
C10010	3.8807	1.19973	109
C10011	2.9541	1.27210	109
C10012	3.8165	1.13989	109
C10013	3.6330	1.09427	109

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
C10001	46.5505	35.139	.597	.618
C10002	47.2110	37.242	.192	.671
C10003	47.9817	38.740	.118	.681
C10004	46.5321	37.770	.406	.645
C10005	47.2110	37.205	.184	.674
C10006	46.8257	34.053	.501	.620
C10007	46.7156	36.539	.389	.641
C10008	47.0275	34.508	.452	.628
C10009	46.8899	34.099	.560	.615
C10010	47.2018	35.200	.365	.642
C10011	48.1284	39.817	.025	.699
C10012	47.2661	37.401	.225	.664
C10013	47.4495	38.416	.164	.672

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
51.0826	41.836	6.46805	13

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	127	94.1
	Excluded ^a	8	5.9
	Total	135	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.314	7

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
D1	1.6929	.89542	127
D2	2.0709	1.08512	127
D3	3.9134	1.14797	127
D4	3.4094	1.23027	127
D5	1.7244	.66281	127
D6	4.0079	1.13736	127
D7	1.9055	1.21781	127

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
D1	17.0315	9.301	.161	.268
D2	16.6535	8.800	.156	.266
D3	14.8110	7.742	.300	.160
D4	15.3150	7.408	.307	.145
D5	17.0000	11.016	-.108	.373
D6	14.7165	8.443	.188	.243
D7	16.8189	10.213	-.092	.431

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
18.7244	10.979	3.31346	7

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	120	88.9
	Excluded ^a	15	11.1
	Total	135	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.551	5

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
E1	1.8750	1.04971	120
E2	2.6833	1.31560	120
E3	3.1833	1.37189	120
E4	2.4333	1.28163	120
E5	3.6167	1.26480	120

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
E1	11.9167	13.186	-.007	.640
E2	11.1083	10.165	.279	.517
E3	10.6083	8.644	.460	.396
E4	11.3583	8.753	.506	.371
E5	10.1750	9.910	.342	.478

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
13.7917	14.234	3.77274	5

Reliability
Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	122	90.4
	Excluded ^a	13	9.6
	Total	135	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.472	7

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
F1	3.5246	1.19374	122
F2	4.0082	.93150	122
F3	3.7049	1.10363	122
F4	2.6721	1.22267	122
F5	3.0492	1.28470	122
F6	2.7049	1.19010	122
F7	2.8770	1.17535	122

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
F1	19.0164	13.272	.135	.474
F2	18.5328	14.201	.114	.474
F3	18.8361	13.047	.201	.443
F4	19.8689	12.049	.274	.407
F5	19.4918	11.558	.305	.390
F6	19.8361	11.940	.306	.392
F7	19.6639	12.737	.209	.439

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
22.5410	15.870	3.98374	7

APPENDIX

Hypotheses Tested Correlations

	Descriptive Statistics		
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	34.3333	6.68132	126
Salary	2.0075	1.39006	134
Job Insecurity	48.8593	9.48460	135
Work Motivation	13.1866	4.27120	134
Org Environment	21.5672	5.47235	134
Org Commitment	21.4627	4.91989	134
Psychological Wellbeing	18.2612	4.29010	134

Correlations

	Age	Salary	Job Insecurity	Work Motivation	Org Environment	Org Commitment	Psychological Wellbeing
Age	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.573* .000 126	.045 .620 126	.020 .826 126	.078 .385 126	.071 .431 126	-.140 .118 126
Salary	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	126 .573** 1	.030 .728 134	.028 .751 134	-.010 .905 134	-.019 .826 134	-.058 .503 134
Job Insecurity	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.045 .620 126	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.044 .616 134	.235 .000 134	.064 .859 134	-.198** .022 134
Work Motivation	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.020 .826 126	.030 .728 134	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.044 .616 134	.064 .859 134	.022 .007 134
Org Environment	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.078 .385 126	.030 .728 134	.028 .751 134	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.064 .859 134	.022 .007 134
Org Commitment	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.071 .431 126	.030 .728 134	.028 .751 134	.028 .751 134	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.071 .431 126
Psychological Wellbeing	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.140 .118 126	.030 .728 134	.028 .751 134	.028 .751 134	.028 .751 134	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

T-Test

		Group Statistics					
JobInsecurity		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		
Org Commitment	High	82	21.4268	4.80748	.53090		
	Low	52	21.5192	5.13920	.71268		
Psychological Wellbeing	High	82	17.4634	4.73285	.52266		
	Low	52	19.5192	3.12793	.43377		

		Independent Samples Test									
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper	
Org Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.287	.593	-.106	132	.916	-.09240	.87543	-1.82408	1.63	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.104	103.282	.917	-.09240	.88869	-1.85484	1.67	
	Equal variances assumed	2.500	.116	-2.770	132	.006	-2.05582	.74213	-3.52382	-.58	
Psychological Wellbeing	Equal variances not assumed			-3.027	131.743	.003	-2.05582	.67921	-3.39938	-.71	

T-Test

		Group Statistics					
Work Motivation		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		
Org Commitment	High	64	21.2031	5.15530	.64441		
	Low	70	21.7000	4.71922	.56405		
Psychological Wellbeing	High	64	18.8750	3.99404	.49926		
	Low	70	17.7000	4.49911	.53775		

T-Test

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Org Commitment	Male	92	21.5217	4.76359	.49664
	Female	42	21.3333	5.30378	.81839
Psychological Wellbeing	Male	92	18.5870	3.34845	.34910
	Female	42	17.5476	5.83598	.90051

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
Org Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.686	.409	.205	132	.838	.18841	.91952	Lower	Upper		
	Equal variances not assumed			.197	72.338	.845	.18841	.95730	-1.71978	2.09651		
Psychological Wellbeing	Equal variances assumed	5.070	.026	1.304	132	.194	1.03934	.79682	-.53685	2.61551		
	Equal variances not assumed			1.076	53.703	.287	1.03934	.96581	-.89724	2.97592		

One way

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Org Commitment	Good	19.3103	4.30202	.79887	17.6739	20.9467	11.00	29.00
	Average	21.5217	4.52703	.47198	20.5842	22.4593	12.00	32.00
	Poor	25.8462	6.13523	1.70161	22.1387	29.5536	18.00	33.00
	Total	21.4627	4.91989	.42501	20.6220	22.3033	11.00	33.00
Psychological Wellbeing	Good	17.8276	4.55184	.84525	16.0962	19.5590	.00	23.00
	Average	18.4022	4.30195	.44851	17.5113	19.2931	.00	27.00
	Poor	18.2308	3.83305	1.06310	15.9145	20.5471	13.00	24.00
	Total	18.2612	4.29010	.37061	17.5281	18.9942	13.00	27.00

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Org Commitment	384.458	2	192.229	8.883	.000
Between Groups	2834.856	131	21.640		
Within Groups	3219.313	133	3.647	.196	.822
Total	7.293	2	18.630		
Psychological Wellbeing	2440.565	131			
Between Groups	2447.858	133			
Within Groups					
Total					

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

LSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Organizational Environment	(J) Organizational Environment	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Org Commitment	Good	Average	-2.21139*	.99067	.027	-4.1712	-.2516
	Average	Poor	-6.53581*	1.55269	.000	-9.6074	-3.4642
	Poor	Good	2.21139*	.99067	.027	.2516	4.1712
Psychological Wellbeing	Good	Poor	-4.32441*	1.37835	.002	-7.0511	-1.5977
	Average	Good	6.53581*	1.55269	.000	3.4642	9.6074
	Poor	Average	4.32441*	1.37835	.002	1.5977	7.0511
Org Commitment	Good	Poor	-.57459	.91920	.533	-2.3930	1.2438
	Average	Good	-.40318	1.44067	.780	-3.2532	2.4468
	Poor	Poor	.57459	.91920	.533	-1.2438	2.3930
Psychological Wellbeing	Average	Good	.17140	1.27891	.894	-2.3586	2.7014
	Poor	Poor	.40318	1.44067	.780	-2.4468	3.2532
	Average	Average	-.17140	1.27891	.894	-2.7014	2.3586

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.