UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA

MEDIATING EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT ON RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, CULTURE AND COMMITMENT OF LECTURERS IN BORNO STATE, NIGERIA

ABU BAKAR ABBA AJI

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By

ABU BAKAR ABBA AJI

Thesis Submitted to the school of Graduate studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, in fulfillment of the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

March 2017
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late parents Mallam Awaji and Hajja Falmata Goiram Goni Adam. May Allah the most merciful grant them Jannatul Firdaus. Amen
Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

MEDIATING EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT ON RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, CULTURE AND COMMITMENT OF LECTURERS IN BORNO STATE, NIGERIA

By

ABUBAKAR ABBA AJI

March 2017

Chairman : Associate Professor Jamaliah Binti Abdul Hamid, PhD
Faculty : Educational Studies

Previous studies on Organizational commitment argues for employees personal characteristic, job characteristic and work experience, as the determinants of commitment in the organization. Rarely do studies examine contextual factors such as organizational cultures and organizational climate as factors responsible for organizational commitment, as well as mediating effect of psychological empowerment on these relationships, particularly among Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) employees. Therefore, this study aims to determine the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and organizational commitment among HEIs lecturers in Borno State, Nigeria. This study employed descriptive survey method, using validated self-administered questionnaires. A total of 417 questionnaires were distributed using Cochran formulae for sample size determination. However, 325 valid responses were returned representing 79 percent. The collected data were analyzed with descriptive statistical tools such as percentage, mean and standard deviation, to describe the respondents’ characteristics and the levels of all the variables in the study. The descriptive analysis revealed that the level of all the tested variables examined in this study were moderate with composite mean scores. Eight (8) research hypotheses were formulated and tested using inferential statistical tools such as independent sample t-test, Pearson correlation, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). SEM analysis was also employed to test and establish existence of convergent validity and discriminant validity of the measures. The measurement model confirmed the appropriateness of the measured data at $x^2(4994) = 7873.606, p=0.00$, $x^2/DF=1.577$, GFI=0.702; TLI=0.901, CFI=0.906; IFI=0.907, RMSEA=0.042. The structural model was then used to test research hypothesis $H_{a3}$- $H_{a8}$. Meanwhile, hypothesis $H_{a1}$ and $H_{a2}$ were tested using SPSS outputs. It was found that there was no significant differences between male and female response with respect to organizational commitment thus proving $H_{a1}$ false. No significant relationship was observed between the level of organizational commitment with
respondents’ age and length of service, thus proving $H_{a2}$ false. However, structural path analyses found all the six (6) main research hypotheses $H_{a3}$ to $H_{a8}$ failed to be rejected. All were proven true. Moreover, the standardized path coefficient also proved that the proposed meditational model (with psychological empowerment as a mediator) had a good fit since RMSEA met the cut-off point 0.044. The goodness of fits indices are summarized as follows: $\chi^2 (4710) = 7680.436$ $p = >0.05$; $\chi^2/DF=1.631$, AGFI=0.681; TLI=0.895, CFI=0.898; IFI=0.898, RMSEA= 0.044. Based on this result, the researcher concluded that organizational climate and organizational culture were confirmed as contextual factors within HEIs that would significantly contribute to the commitment of lecturers to their institutions. However, psychological empowerment fully mediated the relationship between organizational climate and lecturers’ organizational commitment but it only partially mediated the relationship between organizational culture and lecturers’ organizational commitment in HEIs in Borno State, Nigeria. In other words, in the context of colleges of education, polytechnic and monotechnics, psychological empowerment is found to be important factor which might enhance work behaviour and outcomes and in particular, organizational commitment of lecturers. In conclusion, these findings suggest to policy makers and administrators the importance of improving their organizational climate and culture in order to encourage their lecturers’ commitment to the organization, and at the same time, to respect the important role of psychological empowerment in helping staff to find emotional and professional motivation in spite of their moderate satisfaction of surrounding organizational factors to render commitment to their organizations.
Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk ijazah Doktar Falsafah

KESAN PENGANTARA PENGPERKASAAN PSIKOLOGI KE ATAS HUBUNGAN DI ANTARA IKLIM ORGANISASI, BUDAYA DAN KOMITMEN ORGANISASI PENSYARAH DI NEGERI BORNO, NIGERIA

Oleh

ABUBAKAR ABBA AJI

Mac 2017

Pengerusi : Profesor Madya Jamaliah Binti Abdul Hamid, PhD
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Kajian terdahulu berkaitan komitmen organisasi telah berhujah tentang tingkahlaku personal pekerja, ciri-ciri pekerjaan dan pengalaman bekerja adalah faktor penentu kepada komitmen di dalam sesuatu organisasi. Jarang sekali ditemui kajian yang meneroka berhubung faktor konteks seperti budaya organisasi dan iklim organisasi sebagai faktor-faktor yang bertanggungjawab terhadap komitmen organisasi, serta menjadi kesan pengantara pengperkasaan psikologi ke atas hubungan ini terutamanya dalam kalangan anggota di Institusi Pengajian Tinggi (IPT). Oleh itu, kajian ini bertujuan bagi menentukan kesan pengantara pengperkasaan psikologi ke atas hubungan di antara iklim organisasi, budaya organisasi dan komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan pensyarah IPT di negeri Borno, Nigeria.

Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah tinjauan deskriptif dengan menggunakan borang soal selidik yang diisi sendiri dan telah disahkan. Sejumlah 417 soal selidik telah diedarkan dengan menggunakan formula Cochran bagi menentukan saiz sampel. Walau bagaimanapun, hanya 325 jawapan yang dikembalikan serta disahkan dan mewakili 79 peratus. Data yang terkumpul dianalisis dengan alat statistik deskriptif seperti peratusan, min dan sisihan piawai bagi menggambarkan ciri respondan dan tahap pembolehubah kajian. Analisis deskriptif menunjukkan tahap kesemua pembolehubah yang diuji dan diperiksa dalam kajian ini adalah sederhana dengan skor min komposit.

Lapan (8) hipotesis kajian telah digubal dan diuji dengan menggunakan sampel ujian-t bebas, korelasi Pearson dan model Model Persamaan Struktur (MPS). Analisis MPS juga digunakan untuk menguji dan menentukan kewujudan kesahan menumpu serta kesahan diskriminan pengukuran. Model pengukuran mengesahkan
kesepadanan pengukuran data pada $x^2/(4994) = 7873.606$, $p=0.00$, $x^2/\text{DF}=1.577$, GFI = 0.702; TLI=0.901, CFI=0.906; IFI=0.907, RMSEA = 0.042. Model struktur seterusnya telah digunakan bagi menguji hipotesis kajian Ha3 - Ha8. Sementara itu, hipotesis Ha1 dan Ha2 telah diuji dengan menggunakan output SPSS. Didapati tiada perbezaan yang signifikan di antara maklum balas lelaki dan wanita berhubung komitmen organisasi lalu membuktikan Ha1 adalah salah. Di dapati tiada hubungan yang signifikan di antara tahap komitmen organisasi dengan usia dan tempoh perkhidmatan responden lalu membuktikan bahawa Ha2 adalah salah.

Walau bagaimana pun analisis laluan struktur mendapati kesemua enam (6) hipotesi kajian utama Ha3 hingga Ha8 gagal untuk menolak. Kesemunya telah terbukti benar. Selain itu pekali laluan piawai juga membuktikan bahawa model pengantara yang dicadangkan (dengan pengperkasaan psikologi sebagai pengantara) mempunyai kesepadanan sejak RMSEA bertemu di titik potong 0.044. Indeks kesepadanan di simpulkan seperti berikut: $x^2 (4710) = 7680.436$ $p= >0.05$, $x^2/\text{DF}=1.631$, AGFI=0.681; TLI=0.895, CFI=0.898; IFI=0.898, RMSEA=0.044.

Berdasarkan keputusan ini, penyelidik membuat kesimpulan bahawa iklim organisasi dan budaya organisasi telah disahkan sebagai faktor kontekstual di dalam IPT yang menyumbang dengan signifikan berhubung komitmen pensyarah terhadap institusi mereka. Walau bagaimana pun pengperkasaan psikologi mengantara sepenuhnya hubungan di antara iklim organisasi dan komitmen organisasi pensyarah, tetapi ia hanya mengantara sebahagain hubungan antara budaya organisasi dan komitmen organisasi pensyarah di IPT negeri Borno, Nigeria. Dengan lain perkataan, di dalam konteks pendidikan kolej, politeknik, monoteknik, pengperkasaan psikologi merupakan faktor yang penting bagi merangsang tingkah laku bekerja dan penghasilan terutamanya komitmen organisasi para pensyarah.

Kesimpulannya, dapatan kajian ini mencadangkan kepada pembuat dasar dan pentadbir akan kepentingan memperbaiki iklim organisasi dan budaya mereka bagi menggalakkan komitmen pensyarah kepada organisasi. Pada masa yang sama, menghormati peranan penting pemperkasaan psikologi bagi membantu anggota di dalam mencari motivasi profesional dan emosi, walaupun dengan kepuasan sederhana di sekitar faktor organisasi di dalam memberi komitmen mereka terhadap organisasi.
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appreciation to the University of Maiduguri for giving me the study fellowship and making me as beneficiary of needs assessment support funds. My thanks also go to all the staff of the Faculty of Educational studies Universiti Putra Malaysia.
I certify that a Thesis Examination Committee has met on 30 March 2017 to conduct the final examination of Abubakar Abba Aji on his thesis entitled "Mediating Effect of Psychological Empowerment on Relationships between Organizational Climate, Culture and Commitment of Lecturers in Borno State, Nigeria" in accordance with the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971 and the Constitution of the Universiti Putra Malaysia [P.U.(A) 106] 15 March 1998. The Committee recommends that the student be awarded the Doctor of Philosophy.

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<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>AMOS</td>
<td>Analysis of Moment Structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE</td>
<td>Average Variance Extracted</td>
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<td>CFA</td>
<td>Confirmatory Factor Analysis</td>
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<td>CFI</td>
<td>Comparative Fit Index</td>
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<td>CMV</td>
<td>Common Method Variance</td>
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<td>CVF</td>
<td>Competing Value Framework</td>
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<td>GFI</td>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index</td>
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<td>EFA GMR</td>
<td>Education for All Global Monitoring Report</td>
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<td>HEIs</td>
<td>Higher Educational Institutions</td>
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<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
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<td>IFI</td>
<td>Incremental Fit Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>KMO</td>
<td>Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin</td>
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<tr>
<td>NBTE</td>
<td>National Board for Technical Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCE</td>
<td>National Certificate for Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCCE</td>
<td>National Commission for Colleges of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>NILIE</td>
<td>National Initiative of Leadership and Institutional Effectiveness</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPE</td>
<td>National Policy of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>NUC</td>
<td>National Universities Commission</td>
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<td>OC</td>
<td>Organizational Culture</td>
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<td>OCM</td>
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<tr>
<td>PACE</td>
<td>Personnel Assessment of College Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>R&amp; D</td>
<td>Research and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation</td>
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<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modeling</td>
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<td>SET</td>
<td>Social Exchange Theory</td>
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<td>SPES</td>
<td>School Participants Empowerment Scale</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TETFUND</td>
<td>Tertiary Education Trust Fund</td>
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<td>TLI</td>
<td>Tucker-Lewis Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nation Scientifics and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UPM</td>
<td>Universiti Putra Malaysia</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of the following; background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research question, significance of the study, scope and limitation of the study, assumptions of the study, conceptual and operational definition of terms.

1.1 The Growing Importance of Organizational Commitment

Higher Education Institutions (HEI) are focusing towards motivating and retaining committed lecturers in their system. In recent decades, organizational commitment especially in education, health and management fields, has grown in importance due to the fact that it is regarded as the main determinants of organizational existence (Hanaysha 2016). At the global and national level, governments are making efforts to provide citizenry with quality tertiary education, but this would not be achieved without the commitment of lecturers who are the drivers of the learning activities in the institution to achieve meaningful development.

The success of any educational initiative or organization could be attributed to its human resources and not solely on its physical resource (Najafi, Noruzy, Azar, Nazari-Shirkouhi, & Dalvand, 2011). Human resource in the educational system are teachers, instructors, facilitators, lecturers and they form the main assets and are essential drivers in any educational system and its development (Anyebe, 2014). Indeed, college effectiveness and performance are measured irrevocably by the efficiency and quality output of its lecturers, and how successfully they created and developed learning processes and learning experiences that are relevant to the demands of the society, job market needs, and their students’ wholesome development. The success or failure of any educational process is always attributed to the critical roles lecturers play in the human resource development initiative of a nation to help it achieve competitive economic standing, superior labor quality, and technological advancement (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Idris, Dollard, Coward, & Dormann, 2012).

Since the turn of the 21st Century, the movement and turnover of lecturers has posed a grave challenge to the growing HE system. In particular, mass departure of qualified lecturers for various reasons such as lack of tenure, retirement, transition to the private sectors, or promotional positions have left academic units within most HEIs at the brink of collapse (Semela, 2011). The globalization era adds to the pressure as higher education institutions grapple to initiate and embark on policies and reforms in order to gain competitive edge along with other competitors in the sector (Musah et al., 2016). Quality indicators in performance and outputs place tremendous strain on the academics. Increasingly, higher education institutions (HEI) especially public HEIs are mired by accountability procedures for
stakeholders and to market standards and demands (Reddy & Poornima, 2012). Academics have to cope with administrative requirements, the flux in market demands and consumer (student) demographics as internationalization becomes a universal status for HEIs, the increasing press for R&D outputs including publications and seminal work, and all the while remaining at par with the best of teaching standards and faculty role (Raina & Khatri, 2015). Lecturers are saddled with various roles such as quality teaching, research and publications, research influence, supervisions, innovation, administration and community services, while ensuring the society benefits from their role in educating others in the importance of practicing high level moral standards in daily life (Hamdhaidari, Agahi, & Papzan, 2007). Thus retaining highly committed lecturers with expertise and skills in teaching and research within the college or university is a major HRM strategy in HEIs (Hanaysha, 2016).

Organizational commitment is often referred to as the connection an employee has with his organization, to the extent that he/she works, and can identify, with the values of the organization (Cohen, 1993). According to Allen and Meyer (1990) organizational commitment is the psychological attachment that links the employee to his employer. Allen & Meyer (1997) and Powell and Meyer (2004) postulated on three dimensions of organizational commitment; affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The Affective commitment type refers to the employees’ emotional connection to be identified with, enjoying affiliation with the organization as a result of involvement. Continuance commitment connotes employees’ perception of costs implication involved as a result of employee’s intent to exit from the service of the organization. Normative commitment denotes the employees’ feelings of responsibility to continue with the organization as a result of obligation. This tri dimensional model of commitment by Allen and Meyer (1997) is well reviewed in literature, and will guide the conceptualization of organizational commitment of Nigerian lecturers in this doctoral study.

Employees’ commitment to their organizations has been revealed to have numerous significant individual-level outcomes such as job performance and output, job involvement, in addition to organizational citizenship behaviour, turnover intention and absenteeism (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky, 2002). Committed workforce is more likely to exhibit high performance and output, and in turn benefit their organization (Awang, Ahmad, & Zin, 2010; Narimawati, 2007; Tella, Ayeni, & Popoola, 2007). Commitment also is reported to influence employees’ feelings of wellbeing, in addition to overall organizational success (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Organizational commitment can be operationally assessed through the extent of the employees identification and involvement with the organizational goals and values driven by strong acceptance and belief that leads to considerable degree of efforts in towards the organizational objectives (Mowday, Steers, & Porter 1979).
1.2 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Extant researchers identified various antecedents related with organizational commitment. According to Steers (1977) organizational commitment antecedents are centrally classified as (a) individual characteristics, (b) job and (c) work experience characteristics. In addition Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday (1992) suggested another component in addition to the above mentioned, that (d) characteristics that has to do with role-related are as well organizational commitment antecedents. Meyer & Allen (1990) agreed with the said classifications, but they decided to harmonize job-related characteristics with work experience (Bakan, Büyükbeşec, & Erşahan, 2011; Malik, Nawab, Naeem, & Danish, 2010a). Qureshi et al. (2012) observed that organizational commitment antecedents are divided into two (a) personal factors (employee-based factors) comprising of age, marital status, gender, levels of education attained, and length of service; and (b) salary and position which are job related characteristics. Personal variables which are commonly investigated encompassed variables that often define the individuals for example: age, gender, disposition, education, and race (Bakan et al., 2011; Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). On the other hand, job related characteristics include aspects of the jobs that research has proven to have predictive effect on organizational commitment, such as job autonomy, scope, variety, supervision, communication and organizational support (Adekola, 2012).

However, it is apparent from the literature on antecedents of organizational commitment in the previous four decades, that there is a dearth in comprehending how organizational factors may behave as antecedents that influence commitment. The literature of organizational commitment has almost totally neglected that commitment is a contextual derived factor (Cohen, 2007). Organizational context is shaped among others, by its structure, mission, administration practice, work policies, staffing, leadership, climate and culture (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2014). According to Cohen (2007) the development of organizational commitment must take into account both individual and organizational level forces. In accordance to this observation made by Cohen (2007) this present doctoral research chose to examine organizational climate and culture as the organizational level antecedents to organizational commitment, while psychological empowerment was examined as personal factor acting as a mediator between organizational climate and culture with organizational commitment.

1.3 Organizational climate and organizational culture

The distinction between organizational climate and culture is not always clear because both are basically describing the experience of employees within a particular organization. Indeed, the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably. Thus, differences in the conceptual and definitional notions overlap. Moreover, Patterson et al (2005) stated that, organizational climate has been “one of the most essential, but least understood concepts” in organizational studies.
According to Ali and Patnaik (2014) organizational climate is more behaviorally oriented in that different climate may be set up in the workplace, such as climate for innovation, safety, creativity or service. These climates denote the employees’ perceptions of the organizational policies, procedures and processes guiding the practices, and subsequent interactive patterns and behaviours supporting the innovation, safety, service or creativity within the organization. Organizational culture on the other hand, is referred to shared norms and values upheld by members that often guide their interaction with their management, coworkers and clients.

Recent developments has postulated that organizational climate is very much concerned with the work process and work outcomes of the organization (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011a). Thus, the dominant conceptualization of climate is the shared perceptions of organizational procedures, practices and events that are generally related to processes of work and outcomes.

The dimensions used to measure organizational climate have been varied in many past studies. These include for instance, Castro & Martins (2010) reward orientation, individual autonomy; degree of structure imposed on the situation; consideration, warmth and support. James and colleagues (James et al 2008) described four dimensions four (1) role stress and lack of harmony; (2) autonomy and job challenge, (3) leadership facilitation and support; and (4) work group cooperation, friendliness, and warmth. James is of the opinion that individuals developed a global or comprehensive perception of their working environment which could be applied to any number of contexts and industries. Early researchers of organizational climate such as Litwin and Stringer (1968) have developed Organizational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) which comprises 50 items that assess nine dimensions of climate. However, Nieuwoudt (2012) found that most research using the instrument in recent period found only six factors, and in addition, factor loading was a problematic issue. Hence they declared OCQ as lacking in validity.

Another one of the instruments developed to measure climate was based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF), developed by Quinn and colleagues in a series of articles and studies (e.g., Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003). Quinn et al. (1983) proposed that organizational effectiveness is the result of how managerial ideologies foster values and a work environment within their organization which in turn influence the way organizational outcomes may be achieved. The environment is typified by bipolar dimensions: — flexibility versus control, and internal versus external orientation. The framework’s four quadrants describe four broad domains of valued outcomes and associated managerial ideologies about the means through which organizational outcomes may be achieved. CVF calls attention to how opposing values exist in organizations and how individual organizations are likely to embrace different mixtures of values that are reflected in their desired ends and in the means to attain them, such as their structural designs and mechanisms of co-ordination and control. The CVF model was derived from study of organizational effectiveness and organizational psychology (Zammuto & O’Connor, 1992).
Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983)’s CVF provides a potentially useful organizing framework for the different conceptualizations and dimensions of organizational climate. They argued that the way that organizations are managed led to the development of diverse value orientations. The CVF 2 × 2 framework yield four competing, although not mutually exclusive, values and climate orientations. These value orientations are: human relations orientation, open systems, rational goal, and internal process orientation and they are presented in four quadrants, delineated by two orthogonal bipolar dimensions: a flexibility focus versus a control focus, and an internal focus versus an external focus. The human relations orientation, for example, is located in the quadrant characterized by a flexibility focus and an internal focus and encompasses defining sub dimensions or values such as teamwork, participation, human resource development, and morale. Later, Cameron & Quinn (1999) re-affirmed these four orientations of values framework to indicate how organizational cultures and values are interconnected and contribute to the climate of the organization. Each of these orientations with its corresponding system of values tends to be in competition to dominate the organizational climate.

The four competing value orientations in the CVF are described in detail as follows:

1. The human relations approach (internal focus and flexibility in relation to the environment) that emphasizes on the well-being, growth and commitment of the community of workers within an organization.
2. The internal process approach (internal focus and tight control within the organization) that is concerned with formalization and internal control of the system in order that resources are efficiently used.
3. The open systems approach (external focus and flexible relationships with the environment) that emphasizes on the interaction and adaptation of the organization in its environment, with managers seeking resources and innovating in response to environmental (or market) demands.
4. The rational goal approach (external focus but with tight control within the organization) that reflects a rational economic model of organizational functioning in which the emphasis is upon productivity and goal achievement.

Patterson et al (2005) used Quinn and Rohrbaugh work on CVF (1983) as a theoretical foundation for the development of their organizational climate measure (OCM). The OCM developed by Patterson et al (2005) traces 17 dimensions of organizational climate contained by the four-quadrant CVF framework, although Patterson et al. argued that in concrete terms it is unlikely for researchers to use the entire OCM in a single study. However, the model can helpfully outline core features of a comprehensive, broad conceptualization of organizational climate. The CVF focuses on the impact of broad-based organizational climate and values on organizational outcomes. More explicitly, CVF centers on divergent values that exist in organizations and how combinations of these values affect organizational outcomes.

In the context of this research, Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) CVF is of particular theoretical importance since many HEIs in Nigeria today are in the transition stages where new goals and values are competing with traditional values in the process of organization transformation. As a result, using the CVF is appropriate in order to capture value orientations and bipolar dimensions of flexibility focus versus a control focus, and an internal focus versus an external focus of the HEIs’ climate in Nigeria. However, the researcher have chosen in this research to use the PACE model or Personal Assessment of Campus Environment (PACE) copyright of National Initiative of Leadership and Institutional Effectives (NILIE, 2005). Although originally developed by Baker (1992) and updated in Baker & Hoover (1997), the constructs have been theorized and refined, reflecting the measures in Patterson’s (2005) OCM instrument to measure organizational climate. PACE directly measures organizational climate as a result of managerial practices in the context of educational institutions. The PACE instrument was divided according to four factors of climate, that is institutional structure, Supervisory Relationships, Teamwork, and Student Focus towards an output of student success and institutional effectiveness.

On the other hand, another factor- organizational culture- mainly revolves upon types of community within the organization whose norms, values, and esprit de corp, differ. After the initial introduction of CVF by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), Cameron and Quinn (1999) refined the bipolar value orientations ‘flexibility focus versus a control/stability focus’, and an ‘internal focus versus an external focus’ to distil four types of organizational value orientation. To recapitulate, Stability is a valid focus when the business is stable and reliability and efficiency is paramount, but when environmental forces create a need for change, then flexibility becomes more important. An internal focus is valid in environments where competition or customer focus is not the most important thing, but an external focus becomes a priority whenever the environment becomes competitive or whenever there is pressure from external stakeholders. In congruence with these value orientations, Cameron and Quinn (1999) described four types of organizational cultures. These are: 1) The Hierarchical type culture is seen to be characterized by formal rules and regulations aimed at effective coordination of policies. 2) The Market Culture promotes high degree of competitiveness, while emphasizing winning as the “glue” binding the organizational members together. 3) The Clan culture is described as family oriented, friendliness and supportive working environment, where it is seen as extended family, the supervisors or the superiors are perceived as facilitators and mentors; employees are characterized by high job and organization commitment and develop friendly relations. 4) The Adhocracy culture denotes risk taking, innovativeness guaranteed by high degree of dynamic and creative working environment.
In the recent changes at HEIs in Nigeria to deliver quality education to develop skilled and knowledgeable human resource for nation building in an increasingly complex global environment, it would be important to examine how lecturers’ perceptions of how the competing cultural orientations and values of their organization affect the way they work and their work outcomes.

Many studies have used organizational culture and organizational climate concepts interchangeably. Despite this, some scholars have maintained that these two construct may be interrelated but they are quite distinct (Ali & Patnaik, 2014). Organizational climate and organizational culture have been proven in separate research to be antecedents of organizational commitment. In this present research, both of these factors will be examined as separate entities.

According to Sarros, Cooper, & Santora (2011), organizational culture is specific to an organization, and it depicts meaning inherent in the actions, protocols and processes of organizational dealings and discourse. Denison (1996) asserts that, culture has to do with the organizational member’s belief in the deep structure of the organizations, rooted in the values and assumptions. Organizational culture focuses on shared behavioral expectation and normative beliefs that influence how people respond to their work, how they go about doing their work, and how they interact in work relationships.

On the other hand, organizational climate deals with how the individuals perceive the impact of their organizations’ work environment on their work motivation and output (Sarros et al., 2011). Literatures have established that, organizational climate generally encompasses perceptual assessment of organizational structures such as policies, routines, procedures, and work targets. Thus while researchers on climate are interested in measuring the members’ perception of the their organizations’ work environment, culture researchers are more concerned with the values and shared meaning and shared beliefs of members that influence how they choose to do their work and how they respond to work situations (Van Houtte & Van Maele, 2011).

It is important to highlight at this point that, the concern of culture is on values, meaning and beliefs shared by members that influence the way they work, whereas climate is concerned with how, or to what extent, those beliefs, meanings and values embedded in the procedures, routines and work processes drawn up by the organization are aligned to the values of individual employees, and how it affects their work motivation. According to the functionalist’s point of view, culture commonly accomplishes four tasks. (1) It offers members with shared interpretations with a view to offer them with expectations on how they think and act. (2) Members are equipped with shared patterns of commitment to values and norms, simply for them to know what they should value and feel. (3) A clear boundary is drawn by organizational culture to easily identify members and non-members. (4) it functions as control system, instructing members what is to do and what not to do (Van Houtte & Van Maele, 2011).
Despite these strong links between organizational climate and organizational culture, the two constructs should remain distinct (Scheneider et al., 2013). The uncertainties surrounding the inter-connectedness of organizational culture and climate are such that it may be prudent to measure both constructs simultaneously (Nieuwoudt, 2012; Ali & Patnaik, 2014). Thus, the theoretical and disciplinary differences between the two constructs should not be ignored (Sarros et al., 2011). Table 2.2 below depicts summaries of some differences between organizational climate and organizational culture.

Table 1.1: Organizational climate and organizational culture (some main differences)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational Climate</th>
<th>Organizational Culture</th>
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<tr>
<td>Represents the perceptions of employees with regard to the policies, practices and procedures of the organisation. Can be seen as a surface manifestation of culture (Patterson et al., 2005).</td>
<td>Represents the shared norms and values guiding employee interactions (Patterson et al., 2005).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Focuses on comparisons between different social settings (Fey &amp; Beamish, 2001). Emphasis is on employee perceptions and aspects of the observable practices and procedures of the organisation (Fey &amp; Beamish, 2001). Concerned with comparisons across the organisation at a single point in time (Fey &amp; Beamish, 2001). Relatively temporary, subject to control (Denison, 1996). Rooted in the value system and perceptions of employees (Denison, 1996).</td>
<td>Focuses on the unique aspects of a particular social setting (Fey &amp; Beamish, 2001). Emphasis is on the values and assumptions underlying the practices and procedures of the organisation (Wong &amp; He, 2001). Concerned with the evolution of the organisation over time (Fey &amp; Beamish, 2001). Meaning is established by means of socialization (Denison, 1996). Rooted in the deeper values, beliefs and underlying assumptions of employees (Denison, 1996). Created from the values and beliefs of top management (Denison, 1996). Generally deep and staple (Greatworkplace, 2009). Difficult to change (Cotton, 2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Created at lower levels in the organisation (Denison, 1996). Defined as the recurring patterns of attitudes, feelings and behaviours characterising life in the organisation (Greatworkplace, 2009). Relatively easy to change (when compared to organisational culture) (Cotton, 2004). Theoretical perspectives (Moran &amp; Volkwein, 1992): Structural: Climate is created because employees are exposed to common structural characteristics. Perceptual: Individuals respond to the situation in a way that is meaningful to them on a psychological level. Interactive: Interaction takes place between individuals who are responding to the same situation resulting in shared agreement. Cultural: Members share a common frame of reference. Measurement mostly conducted quantitatively (Gould-Williams, 2007; Patterson et al., 2005).</td>
<td>Measured mostly conducted qualitatively (Gould-Williams, 2007; Patterson et al., 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical perspectives (Verbeke, Volgering, &amp; Hessels, 2004): Holistic: Integrates cognitive and behavioural patterns of culture. Variable: Organisational culture is considered to be a variable of the organisation that can be controlled. Cognitive: Organisational culture is a knowledge system consisting of learned standards that are used for evaluating the environment.</td>
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Source: Nieuwoudt (2012)
On the basis of the arguments and empirical justifications advanced from the above explanations, and keeping view on the importance of the distinctive characteristics of organizational climate and organizational culture, these two variables have been taken as separate independent variables in this research.

1.4 Empowerment and Psychological Empowerment

One administrative practice in modern organizations in recent years is the empowerment of staff members (Randolph & Kemery, 2011). According to Perkins and Zimmerman (1995), empowerment comprises organizational practices and structures that boost employee participation and involvement at all levels of tactical and operational decision making, thus enabling the organization to achieve its goals and objectives in a collective manner. Empowerment facilitates work at all levels (Bhatnagar & Sandhu, 2005; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997) and in the long run empowerment leverages a worker’s commitment to his or her work, and to the organization (Kim, Lee, Murrmann, & George, 2011).

The importance of empowerment for academics in colleges and universities is significant, because academics are the ones at the center of learning activities who execute the mission and vision of these institutions, within the established framework and standards, morals values and expectations (Ahadi, Turiman, Ismail, & Omar, 2011). Empowerment as an organizational level variable has its rightful place as an antecedent of organizational commitment but unfortunately it has not received the desired attention in literature of organizational commitment (Hanaysha, 2016).

Many researchers ascertained that employee empowerment is an antecedent and predictor of job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour and other positive workplace outcomes (Laschinger, Finegan & Wilk, 2009a). Indeed, staff are more open and willing to appreciate work attractions especially where substantial consideration is accorded by the management to the culture of empowering and empowerment strategies (Gholifar, Hedjazi, Hoseini, & Rezaei, 2011).

Research has established that empowered workers have greater motivation to self-develop in their skills and knowledge, are more willing to harmonized or align their individual goals with institutional excellence, are to be expected to immeasurably benefit the lecturers and the entire institution, and are sincere in having long term commitment to the institution (Biron & Bamberger, 2010; Yeatts, 2012). Empowerment facilitates employee and employers to work independently in their work place. In empowered higher educational institutions lecturers are able to contribute to decision making, perform duties authoritatively, initiate and develop work en masse and independently (Ahadi & Suandi, 2014). Empowerment improves lecturers motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and positive achievement of goals and objectives (Hanaysha, 2016). Hence, empowerment is regarded as one of the successful tools of administration in recent years (Hebenstreit,
In higher education institutions, staff empowerment has turned out to be a perennial matter of concern and subsequently an imperative commitment from the management level to staff members (Hariri & Roberts, 2014). The research in workers’ empowerment has identified two levels of empowerment namely: (i) *empowerment* by which the structure, policies and work processes within organizations empower the staff; (ii) *psychological empowerment* by which the organization support and encourage the staff through good work relationships, work settings, and reward and recognition systems. Psychological empowerment is defined as the individual’s sense making in the workplace, where staffs feel they accomplish a meaningful task that has an impact on beneficiaries, and they feel encouraged to showcase proficiency and autonomy (Parker & Griffin, 2011). Conger and Kanungo (1988) defines psychological empowerment as the process of enhancing the feeling of self-efficacy among the members of an organization to increase their innovative behavior and effectiveness. Psychological empowerment is deemed to raise lecturer’s organizational commitment (Choong, Wong, & Lau, 2011). The relationship between psychological empowerment and organization commitment is also buttressed by social exchange theory which advocates that acts on the part of superiors to sustain good work relationships, democratize work settings, and reward good performance or contribution empowers employees to give in return their commitment to the organization, and increase their willingness to continue with the organization (Cicolini, Comparcini, & Simonetti, 2014).

Empowerment from the structural perspective is linked with specific managerial practices to performance but this perspective is narrow because it offers an organizationally-centric outlook on empowerment (Spreitzer, 2007). Hence it does not address the nature of empowerment as it is experienced by employees (Laschinger et al 2009 cited in Theron, 2010). This is an important remission because in some situations, all empowerment policies and support might have been provided by the structural authorities to the employees, but yet they still feel disempowered. And conversely in other situations, individuals who lack all the structural features of an empowering work environment may feel and act in empowered ways. Therefore, the need for a psychological perspective on empowerment becomes imperative. The justification of selecting psychological empowerment as a mediator is even more intense given the increasing pressure exerted on governments world-wide to continually increase the allocated budget to higher education to enable HEIs to improve the quality of the structure and infrastructure of the organization in anticipation of better outputs from academics and faculty.

Psychologically empowered employees are more willing to participate in change, more responsive to ground-breaking thoughts and are not afraid to try something novel (Spreitzer, 2008; Stewart, McNulty, Griffin, & Fitzpatrick, 2010). Spreitzer (1996) stated that psychological empowerment includes intrapersonal, interactional, and behavioral empowerment. Within the intrapersonal domain, Spreitzer (1995) defined psychological empowerment as an intrinsic task motivation that manifests itself in cognitions reflecting an individual’s orientation to his or her work roles. Psychological empowerment has been found to influence employees’ job commitment and job performance (Sahoo, Behera, & Tripathy, 2010) and task
completion Spreitzer (1995a). Psychological empowerment is imperative in order for employees to have control and overcome their task demand (Spreitzer, 1995). Creative and empowered employees are critical to the survival of any organization, institutions of higher learning inclusive.

Thomas & Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment as increased task motivation manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Their four cognitions model was based upon employees’ perception and feeling about their work roles, and the effect of the work place on the employee’s personal disposition, attitudes and behaviors. The four psychological states are defined by Thomas & Velthouse (1990) as follows:

**Meaning** reflects the degree to which an individual believes in and cares about work goals or purposes. **Meaningfulness** is judged in relation to an individual’s own ideals or standards of need. **Competence** refers to self-efficacy specific to work and is rooted in an individual’s belief in his or her knowledge and capability to perform task activities with skill and success. Feelings of competence are analogous to effort-performance expectancy, personal mastery, and agency beliefs (Bandura, 1997). **Self-determination** represents the degree to which an individual feels causal responsibility for work-related actions, in the sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). **Impact** is the degree to which behavior is seen as making a difference in terms of achieving the purpose of the task and influencing strategic, administrative or operating outcomes at work. Spreitzer (1992; 1995) used Thomas and Velthouse (1990)’s conceptual definitions to develop and authenticate their empowerment measurement model. From Spreitzer (1992; 1995)’s work, it was concluded that these four cognitions were directly linked to the feeling of individual empowerment.

It was noted that most of the psychological empowerment scales such as the one developed by Spreitzer (1992; 1995) were referent to business environment settings. Fulfilling the need to develop a similar measurement scale for educational settings, Short and Reinhart (1992) introduced a psychological empowerment scale in educational settings that is dependent on six dimensions, called the School Participants Empowerment Scale (SPES). Short and Rinehart (1992) six components of psychological empowerment in educational institutions consisted of autonomy, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, impact and decision making. These six components were grounded on Spreitzer’s (1992; 1995) model of four components of psychological empowerment which includes competence, self-determination, meaning and impact. This present research uses Short and Rinehart’s (1992) six components instrument to measure the psychological empowerment of lecturers in education setting.
1.5 Related theoretical framework of the research: Social Exchange Theory and Agency Theory

Apart from the major theories of organizational commitment, organizational climate, organizational culture and psychological empowerment used in this study, a few other related theories relevant to the factors examined in this study and the relationships between them are also highlighted. These related theories are Social Exchange Theory and Agency Theory.

1.5.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social exchange theory explains organizational commitment in terms of how individuals respond to organizational context and how they perceive and feel their needs are being met by the organization which in return triggers a reciprocal sense of voluntary commitment of the individual towards the organization goals and objectives (Blau, 1994). According to Blau, (1964) exchange theory explains the consequence of the exchange relationship between the individual and the organization. The theory suggests as the exchange becomes more favorable from the individual’s point of view, his or her commitment to the organization increases. Social exchange theorists have divulged continued employment in an organization as the trade of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards (Gilbert, Laschinger, & Leiter, 2010). Indeed, SET functions as a major theoretical framework upon which most organizational commitment studies were founded.

Central to the SET is the role of cognition within the individuals as they perceive and understand, and then respond and react to circumstances, whereby the basis of those said acts would be positively or negatively reciprocal depending on the perceived value of the exchange (Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000). The main premise of social exchange theory is that individuals tend to associate and form relationships with select others who provide valued resources, including information, trust and emotional support. The propensity for individuals to reciprocate resources and support received from another person is so pervasive that Gouldner (1960) denoted it to the phenomenon as the norm of reciprocity. Although individual differences exist in the degree to which people feel a sense of obligation to be committed to the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), there is a general tendency for individuals to feel the need to repay exchange partners for the support and benefits enjoyed. Individuals often express their gratitude for support received from an organization by increasing their level of commitment to the organization (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Commitment may be expressed in work behaviors said to benefit the organization.

The SET norm is made of the fact that human beings react and look forward for reward and shun risk by maximizing benefits and minimizing costs. In outlining the social exchange process, Blau (1994) describes the important role of obligation by individuals and groups in order to stimulate reciprocity in the exchange process. Further, in pursuing the social exchange process, the focus is on the value of the
exchange outcome which is to be of roughly equivalent values. The exchange process terminates as a result of failure in the demand of resources or nonequivalent exchange values (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

### 1.5.2 Agency Theory

However, the Social Exchange Theory disregards the dialogical intermission that occurs within the individual as he or she internalizes and evaluates the context and estimates the value of the exchange before the individual makes a decision to reciprocate with a level of commitment the individual is willing to make to the organization or other persons. Cognitive psychologists have already proven that how individuals respond to circumstance would depend on the level of his or her cognitive psychological maturity (Bandura, 1997) which often come as a result of his/her knowledge, observation and experience (Cherry, 2013). However, within the context of formal organizational work, organizational policies and organizational procedures, another theory called the Agency theory espoused by Giddens (1984) posited that individuals (agents) being the principal agents continually seek to translate those forms and procedures in the work place in as many ways that would best promote facilitation of work, work-place wellbeing, and work place empowerment. The Agency Theory is central to many discussions on self-empowerment (Ahmad et al., 2013). Agency theory stipulates that a worker would achieve full sense of being empowered when he or she has learned to accept that policies and procedures while being regulatory and possibly inhibitive, they could also be translated or formulated in different ways such as through informal work strategies, short achievable sets of outcomes as opposed to long term opaque ones, and close network of peer support to achieve the same work outcomes. The understanding of the duality of policies, procedures, and norms underpin the Agency Theory of worker empowerment at the work place (Kivistö, 2005; Lane & Kivisto, 2008). In this present doctoral study, it is proposed that Agency Theory explains the mediating role that empowerment vis-à-vis psychological empowerment plays in the individuals’ level of commitment in response to his or her regard of the circumstances prevalent in the organization he or she works in. Agency theory would help to explain why the level of commitment is different amongst workers who work in the same organization and under the same conditions.

In a fluid and an embedded way, the agency relationship is derived from the contractual agreement between principal agents (employers) and agents (workers) in the expectation that the agents will take actions to produce outcomes as expected by the principal agents (Mitnick, 2013). But within this contractual premise, the agents rise to create and use their autonomy to translate the contractual agreement of expectations into more flexible outcomes with correspondingly more fluid processes. Agency within each and every individual actor is expected to explain the differential degree of commitment of agents such as lecturers working in colleges, polytechnics, and universities.

As previously mentioned one of the setbacks of SET is its focus mainly on the act of individuals but tends to neglect the wider social cultural context and disparities in
regional cultures that might possibly influence people’s behavior. In particular, SET is grounded on a rewards exchange paradigm, but in some cultures of the world people may perhaps not seek reward for a relationship or for a commitment they make. Communities steep in religious belief or altruistic values for instance believe in the higher purpose of a sincere commitment to a selected cause. The social environmental context therefore ought to play an important role in our attempt to study the influence of context on the behavior of individuals in SET. However, it is not in the purview of this research to advocate or examine SET in the wider context of regional social culture.

1.6 Context of the proposed study: Nigeria

In Nigeria, the Federal and State Government highlighted the role of Higher Education Institution in the human capital development of the nation towards achieving the objective of producing the needed skilled manpower for managerial and technocratic advancement in economic, social and political sectors. There are over 113 Universities, 74 Polytechnics, 80 Colleges of Education, 53 Monotechnics and 45 Innovation Enterprise institutions in Nigeria to fulfill the demands for tertiary education for millions of secondary school completers (Isumonah & Egwaikhide, 2013). The key goals of HEIs as specified in the National Policy on Education of Federal Republic of Nigeria (NPE, 2004) include:

1. To facilitate national development through appropriate short, medium and high-level manpower training;
2. To develop, promote and instill proper values for the existence of society;
3. Advance the intellectual competence of individuals to understand and appreciate their indigenous and external environments;
4. Acquire both physical and intellectual expertise which will empower individual to be self-reliant and usefully contribute to the society;
5. Sponsor and inspire scholarship and community services;
6. Forge and strengthen national unity; and
7. Promote national, international understanding and institutions.

The expectation was generally conceived for HEI to provide educational competency, skills and training relevant to national demands of working life. HEIs are also expected to carry out research activities that yield fruits for the development and promotion of a knowledge-based economy, technological advancement, and social integration at local, regional development and global levels. The strong and unequivocal relationship between higher education and nation development is never more important as it is today in Nigeria (Ifenkwe, 2013). According to Obayan (2002), in Nigeria the outcomes expected from all its HEIs is the development of human resource who possess critical and analytical thinking power, excellent communicative skills, problem solving abilities, teamwork spirit, resourcefulness and lifelong learning skills, and who will be capable to fast track national development.
In realization of the objectives for nation building, the positions of HEIs are upgraded. Based on previous decisions in relation to HEIs, most of the supervision or monitoring of HEIs have now been transferred to their respective States Ministries of Higher education. In addition, relevant regulatory agencies, Boards and Commissions were recently established at the federal level to formulate and direct policies aimed at regulating and intervening in areas of needs to maintain quality of outcomes from the HEIs. The regulations for quality are in line with global best practices, and they include NUC, NCCE, TETFUND and NBTE. In addition, the recent laws of governance for HEIs have also now stipulated the constitution of a legal governing board to overlook the internal organizational affairs within the HEIs to ensure high quality service delivery. The board is assigned responsibilities over policy issues, monitoring of assets and liabilities and bridging with Government and other stakeholder on behalf of HEIs (Yusuf, 2014). Academic committees consisting of leading officials from amongst the academic staff and faculty administration, while still being responsible for all academic affairs, are now also expected to make decisions regarding academia matters within the framework suggested by the governing boards. All these structural changes are expected to have high impact on lecturers who teach, conduct research and guide students in these HEIs (Arong & Ogbadu, 2010; Ifenkwe, 2013).

In Nigeria, the senior management at higher education institutions consists of the chief executives (provost/rector), the deans at school level, and directors at the institutes and centers. These officials are expected to be supportive and enthusiastic for the continued development of HEIs. Similar support and commitment is pledged by the Provost in colleges of education, the Rectors of polytechnic, the Dean of Student Affairs and the Director of works, and heads of departments at centers and institutes.

A professional culture of academic quality is enshrined and operationalized in various facets of HEIs operations and many administrative and academic affairs are managed according to the strategic decisions by a structure of committees, boards/entities and the Senate. Program accreditation systems are established; examination regulations are reviewed and standardized. This suggests a level of coordination and interpersonal involvement in decision making process at respective levels in the HEIs, thus setting the climate for goals achievement (Oladipo, Adeosun, & Oni, 2009).

The HEIs are autonomous in the recruitment and management of its human resource pool. However, since the staffs are paid directly by Government the autonomy is limited with regards to the employment of additional staff or replacement of those staff that leave the services. Nevertheless, lecturers are given much support and assistance in their work, and they have been given relatively more academic freedom, all of which should now in recent years make HEIs attractive place to remain and work in. Academic freedom is relatively well instituted in HEIs, but the freedom might not be equally shared in other public sector such as colleges of education and polytechnics, nor even in private institutions. HEIs are receiving support to embark on additional training to improve the teaching and learning skills
of their staff, the use of ICT, or pursuance of higher degree of PhD qualifications often with study fellowship grants, and a reduced teaching load over an extended period of time or without any teaching commitment. Staffs are encouraged to attend conferences, mostly at the national level (David, 2013). Newly recruited lecturers are usually enrolled into induction programs and activities which introduces and expose them to the operations of HEIs and provide them with vital information on the techniques and approaches in teaching and learning. The induction is supplemented with a staff handbook which provides relevant information on rules, regulations, services and support available to staff in the institutions, and a teaching manual. It is envisioned that training and development will help in optimizing the utilization of human resource that further helps the employee to achieve the organizational goals as well as their individual goals (Díaz et al 2010, Hanaysha, 2016).

However, there is some considerable amount of discrepancy in the support and privileges experienced by colleges and polytechnics in Nigeria. Although statutorily recognized as being part of HEIs, colleges and polytechnics remain distinct and apart in comparison to their university counterparts especially in terms of career level and career paths. It is not possible for lecturers in colleges and polytechnics to elevate through career progression to professorial positions, regardless of the academic qualifications they possessed. This is one instance of governance law that does not empower the polytechnic and colleges in spite of being statutorily recognized as HEI (Adeyemi, Oribabor, & Adeyemi, 2012).

In spite of the reforms aimed at improving the HEIs sector in Nigeria to achieve optimal performance, the challenges facing the sector are still numerous (Kpolovie & Obilor, 2013). While some of these emerged with the changing socio-economic and political and cultural conditions of the time, others have evolved as a result of government oversight or lapse of adequate monitoring of the education sector especially as it concerns keeping pace with emerging realities, such as servicing Nigeria’s growing population, and the increasing disparity between the demand and need of education services and facilities (Isumonah & Egwaikhide, 2013). The provision of higher education has other wider socio-political and economic implications notwithstanding that education remains a very essential and potent component that produces a healthy and prosperous nation. Even though the accessibility to higher education has slightly increased over the recent years due to establishment of more institutions by the government, still the nation is far from its goal to address the increasing demand for tertiary education (Ahmed, 2015b). The number of HEIs has indeed grown, particularly the number of universities from 51 to 128. Yet even with this quantum numerical increase, the colleges and universities have been over-stretched to their limits (Ahmed, 2015a). One interim solution was to upgrade some colleges of education and polytechnics to degree-awarding institutions, yet, less than one fifth of the over 1.5 million qualified applicants are annually admitted into first degree programs. Consequent upon the massive expansion of demand for tertiary education, quality issues have arisen related to overcrowding, inadequate lecturer qualifications, and high rate of lecturer turn over.
Even as recent as in 2014, the EFA Global Monitoring Report (EFA GMR) launched in January, 2014 by UNESCO, reported that Nigeria has some of the worst education pointers globally (Olufunke & Oluremi, 2014). It pointed out that inequity and education expenditures as indices that have contributed most to the damning evidence on the state of education (Isumonah & Egwaikhide, 2013), including the increasing disparity between the demand and need of education services and facilities, particularly in tertiary education (Abdullah, Abdullahi, & Abdulsomad, 2014). To top that, The EFA GMR stated that Nigeria has about 10.5 million out-of-school children, the largest in Africa in absolute terms, and all of these children will require and demand for education from the primary level right up to tertiary level. With specific regard to tertiary education, the onus of responsibility to provide opportunities of education must be shared between the educational authorities who must continue to balance the inequities inherent in the provision of education and on the other hand, the lecturers who must be held wholly responsible for the quality of education they impart to the public so that the people are able to obtain competitive knowledge and skills.

1.7 Statement of Problem

There is paucity of literature on the relationships between organizational culture, psychological empowerment and organizational climate in higher education systems (Sotirofski 2014; Ahadi and Saundi, 2014). In addition, Ahadi (2014; Hanaysha, 2016), noted with concern, that in those available researches of organizational commitment, not much empirical research has been carried out on academic empowerment with particular reference to its roles in affecting lecturers commitment in achieving institutional goals. Equally noted was that organizational climate and organizational culture were rarely examined simultaneously as an antecedent of organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment (Nieuwoudt 2012; Ali and Patnaik, 2014), especially in Higher educational institutions (Noordin et al, 2012). Nie and Lee (2014) also stated that empirical outcomes related to psychological empowerment in education especially of teachers are still scarce. Lately, many practitioners and researchers in organizational theory and practice have acknowledged that psychological empowerment is a critical factor, hence it should be examined with other organizational antecedents to affect organizational commitment (Azeem, et al, 2015). Pradhan, Pinda and Jena (2017) opined that organizational commitment is rarely achieved when individuals did not personally feel empowered. In this light, the findings from this study intends to fill in the gap in empirical knowledge about how lecturers’ psychological empowerment as well as the effects of organizational culture and organizational climate all simultaneously affect organizational commitment of lecturers in HEIs. This knowledge will immensely benefit stakeholders to understand how organizational antecedents (organizational climate, organizational culture, psychological empowerment) are related to achieve organizational commitment in HEIs.

Borno state in Nigeria, the location site of this doctoral study, has the highest number of state owned HEIs and along with that, the highest rate of lecturer turnover. Borno state is currently short of qualified lecturers to effectively handle teaching and learning activities (Babagana & Dungus, 2015). Many HEIs institutions
are not able to employ additional lecturers due to underfunding (MJaja, 2014). The few available lecturers are extremely over worked resulting in persistent problems of high turnover and low commitment (Okorosaye-Orubite, Pauley, & Abraham, 2012). As a result of lecturer shortage in some specialties, many academic programs offered in HEIs across the country are usually not fully accredited by the accreditation agencies (Ebisine et al., 2014). As recent as in 2014, the EFA Global Monitoring Report (EFA GMR), reported that Nigeria has some of the worst education pointers globally (UNESCO, 2014), suggesting therefore the existence of poor organizational culture and climate.

This fairly dismal scenario continues to occur in spite of the great anticipation by the public and the people of Nigeria on the lecturers’ role in transforming the younger generation. Given the recent directive that HEI comes under the direct purview of the State Ministry of Higher Education, the question is: Have lecturers in Borno State, Nigeria, begun to perceive their role differently and come to embrace the critical roles they have in the education system? Have their commitment to work in HEIs to achieve the national goals increased? Of particular importance in this study, the researcher seeks to examine first, whether the changes in the structure of hierarchical governance has affected the way lecturers perceive the present organizational climate and culture of their place of work, and how these perceptions subsequently increased or decreased their sense of commitment to their organization. Do lecturers experience empowerment in the present conditions of their organizational climate and culture, and does this empowerment affect their level of organizational commitment? It is imperative to discover if the structural changes have resulted in work conditions (vis a vis organizational culture and climate) in the colleges of education and polytechnics that in turn cause greater empowerment or disempowerment. This is important since the urgent thrust of the structural transformation and reform of HEIs is to retain and improve the quality and experienced lecturers, and not to lose them in the transition.

Surprisingly, these institutions have often been omitted in many researches done on HEIs in Nigeria. Even though these institutions are statutorily gazetted as HEIs, yet their limited and sparse inclusion and representativeness in many academic reports do not attest to their legitimate positions. Even the EFA GMR was conspicuously sparse in its coverage of conditions in colleges of education and polytechnics. Moreover, lecturers in these colleges of education, monotechnics and polytechnics do not share the same career path as their peers in the universities. In these institutions, lecturers do not get promotions to professorial level regardless of the higher qualifications they possess. Many studies on organizational commitment and employee psychological empowerment are basically western culture oriented, and are situated in business sectors (example: Sotrofki, 2014; Ahadi et al., 2014 Brown, McHardy, McNabb, & Taylor, 2011; Phipps, Prieto, & Ndinguri, 2013). Work commitment and worker psychological empowerment in the context of HEIs have yet to receive similar amount of attention in the literature (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). In Nigeria, studies of organizational commitment in educational institutions are also few, and even lesser involving Colleges of Education, monotechnics and polytechnics in Borno State. Hence this research fulfills the dearth
of research of organizational commitment in the selected Colleges of Education, monotechnics and polytechnics in Borno State.

Sotrofki, (2014) states that empowerment is culturally and contextually influenced. It is therefore argued here that since Nigeria has a distinct culture from other parts of the globe, lecturers’ perception and response to organizational commitment and its antecedents of organizational climate, organizational culture and psychological empowerment may be culturally influenced. This study as well aims to study the differences in these perceptions in the context of lecturers in Borno State HEIs. According to House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, (2004) cited in Elele & Fields, (2010), the GLOBE study has reported that in general, Nigerians were found to have higher power distance, higher in-group collectivism and lower performance orientation scores. Historically, Nigeria still retains much adherence to the colonial form of centralized control (Bayo, 2012), and people might perceive and interpret empowerment differently from other western cultures (Ahadi et al., 2014). Empowerment can be viewed differently across cultures (Hofstede, 2011; Sotrofki, 2014). Empowerment needs therefore to be contextually understood in the case of Nigeria, where it’s centralized bureaucracy and tiered authority levels of decision making affects people’s view of their role in mediating between organizational factors (culture and climate) and their commitment to stay in the colleges, polytechnic or monotechnics.

1.8 Purpose of study

Specifically, the purpose of the present study is as follows. This study firstly, attempts to capture the experience of organizational climate and culture by lecturers as a result of the changes in the governance and aspirations of HEIs in Borno State. Secondly, there is a need to determine the extent to which these climate and culture experienced by lecturers directly influence their commitment level. From this examination, we would be able to offer the Nigerian government some insights as regards to how organizational climate and culture create impact on lecturer empowerment and subsequently their organizational commitment. If proven, one can then go ahead to make useful assumptions about how change has affected lecturers’ commitment to the organization. Thirdly, it is useful to find out if the lecturers’ experience of the organizational climate and culture has resulted in a sense of psychological empowerment and if so, does this empowerment behave as a mediator to mediate between the effect of organizational climate and culture onto the level of professed organizational commitment. Moreover, since this research used structural path analysis in SEM, it would therefore be possible to trace not only the paths of relationships between variables, but more importantly, the magnitude of the mediation path, that is, the extent to which psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between organizational climate and organizational culture to lecturers’ organizational commitment.

Where there is inadequate amount of resources and poor quality of lecturers, the attainment of good quality in higher education will be difficult (Aluede, Idogho, & Imonikhe, 2012). Given the unfortunate state of the HEIs in Borno state which
include high lecturers’ absenteeism from work, poor attitude to work, high turnover, and low capacity for nation building, there is therefore a pressing need for a study to determine how lecturers could be assisted to be psychologically empowered through the creation of enabling organizational climate and organizational culture in order to overcome and circumvent low organizational commitment in HEIs in Borno state, Nigeria.

1.9 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to determine the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and organizational commitment of lecturers in higher educational institutions in Borno state-Nigeria. Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Examine the descriptive demographic characteristics of the sample and the descriptive levels of organizational commitment, organizational climate, organizational culture and psychological empowerment
2. Determine whether there is significant difference in lecturers perception on their organizational commitment based on gender and whether there is significant relationship between lecturers’ organizational commitment to their age and length of service?
3. Determine the relationships between organizational climate and organizational culture, psychological empowerment and to organizational commitment
4. Determine the relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and organizational commitment.
5. Determine the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and organizational commitment.
6. Determine the goodness of fit for the proposed model in the role of psychological empowerment in mediating the relationship between organizational climate and organizational culture with organizational commitment

1.10 Research Questions

The following are the research questions that guided the study. The research questions are accompanied here by the research hypotheses wherever applicable.

1. What is the distribution of demographic characteristics of the sample and the levels of organizational commitment, organizational climate, organizational culture and psychological empowerment?
2. Is there a significant difference in lecturers perception on their organizational commitment based on gender?
Ha1: There is significant difference in lecturers perception on organizational commitment based on gender.

3. Is there a significant relationship between lecturers’ organizational commitment to their age and length of service?
Ha2: There is significant relationship between lecturers’ organizational commitment to their age and length of service.

4. Are there significant relationships between organizational climate, organizational culture, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment?
Ha3: There is significant relationship between organizational climate and organizational commitment.
Ha4: There is significant relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment.
Ha5: There is significant relationship between organizational climate and psychological empowerment.
Ha6: There is significant relationship between organizational culture and psychological empowerment.
Ha7: There is significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment.

5. What is the direct effect between organizational climate, organizational culture, and organizational commitment?

6. What is the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and organizational commitment?
Ha8: Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between organizational climate and organizational culture towards organizational commitment.

7. Does the proposed model on the role of psychological empowerment in mediating the relationship between organizational climate and organizational culture to organizational commitment achieve goodness of fit test levels?

1.11 Significance of the Study

The relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and lecturer psychological empowerment and organizational commitment is one of the most significant outputs expected out of this research. Organizational success in educational settings, particularly HEIs depends on how educational managers set their priorities in implementing institutional policies and work environment that create institutions with good climate and culture in order to develop staff empowerment as a top level strategy to retain best hands in the organization to help the organization achieve success. Therefore, the significance of this study is discussed in two standpoints, namely (i) benefits to the practice, and (ii) added knowledge to the theory of organizational commitment and SET. This study is significant for the following practice based reasons:
First, the result of this study filled the gap in empirical findings of the relationships between organizational climate, organizational culture and psychological empowerment and organizational commitment dimensions in Nigerian Higher Educational system.

Second, since there are numerous traditions and culture in African countries, including Nigeria, the study intends to highlight how differences in the demographic background and culture of Nigerian respondents might modulate perceptions of empowerment, organizational culture, organizational climate, and organizational commitment. These demographic influences, if any, might explain the Nigerian level of response to Allen and Meyer model of organizational commitment.

Thirdly, the findings of this study provide information that is useful to assist practitioners and administrators to develop and manage policy directions regarding human resources management in Higher Educational institutions, and to regulate policies that would have positive impact on organizational climate, organizational culture, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment dimensions.

Fourth, the study is evidence base information to administrators in Higher Educational Institutions to diagnose strength and weaknesses within their institutions by taking in to cognizance their organizational context (culture, climate) thus, develop and improve appropriate policies and programs to sustain better organizational environments.

Fifth, the study also inform educational leaders involved in the management of lecturers the necessity of fostering improved working relationships between Heads of Higher Educational Institution and lecturers to serve as a conduit to improve organizational culture and climate, and empowerment.

Sixth, this study also addresses the problem of turnovers among lecturers by using a model of relationship between organizational culture, organizational climate and empowerment. It is hoped that a sound operational model may then be developed by educational leaders within HEIs so that lecturer’s commitment may be ensured.

The study intends to contribute to the theory of organizational commitment by highlighting and discussing on the following:

(i) Whether organizational culture and climate and psychological empowerment are indeed antecedents to organizational commitment in the context of Nigeria. This knowledge would fill the gap in much western-context literature on organizational commitment.

(ii) Whether psychological empowerment is related to perceptions of organizational culture or organizational climate.
(iii) Whether psychological empowerment can be proven as a valid mediator in strengthening the model of organizational commitment in the Nigerian context.

1.12 Assumptions of the Study

In carrying out this study, the following assumptions were taken into account. The first assumption was that lecturers as representatives of Higher Education Institutions will cooperate and objectively and sincerely respond to the questionnaires. The second assumption was that all the sampled lecturers were able to respond to the questionnaire, which was constructed entirely in English. However, this would not be a problem since English is widely spoken in Nigeria. The third assumption concerns the integrity of the researcher who needed to maintain consistency throughout the data collection phase so that respondents are exposed to the same explanation of terms and instructions.

1.13 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The research is not free of limitations, the study focuses on selected HEIs. Three colleges of education, one monotechnics and one polytechnic in Borno state, within the north east zone in Nigeria. As such, the outcomes are not representative of other states of the federation and African countries. The decision of selecting the state is also as a result of strategic disposition of being the most oldest among the states in the zone, with very established HEIs. Borno state also reports the highest percentage of lecturer turnover in comparison to other states (Ahmed, 2015b; Babagana, et al., 2015).

The study is limited to the study of the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational climate, organizational culture and organizational commitment as perceived by lecturers. Structural empowerment is not included in this study since it has already been reported that the infrastructure and work facilities are of consistently unsatisfying condition in Nigeria (Ofojebe, 2015). Hence discrepancy and insufficiency in amenities such as equivalent salaries, work hours, and work procedures are the norm rather than the exception. It is the contention of this doctoral research that the organizational culture and climate and psychological empowerment induced by such environments is a more powerful choice of variables to understand lecturers’ commitment to their organizations.

As the study design is correlational, and since not all empirical factors related to organizational climate, organizational culture and empowerment are considered in this study, the possibilities of other variables affecting the outcome exist. The research is limited in framework and scope, in the face of many theories and models proposed by scholars in these fields. The proposed study make use of Personal Assessment of College Environment Questionnaire (PACE, 2005), to measure
organizational climate, School Participant Empowerment Scale (SPES, 1992) to measure psychological empowerment, Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI, 1999) to measure organizational culture and Allen and Meyer (1997), and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), to measure organizational commitment. These instruments were previously used by other researchers in different organizations to measure constructs related to all the variables in this research, and therefore their validity and reliability are established but these were mainly in western contexts. This study would test the validity and reliability of these instruments in a non-western context but only in the limited region of Borno State, Nigeria.

The study was carried out among HEI lecturers. One limitation includes the possibility of capturing low return rate of questionnaires from the lecturers. Another limitation is that the findings of this research may not be generalized to other professions outside of education, nor to other lecturers in other higher learning institutions outside the scope of the sampled institutions in Borno State. As was stated earlier, colleges and polytechnics are often given only restricted and differential inclusion in the overall category of HEIs in Nigeria, in spite of their statutory status as public HEIs.

1.14 Conceptual and Operational Definition of Terms

Organizational commitment is a psychological state that characterizes employees association with the organization, and their intention to maintain organizational membership. It denotes the employees’ emotional attachment to identify with the organization, and their willingness to become involved in the activities and goals of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1996). The three dimensions of affective, normative and continuance commitment as proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997) were compositely used in this research to denote organizational commitment.

Organizational climate refers to employee’s perceptions of the policies, practices, procedures and interactions in the organization that are observable, encouraged, and endorsed through human relation, internal process of formalization and traditions in an organization (Patterson et al, 2005). In this study organizational climate were studied from these dimensions Institutional Structure, Supervisory Relationship, Teamwork, and Student Focus, as denoted by Patterson.

Organizational culture refers to employees’ experience of the norms and values that influence assumptions, and expectations and values at their workplace, which in turn influence how they think and respond to the settings in the organization (Schein, 2010). The four types of organizational culture (Hierarchy, Adhocracy, Clan and Market Culture) are unitarily studied in this research (Hartnell et al 2011).

Psychological empowerment is defined as “increased intrinsic task motivation exhibited in a set of cognitions (task assessment) reflecting an individual’s alignment
to his or her work role” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Conger and Kanungo (1988) defines psychological empowerment as the process of enhancing the feeling of self-efficacy among members of an organization to increase their innovative behavior and effectiveness. Short and Rinehart (1992) defined six components of psychological empowerment: decision making, status, self-efficacy, autonomy, professional growth, and impact. All six components were utilized in this study as a measure of psychological empowerment.

Higher education institutions (HEI) are referred to as post-secondary education. HEI includes Federal universities, State Universities, University of Technology, University of Agriculture, polytechnics, monotechnics and Colleges of education. They are usually referred to as either Tertiary Institutions, or Institutions of Higher learning established either by the Federal Government, State Government or Private Agencies as provided by the National Policy on Education of Nigeria (NPE, 2004).

In this study, HEIs comprised (i) colleges of education designated to train and produce qualified non graduate teachers with Nigeria certificate of Education(NCE) with the objectives of meeting the basic level of education teacher requirement( primary and junior secondary)in the Nigerian education system; (ii) Polytechnics whose education is aimed at producing middle level technicians required at public and private sectors of the Nigerian economy who usually earn a National Diploma at the end of the learning period; (iii) Monotechnics are diploma awarding institutions basically focusing on humanities and social services courses customized to meet the professional requirements of middle level personnel working in private and public sector. All these institutions sampled in this present study primarily aim to contribute to the development of human resource of the population.

Lecturers: These are employees of HEIs with requisite qualification of bachelor, master or doctorate degree, who educate, does research and guide and facilitates students learning in higher education institutions.
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