Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Empowerment: An Empirical Study of British Managers

by

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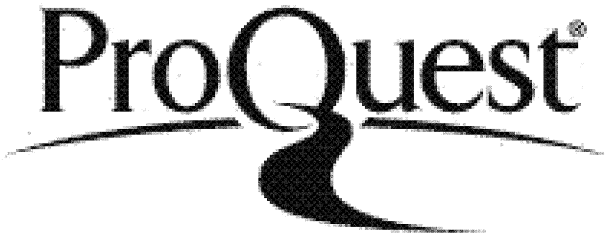
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ABSTRACT

Spreitzer's (1995) four dimension psychological empowerment measurement has opened up a wealth of research possibilities for the organisational behaviour researcher to study the subject of employee empowerment more objectively and analytically. However, many current studies employed Spreitzer's empowerment model by aggregating the four measures resulting in a less than adequate understanding of the concept of empowerment. It is suggested that by critically investigating the four empowerment dimensions separately, a more fine-grained understanding on the aspects of psychological empowerment can be examined (Carless, 2004). Moreover, few studies to date have been made with on organisational specific level as most studies seem to focus on personality specific level. For the purpose of this study, the antecedents of psychological empowerment proposed are organicity, centralisation, organisational support, training, rewards, information sharing, leadership trust, role conflict and role ambiguity. Together these measures encompass Structure and Support, HR Practices, Leadership Trust and Conflict and Ambiguity dimensions of organisations. The outcomes of empowerment are job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention. The sample was drawn from an alumnus of a well known business school in the Britain. All the respondents (n = 284), comprising managers of British businesses randomly selected from a range of industry sector. Data analysis was performed in three stages: firstly, the direct relationships between antecedents and outcomes as well as individual psychological empowerment variables were made; secondly mediation tests were performed on all possible variables; thirdly, moderation tests were analysed.

The results strongly support the hypotheses that the antecedents' positively impacted on dimensions of psychological empowerment. As for outcomes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment impacted positively by perceptions of psychological empowerment whilst turnover intentions impacted negatively. Additionally, mediation analysis employing Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures found that dimensions of psychological empowerment in particular meaning, self-determination and impact mediated between the antecedents and outcomes. Moderation effects further suggest that aspects of empowerment, in particular meaning, self-determination and impact are enhanced in the presence of positive HR practices and supportive organisational structures. Demographics like job level, tenure and age also moderated the relationship between antecedents and work outcomes supporting the notion that empowerment initiatives should be addressed differently depending on employee circumstances. Competence, however did not suggest any mediation supporting concerns posited by Kraimer *et al.* (1999) and Siegall and Gartner (2000). The study also found strong support for organisational commitment and job satisfaction mediating the relationship between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions. Overall, the study supports the premise that employee empowerment needs to be approached in a holistic manner, failing which empowerment initiatives would be futile. The study further contributes to the growing body of literature on employee empowerment by empirically testing related organisational behaviour constructs.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife, Linda and my two children Desmond and Eugene.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1-1 Background of Study

The field of human resources management (HRM) and its role in improving organisational performance has attracted much attention in the last two decades. This is because HRM is seen by business and academic community alike as a powerful resource to revitalise ailing organisations and provide a sustained source of competitive advantage. A growing number of studies have revealed that more investment into human capital is vital. Also, the implementation of HR practices may contribute to improved financial well-being (Huselid, 1995; Huselid *et al.* 1997). It has often been suggested that by employing appropriate HR practices, the performance of a firm can be enhanced significantly. In the longer term, HR best practices can eventually become a source of competitive advantage for the firm (Liu *et al.* 2007; Way, 2002; Ferris *et al.,* 1999; Poole and Jenkins, 1996; Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Pfeffer, 1994). Employee empowerment is one such HRM practice that is universally recommended by business management gurus (see for example, Kanter, 1979; 1984; 1989a; 1989b; and Peters and Waterman, 1982; Peters, 1989; 1992; Logan and King, 2004) as a mechanism to transform and improve organisational performance. Recently it has even been suggested that encouraging empowerment in employees can help reduce employee absenteeism (Millet and Sandberg, 2005) and help transform financial organisations (Smythe, 2007).

However, employee empowerment has also become a trendy buzzword among managers over the last decade, at times approaching the status of a fad, depending on one's outlook (Block, 1987). In academic literature, there has been a lot of debate as to what constitutes employee empowerment. Furthermore, there is still confusion as to whether employee empowerment is a new concept, or just synonymous to delegation and employee participation (see for example, Lee and Koh, 2001; Wilkinson, 1998; Lincoln *et al.*, 2002). As such, sustained scholarly attention is needed if the concept of employee empowerment is to be taken seriously as an effective management technique (Abrahamson, 1996). A decade ago there was a dearth of scholarly literature on the topic of employee empowerment. However, today it is vigorously being researched and debated (see for example, Bhatnagar, 2005; Hancer, 2005; Millet and Sanberg, 2005; Dimitriades, 2005; Drake *et al.*, 2007; Ergeneli *et al.*, 2007; Samad, 2007) but as will be explained later, there are still important gaps in research that needs to be addressed. Broadly speaking, studies on empowerment seem

to have progressed along two aspects: (a) Psychological and Motivational and (b) Power and Structure (Heller, 2003).

(a) Psychological and Motivational

A majority of employee empowerment researchers see empowerment concept as psychological in nature - involving employees by increased psychological and motivation at work, job design, employee participation and self management (see for example, Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995; Liden and Tewksbury, 1995; Menon, 2000). It is in this area that empowerment has received much investigative attention (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005). Consequently, most empirical research on psychological empowerment has focused attention on psychological and motivational aspects. For example, job effectiveness and satisfaction (Spreitzer *et al.,* 1997); Supportive peer and customer relationship (Corsun and Enz, 1999); Job enrichment (Liden *et al.*, 2000); Empowerment climate (Seibert *et al.*, 2004); Psychological climate (Carless, 2004); and Conflict with superiors (Janssen, 2004). For a complete list in this regard, please refer to studies on psychological empowerment to date reported in chapter 2; (section 2-3-4).

(b) Power and Structure

The second stream of researchers seems to suggest empowerment as transfer of power, authority or job structure following the 'organisational power culture' theories. The work of Handy (1976), Mintzberg (1988) and Kanter (1977; 1979; 1984; 1989a, 1989b) on power and control over resources, or as perceptions and control (Burke, 1987; Parker and Price, 1994) are well documented in the literature. Kanter (1977) suggests that the impact of organisational structure may be more important than employee psychological traits and suggests that when organisations are structured in a way that employees feel empowered, then the organisation and employees will benefit in terms of enhanced attitudes and outcomes which in turn will result in improved organisational performance and effectiveness. Delegation and transfer of power is also seen as a method to de-centralised decision making process on the shop-floor and in essence to promote empowering behaviours (Psoinos and Smithson, 2002). Eylon (1998) posits that empowerment is an ongoing development and will have lasting repercussion for organisational structure. Her argument suggests

that organisational structure will need to evolve as empowerment initiatives are implemented.

Researchers like Mintzberg (1988), Conger and Kanungo (1988), Zimmerman (1990), and Robbins *et al.* (2002), have also recognised that empowerment will be influenced by the type of organisational structure. This in turn will result in empowerment process influencing the form of the organisational structure (Eylon, 1998). Eylon (1998: 16-28) went on to elaborate *"the way in which empowerment will influence the structure of the organisation have not been sufficiently elaborated. This may be due, in part, to the scarcity of work which attempts to investigate the empowerment process at both the micro and macro levels of analysis"*. She thus proposed that the study of empowerment process should focus both at individual and structural level. Furthermore, at present, employee empowerment theory and research lacks a single, unifying model capable of integrating the multiple levels of activity and often complex relationships that characterise the empowerment process (Robbins, *et al.*, 2002; Wilkinson, 1998; Ooi *et al.*, 2007). In summarizing, the underlying message emerging from literature review on employee empowerment seems to suggest the following:

- Many organisations have a complete misunderstanding on how employees are empowered and confusion abound (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). It is often thought that people can be empowered by organisational interventions. In actual fact, growing research on empowerment suggests that no one can really empower anyone else (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005). To be beneficial, empowerment interventions must take into consideration a multi-facet view of the various organisational, structural, cultural and historical dimensions (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999; Zimmerman, 1990; Eylon, 1998; Colins, 1998).
- Employee empowerment encourages employee job performance, satisfaction and commitment which in turn results in significant increase in effectiveness and performance of a firm (see for example, Wilkinson, 1998; Spreitzer, 1995; 1996; Robbins *et al.*, 2002). Employee empowerment efforts are also known to negatively impact turnover intentions (Koberg *et al.*, 1999). More recently Samad (2007) found many aspects of social structure (self-esteem, power distribution, information sharing, knowledge, rewards, transformational leadership and culture) to be important determinants of psychological empowerment.

- Empowerment is fraught with tension between management and subordinates (Foster-Fishman and Keys, 1995; Hennestad, 1998; Lincoln *et al.,* 2002; Janssen, 2004). Role theory (Rizzo *et al.,* 1970) suggests that problems will arise when employees are faced with conflicting roles and ambiguous policies. As such, empowerment processes that are not clearly defined and haphazardly implemented will cause problems (Wilkinson, 1998). These problems create conflicting demands from management and tension on employees (Janssen, 2004).
- The presence of conflicts also raises the question of trust employees receive in an organisation. Employees need to know the aims of management when implementing empowerment. Hence, trust plays a key role in better understanding of empowerment in practice (Liden *et al.*, 2000; Gomez and Rosen, 2001).
- Employee empowerment cannot be generally applied across any organisation as a lot depends on the organisation's structure, management style and management's commitment to empowerment (Foster-Fishman and Keys, 1995; Baruch, 1998a; Eylon, 1998; Hennestad, 1998). Furthermore empowerment should be addressed in certain job areas and job levels in different ways (D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999).

1-2 Research Objectives

Considering the above mentioned developments, the main purpose of this research is to extend prevailing research on employee empowerment, specifically by employing Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment measurement model as the basis for studying employee empowerment. Whilst there has been wide interest and studies on empowerment in recent years, there is still a lack of academic research in organisational specific dimension such as the impact of the dynamics of organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and organisational support on employee empowerment initiatives (Seibert *et al,* 2004; Eylon, 1998). Zimmerman (1990) also argues that the goal of empowerment theory is to explain how environmental elements (i.e. organisational level elements) interact with personal cognitions, perceptions, and behaviours and ultimately predict how these dimensions influence employee work outcomes. Hence, the need for research in this aspect is timely.

Apart from investigating the significance of the organisation specific constructs, this research will also examine key HR practices (reward, training, and information sharing) and their linkages with employee empowerment as theorized by Wilkinson (1998) and Robbins *et*

al. (2002). In addition, elements of role theory, i.e. role conflict and role ambiguity (see for example, Kahn *et al.,* 1964; Rizzo *et al.*, 1970; Henesstad 1998) will be studied concurrently as these dimensions are important in shaping employee empowerment. It is suggested that by exploring these antecedents and outcomes of employee empowerment at both organisational and personality specific level, the dynamics of empowerment process could be better understood (Zimmerman, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995; Eylon 1998).

The present research will also keep in trend with current research developments and to broaden the scope of empowerment theory and practise. Guest (2001: 1099) proposes that *"the heart of the concept of HRM is the notion that what matters is some combination of practices and that this needs to be captured in any analysis"*. According to Guest, one can combine HRM practices on some sort of theoretical basis or seek statistical justification. Siebert *et al.* (2004) propose that it is time to take empowerment to the next level. They argue that most research to date approach employee empowerment as an individual-level (personality specific) phenomenon and propose examining a multiple-level model integrating macro and micro approaches to empowerment. Wilkinson (1998) and Robbins *et al.* (2002) similarly suggest investigating a wider scope of organisational behaviours to enhance the knowledge pertaining to employee empowerment. Hence, this present research has the following objectives:

1) Firstly, to expand the conceptual model of employee empowerment as suggested by Robbins *et al.* (2002); Wilkinson (1998) and Siebert *et al.* (2004) to investigate organisational specific level constructs which has not been researched yet. For instance organisational structure and organisational support and its impact on empowerment need to be investigated as no research to-date have been made on these constructs. Studies with regards to organisation structure seem to be focused on mechanistic - organic style organisation (Khandawalla, 1977) and centralisation and formalisation concepts (Aiken and Hage, 1967). According to Khandawalla (1977) there are two dichotomous positions in the structure of a firm – at one end is mechanistic whilst at the other end is organic style. Organicity suggests a firm is flat and with high levels of lateral communications. On the other hand, Aiken and Hage (1967) conceptualised that centralisation, where the locus of decision making in what is suggested to be near the top of an organisation. The concept is somewhat

similar to Kanter's (1977; 1984) concept of power and how power is transferred to subordinates. Formalisation however suggests how formal or informal an organisation operates. A formal organisation is said to be more structured as there will be more emphasis on rules and regulations as compared to informal organisation. Research has shown that the form of organisational structure of a firm impact employee performance. Both Khandawalla and Aiken and Hage's organisational structure constructs have been widely used to research high technology organisations, innovativeness, environmental turbulence, IT and knowledge firms. As such these scales are potentially viable for examining empowerment concepts as well. Organisational support on the other hand is the perceived support that an employee receives from the firm (Eisenberger *et al.,* 1986). Since there have not been any studies exploring this organisational level construct, the impact of organisational support on perceptions of empowerment needs exploring.

2) Secondly, this research will investigate personality specific dimensions like training, rewards, information sharing, leadership trust and elements of role theory; whilst three popularly studied work outcomes i.e., job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions will be included in the study to provide a holistic picture into the study of employee empowerment. Although a number of studies examining psychological empowerment have been conducted and some of the antecedents and work outcome variables have been analysed previously, very few studies have attempted to study the individual psychological empowerment dimensions namely meaning, self-determination, impact and competence more closely. Prevailing research seems to focus psychological empowerment in totality, aggregating the four dimension construct. Carless (2004) posits that a more fine grain understanding of the impact of empowerment can be made by analysing the four specific dimensions separately. Hence, due to the lack of studies investigating the individual psychological empowerment variables, it is difficult to interpret current findings with confidence. Prevailing literature show that few have attempted to investigate individual empowerment components (see for example: Spreitzer *et al.*, 1997; Kraimer *et al.,* 1999; Siegall and Gardner, 2000; Liden *et al.,* 2000; and Carless, 2004). Furthermore the results from these studies seem to produce

inconsistent results. Additionally, studies have also suggested that the psychological empowerment construct is not entirely reliable. For example, Spreitzer (1995; 1996) cited discriminant validity issues; Kraimer *et al.,* (1999) reported that self-determination may precede impact variable whilst Siegall and Gartner (2000) suggest that competence scale may be problematic. Since there are issues with regards to Spreitzer's (1995; 1996) empowerment model, the findings employing psychological empowerment as an aggregated construct may be flawed. Hence, more research is needed to understand the complex relationship that exists between antecedents and outcomes on the four psychological empowerment dimensions separately in a comprehensive way.

3) Extant literature further suggests few studies attempting to investigate the mediating or moderating effects of empowerment. Seibert *et al.* (2004); Carless (2004) and Avolio *et al.* (2004) suggest that employee empowerment acts as a mediator to antecedents and outcomes of empowerment efforts. With regards to moderation effects, only two articles were found (Janssen, 2004; Samad, 2007). Janssen studied the moderating effect of conflict between employee empowerment and organisational commitment whilst Samad investigated the moderating effect between social structure characteristics and psychological empowerment.
4) Current literature also lacks a thorough study of empowering effects on outcomes. Whilst separate studies have been made on empowering behaviours on outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover (see for example Fuller *et al.,* 1999; Koberg *et al.* 1999; Siebert, 2004; Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed, 2002; Bhatnagar, 2005), no study has been made with regard to the mediating effects of organisational commitment and job satisfaction on turnover intentions. Also, the moderating effects of demographics such as job level, tenure and age are lacking. Furthermore, no research has so far been made to examine the impact between employee empowerment and turnover intention with organisational commitment playing a mediating role. Several studies (see for example, Winkelmann-Gleed, 2002; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Boshoff and Mels, 2000) have suggested that commitment is a precursor to turnover intentions. Hence, it is viable to suggest

that an employee experiencing high levels of perceived empowerment will likely to also have high levels of commitment and hence less incline to quit.

To summarise, the main goals of this research is firstly to investigate the impact of organisational specific constructs (organisational structure and organisational support) on empowerment because this subject area has not received due attention by researchers. Secondly, to investigate the multi-dimensional empowerment construct in greater detail. Thirdly, to examine the mediating effects of empowerment on the proposed antecedents and outcomes. Fourthly, to test the impact of empowerment on outcomes like commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Most research on employee empowerment is based on US samples although recent studies have shown that empowerment initiatives produced consistent results in Israel (Tzafrir *et al.* 2004); Australia (Carless, 2004), Netherlands (Janssen, 2004), Greece (Dimitriades, 2005; Boudrias *et al.*, 2005), Malaysia (Samad, 2007). However, there is a lack of empirical research on employee empowerment in the UK; in particular employing Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment construct. Although Spreitzer's (1995) psychological construct has been widely studied and validated in literature, further examination is warranted. Spreitzer suggests that her empowerment model needs more in-depth, comprehensive study especially into the different organisational context (Spreitzer, 1995: 1460 – 1462). There have also been inconsistent results in the findings of the psychological empowerment construct. Discriminant validity remains an issue (see for example Spreitzer, 1995; Siegall and Gartner, 2000; and Seibert *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, high correlations among the psychological empowerment variables are also detected (Spreitzer, 1995; Kraimer *et al.*, 1999). Thus, this study is comprehensive and is expected to provide a holistic understanding on employee empowerment.

1-3 Theoretical Framework for Present Study

In the past, organisational behaviourial studies usually based on individual level analysis, however researchers (see for example; Huselid, 1995; Snell and Youndt, 1995; Guest, 1997; Boudreau (2004) have suggested that there are real benefits in examining the impact of HRM functions together as HR practices in organisations tend to be closely related, especially as they are part of a coordinated system, hence better returns can be achieved by organisations that bundle HRM practices. Meyer and Allen (1997) further suggest that when researching individually, the relations between particular HR practices and commitment are

difficult to interpret. Recent related HRM empirical studies seem to suggest this trend (see for example, Farndale and Paauwe, 2007; Ooi *et al*, 2007; Pare and Tremblay, 2007; Samad, 2007; Shivers-Blackwell, 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2004; Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed, 2002). Robbins *et al.* (2002) propose a model that could unify organisational structure and the individual employee intervening perceptions and attitudes of psychological empowerment, i.e., a model that integrates the multiple levels of activity and the complex relationships that characterise the empowerment process. They further propose that integrating previous research on employee empowerment will help to improve understanding and reduce the confusion surrounding the various conceptualisations involving this subject.

Based on the above conceptual schema, I present a theoretical framework for investigating mediating effects of employee empowerment on antecedent and outcomes as a preliminary step towards developing a hypothesised model for this study. Figure 1.1 illustrates the theoretical framework. Broadly employing the propositions set by previous organisational behaviour researchers described above, the empowering behaviours (antecedents) will include four broad organisational behaviour perspectives, namely (1) Structure and Support, (2) HR Practices (3) Leadership Trust and (4) Role Conflict and Ambiguity. In the first stage of investigation, these antecedents will be investigated for their direct relationship to the four individual psychological empowerment dimensions. The direct relationship between psychological empowerment dimensions to outcomes proposed i.e., job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions will then be examined. Turnover intentions researchers like Boshoff and Mels (2000) suggest that organisational commitment precedes turnover intentions. Hence, an examination of the links between job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions will be conducted. In the second stage, a detailed investigation involving all the antecedents in the study will then be examined for mediating effects of the individual components of empowerment to the three outcome variables. Finally, in stage three, the moderating effect of demographics like job level, tenure, age as well as HR practices (training, reward and information sharing), role ambiguity and role conflict will be investigated. The three demographic variables (job level, tenure and age) have been proposed by researchers to display association with organisational dimensions. Research by Hong *et al.* (1995) and Oshagbemi (1997) provides evidence that employees on different job levels emphasise different needs at different levels. For example, Hong *et al.'s* research suggests that lower level employees express a stronger need for better working conditions and security needs, lower level managers on the other hand, emphasise

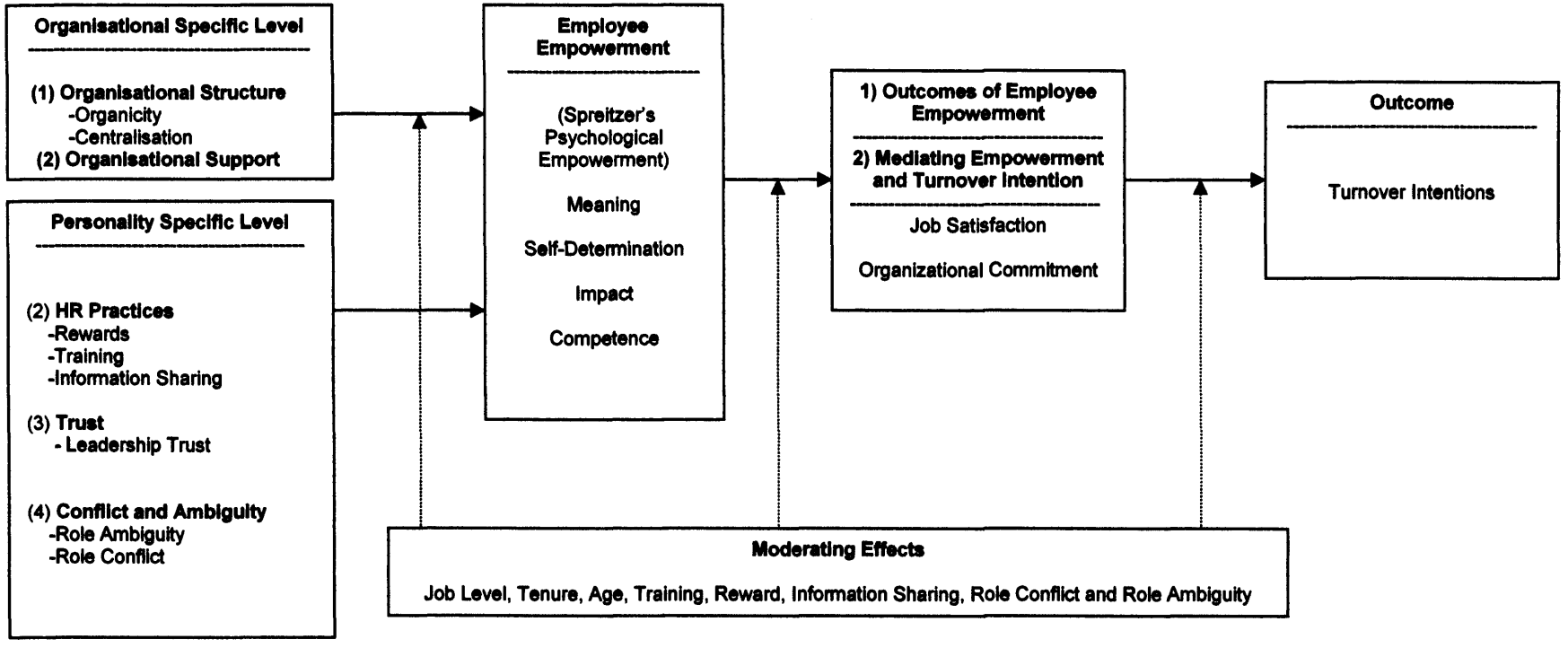
financial and security needs. Middle level managers on the other hand stress on career and development needs. Oshagbemi (1997) on the other hand suggests that job level had a direct, positive and significant effect on job satisfaction. Age and tenure have been shown to correlate with job outcomes like turnover intentions (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000). Additionally, tenure has also been shown to impact organisational commitment (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986). As such, job level, tenure and age will be employed as moderating variables in the current research to examine their effects on the various organisational measures being studied. Apart from demographics, the moderating effects of HR practices variables as well as conflict and ambiguity variables will also be investigated against the organisational level, psychological empowerment and outcome variables as these variables are potentially enabling and disabling (Hennestad, 1998), dimensions which impact on individual behaviours.

As explained, current studies do not as yet give a complete picture of employee empowerment suggested by Wilkinson (1998); Robbins *et al.* (2002) and Spreitzer (1995). This research attempts to fill this gap. Therefore, this research which encompasses the theoretical model as illustrated in Figure 1.1 will potentially extend empowerment research to the next level as proposed by Siebert *et al.* (2004). Literature related to the constructs in the model is reviewed in Chapter Two.

1–4 Proposed Framework of Study

Before proceeding further, a word of caution with regard to the above conceptualised model must be emphasised. Wilkinson (1998) suggests that no categorisation or classification scheme is entirely satisfactory for the study of empowerment as the boundaries between types of empowerment are not clear and much depends on the definition adopted. Currently different researches on empowerment have used different terms and categories to explain their models and findings. For example, Seibert *et al.* (2004) suggest empowerment climate as an antecedent to employee empowerment, whilst Carless (2004) propose psychological climate as antecedent. However, what is recognised is that empowerment researchers are united by sharing a common assumption that employees' and employers' interests are inextricably connected (Wilkinson, 1998). Perhaps in time, a more distinct term would emerge that will conceptualise the full meaning of the multitude of factors or elements that make up the antecedents to empowerment. As such, the proposed framework in Figure 1.1 acts as a theoretical reference to assist in examining the present research objectives.

Figure 1.1 Proposed Theoretical Model of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Psychological Empowerment



1-5 Research Questions for Present Study

As mentioned, this research will attempt to extend current understanding on employee empowerment. By exploring the antecedents and outcomes of employee empowerment, the dynamics of empowerment process could be better understood and explained (Spreitzer, 1995; Robbins *et al.*, 2002). Consistent with Spreitzer's (1985) initial study on empowerment, this research also targets middle and senior management employees. There are compelling reasons for serious study on this sample population: middle and senior managers are often the drivers of change programmes. Hence, how they perceive empowerment themselves will affect their subordinates. These managers must themselves feel empowered and motivated if they are to successfully implement change and drive the organisation forward. The challenge of management is to empower employees in a genuine manner, in both reality and employee perceptions. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) posit that it is almost impossible for unempowered managers to empower their subordinates. Hence, it is imperative that investigations on employee empowerment to be aimed at senior and middle managers as these are the people mainly responsible for strategy implementation. This research proposes to investigate the following questions:

1) Does organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) impact empowerment in particular:
    - Does organicity or fluidity of organisational structure that promotes informality, flexibility and high levels of autonomy impact positively on empowerment?
    - Does centralisation, i.e. an organisation that has a high degree of control and decision making at the top management, hinder empowerment initiatives?
    - Does psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between organisational structure constructs and work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions?
2) Does Organisational Support impact psychological empowerment and consequently does psychological empowerment mediate between organisational support and work outcomes?
3) Does an HR practice (rewards, training and information sharing) impact psychological empowerment and consequently does psychological empowerment mediates between HR practice and work outcomes?

4) Does leadership trust impact psychological empowerment and consequently does psychological empowerment mediate between leadership trust and work outcomes?
5) Does Conflict and Ambiguity (role ambiguity and role conflict) impact psychological empowerment and consequently does psychological empowerment mediate work outcomes?
6) Does psychological empowerment impact work outcomes? Do job satisfaction and organisational commitment constructs mediate between psychological empowerment and turnover intention?
7) Do demographics like job level, age, tenure moderate differently on empowerment as suggested by authors like Cotton and Tuttle (1986); Hong *et al.* (1995); D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew (1999) and Griffeth *et al.* (2000)? Similarly, do HR practices and conflict and ambiguity dimensions moderate the effects of empowerment?

By understanding what organisational factor(s) impact empowerment, organisations can better implement empowerment initiatives. The above research questions will add to the further understanding of empowerment in organisations.

1-6 Implications of Research

Researchers (see Huselid, 1995; Huselid *et al.* 1997; Snell and Youndt; 1995; Guest, 1997; Boudreau, 2004; and Wall and Wood, 2005) have suggested that HRM research will be more beneficial when it is investigated in a wider perspective. Empowerment researchers such as Wilkinson (1998); Robbins *et al.* (2002) and Seibert *et al.* (2004) also cited similar views. Although there is much growth in research on employee empowerment, Lawler *et al.* (2001) suggest that 25% of companies still have no significant empowerment policies in their organisations. Psoinos and Smithson (2002) study on the success of employee empowerment initiatives in UK's manufacturing organisations, found respondents claiming 58% success rate which suggests 42% of respondents still think that empowerment programmes failed. Also, Spreitzer and Quinn's (2001) research discovered that even with companies that have empowerment initiatives, the companies find it difficult to build genuine employee empowerment, echoing Wilkinson (1998) and Baruch (1998a). As such, there is still a lot to be learned as how to successfully empower employees.

This research is targeted at senior and middle managers. Several characteristics of a senior and middle manager's job role make them susceptible to role conflict and role ambiguity. Pressures of the job, wide responsibilities, pressure from top management to produce results, pressures from subordinates and family members, often put them in a dilemma. Hence, there is a high potential for negative psychological reactions (Kahn *et al.* 1964).

To summarise, the aim of the present research is to extend current knowledge by investigating the impact of psychological empowerment between antecedents suggested and work outcomes. No research has yet been made between organisation structure and empowerment. Furthermore, no research has yet been made on the mediating effect of empowerment on antecedents like organisational structure, HR dimensions and role conflict and ambiguity dimensions on job outcomes. Also, no research has been made to examine the mediating effect of organisational commitment between empowerment variables as antecedents and turnover intentions as outcomes. The moderating effects of demographics (job level, tenure, age) and enabling (training, rewards, and information sharing) and disabling (role conflict and role ambiguity) variables are also lacking. A better understanding of what impacts empowering behaviours will help organisations and practitioners enhance their empowerment efforts. This will in turn impact on outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. In the longer term, empowerment efforts will result in improved organisational performance and competitiveness. The broad range of research questions raised in this study will have wide implications in today's dynamic business environment.

1-7 Definitions of Terms Used in this Study

Organicity - refers to an organisation that adopts a de-centralised architecture with fluid job responsibilities and considerable lateral communications. Organicity also suggests a lack of rules or procedures often associated with a more mechanistic organisational structure (Khandwalla, 1977).

Centralisation – suggest that the locus of decision making is located near the top management of an organisation; as such it is concerned with the degree to which power and authority are concentrated in the higher levels of their organisations. It is posited that centralisation results in a low distribution of power and there will be a lack of freedom to

make decisions at lower hierarchy to make important decisions in such environments (Aiken and Hage, 1966).

Organisational Support – is the perceived support that an employee feels to receive from the firm (Eisenberger *et al.,* 1986).

Training – helps in a formal transfer of knowledge and information to reduce gaps in competency, skills, and understanding of how "things are done" in an organisation to an employee. Training has been found to improve productivity through improved skills and competence (Katzell and Guzzo, 1983).

Rewards - the performance review process usually adds information about rewarding the employee if performance is met or exceeds standards. Rewards can take many forms, for example; merit increases, promotions, certificates of appreciation, and letters of commendation (McNamara, 1999).

Information Sharing – unlike training, information sharing is more informal and is more about effective communications and relatively free flow of important information from management, peers and other sources to an employee to perform well in the job (Roberts *et al.* 1994).

Leadership Trust – is an employee trust with the immediate supervisor or manager. Trust develops over a long time and is a result of an employee's cumulative experience (McAlister, 1995; Luke, 1998).

Role Conflict – refers to an incompatible role that an employee has been trained for or ineffective and inadequate use of resources, i.e. an employee that has been trained for a certain job but is designated a different work role, resulting in role conflict (Rizzo *et al.,* 1970).

Role Ambiguity – refers to an employee's uncertainty with regards to his authority or responsibilities (Rizzo *et al.,* 1970).

Psychological Empowerment - is a psychological state that employees must experience for empowerment interventions to be successful (Spreitzer, 1995). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) conceptualise the four dimension psychological empowerment model, whilst Spreitzer (1995) developed the measurements and validated the model. The psychological empowerment consists of four dimensions: (1) meaning - the value of work, (2) impact – ability to influence organisational outcomes, (3) self-determination – ability to initiate and manage actions, and (4) competence – ability to perform the work.

Organisational Commitment – refers to the perceived commitment an employee feels towards an organisation (Porter *et al.*, 1974)

Job Satisfaction – a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976)

Turnover Intention – the relative strength of an individual's intent toward voluntary permanent withdrawal from an organisation (Hom and Griffeth, 1991).

1-8 Organisation of the Thesis

The research will be approached in the following manner:

1. Literature review of past studies on HRM and employee empowerment concepts and how they developed to the present understanding. Review the instruments available to measure employee empowerment.
2. Update on research on psychological empowerment to date and identify gaps that exist in literature review.
3. Review past study and identify feasible antecedents and outcomes that have promising relationship with the employee empowerment concept.
4. Conceptualise a hypothesised model that links antecedents and outcomes of empowerment and present hypotheses.
5. Describe in detail the methodology and analysis employed in this research.
6. Present and discuss the results and findings and conclude with main recommendations for researchers and practitioners.
7. Finally, limitations to this present research will be discussed and directions for future research into employee empowerment will be raised.

1-9 Summary

This chapter began by describing the background of the research into employee empowerment. The research objectives and implications were discussed. A brief explanation of antecedents and outcomes of empowerment was next examined. In order to investigate the relationships between antecedents and outcomes of empowerment, a proposed theoretical model for the study was then presented. Research questions were raised to address the relationships between the organisational behaviour dimensions with empowerment. The gaps in existing research and implications of the research were briefly discussed and finally the organisation of the research is described.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2-1 Introduction

This chapter begins by highlighting the developments in human resource management (HRM) and how the concept of empowerment became established. It will also present definitions of empowerment and review literature on the different perspectives of empowerment covered in contemporary business management books and academic literature. Empowerment and its viable relationships to various organisational dimensions and practices are then discussed to provide the theoretical background for the present study. Gaps in literature review pertaining to the research into psychological empowerment will be discussed. Next, a review of psychological empowerment measurement by previous research employing this construct will follow. Within this section, alternative empowerment measurement models are also discussed. This will be followed by an in-depth discussion on antecedents impacting psychological empowerment as well as outcomes impacted by empowerment. Based on both theoretical and empirical foundations, a hypothesised model for this study is then presented. Finally, the relationships among the dimensions are reviewed and several hypotheses based on these relationships are proposed.

2-2 HR Practices and Conceptualisation of Empowerment

Since the early days of industrial revolution, many work practices are in effect, skill-based and individualised. For example, in the traditional clock and watch making, shoe making, clothing or even the car manufacturing industry. Each person is responsible for making a watch, a shoe or part of a car. They were craftsmen; they were in effect, a watch maker, a shoe maker or a car builder. These skilled craftsmen had a lot of decision making and 'free-hand' at their work. Thus, it can be argued that in the days prior to industrial revolution, these skilled craftsmen were in effect "empowered individuals" that had responsibility for the entire work process (Wilkinson, 1998; citing Gartman's, 1978 comments on the Ford Motors assembly line).

2-2-1 Age of De-empowerment

It was not until the 1920's that the ideas of mass production, breaking down of jobs into simple tasks, came into management thinking. This has lead Ferris *et al.* (1999) to posit that traditional people management began life in 1920. Thanks to the ideas of the 'father of scientific management', Taylor (1911), high productivity and mass production became the norm. The Ford Model-T became the epitome of mass production during that period. While the economic benefits were great, industrial revolution which powered and enriched nations resulted in a lot of social and industrial problems.

Under the 'scientific management' concept, the command and control centres in top management were highly centralised with virtually non-existent decision making on the shop-floor. Management decided the best methods to carry out each task and the worker simply did what they were told. There was little or no job rotation; monitoring and control was almost absolute leaving employees with little or no thought process in doing their work. This resulted in alienation of workers, high turnover of employees, absenteeism and conflict (see for example, Rienhart, 1987; Braverman, 1998; Ciulla, 2000). As far as the employee was concerned, this era was perhaps the most abysmal period for employee empowerment; empowerment was simply non existent. This period of strict command and control of management practice is perhaps best described as the age of de-empowerment.

2-2-2 The Birth of HR and Empowerment Concepts

Mayo (1945) was one of the early proponents that opposed Taylorism and offered a view that involving workers would have strong business, moral and social benefits. Workers, he thought, could be self-motivated and can carry out good work without being closely monitored. Since Mayo, there has been a steady stream of interest in the theories of motivation to find ways to get workers more involved and motivated. Job enlargement and job enrichment became fashionable in the 1960's and 1970's, aiming at giving more meaning to workers by giving some control to employees and provided a feedback system where employees can share their thoughts (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Buchanan, 1979). Beer and Spector (1985), in conceptualizing an overview of human resource management, posit that HRM policies affect both current and long-term outcomes, thus they suggest that policy

decisions made by managers will affect the overall competence and commitment of employees, as well as the degree of goal congruence between employees and that of the organisation. Guest (1987) expanded the link between HRM and outcomes to incorporate internal-external alignment, integration and coherence and more importantly the investment in human resources to increase capabilities.

Huselid (1995) on the other hand, posit that good HR practices will contribute to improved financial well-being of the firm. This concept was further expanded by Huselid *et al.* (1997) who proposed that management should focus on effectiveness of HR in terms of organisational performance. A recent study based on data of 19,000 organisations, Liu *et al.* (2007) found strong evidence to support this notion. Huselid *et al.* (1997) further argued that because of this complexity in developing appropriate HRM strategies, it is argued that organisations that can develop employee capabilities will be in an advantageous position when competing against competitors and also be better prepared in difficult business environments.

Kotter (2001) suggests that in order to motivate and energise employees, control mechanisms such as pushing or coercing employees to the right direction is not the right technique, instead by satisfying the basic human needs for achievement, a sense of belonging, recognition, self-esteem, a feeling of control over one's life, and the ability to live up to one's ideals is a better way. Such attitudinal and motivational feelings touch employees deeply and elicit a powerful response and will potentially produce better work performance.

Hence, motivation was seen as the key to job satisfaction and jobs were enriched by coupling job tasks with some minor decision-making opportunities. Walton (1985) cited companies like GM, Proctor & Gamble and Mars in the US that adopted this approach. By the 1980's, these concepts evolved into employee participation such as; getting employees involved in a greater degree, quality circles (for example TQM), team briefing and profit sharing. Ackers *et al.* (1992) and Marchington *et al.* (1992) highlighted that these schemes were usually management led, i.e. they were programmes proposed and implemented by management as such, although empowerment is recognised, decisions on what to get employees involved in, i.e. what to empower remains in management's hands. This led HRM researchers to focus on power and role of leadership in employee empowerment efforts (see for example, McClelland, 1975; Walton, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988).

New work practices also gave new problems to people management. Unlike the 1970's and 1980's, management was required to shift power and control in a greater degree. These new approaches were asking management to transfer power to their employees (Walton, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Hyman and Mason, 1995). However, Fenton-O'Creevy, (1998), and Cunningham *et al.* (1996) were critical as to whether the empowerment programme was genuine or how much real power was transferred due to resistance from middle managers. For example, although the employee has been given decision making powers but the manager may overturn or have the last word, just to show who is the boss. Baruch (1998a) suggests this as a case of paying lip service or fraudulent empowerment, as no power is really delegated. Many authors (see for example, Foster-Fishman and Keys, 1995; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Hennestad, 1998) suggest that power and the lack of it can affect empowerment. Thus, it is important that this issue of power or 'feelings powerlessness' be addressed in a firm before a successful empowering exercise take place.

Budhwar's (2000) study suggests that firms want to practice integration and devolvement, but many firms are still unable to do so. Budhwar's research on integration and devolvement among the manufacturing sector in the UK suggests that the level of integration is reasonably high but in terms of devolvement, it is still relatively low. So whilst firms are increasingly acknowledging the importance of HR practices, much still needs to be done on the shop-floor. D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew (1999) suggest involving all employees in redefining the empowerment concept to be something 'achievable, realistic and acceptable to the majority.' The feeling of personal involvement appeared to be crucial in sustaining and gaining commitment to empowerment.

It was also in the 1980's that saw the emergence of empowerment as a managerial concept (Wilkinson, 1998). Management began to see personnel more of a resource rather than a cost. Amit and Belcourt (1999) offered similar views and added that managers were asked what "economic value" can employees (human resources) bring, mirroring Becker and Gerhart (1996) "value creation" position. Hence, HR best practices have evolved from its humble beginnings of record keeping and maintenance to one of strategic importance. The role of HRM transformed over the years as numerous "HR best practices" were introduced and debated in the

ensuing "developmental years" of HRM (Ferris *et al.,* 1999). Nevertheless, despite the hype, Lawler (2007) lament the fact that HR best practices suggested in many studies may in reality be inferior practices. Lawler argues that because there is a huge divide between academic and practitioner literature, decision makers in organisations are not aware of, and hence, are not influenced by much of the research that has been done in the area of HRM at academic level.

It was also during 1980's that saw empowerment emerging in its present form. Earlier work practices like job enrichment were seen as elements that can lead to empowerment but "empowerment" needed to be seen in a business and political context (Wilkinson, 1998). Various programmes and initiatives were labelled empowerment, participation or job enlargement but they vary as to how much power and responsibility the employee was actually given. They were designed by employers to give limited autonomy to employees with very little role in decision making. They were designed to enhance employee's contribution to the organisation prompting Wilkinson (1998) to state that empowerment takes place within the context of a strict management agenda.

Popular management writers like Peters (1989) and Schonberger (1990) envisioned empowerment as trusting your people, giving them freedom to take charge, and involving them in everything. They discussed the 'soft' management issues, asking managers to go beyond numbers and statistical information and consider the human side and intuitive style of people management. Peter and Waterman's (1982) hugely successful book, "*In Search of Excellence*" was without a doubt the catalyst for a flood of popular looks advocating empowerment (see for example, Byman, 1991; Foy 1994; Logan and King 2004). A simple search on Amazon.com website with the keywords "empower" and "management" in their books section produced no less than 55 books with the title "empower" which goes to show how popular and faddish the term has become.

The business environment of the late 1980's and early 1990's was one of high competition and globalisation. This was mainly due to liberalisation by governments, and customers getting ever more demanding and sophisticated. This turbulent business environment put a lot of pressure on organisations to improve efficiency and performance (Scot-Morton, 1991). Customers wanted more choices and better designs, customisation and the market had to respond to this. Piore and Sabel (1993)

theorised that the move to customise products, flexible specialisation, flatter organisations and lean structures was seen as a new route to competitive advantage and this meant increasing focus of workforce as a resource rather than a cost. Thus, organisations were required to improve the effectiveness of organisational structure and processes, manage cost, be more flexible and increased the speed of response to meet market demands and improve quality (Psoinos and Smithson, 2002).

Also, job functions were getting more complex and are changing more rapidly as compared to the days of scientific management. This flexibility could only be achieved with better use of people. Hence, in the service industries for example, the focus was to develop front-line staff to be better informed, better equipped to handle problems and situations at customer level. All these theories share a common assumption in that there is an untapped resource in employees and by empowering them, it would act like a release-valve, making organisations more efficient, effective and hence, improving the bottom-line as well. This will create a win-win situation for everyone (Pfeffer, 1994; Becker and Gerhart, 1996).

A new management paradigm was emphasised by management gurus like Drucker (1988) and Kanter (1989). These include de-bureaucratisation (end of hierarchy and authoritarian rules), de-layering and de-centralisation. Team working, such as engaging the employee with other members of the organisation and multi-skilling, training employees on different work tasks became the norm. By 1990's, many firms were faced with a period of economic downturn, forcing firms to downsize and a return to core competences (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990). This meant that companies were forced to employ new HR practices out of necessity, as de-layered firms cannot perform as it did before. New HR practices were needed to fill gaps in competencies and decision making functions. These HR practices also require employees to be knowledgeable and be able to think and work through problems in the job. Hence, informing, training and rewarding employees appropriately became a necessity.

The new management paradigm led business writers to coin the term 'change management'. Change in organisations is inevitable if empowerment efforts are to take place (Gill, 2003). Change is an inherent element in social life and businesses. The difference however, is the pace of change, which has been tremendous. With the 'new economy' led by IT and technologically advanced mechanisation and

globalisation of businesses has seen to that. Organisational change is no longer an option, but a necessity for organisational success in an ever competitive climate (see for example, Hamel and Prahalad, 1996; Illinitich *et al.* 1996; Prastacos *et al.*, 2002). However, whilst changes are deemed important, Prastacos *et al.* (2002) suggest the need for caution before embarking on any attempts to change organisational structures, the management should be cautious and approach with much thought and analysis of the consequences. Organisational change and empowerment initiatives cannot be haphazardly implemented in the hope that results will follow. Organisations must carefully consider the consequences before making drastic changes which may be detrimental to the performance of firm.

In conclusion, this section highlighted the progress on HR practices in particular in relation to employee empowerment since the early days of scientific management expounded by Taylor (1911) until the present and described how the term 'empowerment' has evolved and its relationship with various HRM dimensions. Empowerment as such, is not a fix concept with 'ready made' rules and regulations that one can follow like Total Quality Management (TQM) where volumes of manuals and instructions are available and concepts have been institutionalised. Empowerment on the other hand seems to have evolved in various forms until what it is today. Bartunek and Spreitzer, (2006) traced how meanings of empowerment evolved between 1966 and 2000 across various disciplines: religion, psychology, sociology, education, social work, and in the last couple of decades empowerment ideas were introduced in business management. On the surface, employee empowerment seems to have a lot to offer, but it is not easy to achieve without an ongoing investment in leadership style, training, clear lines of communication and an alignment with other aspects on the organisation's culture, structure as well as internal and external environment.

Having discussed the empowerment agenda within the HR context, I will now discuss the different perspectives and emerging theories with regard to empowerment. I will first introduce the popular view before detailing the academic view. Previous studies on employee empowerment and the various measurement scales available will then be examined.

2-3 Different Perspectives on Empowerment

Due to the myriad views of empowerment, it is appropriate at this stage to clarify what empowerment is and also to specify the boundaries of this study. The term 'empowerment' is generally used to refer to employee involvement initiatives which was widespread from the 1980's and focused on task-based involvement and attitudinal change. We first take a general view of empowerment from various reference sources:

The Oxford Reference Online (Heery and Noon, 2001: online) defines the verb empowerment in human-resource context as:

"The giving of increased responsibility and a measure of control to employees in their working lives. The concept is based on the view that people need personal satisfaction and fulfilment in their work and that responsibility and control increase satisfaction. Employees like empowerment because an increase in responsibility usually leads to greater rewards and enhanced prospects. On the other hand, it has been criticised because staffs are asked to become more accountable without being given more authority. Empowerment also has the added advantage that it enables potential talents to be identified and developed, either by the employing organisation or the individual. In general, empowerment is a motivational strategy or part of a process of re-engineering organisational structures to remove layers of management to make the system respond more rapidly to customers' requirements".

The Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus (Laird, 2002: 474) describes empower as "*to give official authority to*". In the thesaurus section of the same dictionary, they provided the following for the verb empower: authorise, commission, permit, qualify, sanction, warrant; enable. The Economist's 'Pocket MBA' (1992: 82), describes empowerment as "an idea largely with the work of Rosabeth Moss Kanter, the Harvard business management guru who argues that only those companies which can 'empower' all individuals within the organisation stand a chance of winning in the 'Corporate Olympics' of the 1990's." Hence, although debatable, the 'birth' of empowerment, probably began in the US with Kanter (1984) being one of the earliest business management gurus that brought the word 'empowerment' to business management book scene. In her book: "The Change Masters," (1983), she describes how companies took advantage of employee participation programs to be more innovative and competitive. Many management gurus, notably Kanter (1979; 1984; 1989a; 1989b); Peters and Waterman (1982); Peters (1989; 1992); Logan and King (2004)

have recommended empowering behaviours as a solution to the many organisational problems.

Psoinos and Smithson (2002) claim that empowerment is by no means a new concept, however, managerial practices and discourses have changed significantly over the last three decades. As economic contexts and management concerns change, the empowerment concepts evolve with these changes as well. Eylon (1998) suggests that the organisational structure of a firm itself will change as a result of the demands necessary for empowerment processes to occur, a view supported by Mintzberg, (1988) who suggests that dynamic environments appear to drive organisational structures making them more organic. D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew (1999) analysis on the subject of empowerment separates it into two broad approaches: (1) the i.e. 'airport bookshop' type business books that gives the impression that empowerment is a must and is easy to implement, and (2) the more in-depth and critical (or academic) approach.

2-3-1 'Business Book' View of Empowerment

Peters (1989) message is that in turbulent times of the 1990's where rapid change and fierce competition was the order of the day, organisations must give freedom and responsibility to all their staff, to unleash their creative and innovative talents, which will have positive paybacks in terms of profits and image of the company.

Burke (1986) states that to empower suggests granting power and delegation of authority whilst Foy (1994) argue that empowerment can transform staid, bureaucratic and rigid organisations into flexible, dynamic and entrepreneurial businesses. Burdett (1991: 23) on the other hand describes empowerment as '*...the elixir of the 1990's.*' Sisson (1994: 15) mentions empowerment as one feature of the 'rhetoric' of HRM and slightly cynically, defines its 'reality' as '*making someone else take the risk and the responsibility*'. Some authors also share such scepticism, like Kennedy (1991: 168) states that *'It has now become the flavour of the month, a fashionable managerial buzzword of the early 1990's.*'

Scott and Jaffe (1991) gave a TQM twist to empowerment and defined it as a fundamentally different way of working together, focusing on employees as active problem solvers and teams which continually improve their performance. They posit that organisations which are structured to permit problem solving opportunities could

enhance TQM and as such, empowerment initiatives as well. They also underline the importance of rewards as an incentive for improved performance. Empowerment as such, is seen as problem solvers and employees are rewarded for good performance. Ooi *et al.* (2007) study seems to support this concept but added that teamwork, communications and job involvement are also important in rigid TQM environment.

In concluding the 'business management book' view on empowerment, we next look at Shackelton's (1995) view of empowerment as the philosophy of giving more responsibility and decision-making authority to more junior people in the organisation. He compared it to delegation and suggest that it is decidedly different: delegation is when a manager decides to pass some of his or her work to another individual for a specific reason, for example to free up time, help develop the subordinate or because the task has low risk; empowerment, in contrast, is a philosophy which widens the responsibility associated with the current task without necessarily changing the foundation of the task involved. Thus, empowerment is seen as a job enlargement by the author, not merely delegating or transferring some duties of a job.

The business management perspective suggests that employee empowerment is the way forward. It is recommended as today's remedy to organisation's malaise. Empowerment is also seen as a quick fix solution by these popular writers and is easy to implement. On the other hand empowerment is also seen as just another fad, a flavour of the month, here today, and gone tomorrow. As such, if empowerment is not to be negatively portrayed, much needs to be done to remedy current perception, i.e. by empirical research backed by serious academic input. Rigorous investigation into what organisational factors and what work related situations impacts on empowerment seems necessary to change negative perceptions of empowerment.

2-3-2 Academic Research View of Empowerment

There is a growing body of academic research referring to the phenomenon of employee empowerment (see for example, Bartunek and Spreitzer, 2006; Baruch, 1998a; Hennestad, 1998; D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999; Wilkinson, 1998; Lee and Koh, 2001; Menon, 2001; Wall *et al.*, 2002, Lincoln *et al.*, 2002). The arguments emerging from the literature seem to concur that empowerment has to be

examined in a broader view and that successful empowerment needs the integration of various related organisational factors. That is to imply that employee empowerment is a multi-facet study as empowerment is said to be affected by several organisational dimensions.

Neumann (1993) describes it as passing on previously withheld power and authority to employees further down the hierarchy. Hennestad (1998) describes empowerment as delegation and enabling and although the two meanings differ, they have been used synonymously to conjure empowerment. He suggests treating delegation and enabling as separate but important components towards achieving empowerment, a suggestion also put forward by Shackelton (1995), proposing that delegation and empowerment are fundamentally different.

Wilkinson (1998) and Collins (1998), made similar comments in that the term 'empowerment' is used very loosely and not always clear when compared like with like. Wilkinson went on to elaborate that employee empowerment is seen as an entirely new phenomenon and that there is little discussion as to the issues likely to arise when implementing empowerment. There is also little thought as to the impact of historical and cultural aspects of empowerment. Collins argues that because implementation of empowerment differs in different countries as the changes and processes in operationalizing empowerment is conceptually different. Also, there is also little thought of the conditions which are necessary for such an approach to be seen as beneficial to the organisation. Furthermore, literature on employee empowerment takes a universalistic approach and little discussions are made on problems in implementing and sustaining empowerment. Marchington (1995) suggests this in a similar vein in his essay on employee participation and involvement.

Earlier in chapter one (section 1-1), it was suggested that the study of employee empowerment seems to focus on two directions. One is psychological and motivational aspects of empowerment. This is the area of inquiry that has received a lot of attention and research. This perspective is termed as psychological empowerment. It has its roots in social psychology and intrinsic motivation. It is this perspective where extensive theoretical developments and empirical research has been conducted (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005).

The second aspect of inquiry is power and structure dimension. According to Spreitzer and Doneson (2005), this is a social/structural perspective which has its roots in democratic principles and sociology. The essence of research here seems to focus on power sharing and decision making dimensions. There is extensive theoretical development and practitioner literature available but little empirical research in this area. The work of Handy (1976) and Kanter (1977; 1979; 1984; 1989a, 1989b) seems to support this. They suggest a third dimension which is the critical perspective which has its roots from post-modern theory and deconstruction which seems to conceptualise on who controls formal power structures. However, Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) suggest that research in this perspective in still in early phase.

Early academic papers which suggest that employee empowerment is a psychological condition can be seen in work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) although its use is not widespread in academic journals until the mid 1990's. Conger and Kanungo (1988) define empowerment as a motivational concept or self-efficacy whilst Thomas and Velthouse (1990) felt that empowerment is multifaceted and that its essence cannot be captured by a single concept. Spreitzer (1995) suggests that psychological empowerment is a psychological state that employees must experience for empowerment interventions to be successful. She suggests that there are four important traits that make up psychological empowerment: (1) meaning, (2) impact, (3) self-determination, and (4) competence. Menon (2001: 161) also explains empowerment in a psychological context and proposes this definition: "*The psychologically empowered state is a cognitive state characterised by a sense of perceived control, competence and goal internalisation*".

Lee and Koh (2001: 686), relying closely on Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) work, and having analysed various definitions on empowerment suggested a 'proper' definition which integrates aspects of behaviour and perception. They defined empowerment as: "*the psychological state of a subordinate perceiving for dimensions of meaningfulness, competence, self-determination and impact, which is affected by empowering behaviours of the supervisor*". They postulate that empowerment is not just a single element like participation or delegation but a combination of factors; furthermore, the word 'empowerment' is appropriate when

used between manager and employee and not between peers where 'encouragement' is more suitable. Koberg *et al.* (1999) posit that perceived empowerment is a process that expands an individual's power, as opposed to merely a state of being and as such, it takes place in varying degrees throughout an organisation, with individuals experiencing different feelings of empowerment at different times. Hence, feelings of empowerment are not fixed, depending on the organisation and leadership's continued support, trust and value systems, empowerment levels will change.

In summing up, academic researchers try to cast a more precise view to the meaning of empowerment, employing psychological and behaviourial context in defining empowerment. The view is that it is not only delegation but an enabling condition (Hennestad, 1998). Both Wilkinson (1998) and Marchington (1995) support the notion that empowerment has wider meaning than mere delegation and includes other organisational behaviour dimensions. However, Wilkinson (1998) points out that while empowerment is widely discussed and implemented in various forms and guises, there is as yet no set conditions as to what constitutes empowerment and recommends that research should move to examine the conditions under which empowerment is most effective and employee commitment to such schemes is enhanced. Therefore, employee empowerment warrants serious study especially in identifying organisational factors that can have an impact on empowerment.

Hence, whilst Ooi *et al.* (2007) found strong linkage between empowerment and job involvement, Lee and Koh (2001) argue that empowerment encompasses a broad range of other concepts, including employee ownership, job enrichment, self-efficacy and self-leadership, autonomy, and participative decision making concepts. Hence, they argue that empowerment is considered a 'new concept' if it is viewed to include more than just participation, delegation and involvement. Psoinos and Smithson (2002) on the other hand, argue that the major difference between these concepts relate to the transfer of decision making authority. In the case of participation and involvement, management retains control, whereas in empowerment, employees to some extent have some degree of authority to make and implement decisions. The decision making responsibilities range from task execution to task design which correspond with self-determination dimension of Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment construct. Thus, employees would be responsible for more control over coordinating, allocation of resources, improving quality and

design of the task that they are overseeing. Hence, Psoinos and Smithson (2002) define empowerment as the decentralisation of decision making authority to capture the broader changes that are necessary for empowerment to be something more than rhetoric.

2-3-3 Is Empowerment Attainable?

Most business management gurus give the impression that empowerment can be introduced in almost any situation or any group of people. However, Lashley's (1996) suggests that many popular business management book views of empowerment (such as, Peters and Waterman, 1982; Logan and King, 2004) are over simplistic and they fail to recognise the complexities and variability between managerial motives for empowering employees, in that the intentions of management and employees can be different and as such, results are often not to management's expectations. Harley's (1999) investigation among workers in Australia concluded that empowerment remains a myth. He states that whilst there is awareness to empowerment initiatives, the link between forms of work organisation which empower employees and employee autonomy is missing. He postulates that as long as hierarchy is present in a company, it would be difficult to exercise empowerment as managers by virtue of their position hold more power. Hence, Marchington *et al.* (1992) claim that whilst the employee is given a chance to be involved in work tasks and sharing of ideas and suggestions may take place, the manager makes the final decision. Similarly, Argyris (1998) argues that despite all the hype, empowerment has not really delivered the promised benefits and is no more than an illusion. This failure is attributed to the traditional management systems and their contradictions with the philosophy of empowerment (See for example, Psoinos and Smithson, 2002, Foster-Fishman and Keys, 1995). Smythe (2007) added a new perspective to employee engagement by suggesting that whilst internal marketing strategies popular in the 90's simply viewed employees as customers, the more advance vision is that leaders and employees must be empowered to become partners to drive the organization forward. Smythe further posit that good engagement planning is the "missing 50 percent" of strategy formulation.

The problem perhaps also lies in implementation – where does one start? A lot of it needs to work as a whole: structure, culture, people, systems, (Watson, 1985;

D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999) – yet it is impossible to change everything overnight. The authors urge caution, concluding that the old command and control philosophy often lives on underneath and empowered one. Hence, we can have a situation where traditional control mechanisms overlapping the empowerment exercise. Roberts and Hirsch (2005) envision that today's top HR job encompasses, among other factors, enabling capable and courageous leadership which can build a very strong and adaptive organizational culture.

Ezzamel *et al.* (1993) further emphasise that before adopting a new creed, management should be aware that the consequences of striving to follow its prescriptions could easily lead to incoherence, demoralisation and confusion. Collins (1998) suggests that a proper and in-depth understanding on organisation's work culture and processes must take place before considering empowerment initiatives. Collins further states that work practices in different countries and environment varies greatly, hence, simplistic empowerment programs and empowerment models may be deficient. Furthermore, an understanding on an organisation's historical processes in management, in particular cultural formations is needed before embarking on empowerment initiatives. Another factor is the mindset of the people in the organisations (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005). Are they tuned to changing work habits and 'new' style of working? This is where managing change in a firm is critical and as explained elsewhere, why middle and senior manager's role in implementing change is crucial. Roberts and Hirsch (2005) suggests that the best way to promote empowerment is to encourage creativity is to articulate the need, encourage people, provide some upside opportunity for a big success, and get out of the way. Most organizations are reluctant to provide such freedom due to fear that employees might veer off course or make bad decisions and because of this kill the empowerment spirit.

The road to empowering employees takes energy, commitment and strength of character from both the leader and employees to ensure long term success. It also requires a deep understanding of the organisational culture, system and processes, both historically, present and future in order to have a sustained programme. Hennestad (1998) proposes that the strategy for creating an empowerment momentum, must however, aim at handling the forces that de-empower. Empowerment, according to Hennestad (1998: 935) *"should be seen as making the*

employees take charge on behalf of the organisation. Empowerment is not a question of enlightening or infusing employees with some empowering formula, but rather a question of breaking down the barriers that stop employees from taking charge". Poor leadership, poor organisational support, low trust organisations and ambiguous policies are such forces that can easily frustrate empowerment initiatives. Baruch (1998a) proposes a framework to assist in implementation of empowerment program. In proposing a novel four quadrant model, Baruch posits that unless there is high level of fairness and belief in top management to pursue the empowerment agenda, empowerment cannot take place. As such if top management has little belief in the benefits of empowerment and is not honest to employees the empowerment concept if implemented is simply fraudulent. Where top management fairness (honesty and rewards) and belief in making empowerment work is both high, a strong fit exists, hence, empowerment will be successful. Baruch suggests this state as being 'enlightened'. In an organisation where fairness is high but belief mechanism is low, empowerment effect will be dissociated. Some examples include a hospital environment where a nurse will not be able to perform a doctor's role, or in a fast food restaurant, where food preparation is presented in a particular way. Hence where there is a need for standardisation and uniformity in work design, empowerment strategy would be applied differently. Baruch further posits that when the belief mechanism is high but reward and fairness mechanism is low, a 'miser' situation happens. Employees expect to be rewarded for extra effort, hence in the long term, the lack of rewards will undermine empowerment efforts. Baruch's explanation is akin in some ways to organisational structure concepts propounded by Chandler (1962) and Khandawalla (1977) with regard to organicity and mechanistic approach to management. An 'enlightened' situation suggested by Baruch (1998a) is when the organisation practices organic structure where there is fluidity in work and information and where employees can exercise their own decision making; as such a mechanistic structure would suggest a 'dissociate' position.

Hence, empowerment cannot be taken wholesale. There is a need to firstly identify structures and areas where employee empowerment can be achieved, and secondly to nurture these areas to promote empowering behaviours and that there are means to make it effective. Also while empowerment is appealing, it is also not a one-time prescription (D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999). It is a continuous

process and always evolving. It is also time consuming as complex processes are involved, furthermore it has to be individualised to situations and different levels of the organisational hierarchy. D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew (1999) suggest that 'quick fix' strategies will rarely be successful. As highlighted by Baruch (1998a), depending on the position an organisation is in, one can decide whether and how to move forward, for example management can move to improve reward system and hence move the miser situation to a position of enlightenment.

As such, empowerment programmes need a monitoring mechanism where results can be evaluated and changes be made. A common mistake is leaving the managers and employees to do as they please in the guise of delegating responsibility or empowering staffs. Pfeffer (1994) recommends some form of discipline and monitoring. Measuring the effectiveness of empowerment efforts has been a problem since the empowerment concept was coined. The development and validation of the psychological empowerment construct by Spreitzer (1995) opens new challenges to the understanding of employee and workplace empowerment. Spreitzer's 12 item psychological empowerment measurements provide the researcher with suitable measuring instrument to measure the extent to which psychological empowerment is present in an individual.

2-3-4 Psychological Empowerment Theory

As reviewed above, psychological empowerment studies first proposed by Conger and Kanungo (1985), then conceptualised by Thomas and Velthouse, (1990), and later modelled, measured and validated by Spreitzer (1995; 1996) and Kraimer *et al.* (1999) is currently the most developed and vigorously researched. The four psychological empowerment dimensions are described here:

(1) **Meaning:** involves a fit between the needs of one's work role and one's beliefs, behaviours and value of work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

(2) **Impact**: is the degree to which an employee can influence organisational outcomes (Ashforth, 1989)

(3) **Self-Determination:** is a sense of choice in initiating and managing one's actions (Deci and Ryan 1985). Self-determination

suggests that the employee has autonomy over the initiation, i.e. in making decisions about work methods, the pace and effort to complete work (Bell and Staw, 1989).

(4) **Competence:** refers to self-efficacy specific to one's work and a belief in one's ability to perform the work with the necessary skills (Gist, 1987; Bandura, 1989).

These four dimensions collectively have been found to create an overall *gestalt* of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; 1996). Each dimension adds a distinctive characteristic to an individual's experience of empowerment, and the four dimensions together capture the essence of psychological empowerment. It is suggested that empowered employees are thought to feel increased intrinsic work motivation and have a proactive, rather than passive, orientation to their work roles (Spreitzer, 1995; 1996; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). There is a growing body of literature supporting Spreitzer's psychological empowerment model. Table 2.1 presents a list of studies employing Spreitzer's psychological empowerment constructs and a brief description of the same. The limitations and gaps in the studies are also highlighted.

Table 2.1 List of Studies Employing Spreitzer's Psychological Model and Relationship with Other Organisational Behaviour Dimensions

Author(s)	Year	Sample and Analysis	Description and Key Findings	Suggestions and Limitations of Study
Spreitzer	1995	Two sets of sample: Primary sample – mid level managers from Fortune 50 firm. N = 393. Second sample were from an insurance firm, staffs of all levels and functions. N = 128.	Measurement and validation of psychological empowerment construct. Initial evidence was found for convergent validity. 2nd order factor analysis suggests that the measurement model provide strong evidence that each of the four constructs contributes to overall empowerment. This seminal study spawns an array of studies into employee empowerment and its impact on various organisational behaviour variables.	Limited discriminant validity was reported. Results differ in sample one and two suggesting the scales may need refinement. Further tests are necessary to individually test the four variables.
Spreitzer	1996	Same sample as above (1995) was employed.	Role ambiguity, span of control, socio-political support from immediate supervisor, work climate, information and reward significantly impacted empowerment.	Examination was made on 'total empowerment' construct. No tests on individual variables. All relationships were tested for direct links. Also no tests for mediation of individual psychological empowerment variables were carried out. Furthermore no moderation tests were made.
Spreitzer *et al.*	1997	Same sample as her 1995 study.	Strong significance was found for job effectiveness and job satisfaction with a mid-level employee sample. Meaning and self-determination (weak) was found to be significant to job satisfaction. No significance was found for competence and impact to job satisfaction.	Meaning variable seems to produce the strongest relationship to work satisfaction. Their findings suggest firms must create more complex empowerment interventions.
Kraimer *et al.*	1999	Non managerial sample obtained from 183 nurses. 90% female. 34% Asian, the rest were Caucasians. A second sample was obtained 1 year later with the same sample for comparison.	Re-validation Spreitzer's construct and found self-determination and impact to positively impact organisational commitment and whilst meaning and competence had negative significance to career intentions.	High degree of correlation was found with self-determination and impact variables and the authors suggest that self-determination may be an antecedent to impact. Sample was highly biased towards female employees. The study suggests that the empowerment construct was not entirely consistent and is sample dependent.
Corsun and Enz	1999	Sample obtained from 292 service workers in 21 private clubs.	Supportive peer helping and supportive customer relationships suggest significant impact on meaning, self-determination and impact variables.	No study was made on competence. Also no mediation and moderation tests were made.
Koberg *et al.*	1999	US sample. 129 males, 483 females, from a large hospital. A large proportion was paramedical professionals. Response rate was 80%.	Organisational rank, tenure, leadership approachability, group effectiveness (teams), job satisfaction, propensity to leave impacting empowerment. Locus of control suggests the perceived control one has over one's own life experiences with less reliance on luck, chance or fate or that someone else is responsible for their well being. No relationship was found. No difference was found for gender and ethnicity.	Empowerment construct was aggregated and no tests were made on individual construct items of empowerment. Only multiple analysis of variance (MANCOVA) was carried out. No mediation was made. Furthermore tenure was not tested for moderation.

Table 2.1 Continuation of List of Studies Employing Spreitzer's Psychological Empowerment Model

Fuller *et al.*	1999	230 nurses of a medical facility. Analysis by multiple regression.	Their study found empowerment enhances relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.	No findings on individual variables.
Siegall and Gartner	2000	203 employees of a manufacturing firm.	Communication with supervisor, relationships with the company and concern for performance significantly impacted meaning of empowerment scale. Self-determination was significant for communication and performance, impact only significant for communication. Competence had no relationship.	Competence scale failed to show any significance although as reported the mean for competence was high prompting the authors to suggest that there may be a problem with the scale.
Liden *et. al.*	2000	337 employees and their immediate employees.	Job enrichment characteristics and LMX (Leader-Member Exchange) significantly impacted empowerment. Only meaning and impact variables were significant to organisational commitment. Other significant finding reported: only meaning variable positively associated to work satisfaction. Competence and work satisfaction registered a negative response. Self-determination and impact was not significant.	Meaning dimension of psychological empowerment construct is the dominant construct.
Gomez and Rosen	2001	128 manager-employee dyad from 13 organisations.	Relationship between trust with manager and empowerment is mediated by quality of quality of LMX. The study suggests the need for managers to 'relinquish' control whilst employees need to perform in a two way exchange, if empowerment needs to be successful.	Strictly looking at Trust-LMX the study concluded that socio-political support, poor access to information, must be included as important dimensions in empowerment.
Seibert *et al.*	2004	375 engineers of a high-technology firm. Analysis via multiple regression.	Empowerment climate, and individual performance, job satisfaction positively impacted psychological empowerment but mediation significant only with empowerment climate and job satisfaction. Empowerment climate was defined as a shared perception with regard to the extent an organisation makes use of structures, policies and practises to support empowerment. Empowerment climate consists of information sharing, autonomy through boundaries and team accountability dimensions.	Poor discriminant validity for empowerment climate scales. Scale items tend to overlap. No tests were made on individual psychological empowerment construct which may have provided a more detailed understanding of the construct.
Carless	2004	174 customer service employees in two private financial call centres. Response rate 62%. Males = 39%, Females = 67%.	Support was found for psychological climate and job satisfaction on empowerment, Australian study. Psychological climate is suggested to contain elements of leadership style, interpersonal relationships, opportunities for professional development and employee-firm goal congruence. Meaning and competence was found to be predictors of job satisfaction.	A negative correlation was found between competence and job satisfaction which was not explained. Self-determination was not significant to job satisfaction suggesting no relationship.
Janssen	2004	91 secondary school teachers. 51% Female. Analysis by multiple regression. Netherlands study.	Conflict with superiors moderates between empowerment and organisational commitment. Study was made on total empowerment.	No analysis was reported for individual empowerment components.

Table 2.1 Continuation of List of Studies Employing Spreitzer's Psychological Empowerment Model

Avolio *et al.*	2004	502 staff nurses of a public hospital. Response rate reported was 80%. Singapore study.	Relationship was found for transformational leadership and organisational commitment with psychological empowerment mediating suggesting that higher empowered individuals respond positively to transformational leaders efforts leading to heighten levels of commitment as well.	Sample employing nursing community, typically young female employees. Only total empowerment construct was reported. No tests of individual constructs. The authors also propose investigating organisational structure as a possible construct for future study.
Tzafrir *et al.*	2004	National sample of 230 respondents. 45% female. 28% middle to high level positions.	The study examined the links between empowerment, organisational communication and procedural justice to employees' trust in their managers. The study employed 3 dimensions of Spreitzer's empowerment model.	The study found empowerment, organisational communication and procedural justice to impact employee trust in managers. Additionally suggests that procedural justice mediates the impact of employee development on their trust in their managers
Boudrias *et al.*	2005	Sample of 191 male and 200 female nurses.	Test of psychological empowerment structure on gender, Canadian study. The 2nd order factor analysis results suggest male and female is invariant (constant).	Sample was obtained from nursing community only.
Bhatnagar	2005	607 managers across India.	Impact of psychological empowerment on Allen and Meyers (1990) organisational commitment scale. The regression results support relationship between affective, normative and continuance commitment.	Total empowerment was employed in study. No tests were discussed on individual empowerment constructs. Furthermore no mediation and moderation tests were made.
Dimitriades	2005	154 students. Greek study.	Greek context, in combination with Menon's empowerment model. Both constructs were found to be valid across Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Finding was not supported for power distance	Weak reliabilities were reported for cultural dimensions. Also weak loadings were reported for meaning and competence variables suggesting discriminant validity issues. Post graduate students sample pose a problem in generalisability of study.
Samad	2007	482 Customer Marketing Executives of a telecommunications firm. 64% females, 36% male.	The Malaysian study found aspects of social structure (self-esteem, power distribution, information sharing, knowledge, rewards, transformational leadership and culture) to be important determinants of psychological empowerment. Also, openness personality was found to moderate between social structure characteristics and empowerment.	The key finding suggests that Western style management could be valid in a non-western setting. Psychological empowerment was aggregated. No findings were reported on individual psychological empowerment dimensions.
Ergeneli *et al.*	2007	220 bank managers, Turkey	The results indicated a significant relationship between cognition-based trust in immediate managers and overall psychological empowerment. Although cognition-based trust relates to meaning and competence aspects, affect-based trust is related to impact only.	This study shows no relationship between any type of trust in immediate manager and self-determination. With demographic as control variables, only position has an impact on psychological empowerment.
Drake *et al.*	2007	-	Performance feedback and performance-based rewards affect three psychological dimensions of empowerment. Results suggest that feedback and rewards affect the dimensions of empowerment differently for lower-level workers than they do for managers.	Performance feedback was positively associated with only one dimension and performance-based rewards had negative effects on two out of the three dimensions of empowerment.

The studies in Table 2.1 show that successful psychological empowerment includes a number of organisational behaviours, factors, conditions, situations, or phenomena that encourages or enhances job performance and commitment as posited by Wilkinson, (1998); Robbins, (2002); and Spreitzer (1995; 1996). Except otherwise indicated, most studies are US based studies. To the best of my knowledge, there are no empirical studies as yet employing Spreitzer's psychological empowerment model in the UK. As such, this research is perhaps the first employing a UK sample, targeting senior and middle management personnel. Furthermore, there is current interest in cross-national studies and debate with regards to the convergence-divergence in HR practices (Pudelko, 2005). Hence, this study will provide some comparison between US and UK managers with regard to this issue. Also, no research has been attempted on structure and organisational support dimensions. Similarly, mediation and moderating effects of various organisational behaviour variables are also lacking. These investigations will extend the body of knowledge in particular in understanding the behaviour of psychological empowerment dimensions and other related constructs.

Spreitzer (1995; 1996) found her model to be reliable after test and retest with two separate samples. She also examined the four dimension psychological empowerment as an aggregated construct for relationship with role ambiguity, span of control, socio-political support from supervisors, work climate, information and reward. However, she found discriminant validity to be an issue with her model due to strong correlations among the four constructs. However, in a separate investigation (Spreitzer, 1997), she investigated individual empowerment dimensions and found meaning and self-determination provided support for her model to work satisfaction. The study further suggests that the empowerment dimensions behave differently and thus merit more in-depth study. Spreitzer's studies spark much interest and an array of investigation into the psychological empowerment model was produced. For example, Kraimer *et al.* (1999) revalidated Spreitzer's model and found the dimensions self-determination and impact positively impact organisational commitment whilst the dimensions meaning and competence impacted negatively on career intentions. However, their study also found high correlations between self-determination and impact suggesting discriminant validity problems.

Other significant studies include Corsun and Enz (1999) who examined the impact of peer support to empowerment, Koberg *et al.*, (1999) compared teams and gender, Fuller *et al.* (1999) carried out a study examining the link between empowerment and transformational leadership qualities. Siegall and Gardner (2000) engaged a combination of Spreitzer's construct with communication, relationships with the company and teamwork scales. Liden *et al.* (2000) and Gomez and Rosen (2001) on the other hand employed the Spreitzer's construct to measure relationship of psychological empowerment with leader-member exchange (LMX) between the manager and subordinate. Tzafrir *et al.* (2004) research suggests that empowerment impact positively on manager's trust. Carless (2004) employed the psychological climate multi-dimensional construct consisting of items like role clarity, supportive leadership, participative decision making, professional interaction, professional growth and goal congruence. Carless's (2004) study found significant relationship between psychological climate to meaning and competence dimensions of the psychological empowerment construct. Janssen (2004) investigated the moderating effect of conflict with superiors between empowerment and commitment and found a case for moderation. However, no analysis for individual psychological empowerment dimension was made.

A study on the mediating effect of empowerment between the relationship of transformational leadership and organisational commitment was conducted by Avolio *et al* (2004). Their study suggests that empowerment levels do make a difference and that higher empowered employee's response positively to transformational leaders. The study suggests that empowered employees work better with transformational managers, a condition also required in organically structured firms. With regards to gender difference in response to empowerment Boudrias *et al.* (2005) found both male and female employees reacted in the same way, suggesting no difference between genders. Bhatnagar (2005) studied the impact of total empowerment on organisational commitment employing an Indian sample. The study found positive and significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational commitment.

Dimitriades (2005) conducted a Greek study to examine the impact of cross-cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1980; 1985) who suggests that employee attitudes in different countries (or cultures) vary in terms of individualism –

collectivism, risk taking and power distance. Power distance suggests to which power is unequally distributed among different cultures. Since empowerment suggests how power is bestowed to employees, research comparing different cultural setting is apt. The study suggests uncertainty avoidance amongst Greek's is positively related to empowerment but power distance suggests otherwise. Lastly, Samad (2007) found many aspects of social structure (self-esteem, power distribution, information sharing, knowledge, rewards, transformational leadership and culture) to be important determinants of psychological empowerment.

The above analysis also confirms that Spreitzer's construct is widely employed by researchers to measure perceptions of empowerment in the workplace. However, the Spreitzer's psychological empowerment model is not the only measurement available. In the next section, I will discuss four other workplace empowerment measurement models in contention and explain the rationale for employing Spreitzer's construct.

2-3-5 Competing Empowerment Measurement

Literature review suggests no less than 4 empowerment measurement scales currently available to examine workplace empowerment (See Arneson and Ekberg, 2006 for a review):

i) Leslie *et al.* (1998) developed the 'Worker Empowerment Scale' in an attempt to fill a gap they thought was lacking. They developed an empowerment instrument to measure levels of empowerment and changes in the sense of empowerment among employees; however, Spreitzer, whose instrument is now widely used in employee empowerment research, published her work in 1995.

ii) According to Menon (2001), psychological empowerment perceptions can be analysed with three (rather than Spreitzer's four dimensions) cognitive areas: a sense of perceived control, perceptions of competence, and internalisation of the organisational goals and objectives. To date, there have not been much empirical studies supporting Menon's empowerment scale. Apart from Menon's (2001) own study only two other studies have

been conducted adopting it. First, a replication with an Australian sample data (see Menon and Hartmann, 2002), and second, a study combining Spreitzer's and Menon's scales (see Dimitriades, 2005). Dimitriades found both measurements produce reliable results.

iii) Konczak *et al.* (2000) on the other hand posited that the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) multifaceted construct of empowerment and Spreitzer (1995) measures of empowerment did not adequately measure leadership behaviours that encouraged employee empowerment. Hence, they developed a variant empowerment measurement to investigate how leaders facilitate employee empowerment by giving control, sharing information and develop skills. However to date; there is a lack of research based on their instrument in academic literatures. Furthermore, recent research (Douthitt, 2001, unpublished dissertation) employing this scale reported low reliability for leader reported data (coefficient = 0.68). Also, the scales seem to overlap with the proposed antecedents for the current study especially for organicity (decision making), and information sharing. Hence Konczak *et al.*'s scale appear more an antecedent to Spreitzer's psychological empowerment construct which measures the feelings as a result to effects on proposed antecedents.

iv) Tremblay (1997) as cited in Pare *et al.* (2000) introduced a 4 item 'empowerment practice' scale to measure how much empowerment is practice in a firm. The scale is purported to measure latitude, autonomy, liberty and decision making as empowerment indicators. The scale has so far only been used in their own work and reliability of scale is poor (Cronbach reliability = 0.68).

Despite the arguments presented by these competing empowerment measurement instruments, Spreitzer's (1995) instrument remains the most utilised and robustly investigated, grounded in strong theory and empirically examined as depicted in Table 2.1. As such, I concur with employee empowerment researchers and similarly employ Spreitzer's instrument in the present study. Moreover,

comparisons as well as further investigations could be made with previous studies. In the following sections, I will discuss the sub-dimensions of the empowering antecedents and empowered attitudes as described in the theoretical model (Figure 1.1) proposed in Chapter 1.

2-4 Antecedents to Empowerment

Many empowerment researchers (see for example, Spreitzer, 1995; Robbins *et al.*, 2002; Mathews *et al.*, 2002; Wilkinson, 1998) have argued that empowering behaviours must exist before empowerment can be achieved. It is generally supported that empowerment needs to be nurtured by a whole work environment that it operates. The perceived degree of power being transferred to employees and the more decision making authority they have would impact the psychological empowerment dimensions (Robbins *et al.*, 2002). It has been suggested that although employee empowerment is recognised, there is a conflict between management and employees with regards to empowerment initiatives. On the one hand, management want to empower, but is unable to 'let go' responsibilities and decision making. Studies have suggested that decisions on what to do and what to empower remains in management's hands (Marchington *et al.*, 1992; D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999). Baruch (1998a) further suggests that such a situation will create 'fraudulent empowerment' initiatives and is certain to failure and proposes a fairer and more equitable structure when implementing empowerment. As such, supportive organisational structure, with decentralised environment, creative HR bundling (Huselid, 1995) will positively impact perceptions of empowerment.

Hennestad (1998: 951) sums up the struggle associated with empowerment: "*Empowerment solutions often constitute complex problems. People are not black boxes that can be infused with empowerment, and empowerment cannot be realised by being introduced 'at the top' of an organisation ruled by contradictory ideas.*" He argues that there is a conflict of wanting to empower and a resistance to it. Hennestad suggests that conflicts exists between organisations wanting to empower their employees and the organisational forces that de-empower or impedes empowerment process. Fenton-O'Creevy's (1998) study suggests that middle managers may resist efforts by the organisation to involve employees more, concurring with Hennestad's view. Furthermore, a recent study by Janssen (2004) with regards to conflict with superiors and its negative impact on organisational commitment and

empowerment seems to support this view. This suggests that conflict and ambiguity in job roles will adversely impact perceptions of empowerment and is an area that needs attention.

Lee and Koh (2001) and Robbins *et al.* (2002) clarify that empowering behaviours are behaviours or actions preceding psychological empowerment. The presence of these behaviours and conditions enhance or reduce an individual's sense of empowerment. Robbins *et al.* (2002) proposed that further research into empowerment issues address the broader organisational context. Spreitzer (1995) similarly suggests that future research must determine local work unit elements that affect the individual cognitions of psychological empowerment in order to extend our knowledge of the macro-micro links. The absence of these intervening variables will result in a less than complete understanding of the empowerment process. Hence, as a result of these arguments, a theoretical model comprising four broad empowering behaviours is suggested for this present study (see chapter 1, figure 1.1), namely: (1) Structure and Support (2) HR practices, (3) Leadership Trust and (4) Conflict and Ambiguity.

2-4-1 Structure and Support

The study of organisational structure has received a lot of attention as reflected in recent studies (see for example, Tata and Prasad, 2004; Schminke, *et al.*, 2002; Jiang *et al.*, 2003 and Sarros *et al.*, 2002). Shivers-Blackwell (2006: 29) suggests that "*organic structures tend to be more effective in unpredictable environments, because these structures permit rapid organisational responses to changing external forces, while mechanistic structures are better suited to more stable environments where immediate organisational responses are not usually required. Subsequently, it is expected that organic structures will be more effective for organisations operating in unpredictable or even hostile environments, and mechanistic structures would be more effective in predictable and more stable environments*".

Hence, organisation structure or style refers to whether an organisation is organic or informal with high degree of autonomy. A mechanistic structure is characterised by formal and high degree of hierarchy in an organisation. Other literature suggests that organisational structure is defined differently by business management authors. One perspective suggests organisational structure as hierarchical or lateral in nature, for example; Chandler (1962) suggests that organisational structure is the design of an organisation through which an organisation is administered. According to Perrow,

(1967), organisational structure is the arrangement among people for getting work done. Galbraith and Nathanson (1978) defined structure as the segmentation of work into roles such as production, finance, marketing, and so on. These interpretations of organisational structure suggest structure as a hierarchical or lateral nature of the flow of work and job roles.

Another view suggests organisational structure in terms of power and relationships among subordinates and co-workers, presenting a cultural theme to organisational structure. For example, Thompson, (1967) describes organisational structure as an organisation's internal pattern of relationships, authority, and communications. Bower (1970) similarly explains that organisational structures are channels of collaboration, allocation of power and responsibility.

Chandler, (1962) further postulates that organisational structure can be categorised into two dichotomies: formal vs. informal and mechanistic (bureaucratic style) vs. organic (adaptive style). The formal and informal dichotomy is the most fundamental structure. Formal structure is described as an organisation with fixed rules and regulations like formal written rules of work, work-related procedures, organisational charts, strategies, plans, and performance measures (Hage, 1980). The term 'formalisation' is widely used to suggest an organisation adopting formal behaviours (Aiken and Hage, 1966 and 1968). An informal organisational structure on the other hand, suggests an organisation that prefers to 'get things done' without too much emphasis on formality (Khandwalla, 1977). Table 2.2 describes the key differences between organic and mechanistic styles.

The role of HRM in enhancing the effectiveness of other organisational practices or technologies or 'organisational fit', according to Wall and Wood (2005) plays an important role in employee effectiveness and performance. They further argue that since organisational fit is vital to the performance of a firm, it is crucial to investigate the extent to which such relations matter.

Quinn *et al.* (1997) investigated organisational traits to determining how business processes of information and knowledge, innovation, and technology interrelate to create value, and how firms take advantage of these processes to compete against business rivals. The emerging trend is to increase customer contact and satisfaction by flattening the organisation and remove layers of hierarchy to move closer to the

customer. By so doing it is posited that firms will be more responsive in dealing with complex customer requirements, like customisation and personalised products. Breaking traditional hierarchical structures, decentralizing functions and creating knowledgeable workers suggests promoting organicity in firms. Prevailing research also suggests that organic firms are a necessity in highly turbulent environments, highly competitive and unstable business environment (Naman and Slevin, 1993), whilst mechanistic firms are suited in predictive and stable business environments (Shivers-Blackwell, 2006).

Studies on organisation structure or style have also found significant influence on innovation and entrepreneurship (see for example, Naman and Slevin, 1993). Their research found that organisations that promote organicity in firms resulted in higher levels of innovativeness and entrepreneurship in their employees. Organic firms are characterised by informal decision making and high degree of autonomy compared to centralised firms (Covin and Slevin, 1988), and these qualities help nuture employee empowerment. Psoinos and Smithson (2002) suggested that constraining factors to employee empowerment include traditional division of tasks and hierarchical management structures. Similarly, Spreitzer (1995) and Koberg *et al.* (1999) also suggested that structure as future research possibilities. Based on these arguments, one can posit that it is equally important to study the impact of organisational structure to empowerment and outcomes.

Table: 2.2 Characteristics of Mechanistic Versus Organic Structure

Formal – Mechanistic Structure	Informal – Organic Structure
1. Top – Down Organisational Structure Hierarchical, many levels of command.	1. Organisational structure is lateral resulting in flatter organisations
2. Allocation of power and responsibilities and resource allocation.	2. Shared responsibility and resources.
3. Segmentation of work roles and functions	3. Highly flexible and informal work roles. Roles and duties change continually change depending on situations.
4. Govern by formal written rules, regulations and procedures. Strict channels of communication.	4. Informal, less dependent on rules and regulations. A lot of lateral communications taking place, hence employees are encourage to take initiative. Trust is also enhanced in these types of structures.
5. Best suited in stable business environment where product standardisation is the norm and high efficiency is sought. Examples include manufacturing setting, services like hospital environment and fire services, fast food restaurant setting.	5. Suited in highly turbulent market and business environment where problem solving, customisation, product innovation and flexibility are sought.
6. Impact on empowerment: due to the restrictive and rigid nature of work structure, empowerment is not encouraged (see for example, Baruch, 1998a).	6. Impact on empowerment: this is the form of structure that authors suggest that empowerment will flourish (see for example: Robbins *et al.* 2002; Siebert *et al.* 2004).

2-4-1-1 Organicity as Antecedent of Empowerment

Organicity refers to an organisation's decentralised architecture or organisational style with fluid job responsibilities and considerable lateral communications (Khandwalla, 1977). Kanter (1984) in supporting organicity in organisations suggest reductions of layers in hierarchy and also proposes improving lateral communication and giving increased information about company plans and objectives. Organisational structures that discourage the communication of ideas and flexibility will hinder innovativeness. Bureaucratic or mechanistic organisations are characterised by established rules and routines (Block, 1987): 'this is the way we do things here' scenario. These strict 'by the book' cultural management system will therefore impede the empowerment process. In order for empowerment to flourish in a firm requires an organisational structure that enables fluid job responsibilities and effective lateral communications (Hennestad, 1998).

Research on organic organisations has shown to positively impact on firm performance. A study by Chaston (1996) also found evidence that incorporating organicity in organisations enhances performance levels. Chaston's study found that a mechanistic organisation can expect to accomplish the lowest level overall performance compared to firms adopting a more organic structure. Tse (1991) investigated the role of organic structure to performance and found support that organicity in a firm impact on performance. Another study by Naman and Slevin (1993) study similarly found significant relationship to firm performance. Moreover, a recent study by Jabnoun (2005) employing organicity measurement produced similar results to customer-oriented TQM environment. Shivers-Blackwell (2006) study provides further evidence that organicity in a firm play an important role in influencing transformational managers' perceptions. Hence, depending on a firm's structure, manager's formulate their own leadership role, either that of transactional or transformational trait to suit an organisation supporting Eylon's (1998) view that structure is dependent upon empowerment processes i.e. empowerment initiatives will transform the structure of the firm. This is because in order to empower, organisational structure has to be one that allows better flow of information and decision making to lower levels of staffs. As

such if a firm is highly mechanistic and centralised, they have to change to be less mechanistic and centralised to permit empowerment to take effect. Covin and Slevin (1988) identifies four traits of organisational structure as a result of different style and structure of the firm. They describe them as:

(1) **Efficient-bureaucratic organisations** which exhibit a conservative (i.e. non-entrepreneurial approach) style and have a mechanistic structure. These firms are successful because they produce goods to customers who require uniform products or services at competitive prices. Examples are firms like fast food chain franchises, financial institutions and manufacturing shop floor. This form of structure will therefore be difficult to empower employees as it may not desirable (see also Baruch 1998a).

(2) **Unstructured-unadventurous organisations** which demonstrate a conservative style although they have an organic structure. These firms have the ability to respond quickly to opportunities but are not particularly efficient in producing uniform products displayed by organisations with structure (1) above. Examples may include small firms which may exhibit high levels of enthusiasm but lack the resources (equipment, people and finances) to produce at the required performance levels, resulting in close resemblance to what Baruch (1998a) posit as a disassociated situation.

(3) **Pseudo-entrepreneurial firms** which show an entrepreneurial style but have a mechanistic structure. These firms are ineffective because of their rigid, inflexible structure which becomes a barrier to entrepreneurialism. These firms have a centralised organisation structure; i.e. having decision making at top management levels only; although they purportedly promote entrepreneurial spirit in their organisations. Baruch (1998a) suggests that this type of firms will result in fraudulent empowerment.

(4) **Effective-entrepreneurial firms** which exhibit an entrepreneurial style and have an organic structure. These firms are effective because their organic structure enhances communication and minimizes bureaucratic

barriers to innovation. These firms will display low centralisation but high organicity. It should be added that equitable reward and fairness must also be high on the agenda; otherwise a 'miserly' situation would happen, hampering future empowerment efforts (Baruch, 1998a).

Seibert *et al.'s* (2004) empirical study on empowerment climate suggests that psychological empowerment mediate the relationships between empowerment climate and job satisfaction. The empowerment climate instrument consists of multi-dimensional items: information sharing, autonomy through boundaries, team responsibility and accountability. Autonomy, responsibility and accountability is somewhat related to '*transfer of power*' suggested by Robbins *et al.* (2002: 427) as empowerment climate as defined by Seibert *et al.* (2004: 333) is "*a shared perception with regard to the extent an organisation makes use of structures, policies and practises in supporting empowerment goals*". The construct is quite different from organisational structure proposed for this study which suggests how organic (flexible, fluid job responsibilities and lack of rules and procedures) or mechanistic a firm is and how power in terms of decision making is distributed (centralisation) among employees.

Studies by Poole and Jenkins (1996; 1997) and Budhwar (2000) on integration and devolvement suggest that in principle organisations have in mind to devolve but in reality it is somewhat different. Despite all the hype, organisations have not successfully devolved responsibilities lower down the hierarchy.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggest that empowerment is a process that involves a leader sharing power with their subordinates. They suggest that the key concept of empowerment is enhancement of feelings of self-efficacy among employees through identifying and removing conditions that cultivate powerlessness. A similar point was raised by Hennestad (1998), who claims that in order to empower an employee, management must look at areas or influences in organisational behaviours that de-empower employees. Removing situations that de-empower, for instance by de-centralising decision making process, improving communications and therefore improving organicity for

employees will make organisations more empowerment friendly. Poisnos and Smithson (2002) similarly suggest that even if employees are motivated and highly skilled, they will not be empowered in highly structured organisations as they feel they lack the power to exercise decision making in their work process. The more employees perceive an organisation's structure to be organically oriented, the higher would be the effect of empowerment.

2-4-1-2 Centralisation as Antecedent of Empowerment

Whilst organicity focuses on organisational structure that promotes fluidity in job functions and good flow of communications, centralisation suggests a condition where the locus of decision making is located near the top management of an organisation, which will result in a lack of freedom at lower hierarchy to make important decisions. It is defined as the extent 'power is distributed among social positions' (Aiken and Hage, 1967). Several researchers (see for example, Hage and Aiken, 1967; Pfeffer, 1981) have found that higher centralisation is often associated with a range of negative outcomes. These may include decreased flexibility, less autonomy, lower job satisfaction, and also increased isolation (alienation), that is employees feel distant from their organisations. Therefore, centralisation like organicity could impact employee empowerment, albeit negatively. The more employees perceive an organisation's structure to be centralised with locus of decision making close to the top of management hierarchy, the lower will be the perceptions of psychological empowerment. A highly centralised organisation structure will therefore, negatively impact employee empowerment and consequently impact negatively on outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and will positively impact turnover intentions, conversely low perceptions of centralisation will impact positively on empowerment.

Many centralisation studies have displayed close resemblance to psychological empowerment dimensions. For example, a recent study by Kim and Lee (2006) on the impact of organisational context found adverse effect in centralised organisations to knowledge sharing. Knowledge is closely related to improving skills and competence, a component in Spreitzer's psychological empowerment. Tata and Prasad's (2004) study on organisational structure and

team effectiveness found empirical evidence that low centralisation promotes team effectiveness, whilst Schminke *et al.* (2002) found that centralisation impacts negatively on procedural justice (fairness in organisations). Effectiveness essentially relates to psychological impact variable. Jiang *et al.* (2003) investigated centralisation and relationship on planning and authority and found that centralisation negatively affects the ability to plan and feeling of authority is diminished. Planning and authority is associated to self-determination of the psychological empowerment model. Sarros *et al.* (2002) studied the implications of centralisation on work alienation and transformational leadership and found significant relationship between organisational structure and transformational leadership. Their study argues that management need to question bureaucratic orientations to work and manager employee relations by rethinking their value orientations and adapting new models that enhances employee fulfilment and personal development. Since employee fulfilment and personal development are psychological traits closely link to Hackman and Oldham's (1980) meaning dimension (another key component in Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment construct, centralisation will similarly adversely impact psychological empowerment.

2-4-1-3 Differences between Organicity and Centralisation

Organicity suggests an organisation that adopts a de-centralised architecture with fluid job responsibilities and considerable lateral communications (Khandwalla, 1977). Such an environment enhances flexibility and innovativeness in organisations and consequently may impact positively on empowerment levels. As described in sections 2-4-1 and 2-4-1-1, research has revealed that organicity is necessary where organisations operate in highly turbulent and unstable business environment where informal, lateral communications and flexibility are crucial. Organicity scale proposed in this study is designed to measure how organic or mechanistic an organisation is perceived to be. The scale employs dimensions of lateral communications, manager's operating style, uniformity (lack of it), flexibility and informality as keywords in the scale. A sample item asks: "The manager's operating styles are allowed to range freely from very formal to very informal".

Centralisation is when the locus of decision making is located near the top management of an organisation, and as such, there will be a lack of freedom to make decisions at lower hierarchy to make important decisions (Aiken and Hage, 1966). Centralised structure is necessary in mechanistic functions where high level of standardisation and control of work processes is needed (Covin and Slevin, 1988). However, such an environment is suggested to negatively impact empowerment due to its restrictive nature. The centralisation scale designed by Aiken and Hage (1966; 1967), measure the degree of hierarchical authority within an organisation. The overriding keyword in the scale is the level of decision making the employee can or is allowed to make. A sample item asks: "A person who wants to make his own decisions would be quickly discouraged here". Hence the scales measure the amount of delegation of decision making authority in an organisation and the extent of participation by members of the organisation.

It is important to note that organicity and centralisation are important aspects to organisational structure. Both dimensions play an important role in organisational effectiveness and performance in different organisational requirements. Organic firms display flexibility in management and entrepreneurial structure where innovativeness and creativity is required (Chaston, 1996). Centralisation on the other hand is desirable where a highly centralised decision making is required to achieve desired performance goals especially in rigid shop-floor and manufacturing environment where standardisation and uniformity is vital. However, where centralisation is the dominant structure of a firm, employee empowerment will be low or undesirable (Baruch, 1998a) and where organicity is high on the management's agenda, employee empowerment (and perceptions of empowerment) is encouraged. Employee empowerment will thus flourish in organic organisations and less in centralised decision-making work structure.

2-4-2 Organisational Support as Antecedent of Empowerment

Robbins *et al.* (2002) suggest that support, particularly the interpersonal interaction between the organisation and employees, play a significant role in shaping employee perceptions of the empowerment. Social information process theory suggests that interactions between management and employees affect organisational-employee relationships as well (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978). Top management commitment and support to the empowerment process is vital to the success of empowerment efforts as half-hearted actions will simply result in fraudulent empowerment (Baruch 1998a). As such, the more employees perceive that management supports their actions, the more it will reflect positively on organisational commitment.

Organisational Support is defined as the perceived support that an employee feel he or she receives from the firm they work for (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). Organisational support can come in the form of praise, support, or approval (Shore and Tetrick, 1991). The concept of perceived organisational support (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986) suggests that employees form an overall attitude towards the quality of their relationship with their organisation through past experiences with the organisation. By the way the organisation conducts itself and supports the employee; the employee will come to make up his mind as to the degree the organisation supports them and values their work. In other words, organisational support represents an employee's perception about the degree of the organisation's commitment toward an employee.

Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) posit that employees with high levels of perceived organisational support feels that the organisation values and appreciates their efforts. Furthermore, help and assistance if needed is there when any problem arises. The help and assistance could come either in their own team that the employee works with or within the organisation itself. On the contrary, individuals with low levels of perceived organisational support believe that the organisation would ignore their problems, and take advantage of them, and even replace them if possible. Hence organisational support suggests the commitment on the part of the organisation through the level of support it provides to employees. This in turn is reciprocated by employees in the form of higher commitment. As such, perceived organisational support is important as it forms the basis of the social exchange between the

employee and the organisation. When organisational support is seen to be high, a social exchange develops in which the employee may feel compelled to respond with high levels of commitment (Wayne *et al.*, 1997). Based on the employee's assessment to previous management action, the employee comes to trust or distrust the organisation.

Studies have shown that high levels of perceived organisational support impacts negatively on turnover intentions, whilst show an increased in levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (see for example, Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986; Wayne *et al.*, 1997). Recent studies on Eisenberger *et al.'s* perceived organisational support include Armeli *et al.* (1998) which reported relationship to job performance. Research by Randall *et al.* (1999) found relationship to organisational citizenship behaviours whilst Bishop *et al.* (2003) investigated the two variables; organisational support and organisational commitment and found them to be distinguishable and conceptually distinct.

Hence, based on the above literature review, there is a strong possibility of a relationship between perceived organisational support and psychological empowerment in that high levels of perceived organisational support will also display a strong sense of empowerment in employees. Organisational support will significantly impact empowerment and consequently outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and will negatively impact turnover intentions. So far, no studies have directly studied the relationship of organisational support to Spreitzer's empowerment construct; thus, it is imperative to study the impact of organisational support on psychological empowerment constructs since there are scant studies at especially organisational specific level. The use of organisational specific constructs like organicity and organisational support would help broaden the understanding of empowerment concepts.

2-4-3 HR Practices

HRM is a term commonly used to represent that part of an organisation's activities concerned with the recruitment, development and management of its employees (Wood and Wall, 2002). The function and practice of HRM has evolved and transformed in importance: from a basic personnel function to one that views employees of an organisation as an important resource that has to be developed to its

full potential. Within the field, current interest is focused on HRM systems emphasising all or most of the following practices: sophisticated selection methods, carefully structured induction programs, frequent appraisals, training and development, information sharing and communication flow, empowerment and performance-related pay. Collectively, these are suggested to contribute to the skill and knowledge base within the organisation, and to employees' willingness to deploy their learning to the benefit of the organisation (Wall and Wood, 2005). This broad range of perspectives has its origin in the changing view of HR development. HR Practices has also become from being only a cost be carefully controlled and monitored to a resource to optimise (Becker and Gerhart, 1996). In recent years this view has given rise to the term resource-based theory, i.e. to treat HR as a valuable resource rather than just a cost. Resource-based theory suggests that since natural resources, technology and economies of scale can easily be copied by competitors the best way to sustain a long-term competitive advantage against the competition is to develop highly skilled employees. Hence, a highly developed HR practice will enable firms' to maintain or even supersede the competition.

Wood (1999) suggests that an organisation's 'internal fit' is the synergy among the HR practices. He argues that the combine result of HR practices will be greater than when implementing them on their own. Wood likens this synergy to recruiting employees without training them, or training employees without empowering them to fully use the training given. The net effect will have little use; on the other hand implementing the three practices, i.e. recruiting, training and empowering together will produce a much stronger effect.

The purpose of training is to improve knowledge, skills and attitudes. It improves confidence, motivation, job satisfaction, and enhanced responsibility and hence, empowerment (Torrington and Hall, 1987; Fill and Mullins, 1990). Buch and Rivers (2001) examined the long term effects of training and rewards impacting on TQM initiatives. Their longitudinal study showed the importance of leadership (especially in supporting and maintaining employees) in sustaining changes in the firm. The study proposed that training and rewarding employees should be seen as a continuous process to combat tendencies of employees falling back to old habits. Hence, the importance of training and rewards cannot be under-estimated as change management programs like TQM, leadership and cultural interventions often require

far reaching empowerment efforts from employees. Without adequate HR measures, these programmes are likely to end in failure. Hence, Tzafrir *et al.* (2004) suggest that whilst training is important but additionally it is imperative for management to create a fair and open justice through a system of organisational communications.

Authors on employee empowerment like Wilkinson (1998) and Robbins *et al.* (2002) also suggest that HR practices like individualised pay, reward system and training will influence employee empowerment and consequently impact empowered attitudes like higher perceived job satisfaction, organisational commitment (see also Meyer and Smith, 2000) and will impact negatively on turnover intention.

2-4-3-1 Training as an Antecedent of Empowerment

Training is concerned with transferring knowledge and improving skills and competencies of employees to effectively carry out work tasks. Successful employee empowerment requires leadership to transfer power of some form to subordinates. The success of any organisation depends largely on its employees as such, it is necessary to ensure an adequate supply of skilled employees who are technically and socially competent and have potential for career advancement into managerial positions. Thus, there is a need for employee development and training that fulfils this important part of this process.

Mykytyn *et al.* (1994: 98), define knowledge acquisition as: "*acquiring information directly from domain experts*". New knowledge is typically acquired by reading, listening to someone, observing, experiencing events or thinking. Bourdreau and Couillard (1999) posit that knowledge is about internal 'meaning structures' in people's minds. Transferring knowledge from one person to another requires that tacit knowledge be converted into explicit knowledge through sharing experience, dialogue discussions, know-how and teaching. Tacit knowledge is also transmitted and learned directly through observation and practice (Bourdreau and Couillard, 1999).

Leadership is often linked to knowledge acquisition and knowledge management in organisations. According to Yukl (1981), actions of employees are often influenced by leadership actions. Hence, the guiding role

of management is crucial for any knowledge management (Pan and Scarbrough, 1998). A dynamic interaction between leadership and employees is necessary to encouraging and energise the perceptions and attitudes of employees towards knowledge acquisition. According to Limerick *et al.* (1994), leadership plays an important role in inspiring vision. The vision need not be top-down but collectively be discussed with employees to create a shared vision. A shared vision makes learning more proactive and brings the organisation closer to action learning. The leadership of a company must look towards this direction and allow employees room to share their views on the future of the company. Allowing staffs to share their thoughts on the organisation's vision ensures a sense of ownership and inspires them to want to participate and learn more towards a common goal consequently providing a platform towards making the organisation more organic in design.

Politis (2001) in his research suggests that leadership style that is characterised by participative behaviour and mutual trust and respect for subordinates ideas and feelings are correlated stronger with knowledge acquisition when compared with leadership styles that are characterised by task oriented and autocratic behaviour. Due to the proliferation of teams and teamwork, the way leadership manage information and knowledge has changed from gate-keeping to knowledge creation and knowledge sharing for all employees. The challenge for most leaders is to develop capacity of others (Kouzes and Posner, 1993).

In the UK, the idea and practice of learning organisation has made swift and rapid progress (Gold, 1997). As a label it is one that many organisations aspire to achieve. In many cases, it has also been incorporated in CEO's vision. The question would be if learning has been actively incorporated into the organisation and its employees. In order to sustain the empowerment process firms need to continuously learn and adapt. Changes in work habits, culture and learning is not a one-time process. Senge (1990) describes this continuous learning and adaptation as "generative learning" which requires a shift in mindsets of everyone in the organisation. According to Senge, generative learning leads to higher competitive advantage for the firm.

Research by Burke (1995) suggests that training has positive and significant effect on job satisfaction. Training has also been shown to impact organisational commitment (Bartlett, 2001) hence there is a strong relationship to employee empowerment. Peccei and Rosenthal (2001) research suggest positive results on staffs' feelings of empowerment where training is present. Their study validated the notion that management behaviour, job design and values-based training can produce a sense of empowerment among employees and this in turn positively influenced customer-oriented behaviour among supermarket employees. Training is also suggested to reduce role conflict and ambiguity (Krayer, 1986) supporting Rizzo *et al.'s* (1970) role theory. One of the key suggestions of role theory is to ensure adequate training to improve competencies and hence reduce role conflict. Rizzo *et al.* posit that where an employee is not properly trained for the task he or she is performing or where the employee has been trained for a different task to the one being assigned for, role conflict arises.

Bartlett (2001) and Al-Emadi and Marquardt (2007) found positive relationship between training and organisational commitment. Authors like Bartlett (2001) and Tennenbaum *et al.* (1991) also suggest that more studies be conducted on outcomes of training. Tennenbaum *et al.* for example posit that training can induce positive or negative impressions and attitudes on employees which they carry with them into the workplace. Recently research by Seyed-Mahmoud, (2007) suggests that businesses should incorporate proper training techniques in order to increase their productivity. His investigation proposed proper training methods like contingency training (on the job training and coaching) to improve productivity. Hence, the inclusion of training variable as an important antecedent to psychological empowerment will potentially enhance the understanding of its impact on empowerment; help reduce role conflict and role ambiguity and consequently impact positively on organisational commitment and job satisfaction, whilst reducing intentions to quit.

2-4-3-2 Reward as an Antecedent of Empowerment

Rewards are often related to motivation and performance and are seen as important aspects of HR practice (see for example, Lawler, 1981; 1987; Torrington and Hall, 1987). Podsakoff *et al.* (1982) define rewards as the degree to which management provides positive support like recognition, acknowledgement, and commendations, dependent upon performance of the employee. Hence, reward is given as a result of good performance at work. Reward can come in various methods, like performance feedback or financial incentives (Babakus *et al.* 1996), prompting Merchant (1998) to argue that reward comes in two forms – informational benefit and motivational benefit. Merchant suggests that reward can play an informational role by providing (or not providing) a feedback with regards to an employee's performance. Reward also acts as a motivation tool as it provides the employee with an avenue to improve his or her performance. Social science literature has long recognised the importance of rewards as a means of motivating people (see for example, Lawler, 1981; 1987; Torrington and Hall, 1987; Hale, 1998). To achieve high performance and competitive advantage, employees need to be motivated and feel empowered. However, key to employees pushing themselves to produce higher organisational performance is adequate and fair rewards. Lawler (1992) argues that employees need to see a clear relationship between their actions and performance are subsequently rewarded. A similar view is echoed by Baruch (1998a) in that the reward system that is seen as "fair" to employees would be helpful in heightening feelings of empowerment. Employees seek a range of rewards which may come in different ways: financial, status, fulfilment and recognition (Cowling, 1992). Hale (1998), proposes the use of more creative rewards to entice the best employees to stay while D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, (1999) proposal that incentives, pay, rewards and recognition should be individualised to suit the individual. Hong *et al's.* (1995) study suggests that different job level have different needs. Their study was further validated by Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) empirical research which suggests that remuneration are key elements better job performance and that different job levels are motivated by different reward packages, training and development programs and also different career

planning strategies. Psoinos and Smithson's (2002: 132) study on UK companies concluded that: "*Success (in terms of employee empowerment) seems to depend on far-reaching changes in procedures, hierarchies and reward structures.*" They posit that even if the organisation has the structural elements that encourage empowerment, the lack of rewards or recognition will hamper feelings of empowerment in employees. A somewhat similar view is echoed by Bunning (2004: 648) who suggest that as organisations become more organic in structure, *firms will need to move toward towards attracting, rewarding, and retaining employees through a design of highly individualised HR environment.* Samad (2007) research found a link between rewards and psychological empowerment as an aggregated construct. Samad however did not investigate the role of rewards on the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment whilst Pare and Tremblay (2007) found a negative relationship between reward and turnover intentions. The current research will investigate rewards and how individual psychological empowerment dimensions are affected.

2-4-3-3 Information Sharing as an Antecedent of Empowerment

Information sharing is about effective communication and a relatively free flow of important information either from top management to employees (top-down), employee to management (bottom-up) or lateral, between peers and functional departments. This is an ideal environment to foster organicity in the firm. There are various channels available for an organisation to disseminate information. When utilised effectively, it may translate to more effective empowerment in employees. Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggest that information sharing is important as it creates a sense of meaning and purpose which may heighten an employee's desire to learn. The firm's aim and intentions can also be communicated when information sharing is effective. It is also important for employees to understand the vision and goals of the organisation. Having such understanding will improve empowerment programmes as well (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997).

D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew (1999), in their focus group research, found the word 'communication' as the most frequently noted

response and appears to influence everything from a basic understanding of the definition of empowerment to being instrumental in the shaping and sustaining organisational culture over the long term. Thomas (1993) describes the need for firms to generate information, as the life blood of the planning process. Where there is absence of market and competitor information, the managers is unable to make consistent business decisions (Morris, 1995).

Belmiro *et al.* (2000) argue that a modern business cannot be run in the traditional individualist style anymore. Employees generally want to know what is going on around them; i.e. they expect an order followed by a "why". They further emphasise that whilst corporate communications have evolved and improved much through the years, many other key concepts such as empowerment, lean structure and partnership are also evolving alongside. They conclude that reliance on conventional methods of communication is short sighted, as is may not deliver the organisation's goals.

The relationship between trust and communications or information sharing has been widely studied. Meyer and Allen (1997) for example, found significant support between information sharing in enhancing organisational commitment and trust. McNeilly and Lawson's (1999) research in sales organisations place trust in sales representatives as a key component during times of change. They emphasis the need for communication between the sales manager and sales representatives however painful the organisational change is. When we interact with another person on any topic, we also communicate information about our feelings, attitudes, problems and ideas. Recent study by Pare and Tremblay (2007) found negative and significant relationship between information sharing and turnover intentions. So far there has been limited literature that links empowerment to knowledge acquisition. It is proposed that high levels of information sharing will positively impact empowerment and consequently impact positively to outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and will negatively impact turnover intention. However, similar to rewards mentioned above, the current study will extend the research by investigating the relationship between information sharing and the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment providing a holistic understanding of empowerment concepts.

2-4-4 Leadership Trust

Bennis (1959) concluded in his assessment in the 1950's that the concept of leadership was complex and difficult to define. If we consider current literature, the same problem persists. According to Fairholm (1991), leadership is not an individual, but a collective, relation-based activity. In fact, leadership can only take place in a climate of mutual, co-ordinated action based on common values and common vision. Various theories have been presented in literature with regards to leadership (see for example, Burns 1978; Bass, 1985; 1999), however two forms of leadership style have been recognised: (a) transactional leadership style and (b) transformational leadership style. Transactional style leaders are said to motivate their subordinates by clarifying the role and task requirements and by dispensing rewards and punishments as appropriate. According to the authors, transactional leaders are 'old leadership' type managers.

Transformational style leadership (new leadership) on the other hand, inspires followers to exceed their own self-interests for the good of the organisation. This style of leadership is capable of having an extraordinary effect on followers. Contrary to transactional leaders, transformational leaders and followers raises one another to higher levels of morality and motivation (see for example, Burns, 1978; and Bass 1985). Transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it and then re-aligning the organisation's culture with new vision and a revision of its values and norms (Bass, 1985). Because there is more engagement between management and subordinates in transformational leadership style, a higher trust environment develops as a result. Trust, is by nature, fragile and risky (see for example, Luke, 1998; Slovic, 1993; Fairholm and Fairholm, 2000). Trust develops over a long time and is a result of a person's cumulative experience. The presence of leaders who are unable to transfer power reduces the likelihood of developing or maintaining a viable culture of trust (Fairholm and Fairholm, 2000). According to D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew (1998), many managerial issues could positively or negatively influence the future of empowerment. Griffin (1991) posits that when either leader or follower unreasonably concentrates power in themselves, it can become a barrier to trust. Hence, the transfer of power from manager to subordinates needs to be addressed before empowerment can take place. The reason managers cannot let go of their empires is due to the lack of trust. Their lack of trust may be

due to doubting their staff capability and sincerity. Both the leader and employee must make it work. Competencies or lack of skills can be remedied by training but sincerity and trust takes time and understanding. Bennis (1993), comments that leaders are often perceived with a sense of suspicion by employees. His solution to this credibility gap is to make all actions in the organisation as transparent as possible so that everyone is in the know. This action will reduce suspicion and uncertainty in the minds of subordinates otherwise conflict between employees and the organisation will result.

Bardwick (1996) broadly states that in order to be competitive, leaders must heighten trust levels. A close managerial relationship with employees will improve trust and hence, empowerment efforts. Research by Gomez and Rozen (2001) supported the view and concluded that both parties (manager and subordinates) need to contribute to the development of a trusting relationship. Higher levels of managerial trust will enhance employee perceptions of empowerment.

Fairholm and Fairholm (2000) also suggest that for leaders to lead, they need a united and harmonious environment characterised by mutual trust. DePree (1997) comments that when organisations go awry, it is trust that powers the generators until the problem is fixed. An untrusting behaviour between management and employees will simply drive the organisation into a downward spiral.

Kouzes and Posner (1993; 1995) suggest that perceptions of a person's overall leadership effectiveness are correlated with people's trust in the leader. Leadership and trust culture development takes place between people who choose to work together because they share common values, goals or other interpersonal relationships. Luke (1998) summarises some of these ideas by stating that success in work groups depend upon fostering an interactive process between management and employees characterised by a spiral of rising trust. Hence, leadership vision, trust and desire to empower are crucial in empowering employees. The ability to support and manage power, knowledge, change, and communications are key factors that enable empowerment. These enabling factors will be perceived by the employee that superior has a keen interest in wanting to and hence, trusting them to pursue a task or job. Research by Aryee *et al.* (2002), suggest a strong link between organisational trust to work outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover

intention. Their study suggest that organisational fairness impacts trust and consequently to work outcomes. Furthermore research carried out by Elgamal (2004) Egyptian firms found leadership trust not only impacts turnover intentions but extends to organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour. Also Mafoz *et al.* (2007) found significant mediation effect of procedural justice between leader-member exchange (LMX) and two outcomes (organisational commitment and turnover intentions). Also, Tzafrir *et al.* (2004) suggests a link between empowerment, organisational commitment and procedural justice to managerial trust whilst, more recently, Ergeneli *et al.*, (2007) examined the link between leadership trust and psychological empowerment and found a positive and significant relationship. The findings suggest that creating a culture of empowerment and developing employees are essential to organisations.

Collins (1998) further suggests that empowerment concepts are further complicated by historical and cultural issues. As companies grow and evolve through time, the leaders and staff in the company experience a history of both positive and negative experiences. These experiences become part and parcel of a dynamic organisational culture. Negative trust events and experiences deprive people of a trust context and create the need for office and organisational politics (Vigoda-Gadot, 2003; 2006; Culbert and McDonough, 1985). While being consistent in their actions is difficult, in order to increase commitment in the leader/follower relationship, management must make every effort not to give false promises (Luke, 1998). The reality is, not all promises that management or leaders make can be kept, despite their best efforts. Failed promises, however, do lower trust and such events can have a powerful effect on anyone's willingness to trust them again (Fairholm and Fairholm, 2000). One way is to have promises in 'black and white' i.e. the promises are consulted by both parties and documented, backed up by conditions where promises can and will be honoured. Leaders may use their authority to foster and support a culture valuing high trust or they can also use it to create a non-trusting environment. Actions of people in authority are of major concern in developing a trust culture as their cumulative actions determine in many ways the organisation's internal climate. Imposing dramatic control hierarchies or even innocently telling capable group members how to do their job shows disrespect for the individual and erodes trust (DePree, 1997) and runs counter to organic style

organisations needed for empowerment processes to be successful. Effective employee empowerment efforts require a strong relationship between subordinate and leadership. Hence, leadership trust will positively impact empowerment and its outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and will negatively impact turnover intentions.

2-4-5 Conflict and Ambiguity

Managers and employees need clear role and job description and unambiguous guidelines to ensure that they are working on the things that will ultimately make the firm successful. Singh and Bhandarker (1983) suggest that managerial role clarity is viewed as one of the essential requirements for organisational effectiveness and managers suffering from role ambiguity will be pre-occupied with petty organisational chores. Classical organisational theory suggests that an employee should receive orders from one superior only; failing which the employee would be caught in a cross-fire of incompatible orders or incompatible expectations from different managers, which results in conflicts. Rizzo *et al.* (1970) recommend that an employee's actions and tasks should be made accountable to one superior to reduce conflicts. Such an arrangement, it is said, would ensure a systematic and consistent reporting, evaluation and control of the work of the subordinate. Role theory on the other hand suggests that when behaviours expected of an individual are inconsistent, he or she will experience stress, perform less effectively and become dissatisfied (Rizzo *et al.*, 1970). Accordingly, these classical theories suggest that every formal position in the organisation should have specified set of tasks or position responsibilities. Such job specifications and responsibilities are to make the employee accountable and perform to a specific set of targets or key performance indicators (KPI). When specific guidelines are unavailable the employee will not know the extent of his or her responsibilities and as such, is unable to make decisions to achieve the targets.

The relationship of role conflict and role ambiguity to low job satisfaction is well researched (see for example, Kahn *et al.*, 1964; Rizzo *et al.*, 1970). Many other researchers have also long suggested that role conflict and role ambiguity have detrimental effects on job performance and job stress (see for example, Jackson and Schuler, 1995; Kahn and Byosiere, 1992; Behrman and Perreault, 1984). Sales (1969,

cited in Walker *et al.*, 1975) posits that there is also evidence that long term effects of high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity may lead to an increase risk of contracting coronary heart disease. Furthermore, continued exposure of such conflicts will cause mental anxiety and tension (Kahn *et al.*, 1964). These suggestions are alarming and hence, warrant close examination to explore organisational conditions that may perhaps help reduce the incidence of stress, anxiety and related medical problems of employees. The conflict and ambiguity dimensions proposed in this study are role ambiguity and role conflict. It is proposed that these two dimensions are important in employee empowerment studies as their presence will hamper empowerment efforts.

2-4-5-1 Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to an employee's uncertainty with regards to his authority or responsibilities (Rizzo *et al.*, 1970). The issues of role ambiguity and work group performance can be traced back to the Hawthorne studies conducted in the 1930's (Roethlisberger and Dickenson, 1939). Furthermore, the influential work of Kahn *et al.* (1964) claims that individuals and work groups may be impacted by role ambiguity and that would be detrimental to organisational performance. Studies by Fried *et al.* (1998) suggest that high perceptions of role ambiguity significantly lower levels of job performance. The presence of high role ambiguity has further been found to be correlated with decreased motivation, quality of work life, organisational commitment, individual and group productivity, and an increase in withdrawal behaviors (see for example, Blau, 1981; Dougherty and Pritchard, 1985; Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Jackson and Schuler, 1985; Miles, 1975; Rizzo, *et al.*, 1970). A recent study on the impact of role ambiguity of social care workers, suggests that role ambiguity strongly predict criterion variables like job satisfaction and intention to leave (Ackers, 2004). Spreitzer's (1996) study also suggests that low role ambiguity supports perceptions of psychological empowerment.

2-4-4-2 Role Conflict

Role conflict on the other hand refers to an incompatible role to that an employee has been trained for. Rizzo *et al.*, (1970) further explains that ineffective and inadequate use of organisational resources will also result in role conflict. When change management efforts fail to produce results in an organisation, the blame often lies on non coherent change efforts. Role conflict causes the employee to feel dissatisfied with their jobs (Kahn *et al.*, 1964). Change programmes such as turnaround management often require employees to be highly independent and able to perform duties without much supervision. This requires job roles that are specific and clear. When job roles are ambiguous or conflicting, the employee is often left distraught and unable to perform at his best. Fried *et al.* (1998) also found evidence that the higher the degree of role conflict and ambiguity, the lower the level of job performance. As with role ambiguity above, Ackers, (2004) similarly found evidence that role conflict impact on workplace variables like job satisfaction and intention to leave. Hence, role conflict and role ambiguity may similarly impact empowerment initiatives negatively and outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and will result in high levels of turnover intentions.

2-4-6 Summary of Antecedents

It was proposed that a multi-dimension empowering behaviour model encompassing structure and support, HR practices, leadership trust, conflict and ambiguity as suggested by Wilkinson (1998) and Robbins *et al.* (2002) will help expand the understanding of employee empowerment as each facet of the empowering behaviours will potentially impact on empowerment. Of course, the facets are by no means complete in every sense but as Robbins *et al.* (2002) and Hennestad (1998) put it; it encompasses the key employee empowering or de-empowering dimensions and hopefully this will fulfill Spreitzer's (1995) and Robbins *et al.* (2002) suggestions which is to examine employee empowerment in a multi-dimensional context so as to provide a 'holistic view' of organisational processes necessary for empowerment efforts to be successful. This view is also strongly supported by HRM researchers mentioned earlier (see for example:

Zimmerman, 1990; Huselid, 1995; Snell and Youndt, 1995; Guest, 2001; Wall and Wood, 2005).

2-4-7 Work Outcomes of Empowerment

Empirical support for employee empowerment and work related outcomes began to accumulate since Spreitzer (1995) published her seminal work on psychological empowerment. Research has also been conducted on managerial effectiveness, satisfaction and strain (Spreitzer *et al.*, 1997); worker effectiveness, job satisfaction and propensity to leave (Koberg *et al.*, 1999); psychological climate and job satisfaction, (Carless, 2004); conflict with superiors and organisational commitment, (Janssen, 2004). These studies have found that empowerment outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention are impacted by psychological empowerment. In line with the goal to integrate antecedents to outcomes, this study will also investigate these three important organisational outcomes. Fried and Ferris (1987) posit that the nature of work which includes dimensions of work such as job challenge, autonomy, variety and scope are the best predictors of job satisfaction and also employee retention. Hence, the current study employing a variety of related antecedents described earlier will be beneficial in examining empowerment and work outcomes. The present research will extend empowerment research by linking antecedents proposed to outcomes of empowerment so that the mediating effects of empowerment can be investigated.

2-4-7-1 Job Satisfaction as an Outcome of Empowerment

Job satisfaction is perhaps the most widely researched and measured organisational behaviour variable. Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. Robbins *et al.* (2003) suggest that job satisfaction is a subjective measure of employees' attitude towards their jobs. Thus, an employee with high job satisfaction will have positive attitudes towards their jobs and vice versa. According to Mottaz (1988), job satisfaction is an affective response resulting from an assessment of the work condition by the employee. Essentially feelings and thinking (cognitions) are involved in defining job satisfaction. Thus when one evaluates their job, both thinking and feelings are

involved (Saari and Judge, 2004). Early approaches to job satisfaction are based on the theories of motivation and attitudes towards work made popular by Herzberg (1966), Maslow (1943), and Vroom (1964). Maslow (1943) hypothesised that within every human there exists a hierarchy of five needs, which include psychological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs. Thus, it is imperative that management understands what level of the hierarchy an employee is currently at and focus on satisfying needs of that level or levels higher up (Robbins, 1993). Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory has also influenced the development of the construct of job satisfaction. Expectancy theory predicts that an employee will perform at a high level of effort if he or she perceives that there is a strong relationship between effort and performance, performance and rewards, and rewards and satisfaction of personal goals (Robbins, 1993). Herzberg, (1987) suggests job redesign and making the job more interesting, for example by changing the characteristics of a person's job and work tasks as a means of improving job satisfaction. Research by Boswell *et al.* (2005) seems to point to this direction. Their study found significant evidence that job change in employees improves perceptions of job satisfaction.

Kiely (1986) emphasises that job satisfaction needs to be combined with the dynamics of motivation and work. To motivate employees effectively, the firm needs to know what the dynamics that characterised the motivation to work are. Saari and Judge (2004) suggest that understanding the precursors of job satisfaction, i.e. by understanding the attitudes and behaviours that shape job satisfaction, appropriate steps can then be taken to improve job satisfaction. As such, linking psychological empowerment to job satisfaction is logical.

Jobs in different levels of hierarchy and complexity are also suggested to increase job satisfaction. This view is supported by a meta-analysis of 301 studies conducted by Judge *et al.* (2001) which suggest that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is higher for complex and professional jobs. Hence, jobs that are challenging, has high degree of autonomy, variety and scope, will be essential to improving job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (1997) also found job level has a direct and

significant effect on job satisfaction. Since this present study is targeted at middle and senior managers, it would be interesting to examine the impact of empowerment on job satisfaction as managers and middle level employee's job roles are more complex and demanding. Furthermore, the effect of job level between empowerment and job satisfaction should also be examined.

Herzberg's (1966) proposes a motivation-hygiene theory that suggests that there are two factors which affect the individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work. The two-factor theory suggests intrinsic and extrinsic aspects. Intrinsic factors such as employee's opportunity for personal achievement and growth, recognition from supervisors and the work itself, are related to job satisfaction. Conversely, extrinsic factors such as company policy, administration, supervision, and working conditions are associated with job dissatisfaction. Aiken and Hage (1966) refer this as role dissatisfaction. Aiken and Hage (1966) define role dissatisfaction as alienation from work, manifested by a feeling of disappointment with career and professional development, as well as disappointment over the inability to fulfil professional norms.

Antecedents to job satisfaction such as rewards, organisational and leadership support, and outcomes to job satisfaction such as absenteeism, organisational commitment, turnover, and performance proliferate in organisational behaviour research (see for example, Herzberg, 1966; Spector, 1997, Johnston *et al.,* 1988; Moncrief *et al.*, 1997). These studies have shown that high job satisfaction impact job satisfaction outcomes, for example: reduced employee turnover (Johnson *et al.*, 1988) and decreased levels of job stress (Moncrief *et al.,* 1997). As business environment becomes more competitive and complex, understanding the relationships between the various organisational behaviours to job satisfaction and turnover intentions are crucial. It is also suggested that satisfied employees would feel less stressful as they are better informed, better trained and have greater influence and control over their jobs (Moncrief *et al.*, 1997).

Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory is also a widely studied concept. The foundation of job characteristics theory is that people can be motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction they find in their work.

When they find their work to be meaningful, people will like their jobs more and will be motivated to perform their jobs better. Hackman and Oldham (1980) suggests five main characteristics to their job characteristics theory: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. The five main characteristics are suggested to lead to three psychological cognitions, which include the experience of meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of the work. Autonomy leads to feelings of responsibility. Thus, skill variety, task identity, and task significance in combination will produce a meaningful work experience. In other words, the more often these psychological states are present, the greater will be the employee's motivation, performance, and thus, satisfaction. Spreitzer (1995) incorporated 'meaning' dimension as one of her psychological empowerment construct based on Hackman and Oldham's (1980) psychological cognitions. The self-determination dimension of Spreitzer's model is closely associated to autonomy and feelings of responsibility. Competence and impact of Spreitzer's model is somewhat related to knowledge and task significance of Hackman and Oldhams's (1980) psychological cognitions respectively. Spreitzer *et al.'s* (1997) study suggests that the meaning dimension produced the strongest result out of the four empowerment scales. Their study supports the notion that firms must endeavour to create more complex work roles for employees to give more meaning to employees work role. Carless's (2004) study found empirical support for meaning and impact dimensions of psychological empowerment to job satisfaction. Self-determination was found to be unrelated to job satisfaction. Competence variable was unexplainable as the results suggest a negative significance (see Carless, 2004:418). As such, job satisfaction is closely related to some dimensions of psychological empowerment and it can be suggested that perceived empowerment will impact job satisfaction. The current study will attempt to investigate the psychological empowerment by testing the mediating effects between the antecedents proposed to job satisfaction as these antecedents have not been investigated in detail as yet. Furthermore, demographics like job level and tenure has been found in various studies to impact job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1997; Sarker *et al.* 2003). Interestingly, age was not found to

relate to job satisfaction in Sarker *et al.*'s (2003) study. The current study will also extend the current body of knowledge, by investigating the moderation role of job level, age and tenure between empowerment and job satisfaction.

2-4-7-2 Organisational Commitment as an Outcome of Empowerment

The rise in research on organisational commitment in organisational studies indicates that it will remain a contemporary management problem in the near future (Baruch, 1998b). Perhaps this is not surprising as studies on commitment research for the past 35 years are inconsistent and somewhat confusing. Hence, organisational commitment will continue to be an important research issue (see for example, Benkhoff, 1997; Baruch, 1998b and Al-Emadi and Marquardt, 2007). Organisational commitment has been recognised as a critical factor in understanding and explaining the work-related behaviour of employees in organisations. Spellman (1995) explains commitment as the identification with the organisation mission and goals and a desire to remain with it. Commitment can be improved if employees understand the organisation's mission, values and strategies. As such, employees that have a strong belief and acceptance in organisation's mission, values, and strategies will exert greater effort for the organisation (Mowday *et al.*, 1979).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) posit that organisational commitment reflects the psychological bond that ties the employee to the organisation, although the character of the relationship can differ. They suggest that the psychological bond between an employee and an organisation can take three forms: compliance, identification, and internalisation. Employee compliance happens when employees accept certain attitudes and behaviours in order to gain rewards. Identification involves the acceptance of influence in order to maintain a satisfying relationship with the organisation. Internalisation occurs when the induced attitudes and behaviours are similar with the employee's own values (Meyer, 1997). Hence, when the goals of the organisation and those of the employee become increasingly integrated or congruent, commitment is realised (Hall *et al.*, 1970).

DePree (1997) explains that organisations whose purpose has both pragmatic and moral dimensions are the ones where people reach outward to achieve organisational success and inward to achieve their own potential. Research has shown that commitment can take various forms (see Meyer and Allen, 1990, 1997). Allen and Meyer identified three forms of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment suggests an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Continuance commitment on the other hand is based on the perceived costs associated with discontinuing employment with the organisation. The third commitment, normative, refers to a sense of obligation on the part of the employees in maintaining membership to the organisation. Pare and Tremblay (2007) describe the three commitment dimensions lucidly: affective commitment suggests an employee's personal affection and identification to the organisation resulting in a strong belief in an acceptance of the organisation's goals and values. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they *want* to do so. Continuance commitment is explained as a propensity to engage in consistent lines of activity based on the individual's recognition of the "costs" related with discontinuing work with the organisation. Hence, employees who display high continuance commitment stay on with the firm because they *need* to do so. Normative commitment suggests that employees display behaviours mainly because they believe it is the right and moral thing to do so. As a result, employees with a high degree of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organisation.

Research on organisational commitment has come under heavy criticism (Baruch, 1998b). Baruch argues that due to the dynamic nature of today's business environment where employees face high job risk and redundancies, employees are faced with diminishing stable relationship with the organisation, hence, how can they be expected to be whole-heartedly committed to the organisation. Therefore, whilst the study of organisational commitment is important, Baruch (1998b) suggests a need for better methods to measure commitment that reflect these changes.

Because of the strong links between the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment and commitment, Spreitzer (1995) suggested further research into their relationships. Janssen (2004) posits that psychological empowerment's four dimensional model induces organisational commitment because: (a) a meaningful job provides a suitable fit between the requirements and purposes of an employees' work roles and their personal value system; (b) having impact facilitates workers' possibilities; (c) self-determination gives workers control over their work and a voice in work-related decision processes, leading to enhanced involvement in the organisation, and (d) a sense of competence gives workers the belief that they are able to perform their work roles with skill and success, stimulating them to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation. Other related studies (see for example: Kraimer *et al.*, 1999; Liden *et al.*, 2000; Janssen *et al.*, 2004; Avolio *et al.*, 2004; Bhatnagar, 2005) supports the role of organisational commitment as an important outcome of empowerment. The inclusion of organisational structure elements (organicity and centralisation) will extend the current understanding of empowerment and organisational commitment. Furthermore organisational support, role conflict and ambiguity and HR dimensions like rewards, training and information sharing have not been thoroughly examined. Hence, incorporating these dimensions will produce a comprehensive picture of their links to empowerment and organisational commitment.

2-4-7-3 Turnover Intention as an Outcome of Empowerment

There are different types of turnover, and some are even desirable (see Jenkins, 1993; Price, 1977). Turnover allows the organisation to reposition its people and resources. It also makes way for 'new blood'. However, the most harmful type of turnover is voluntary turnover as it takes the organisation by surprise and causes disruption in operations for which the organisation may not be prepared (Boshoff and Mels, 2000). The situation becomes more acute if middle and senior managers are in such a state of thought that Mobley (1977) theorised.

Mobley (1977) established a comprehensive process detailing an employee intention to leave from a firm. Mobley suggests that the employee initially feel dissatisfied and this leads to thoughts about leaving. These thoughts are then translated into the employee seeking alternative jobs as a result of being dissatisfied with their current jobs. The intention to seek or search is followed by an actual search for alternative jobs. If alternatives happen to be available, an evaluation of these alternatives will be assessed by the employee concerned. This will be followed by a comparison between the new and present job. If the comparison favours the new job, it will motivate the employee to quit. This is followed by actual quitting. Hence, Mobley theorises that the act of an employee quitting is complex as a lot of thought and psychological behaviours occur before a decision is made.

There are many reasons as to why employees want to or have feelings of quitting. Many researchers relate turnover to organisational factors such as the lack of commitment and work satisfaction. Lack of job satisfaction is cited by Johnston *et al.* (1988) and Mobley (1977). Researchers on employee turnover (see for example: Hom and Griffeth, 1981; Lee *et al.*, 1992; Griffeth *et al.*, 2000) suggest that poor organisational commitment leads to intentions to leave, whilst Zenger (1991) suggested inadequate pay and rewards which is not up to expectations as reasons for turnover intention. Johnson *et al.* (1988) posit that employees who feel powerless, distressed by role conflicts and ambiguity will also have feelings of wanting to leave the company. The work of Hulin, (1991) and Lee and Mitchell, (1994) casts a wider perspective on intentions to leave. It is suggested that traditional turnover models explain only 10% of variances as such new ways should be sought in the thinking of turnover intention (Lee *et al.*, 2004). Contemporary ideas suggest that turnover is impacted by factors beyond that of organisational conditions, for example, Mitchell *et al.* (2001), who coined the term 'job embeddedness' provided empirical support that several aspects such as factors outside of the organisation like a person's connection to the social web, i.e. links the wider community and how easily these links can be broken plays an important role in a person leaving the firm. They further theorised that job embeddedness can be sub-divided into two components; on-the-job embeddedness, (which

includes factors such as organisational fit, links and sacrifice) and off-the-job embeddedness (which include factors such as community fit, links and sacrifice). Recent research conducted by Niederman *et al.* (2007) on IT employees seems to further support Lee and Mitchell's (1994) pre-eminent turnover process model suggesting that management should consider early interventions like emphasizing the relative benefits of the current job over labour market competitors to reduce tendencies to quit.

Turnover intention impacts negatively on organisations as feelings of wanting to resign also leads to under-performance as the employee gradually becomes emotionally detached from the organisation (Reese, 1992). Also, research suggests that organisational commitment precedes turnover intention (see, Johnson *et al.*, 1988, Boshoff and Mels, 2000). The studies suggest a significant relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention. High levels of organisational commitment were found to negatively related to turnover intention. Support has been shown that empowerment impacts on organisational commitment (Bhatnagar 2005), and turnover (Kraimer *et al.*, 1999; Koberg *et al.*, 1999). Boswell *et al.*, (2005) on the other hand suggest that job satisfaction precedes turnover. Their study further found that job satisfaction is significantly higher immediately following a job change (honeymoon effect) followed by a decline (hangover effect). Another recent study (Pare and Tremblay, 2007) found that fair reward and information sharing are negatively related to turnover.

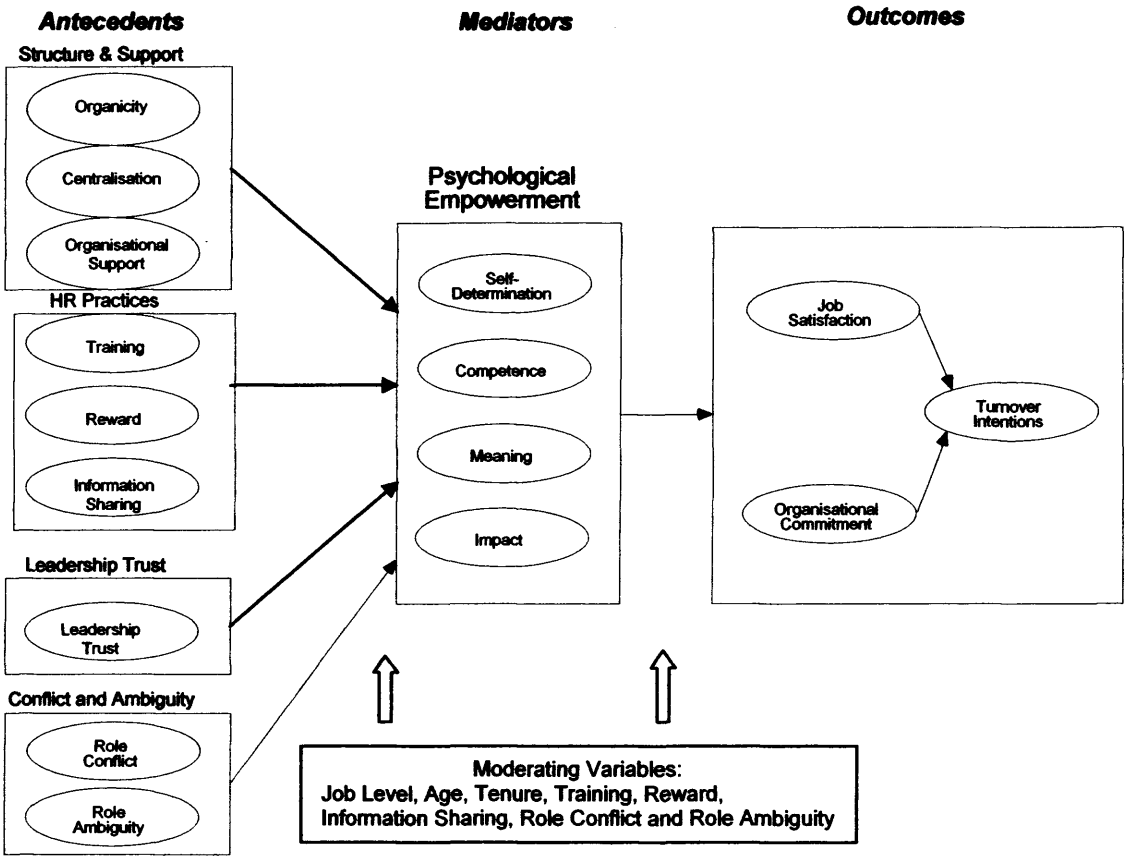
Overall, it is can be suggested that high levels of perceived empowerment positively impacts organisational commitment and consequently negatively affects turnover intentions. The current study will extend current research by investigating the mediating role of empowerment on organisational commitment and turnover.

2-5 Research Hypotheses

The purpose of this research as discussed in section 1-2, is to investigate the role of psychological empowerment in a comprehensive manner. As previously discussed, one of the key reasons for this study is to closely examine the dimension specific constructs of psychological empowerment as current research seems to focus on investigating

psychological empowerment as an aggregate construct. Hence, firstly, the research aims to investigate the impact between antecedents on perceptions of four dimensions of psychological empowerment separately; secondly, the relationship between empowerment and work outcomes, thirdly, the mediating role played by psychological empowerment dimensions and fourthly the moderating role of demographics (such as job level, age and tenure) and HR dimensions (Training, reward and information sharing) and role stressors (such as role ambiguity and role conflict). To address this study, research questions were raised in chapter one (section 1–5). These questions can be answered by better understanding of the relationship between these antecedents and outcomes of empowerment proposed in this study. These six broad research questions will be employed to guide the empirical investigations of the hypothesised model as presented in Figure 2.1. The model is based on the theoretical concepts described in Figure 1.1 in chapter one. As reviewed in the earlier section (section 2-3-4), the psychological empowerment instrument developed by Spreitzer (1995) would be useful to study the perceptions of empowerment in the workplace. Four main organisational behaviour dimensions namely Structure and Support, HR practices, Leadership Trust and Conflict and Ambiguity consisting of nine separate measurements have been identified as antecedents for this study. The four psychological empowerment dimensions (meaning, self-determination, impact and competence) are then linked to three outcome constructs (organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention).

Figure 2.1 Hypothesised Model for Examining Psychological Empowerment between Organisation's Empowering Behaviours (Antecedents) and Employee Outcomes



2-5-1 Hypotheses for Structure and Support

Structure and Support suggested in the above model represents organisational specific level constructs. Organicity and centralisation measurements represent organisational structure. The two measurements will help identify whether an organisation is organically or mechanically structured and where the locus of decision making is. Organicity as was explained earlier (see Section 2-4-1), suggests how organic the organisation's structure is by determining whether the firm's communications are lateral, how de-centralised the firm structure is, and how fluid job responsibilities are (Khandwalla, 1977). Centralisation on the other hand refers to a condition where an organisation's decision making process is located close or near the top of management structure (Aiken and Hage, 1966). Organicity and centralisation scales are important aspects of firm structure and design as both

measure different organisational situations. Organisational support construct is employed to measure how much support an employee receives from the organisation.

2-5-1-1 Hypotheses for Organicity

The concept of fit in organisations has been a subject of interest to business managers and academicians alike (see for example, Chandler, 1962; Steiner, 1979; Nadler and Tushman, 1979; Datta, 1991). The concept of fit, suggests that environment, strategy, structure, and processes of an organisation must align before organisational strategies can be successful. As such, an organisation's structure must also align with empowerment processes; otherwise employee empowerment efforts will fail, or not produce desirable results. Hence, organicity is necessary if empowerment processes are to be effective. Authors such as Kanter (1984); Spreitzer (1995); Baruch (1998a); Eylon 1998; Koberg *et al.* (1999) have suggested that such an organisational environment is prerequisite before empowerment can take place effectively. Hence, to the question: "Does organicity or fluidity of organisational structure that promotes informal decision making process and high levels of autonomy impact positively on empowerment?", the following hypothesis is raised:

Hypothesis 1a: *Organicity will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.*

Studies suggest that psychological empowerment acts as a mediator between the relationship of leadership and trust (Gomez and Rosen, 2001); empowerment climate and job satisfaction (Seibert *et al.*, 2004); psychological climate and job satisfaction (Carless, 2004); transformational leadership and organisational commitment (Avolio *et al.*, 2005). Hence, there is a strong possibility that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between organicity and work outcomes. Thus, because we are also interested to find out whether dimensions of psychological empowerment mediate between organicity and outcomes, the following hypotheses are raised:

Hypothesis 1b: ***Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and job satisfaction.***

Hypothesis 1c: ***Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and organisational commitment.***

Hypothesis 1d: ***Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and turnover intention.***

2-5-1-2 Hypotheses for Centralisation

Robbins *et al.* (2002) and Wilkinson (1998) posit that transference of power and authority affects empowerment. Employee empowerment literature has been criticised for neglecting the issue of power structures in the organisations and how it is actually transferred to employees (Hardy and Lieba-O'Sullivan, 1998). An organisational structure where the locus of control is close to top management, where decision making is reduced or non existent, potentially impacts negatively on employee empowerment. It suggests that if power is centralised at the top of organisations, organisational performance such as morale and efficiency will be negatively affected. Centralised power structures will therefore, impact negatively on the four dimensions of the psychological empowerment dimensions. Changes in organisational structure by transferring more power and more decision making authority (removing/reducing centralisation in an organisation) are really the centre of the empowerment process (Robbins *et al.*, 2001). The transference of power in organisational structure context is likely to include authority over how work is done as proposed by Bowen and Lawler (1992) or day-to-day conducting of business (Lawler, 1986). Furthermore, the extent to which an employee can exercise initiative or control over their work will likely to impact their meaning of work (Pateman, 1970). Meaning is one of the four key components in Spreitzer's psychological empowerment model. A heighten sense of meaning in work will in turn impact on organisational commitment (Tannebaum and Rozgonyi, 1986). Hence, the research question: "Does centralisation hinder empowerment initiatives and does psychological

empowerment mediate between centralisation and outcomes?" The following hypotheses are raised:

Hypothesis 2a: Centralisation will negatively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.

As mentioned in hypotheses between organicity and outcomes earlier, there are plausible arguments for the mediating role of psychological empowerment dimensions between antecedents and outcomes proposed in this study. Hence, in keeping with the holistic view proposed for this study, it is further hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and the three work outcomes. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 2d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and turnover intention.

2-5-1-3 Hypotheses for Organisational Support

Perceived organisational support measurement will be employed to study the perceptions of support on empowerment dimensions. The hypotheses proposed will help to examine as to whether supportive management actions impact empowerment. Past studies have shown that organisational commitment (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Janssen, 2004) is strongly related to employee performance, and empowerment outcomes. Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) also suggest that perceived organisational support precedes organisational commitment. Hence, organisational support is suitably modelled as an antecedent whilst organisational commitment is suitably modelled as outcome of empowerment.

Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) were the first to take a social exchange perspective in understanding organisational commitment. They proposed that in order for employees to be committed to the organisation, employees must first perceive that the organisation itself is committed to their interest. Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) called this belief, perceived organisational support. They further suggest that employees with this belief will reciprocate with high performance and commitment to the firm. Empirical research has found perceived organisational support to relate to a number of important organisational behaviours and attitudes such as performance, lessened withdrawal behaviour, work satisfaction, and organisational commitment (see for example, Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002 for a review). No studies to date have employed perceived organisational support to examine its impact on psychological empowerment. Related studies such as enriching job characteristics (Liden *et al.*, 2000) and supportive climate and culture (Sparrowe, 1994; Spreitzer, 1996) have been found to impact psychological empowerment. Hence, to the question as to whether perceived organisational support impact dimensions of psychological empowerment, the following hypothesis is raised:

Hypothesis 3a: Perception of organisational support will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.

It is further hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organisational support and the three outcomes. Thus the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 3d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intention.

2-5-2 Hypotheses for HR Practices

As discussed in section 2-4-3, three HR dimensions will be utilised to measure HR practices, namely, training, rewards and information sharing. These three measures will help to identify if HR practices in an organisation enhances or decreases perceptions of empowerment. Furthermore recent research by Pare and Tremblay (2007) found that procedural justice, affective and continuance commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991) and citizenship behaviours partially mediate the effects of high-involvement HR practices on the turnover intentions of highly skilled professionals. Hence, it is plausible that psychological empowerment dimensions would also play a mediating effect between HR practices variables and work outcomes.

2-5-2-1 Hypotheses for Training

Training has been found to enhance productivity through improved skills and competence (Churchill *et al.*, 1985; Katzell and Guzzo, 1983). Studies also support the notion that training impacts on commitment (see for example, Gist *et al.*, 1989; Louis *et al.*, 1983). Providing the skills and abilities that employees need to feel competent is crucial for enhancing psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995). Tennenbaum *et al.* (1991) suggest that employees may view an effective training experience as an indication that the company is willing to invest in them. Skills and competencies are needed for employees to be able to make important decisions. Training will be perceived by the employee as support provided by the organisation. Hence, better trained employees are more likely to understand the specific demands of the job and as such, are more inclined to perceive that they have the support of the organisation to effectively exercise their power and authority (Robbins *et al.*, 2002). Studies pertaining to training effectiveness found many potential weaknesses in many firms and suggest that most training programmes are inappropriate (see for example, Erffmeyer *et al.*, 1991; Honeycutt *et al.*, 1987). Training was also found to impact organisational commitment (Bartlett (2001). Thus, training potentially affects perceptions of empowerment on employees. Appropriate training will also prevent the employee from perceiving himself or herself to be lacking in

competencies. Hence, training will impact competence dimension of psychological empowerment construct (Robbins *et al.*, 2002). So far, there has not been any direct examination to test the relationship between training and the individual psychological empowerment dimensions. The hypothesis to investigate the relationship between training and psychological empowerment is as follows:

Hypothesis 4a: Training will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment, in particular competence dimension.

In line with earlier hypotheses raised in this study, it is further hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and the three outcomes. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 4d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and turnover intention.

2-5-2-2 Hypotheses for Reward

Reward in the context of this research suggest the amount of incentives, bonus and feedback given to employees as a result of the quality of work done as a means of motivating employees (Babakus *et al.*, 1996). It is suggested that as a result of achievement of a performance criteria, the employee will be rewarded with recognition (regular feedback) and also be given incentives or bonus as a form of motivation. Robbins *et al.* (2002) suggest that rewards are likely to influence psychological empowerment. Their suggestions are based on the proposition that since reward systems have an impact on trust in management (Leana and Florkowski, 1992), and trust in turn influences perceptions of fairness (Cummings and Molloy, 1997), hence, the relationship to empowerment is strong. Reward is also said to link to

procedural justice (Folger and Greenberg, 1985). Procedural justice relates to how fair the policies and procedures of an organisation are in making decisions (Greenberg, 1990). Lawler (1987) suggests that reward systems must recognise individual contribution as individuals having a clear understanding of how their own actions can influence performance will impact on empowerment. Spreitzer's (1995) and Samad (2007) found rewards system to positively relate to psychological empowerment as an aggregate scale. However, both studies did not investigate the effect of rewards on the four the individual empowerment dimensions. Since it has been suggested that much more can be revealed by investigating the empowerment constructs individually, the hypotheses proposed for rewards are as following:

Hypothesis 5a: Reward will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.

The mediating role of empowerment dimensions between reward and work outcomes is next investigated. It is hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and the three work outcomes as follows:

Hypothesis 5b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 5d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and turnover intention.

2-5-2-3 Hypotheses for Information Sharing

Past research has supported the notion that for successful change efforts to occur there must be open channels of communication and share of information. Good communication and information sharing enhances an employee's ability to make decisions which are matching to an organisation's goals and mission (Lawler, 1992). Hence, information sharing plays a vital role in decision making. Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggest that information

sharing is important as it creates a sense of meaning and purpose. Information sharing is also necessary to enable transfer of power and change management. Effective communication and flow of information will lead to better knowledge and information transfer to improve competencies. When an employee perceives high levels of information sharing, it would suggest that they are better informed to make important decisions. Information from management, peers and other sources is needed for an employee to perform well in the job. Spreitzer's (1995) study found significant correlation between ability to access information about company's mission and psychological empowerment supporting Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggestion that information about organisation's goals and mission will enhance feelings of empowerment. Siegall and Gartner (1999) found support for communications with supervisor to psychological empowerment dimensions of meaning, self-determination and impact. Communications with supervisor was not related to competence. The present research proposes to investigate information sharing i.e. ease of collecting and acquiring information to complete a work task and overall organisational communication in enhancing empowerment. Hence, the study focus on different context to Spreitzer's (1995) study which was aimed at communication with regards to an organisation's mission and goals whilst Siegall and Gartner's (1999) study investigated communications between supervisor and subordinate. Recently Samad (2007) also found a link between information sharing and psychological empowerment as an aggregate construct. However, the current research will be extended by examining the relationship between information sharing and the four separate dimensions of psychological empowerment to provide a deeper understanding of the behaviour of psychological empowerment dimensions. The hypothesis for information sharing and psychological empowerment is proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 6a: Information sharing will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.

It is further hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and the three outcomes. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 6b: ***Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and job satisfaction.***

Hypothesis 6c: ***Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and organisational commitment.***

Hypothesis 6d: ***Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and turnover intention.***

2-5-3 Hypotheses for Leadership Trust

Leadership trust measurement is employed to study the impact of leadership trust on empowerment. The hypotheses proposed will help to examine as to whether these leadership actions impact empowerment. Research literature suggests that leadership supportive behaviours (Parker *et al.,* 1994; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Fuller *et al.,* 1999; Gomez and Rosen, 2001) and leadership trust (McAlister, 1995; Laschinger *et al.,* 2001; Mishra and Spreitzer, 1998) are strongly related to employee performance, attitudinal and empowerment outcomes. Trust also relates to work outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention (Aryee *et al.* 2002). Successful empowerment initiatives need strong relationship between employee and supervisor. A heighten level of trust between employee and the immediate supervisor will be crucial in affecting feelings of empowerment. Employees would like their superiors to trust that they can take reasonable risks, make some mistakes, and determine how best to do their jobs without fear of being reprimanded. As a result, employees must trust that the immediate superior really wants to empower them. When the employee trusts that their supervisors and the organisation have a sincere interest in their wellbeing and keep their promises, the employee will respond positively to the work challenges facing them (Mishra and Spreitzer, 1998). Thus, high levels of employee trust in the supervisor and management is likely to improve perceptions of employee empowerment.

Recent investigations on trust in organisations have also shed light on its importance in the workplace (see, Gomez and Rosen, 2001; Spreitzer and Mishra, 1999; McAllister, 1995, Ergeneli *et al.* 2007). Shelton (2002) examined the

constructs of employee empowerment and employee trust in the supervisor in the public sector, suggest it positively impacts on meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions of the psychological empowerment construct. Tzafrir *et al.*, (2004) and recently, Ergeneli *et al.*, (2007) examined the link between leadership trust and psychological empowerment and found a positive and significant relationship. However, Ergeneli *et al.* only found affect-based trust scale to significantly relate to impact dimension. These studies show that employee trust in the supervisor has a strong relationship to empowerment. The results suggest that as organisations attempt to implement employee empowerment initiatives, it needs to consider employee trust in the supervisor as a means to enhance empowerment. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 7a: Perception of leadership trust will positively impact on individual dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Related research such as high quality relationships like LMX (leader-member exchange) by Liden *et al.* (2000) and Gomez and Rosen (2001) suggest that when LMX is high, perceived psychological empowerment is also high. Koberg *et al.* (1999) also found positive relationship between leader approachability and empowerment. Corsun and Enz's (1999) study similarly reports positive association with peer helping behaviours. Fuller *et al* (1999) examined the impact of total empowerment on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction whilst recently Avolio *et al.* (2004) studied the impact of transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed (2002) found strong association between positive work-related emotions (enthusiasm, comfort) and commitment levels whilst negative work-related emotions (stress and gloom) were found to negatively relate to commitment. Turnover intention was also strongly related to commitment. However, these studies did not investigate the mediating effects of the dimensions of empowerment between trust and work outcomes. Understanding the mediating role of psychological empowerment between leadership trust and outcomes would extend the research on empowerment as no previous research has been made. It is hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and the three attitudinal outcomes. Thus the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 7b: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 7c: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and organisational commitment.*

Hypothesis 7d: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and turnover intention.*

2-5-4 Conflict and Ambiguity

Although it is clear to managers and management that both role conflict and ambiguity are important intervening variables that mediate the effects of various organisational practices on individual and organisational outcomes, there has been little understanding between these concepts and among other theoretical dimensions. Consequently, Rizzo *et al.* (1970) developed measurements for both role conflict and role ambiguity. Bedian and Armenakis (1981) study found support between role ambiguity and increased tension, frustration, anxiety, and propensity to leave. Research by Carless (2004), employing role clarity found positive relationships with psychological empowerment. Role clarity is defined as the subjective feeling of having as much role relevant information as a person would like to have (Lyons, 1971). Thus if work roles are clearly defined, there would not be role clarity issues among employees. Research by Fried *et al.* (1998) suggests that high perceptions of role conflict and role ambiguity significantly lower levels of job performance whilst Ackers (2004) found that both role conflict and role ambiguity affects job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

2-5-4-1 Hypotheses for Role Conflict

Role conflict is seen to impact various psychological empowerment dimensions. Since role conflict is concerned with role incompatibility due to ineffective training or training that does not cover the needs of the employee and training is related to competency, role conflict will impact psychological empowerment in particular in the competence dimension. Conflicting role situations will also affect self-determination as it would reduce one's determination when conflict is present. Similar situation would presumably occur for impact and meaning dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Hence, to examine the question: "Does role conflict impact empowerment?" it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 8a: *Role conflict will negatively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.*

The mediating effects of psychological empowerment between role conflict and outcomes have not been investigated yet. Hence, the following hypotheses are raised:

Hypothesis 8b: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 8c: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment.*

Hypothesis 8d: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and turnover intention.*

2-5-4-2 Hypotheses for Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to an employee's uncertainty with regards to his authority or responsibilities have been suggested by Spreitzer (1996) to impact psychological empowerment, however her study did not investigate the relationship to individual psychological empowerment constructs. Since prevailing studies (Kraimer *et al.*, 1999; Siegall and Gartner, 2000; Carless, 2004) suggest that the psychological empowerment model is not entirely consistent. Additionally, a more detailed study can be obtained from researching the relationship of the four dimensions saperately; the current study will extend current knowledge of this issue by investigating the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9a: *Role ambiguity will negatively impact on the different dimensions of psychological empowerment.*

It is further hypothesised that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and the three outcome variables. Thus the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 9b: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 9c: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and organisational commitment.*

Hypothesis 9d: *Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and turnover intention.*

2-5-5 Empowered Attitudes (Work Outcomes)

The outcomes of psychological empowerment proposed for this research are job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and turnover intention. These three work outcome constructs have been researched in numerous studies and found to be inter-related (see Section 2-4-6).

2-5-5-1 Hypotheses for Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Turnover Intentions

Studies have suggested that job satisfaction have strong relationships with organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Babakus *et al.* (1996) and Boswell *et al.* (2005) for example, found that job satisfaction has important consequences related to turnover. Babakus *et al.* also posited that higher job satisfaction leads to feelings that job expectations have been met. Furthermore, a sense of job satisfaction leads to higher perceived organisational commitment. Conversely, high perceptions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment lower perceptions of turnover intention. Similarly, DeConinck and Bachmann (1994) found that higher levels of job satisfaction lead to higher levels of organisational commitment. Another research by Arnold and Feldman (1982) found that overall job satisfaction negatively impacts turnover intention.

With regard to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, there is a current debate as to which construct precedes the other. Currivan (2000) proposed that job satisfaction precedes organisational commitment. Mathieu (1991) and Lance (1991) for example found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment exert effects on each other, but the effect of job satisfaction on organisational commitment was greater than the effect of organisational commitment on job satisfaction. Another study by Vandenberg and Lance (1992) suggest that there is no relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Due to this controversy the present study only proposes to look at the relationship between psychological empowerment and its impact on the three outcome variables. As such, the direct and reciprocal relationships between organisational commitment and job satisfaction variables are not considered in this study and hence, would not pose a problem.

Several studies suggest that psychological empowerment influences work outcomes. Research by Spreitzer *et al.* (1997) on middle managers suggests a strong relationship between perceptions of empowerment and attitudes towards job satisfaction. Laschinger *et al.*, (2001) found support for job satisfaction and commitment in her sample comprising the nursing and healthcare community. Carless (2004) found significant relationship between psychological empowerment dimensions of meaning, impact and competence to job satisfaction among call centre employees in two financial institutions. Carless however found no relationship for self-determination. Liden *et al.* (2000) found support for organisational commitment in a sample of 337 lower-level employees in a large U.S. service organisation for meaning and impact variables. Both studies suggest that only meaning and impact seems to explain job satisfaction whilst self-determination and competence is ambiguous. Thus further examination on the effect of the different dimensions is useful. Janssen's (2004) study supports the notion that perceptions of empowerment (aggregate construct) impacts organisational commitment. Bhatnagar's (2005) research on an Indian sample also suggests support for the hypothesis that psychological empowerment is predicted by Mayer and Allen's (1991) multi-dimensional organisational commitment construct

(affective, normative and continuance). Work by Koberg *et al.* (1999) and Sparrowe (1994) demonstrate support for less propensity of turnover intention when empowerment (aggregated empowerment construct) perceptions are high. However, the aim of this study is to examine the impact of individual dimensions of psychological empowerment and to provide a deeper understanding of the separate components. Hence, to examine the research question: "Does psychological empowerment impact on work outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions?" the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 10a: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 10b: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact organisational commitment.*

Hypothesis 10c: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will negatively impact turnover intention.*

Whilst research has shown that organisational commitment precedes turnover intention (Lee *et al*, 1992; Boshoff and Mels, 2000), there has not been any study proposing that organisational commitment mediates between psychological empowerment as an antecedent and turnover intention as outcome. Similarly no investigation has been attempted for job satisfaction as a mediator between psychological empowerment and turnover intention although the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is well researched (see for example Johnson *et al.*, 1988; Ostroff, 1992; Carbery *et al.*, 2003; Boswell *et al.* 2005). Hence, in order to examine the research question: "Do job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the effect between individual constructs of psychological empowerment and turnover intentions?" the next two hypotheses are raised:

Hypothesis 10d: *Organisational commitment will mediate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and turnover intention.*

Hypothesis 10e: *Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and turnover intention.*

2-5-6 Moderation Effects

Whilst mediation suggests a weakening of the effect between an antecedent and outcome variable in the presence of a mediator variable (see for example, Baron and Kenny, 1986; Frazier *et al.,* 2004), moderation is when the strength of a relationship between two variables is dependent upon a third variable (Preacher, 2007). Thus, when demographics such as job level, age and tenure is added to a direct relationship and found to be significant in the relationship between an antecedent and psychological empowerment variable, moderation is said to play a role in the effect. Frazier *et al.* (2004) thus surmise that moderator effect is nothing more than an interaction whereby the effect of one variable is dependent on another.

Frazier *et al.* further stress that it is possible for the same variable to be either mediator or moderator, depending on the theory being tested. For example, Kuvaas (2006) hypothesised that intrinsic motivation construct both mediated as well as moderated various performance appraisals, work satisfaction and commitment constructs. Hence, HR Practices variables and conflict and ambiguity variables employed as antecedents in this study would also be tested for moderation effects because of the strong indication that these variables play a moderating role as well. However, Podsakoff *et al.* (1995) and Villa *et al.* (2003) suggest caution when approaching moderator research. They suggest that researchers should look to the theory being tested and restrict investigations to hypothesis testing for those variables relevant to specific theories and in specific situations. Testing every possible situational factor when there is no theoretical reason makes no sense and may lead to spurious results. Frazier *et al.* (citing Chaplin, 1991) suggest that all study design for moderation tests must be made on the basis of well-defined theory, a similar issue is voiced by Jaccard *et al.* (1990) and Irwin and McClelland, (2001). Podsakoff *et al.* (1995: 423) liken it to *'searching for a needle in the haystack'.* Hence, following these recommendations, the following moderators are selected based on literature review.

2-5-6-1 Hypotheses for Moderation Effects of Job Level, Age and Tenure

Studies with regards to moderation effects between antecedents and psychological empowerment and between psychological empowerment and work

outcomes are scarce. So far, two empirical studies (Janssen, 2004; Samad, 2007) suggest the following: (1) conflict moderates between empowerment and organisational commitment and (2) openness personality moderate the relationship between social structure characteristics and empowerment. Hence, the current study will investigate moderating effects more comprehensively.

As suggested earlier, demographics such as job level, age and tenure (see Hong *et al.*, 1995; Griffeth e*t al.*, 2000; Cotton and Tuttle, 1986) impact organisational behaviour dimensions. Research by Koberg *et al.* (1999) similarly suggests correlation exists between psychological empowerment construct to organisational rank (job level) and tenure. However, Koberg *et al.* did not perform the moderating roles of job level and tenure. It has also been posited by D'Anunzio Green and MacAndrew (1998) that job level may impact empowerment. Eylon (1998), on the other hand theorised that organisational structure may in-fact be impacted by empowerment initiatives, suggesting that rather than structure dictating how empowerment efforts will turn out, it is possible for empowerment to drive structure. Therefore, in an organisation where employees have high empowerment levels, the structure of the organisation will change to suit empowerment initiatives. Moreover, Eylon (1998) suggests that employees at low levels of the organisational hierarchy can be empowered if they have access to information, support and other resources. Even lower levels of employees have the ability to feel empowered if organisations are democratically designed. As mentioned in literature review, research on empowerment effects seems to focus on personality specific antecedents (for example, trust, role ambiguity, HR practices) and not on organisational related antecedents (for example, organisational structure and organisational support) as proposed by Eylon, (1998) and Seibert *et al.* (2004). Hence, the current study will explore these organisational level issues in more detail. The hypotheses for moderation are as follows:

Hypothesis 11a: ***Job level will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.***

Hypothesis 11b: ***Job level will moderate the relationship between organisational support and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.***

Hypothesis 11c: *Tenure will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.*

Hypothesis 11d: *Age will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.*

Hypotheses that investigate empowerment dimensions impacting on work outcome variables like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions were discussed in section 2-5-5-1. Several studies have also investigated the impact of job level, tenure and age on work outcome variables (see for example, Oshagbemi, 1997 for job level and job satisfaction; Sarker *et al.* 2003 for age and tenure on job satisfaction; Cotton and Tuttle, 1986 for age and turnover). Limited studies have also suggested that job level, age and tenure also influence psychological empowerment (see for example, Koberg *et al.*, 1999). The current research will broaden prevailing studies by investigating the moderating effects of job level, tenure and age between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcome variables. Hence, the following hypotheses are raised:

Hypothesis 11e: *Job level will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).*

Hypothesis 11f: *Tenure will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).*

Hypothesis 11g: *Age will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).*

2-5-6-2 Moderation Effects of Reward and Information Sharing between Organisational Structure and Empowerment

Among the HR Practices constructs, reward and information sharing in particular appear in many ways as enablers to psychological empowerment. Studies by Spreitzer (1997) and Samad (2007) found a direct link between rewards and empowerment and between information sharing and empowerment. Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) also suggests that pay and rewards are key elements to better job

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performance. Psoinos and Smithson's (2002) posit that even if the organisation has the structural elements that encourage empowerment, the lack of rewards and recognition will hamper feelings of empowerment in employees. A somewhat similar view is echoed by Bunning (2004:648) who suggest that as organisations become more organic in structure, firms need better reward strategies to reduce turnover intentions through an individualised HR environment. Additionally, Baruch (1998a) suggests that fair rewards are essential in order to strengthen perceptions of empowerment. Hence, while organisational structure (high organicity and reduction in centralisation) is important to create an empowerment environment, fair rewards are necessary to drive through these empowerment interventions. Hence the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 11h: ***Reward will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and dimensions of psychological empowerment.***

As described earlier, good communication and information sharing enhances an employee's ability to make decisions (Lawler, 1992), moreover, information sharing is important as it creates a sense of meaning and purpose as it enables transfer of power (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). One of the key requirements of organic firms is good information sharing to allow de-centralised decision making. As managers transfer their responsibilities to their subordinates, information sharing will assist in this transition. Kanter (1979; 1984) argues that ineffective use of information sharing will render problems and further suggest that a firm's failure to provide a good communication system or network forming arrangement, poor access to resources and unclear job design can contribute to a sense of employee powerlessness. Hence, the following hypothesis is raised:

Hypothesis 11i: ***Information sharing will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and dimensions of psychological empowerment.***

2-5-6-3 Moderation Effects of Information Sharing between Leadership Trust and Empowerment

Literature review suggests that information sharing is closely linked to trust as the level of trust in a relationship determines the quality and fidelity of the communication in that relationship (Timm, 1980; Luke 1998). Studies by Gomez and Rosen (2001) found that apart from organisational and social structural variables (see Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse 1990, Spreitzer, 1996), a strong relationship also existed between leadership trust and employee empowerment. Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggest that information sharing is important as it creates a sense of meaning and purpose which may heighten an employee's desire to learn. Effective communication and flow of information will lead to better knowledge and information transfer further down the hierarchy. Hence, the following hypothesis is raised:

Hypothesis 11j: *Information sharing will moderate the relationship between leadership trust and dimensions of psychological empowerment.*

2-5-6-4 Hypotheses for Moderation Effects of HR Practices between Empowerment and Outcomes

With regards to relationship between psychological empowerment and work outcomes, Robbins *et al.* (2002) theorised that HR Practices like training, reward and information sharing are likely to moderate between psychological empowerment dimensions and outcomes. Robbins *et al.* (2002) further posit that an understanding of how these HR Practices will moderate these relationships are important as the absence of these intervening variables will result in a less than adequate understanding of empowerment process. Peccei and Rosenthal (2001) research suggest that management behaviour and training can produce a sense of empowerment among employees and in turn positively influenced customer-oriented behaviour. Bartlett (2001) and Al-Emadi and Marquardt (2007) on the other hand found significant relationship between training and organisational commitment. Furthermore, authors like Bartlett (2001) and Tennenbaum *et al.* (1991) for example posit that training can induce positive or negative impressions and attitudes on employees which they carry with them into the workplace. As such, it would be appropriate to investigate the moderating effects of these HR Practices variables in the context of this research. The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 11k: *Training will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcome (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).*

Hypothesis 11l: *Reward will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcome (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).*

Hypothesis 11m: *Information Sharing will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcome (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).*

2-5-6-5 Hypotheses for Moderation Effects of Role Conflict and Ambiguity

Hennestad (1998) and Fenton-O'Creevy's (1998) suggest that conflict exists between organisations wanting to empower their employees and the organisational forces that de-empower or impedes empowerment process. Janssen (2004) suggest the need for more focus on moderating effects in future studies following her study which found that interaction between interpersonal conflict with superiors and empowerment predicted organisational commitment. She further posits that conflict with superiors might also moderate job characteristics. Recent research conducted by Ackers (2004) also suggests that role ambiguity and role conflict plays an important role in predicting job satisfaction and intention to leave. Research by Agarwal *et al.* (1999) found role conflict and role ambiguity to affect organisational commitment. These studies suggest that role conflict and role ambiguity contributed to the phenomenon of job satisfaction and organisational commitment and also increases turnover intentions. Spreitzer (1996) on the other hand found role ambiguity to impact psychological empowerment construct. It was also suggested that no research to date has investigated the moderating effect of role conflict between empowerment and work outcomes and moderating effect of role ambiguity between empowerment and work outcomes. Since role conflict and role ambiguity are major de-empowering and disabling components in organisational behaviour (Hennestad, 1998), it is important to study their moderating effects on other variables. As such, this research will examine if these two role stressors moderate the relationship of between

psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes with the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 11n: ***Role ambiguity will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).***

Hypothesis 11o: ***Role conflict will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).***

2-6 Summary

This chapter commence by explaining how empowerment began to be conceptualised in HRM context. Different streams of studies on empowerment were discussed before introducing the psychological empowerment model as means to measure perception of workplace empowerment. This was followed by a discussion of organisational behaviour dimensions that impact on employee empowerment. A hypothesised model was presented to show the relationships of the constructs to be investigated. This was followed by a discussion of research hypotheses with the support of literature review. In the next chapter, the research design and methodology to test the hypotheses will be presented. A discussion into measurements used for each construct for the study will then be presented. This will be followed by a discussion of the survey instrument and study sample.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3-1 Introduction

This chapter will detail the research methodology employed to investigate the relationships among empowerment to its antecedents and outcomes. In addition, research design, the instruments used for the research, pilot study, reliability and validity of instrumentation, the sample characteristics, administration of questionnaires, data collection procedures and method of statistical analysis will be discussed.

3-2 Research Design

There are myriad choices of research methods for social sciences. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are available to examine the concepts of empowerment. For example qualitative methods which involve observations and interviews may provide in-depth insights into the phenomena of empowerment, while quantitative methods are suggested to be a snapshot at a particular point in time (Attenwell and Rule, 1991; Hartwick and Barki, 1994 and Gable, 1994). Qualitative methods are also useful in exploring conceptually difficult issues. Psoinos and Smithson (2002) employed qualitative methods to obtain some insightful and useful information with regard to employee empowerment in British manufacturing sector. But qualitative research, because of time constrains and difficulty in arranging suitable interviews is beyond the scope and resources for this particular study. Psoinos and Smithson for example only managed to obtain views of one or two individuals from each firm; hence the findings may not provide the view of the larger population as a whole. Furthermore, investigation of psychological empowerment and its related organisational constructs have typically been addressed employing quantitative methods. The main advantage of quantitative research is in its ability to better understand the relationships between constructs. As such, because I am interested in understanding the behaviours between antecedents and psychological empowerment and between outcomes and psychological empowerment variables, quantitative method was the best choice. Furthermore, close comparisons with similar studies can be conducted.

Questionnaire surveys as a method of gathering data from respondent's representative of a sample population is perhaps the most dominant form of data collection in social sciences, providing efficient collection of data over broad populations. It is relatively easy to administer either in person, by telephone, over the internet, or as the case of this research, by

mail. Guest (2001) further argues that survey-based research has been the preferred method for exploring relations between HRM and performance. By using reliable measuring instruments composed of closed structure or open-ended questions, respondents of a selected population are required to decide on their perceived perceptions. Critics of survey research methodology suggest that this method artificially forces respondents to formulate opinions, masking the complexity of conflicting views and unconscious biases within each respondent, and critics note that in certain social science studies (such as race relations and sex related studies) survey items may poorly predict actual behaviour (Garson, 2005). Other data collection methods such as case studies may be useful in HRM research but also present distinctive challenges of their own (Guest 2001). The benefits and simplicity of survey design however, outweighs the problems associated with survey research. To reduce bias related to self-administered surveys, the survey questionnaire in this study relies on measurements that have provided strong construct validity and reliability.

As mentioned above, survey design is considered as the most appropriate research design to measure perceptions of the varied organisational behaviours for this study as it allows the researcher to collect information from a large population. The data collected from the sample can then be generalised to an entire population (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000). Survey research commonly employs a quantitative method that requires sets of standardised data that can be measured and identified as separate variables. According to Rungtusanatham *et al.* (2003), there are two types of surveys, descriptive or relational. Descriptive surveys provide a snapshot of the current state of affairs while relational surveys are designed to empirically examine relationships among two or more variables or constructs. This can be done in an exploratory or confirmatory manner. The current study will provide descriptive analysis from the data collected; however, relational analysis will form a major part of this research as the research is interested in examining the relationships between organisational behaviour dimensions (i.e., relationships between antecedents and outcomes of empowerment).

A self-administered questionnaire was developed by combining the various measurement instruments. In order not to confuse the respondents, the measurements were separated into sections; each section was given a short explanation at the beginning clearly indicating what is required of the respondent. Section A of the questionnaire consists of items related to organicity, training, rewards and information sharing measurements. Section B consists of items related to leadership trust and centralisation measurements. Section C consists of items related to role conflict and role ambiguity statements. Section D consists of

items related to psychological empowerment measurements whilst Section E consists of items related to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions measurements. Items regarding personal and background information like gender, age group, tenure and annual income were placed in Section F. The survey questionnaire is available in Appendix I.

3-3 Research Sample for Study

MBA graduate members of a business school alumnus were contacted and asked to complete the research questionnaire for this study. They consisted of senior and middle level managers and executives across different industries based in the UK. Directors and owners of businesses were excluded from the study. This is consistent with Spreitzer (1995: 1996) and Spreitzer *et al.*'s (1997) sample choice. Their choice for selecting middle managers is grounded on the following assumptions: middle managers are more likely to profoundly influence psychological empowerment because their roles are less structured and more ambiguous. Furthermore, middle managers have more access to information and resources than lower management but less control over the same compared to top management: consequently, this makes them an ideal sample choice.

3-3-1 Response Rate for Current Study

A total of 1250 questionnaires were mailed from the alumni membership list, selecting the names at random. A questionnaire with a cover letter was sent to each member, with a pre-paid return envelope. The cover letter outlines the purpose of the research, explaining why they (middle and senior managers) were selected and why it was vital that those who receive the questionnaire respond to it. A response rate of 330 representing 26% was obtained of which 284 (23%) questionnaires were usable. The unusable questionnaires were: (a) the person having moved, 10 in total, (b) those that have retired and therefore, did not want to be included in the survey, 15 in total, (c) the balance were incomplete questionnaires, with a full page completely missed out, 21 in total. It is suggested that future survey questionnaires must address this problem. Perhaps a single side rather than double sided print should be utilised and also to include the message "This Questionnaire contains 4 pages and has 79 questions. Please ensure all pages and questions are answered". It was an oversight on my part.

The response rate for this study is rather disappointing. Baruch (1999) in his study on response rate proposes a more robust attention to the issue of response rates. A response rate that is too low may not represent the population that the study was intended and hence seriously hamper generalisability of the results. The question that comes to mind is: Would the data from the non respondents impact the findings? Baruch's research found that the average response rate to be in the region of 36.1% to 55.6%. The lower range applies to top management. Considering this current research is targeted at senior and top management, the figure of 26% is still much lower than Baruch's average. Hence a test is necessary to examine the respondents and non-respondents. One method suggested by Baruch is to examine the demographics of the respondents and non-respondents. They should not vary significantly. Since the sample population selected for this study is from a single alumni membership source, it can be suggested that the demographics of both the non respondents and respondents are quite similar; hence the data from non respondents should mirror those who responded.

3-3-2 Sample Size for Current Study

Sample size is also another issue often cited as a problem when conducting empirical research (Hair *et al.* 1998). Froman (2001) caution that insufficient sample size in EFA could give rise to rogues and splinters. This research will employ a combination of structural equation modeling (SEM), linear and multiple regressions to analyse the data. The measurement model for confirmatory factor analysis was assessed with Amos 4.01 SEM software (Arbuckle, 2001). Hair *et al.* (1998) suggest that a minimum of n = 200 cases for reliable SEM analysis. As the usable response rate for the sample data is n = 284, it has achieved more than Hair *et al.*'s suggested minimum. However, a more stringent approach is suggested by Froman (2001) who propose at least 5 indicators per item, with a higher estimate of 10 indicators per item and a sample size of several hundred. Considering that the current study has 79 items, a sample of 395 observations (lower estimate) would be needed. The current sample population of n = 284 is thus inadequate. However, another study by Arrindell and Van der Ende (1985) suggest a sample size and proposed a minimum of 20 observations per factor for a meaningful analysis. As there are 16 variables in this

study, a sample population of 320 observations are needed; suggesting that the current sample size is slightly below the minimum.

Examination of unidimensional, discriminant validity, convergent validity and common method bias will be tested via SEM, whilst examination of the relationship between variables, mediation and moderation tests and hypotheses testing will be tested via a series of linear and multiple regression. This is because of the large number of constructs and limited sample size, linear and multiple regression will be able to provide a more meaningful explanation for the results (Meuter *et al.*, 2005) and will also provide a more fine grain analysis (Carless, 2004) of the various psychological empowerment dimensions. Hence, linear and multiple regression will be an effective approach to test the hypotheses outline earlier. The results of the statistical analysis of the data collected will be presented in the next chapter.

3-4 Measurements Employed in Study

Careful consideration as to the type of measurement instruments to be used for this research is vitally important if the data collected are to be reliable and valid. Reliability suggests that the measurement instrument is consistent and hence, repeatable whist validity refers to an instrument's ability to measure what it is supposed to measure. An instrument that lacks validity would simply undermine the meaningfulness of the research and thus drawing illogical conclusions. As such, a decision was made to employ existing measures that have shown good reliability and repeatability. This decision will ensure the data and results obtained are consistent with past studies so that comparisons can later be made. Consistent with social science research convention, the measurements chosen for this present research has been established by other researchers and found to affect organisational commitment, work motivation, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Hence, these measurements could also directly impact on psychological empowerment. All measurements have shown to produce good consistency and reliability in previous research. Furthermore, for consistency, all measurements employed the 7 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 being "Strongly Disagree" to 7 being "Strongly Agree". Using SPSS statistical software, the scores to the items were then averaged to obtain an index for each respondent. The following is a description of the measurements selected.

3-4-1 Measurement for Organicity

As discussed in section 2-4-1, organicity refers to an organisation that adopts a decentralised architecture with fluid job responsibilities and considerable lateral communications. Khandwalla (1977) developed the organicity scale which measures organic-mechanistic orientation of a business organisation. Aiken and Hage (1967) developed formalisation scale to measure the organisational formal-informal properties but was found to have serious convergent and discriminant validity issues (see Dewar *et al.* 1980). Hence, Khandawalla's 8 item organicity scale was adopted for this study. The scales measure organisational characteristics of their top management. Respondents were asked to rate the level of organicity of their organisation structure. Low ratings would signify a more mechanistic organisational structure. Covin and Slevin (1988) validated and employed organicity scale to measure the interaction of entrepreneurial style. Recent studies employing the organicity scales include Tse (1991), Naman and Slevin (1993), Chaston (1996), Jabnoun (2005) and Shivers-Blackwell (2006) suggesting that interest in organisational structure research is important today as it was when Khandawalla designed the scales back in the 1970's. The organicity scale has been found to impact organisational performance positively. This measurement is also selected because of the consistently high Cronbach alpha coefficient. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of this scale was 0.83 in Naman and Slevin's (1993) examination on entrepreneurship, and 0.89 in Slevin and Covin's (1997) strategy pattern research.

For the present study, the sample size was n = 284, the mean was 4.36, standard deviation of 0.95, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.77. The eight item scale is presented in Table 3.1.

	Table 3. 1 Organicity Items
1.	The operating management philosophy in my firm favours open channels of communication with important information flowing freely throughout the firm.
2.	The managers' operating styles are allowed to range freely from the very formal to very informal.
3.	There is a strong insistence from the firm's management on a uniform managerial style throughout the firm. (reversed score)
4.	The is a strong tendency to let the expert in a given situation to have the most say in decision making even if this means temporary bypassing of formal line authority.
5.	There is a strong emphasis on adapting freely to changing circumstances without too concerned for past practise.
6.	There is a strong emphasis on getting things done even if it means disregarding formal procedures.
7.	There is a loose, informal control; heavy dependence on informal relationships and norms of cooperation for getting work done.
8.	There is a strong tendency to let the requirements of the situation and the individual's personalities define proper on-job behaviour.
	Source: Khandwalla, (1977)

3-4-2 Measurement for Centralisation

The centralisation measurement is based on the widely used scales developed by Aiken and Hage (1967; 1968). Unlike formalisation scale, Dewar *et al.* (1980) examined the centralisation scales and found them reliable and valid. Recent studies employing these scales include Tata and Prasad (2004), Schminke *et al.* (2002), and Sarros *et al.* (2002). The five item centralisation scale measures the degree of hierarchical authority within a firm. The variable represents the relative emphasis on the use of rules or "the red tape of bureaucracy" in a firm. The higher the score, the higher would be the degree of centralisation or "red tape". For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the average for mean was 2.72, standard deviation was 1.31, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.89. The mean for the present study is below the 4.0 mid-point level, suggesting that respondents felt their organisations are less centralised (i.e. rather decentralised structure) which is not surprising, considering that the respondents targeted are middle to senior managers who usually have to make a lot of decisions themselves. Aiken and Hage (1967) suggested that as managers become more professional, it is more likely that decentralisation would occur. Woodward (1965), as cited in Aiken and Hage (1967), reports that business organisations in Great Britain were more likely to be decentralised if they had skilled labour rather than unskilled labour. Decentralised

structure is also common where managers are trained professionally. Hence, this suggestion seems to hold. The five item scale is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Centralisation Items
1. There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.
2. A person who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged here.
3. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.
4. I have to ask my boss before I do almost anything.
5. Any decision I make has to have my boss' approval.
Source: Aiken and Hage (1967, 1968)

3-4-3 Measurement for Organisational Support

The 9 item measurement scale is adopted from Eisenberger *et al.*, (1986). The scale reflects the extent to which employees believe the organisation is committed and supports them. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for organisational support was 4.71, standard deviation of 1.07, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.88. Recent studies employing this scale include Armeli *et al.* (1998) which reported significance to job performance; Randall *et al.* (1999) found relationship to organisational citizenship behaviours; and Bishop *et al.* (2003) which distinguished organisational support and organisational commitment as separate and conceptually distinct. The nine item scale is presented in Table: 3.3.

Table 3.3 Organisational Support Items
1. If I asked, my firm would change my working conditions if it is at all possible.
2. If my firm could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, it would do it (Reversed Score).
3. If given the chance, my firm would take unfair advantage of me. (Reversed Score).
4. My firm would ignore any complaint from me (Reversed Scored).
5. My firm strongly considers my goals and values.
6. My firm values my contribution to the company.
7. My firm takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
8. My firm is willing to help me when I need a special favour.
9. My firm really cares about me.
Source: Eisenberger *et al.*, (1986)

3-4-4 Measurement of Training

Training has been found to improve productivity through improved skills and competence (Churchill *et al.*, 1985; Katzell and Guzzo, 1983). Hence, there is a direct link to psychological empowerment, in particular the competence dimension. Additionally, training is said to impact role conflict and ambiguity (Krayer, 1986). A four item scale from Roberts *et al.* (1994) is used to measure the extent and quality of training the employee feels he or she gets. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for training was 5.23, standard deviation of 1.06, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.87. The five item scale is available in Table 3.4.

	Table 3.4 Training Items
1.	I have more than enough training to do my job well.
2.	I do not have enough training to do my job well (Reversed Scored).
3.	I have enough training and experience to accomplish my assignments.
4.	I am well trained for my job.
5.	Although there is training, I don't get the skills required (Reversed Scored). .
	Source: Roberts *et al.* (1994)

3-4-5 Measurement for Reward

Adapted from Babakus *et al.* (1996), the four item scale is employed to indicate if the rewards offered by the firm are adequate and attractive. The key reward dimensions for this scale are performance feedback, performance related pay, incentives and bonus pay. Higher scores suggest respondents perceive that they are happy with the rewards they receive from their firm. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for rewards was 4.23, standard deviation of 1.31, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.77. Cronbach alpha coefficient is acceptable as it is above the suggested minimum acceptable standard of internal consistency reliability of 0.70 (see Nunnally, 1967). The four item scale is presented in Table 3.5.

	Table 3.5 Reward Items
The firm:	
1.	Provides me with performance feedback on a regular basis.
2.	Rewards me based on the quality of my work that I have done.
3.	Uses incentive and bonus pay as the major means for motivating me.
4.	In general, I am happy with the rewards offered by the firm.
	Source: Babakus *et al.* (1996)

3-4-6 Measurement for Information Sharing

A three item scale adapted from Parasuraman and Alutto (1981) is employed for this study. The scales measures the amount of information and communications an employee perceives he or she gets or is able to get to properly complete a work task. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for information sharing was 4.35, standard deviation of 1.25, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.72. The three item scale is presented in Table: 3.6.

	Table 3.6 Information Sharing Items
1.	I have trouble getting the facts and information I need to do my job well (Reversed Scored).
2.	Sometimes I am not provided with enough relevant information to do my job well (Reversed Scored).
3.	Communication in this organisation is really good.
	Source: Parasuraman and Alutto (1981), as cited in Roberts *et al.* (1994)

3-4-7 Measurement for Leadership Trust

The existing research on trust is diverse and wide-ranging as such, it is important for researchers to focus on particular problems and then use the concepts and appropriate methods to address the research in question. For the purpose of this research, the psychological or attitudinal state of the individual is the main focus as such, McAlister's (1995) leadership trust scale is appropriate. The scale measures inter-personal trust relationships. This scale will be useful to measure the amount of trust an employee has with his immediate supervisor. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for leadership trust was 4.52, standard deviation of 1.19, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.89. The six item scale is presented in Table 3.7.

	Table 3.7 Leadership Trust Items
1.	My supervisor and I have a sharing relationship. We can freely share our ideas and feelings about the work I do.
2.	I can freely talk to my supervisor about difficulties I am having at work and I know he or she will want to listen.
3.	If I shared my problems with my supervisor, I know he or she would respond constructively and caringly.
4.	We both feel a sense of loss if we could no longer work together.
5.	My supervisor and I have made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship.
	Source: McAlister (1995); Item 6 adapted from Lambert (2000).

3-4-8 Measurements for Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Role conflict and ambiguity scales were developed by Rizzo *et al.* (1970). The scales, also known as the Rizzo, House and Lirtzman or RHL scale has been the most widely used measure (used in approximately 85% of the studies, according to Jackson and Schuler, 1985) by researchers studying role stress (role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload). The role ambiguity scale measures the extent of an employee's uncertainty with regards to his or her authority or responsibilities. High scores indicate that role ambiguity is low. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean value for role ambiguity was 3.24, standard deviation of 1.08, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.86.

The role conflict scales measures the level of work conflict an employee perceives when compared to his or her training or competences that he or she has. High scores for role conflict indicate high levels of role conflict. For the present study, the sample population was N = 284, the mean for role conflict was 3.71, standard deviation of 0.70, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.74. The sixteen item scale for role ambiguity and role conflict is presented in Table: 3.8.

	Table 3.8 Role Ambiguity Items
1.	I feel certain about how much authority I have.
2.	I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
3.	There is a lack of policies and guidelines to help me (Reversed Score).
4.	I know what my responsibilities are.
5.	I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.
6.	I know exactly what is expected of me.
7.	I am told how well I am doing my job.
8.	I have to work under vague directives or orders (Reversed Score).
	Role Conflict Items
1.	I get enough time to complete my work (Reversed Scored).
2.	I have to do things that should be done differently.
3.	I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
4.	I do not get enough help and equipment to get the job done well.
5.	I receive assignments that are within my training and capability (Reversed Scored).
6.	I am often trying to meet conflicting demands of different departments.
7.	I have to deal with or satisfy too many different people in the firm.
8.	I often work on unnecessary things.
	Source: Rizzo *et al.*, (1970)

3-4-9 Measurement for Psychological Empowerment

Spreitzer (1995) developed and validated the psychological empowerment construct. The psychological empowerments scale was later re-validated by Kraimer *et al.* (1999). Spreitzer examined two separate samples to cross-validate the measurement model in her study. The first sample consisted of 393 managers randomly selected from all units of a *Fortune 50* industrial organisation. Her second study consisted of 128 employees obtained through a random sampling technique from an insurance company. There was evidence of internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Spreitzer reported a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.87 for the meaning scale, 0.81 for the self- determination scale, 0.88 for the impact scale and 0.81 for the competence scale. Spreitzer also reported overall empowerment construct in which she added all the items of the four dimensions. A reliability of 0.72 for the industrial sample and 0.62 for the insurance sample were reported for overall empowerment. Each psychological empowerment dimension has three statements, making 12 statements for the construct in total. The sample population for the current study was n = 284, the mean for meaning scale was 5.45, standard deviation of 1.13, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.94. The mean score for self-determination scale was 5.55, standard deviation of 1.07, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.91. The mean score for impact scale was 4.94, standard deviation of 1.39, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.91. The mean for competence scale was 5.94, standard deviation of 0.75, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85.The overall empowerment construct for the present study had a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.88. The individual reliability alphas were: meaning (0.94), impact (0.91), self-determination (0.91) and competence (0.85). The twelve item scale for psychological empowerment is presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 Measurement for Psychological Empowerment
Meaning Items
1. The work that I do is very important to me.
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
3. The work that I do is meaningful to me.
Self-Determination Items
1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.
Impact Items
1. My impact on what happens in my department is large.
2. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
3. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.
Competence Items
1. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
2. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
3. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

3-4-10 Measurement for Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction scale was adapted from Porter and Lawler (1968). The measures are widely used in job satisfaction research (see for example; Hollon and Chesser, 1976; DeCarlo and Agarwal, 1999). The scales measure how satisfied an employee is with his or her current job. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean value for job satisfaction is 3.97, standard deviation of 1.11, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85. The six item scale is presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 Job Satisfaction Items
1. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.
2. The most important things that happen to me involve my job.
3. I live, eat and, breathe my job.
4. I am very much involved personally in my job.
5. My job provides a feeling of self-fulfilment.
6. Generally, I am satisfied with my present job.
Source: Porter and Lawler (1968).

3-4-11 Measurement for Organisational Commitment

A six item scale from Porter *et al.* (1974) is employed to measure perceived employee commitment to the firm. The Porter *et al.* organisational commitment scale is widely employed by researchers and is closely related to affective commitment of Meyers and Allen (1991) three dimension scale. The concept of affective commitment was derived from Porters *et al.* (1974) organisational commitment as

the affective commitment scale consists of three main ingredients: 1) emotional attachment, identification and involvement (Gautam *et al.* 2004). The scale is also sometimes referred as attitudinal commitment by other researchers (see for example Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Mowday *et al.* (1982) explains attitudinal commitment measures as having three facets 1) Strong sense of belief in the goals of the organisation, 2) readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, 3) A strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. The affective commitment scale has been found to be favourable for individual and organisational outcomes in terms of satisfaction, well-being, reduction in turnover intentions and higher performance whilst attitudinal commitment has been found to be associated to lower absenteeism and turnover intentions. Recent research employing Porter's *et al.* scale includes Singh (2000); Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed (2002); and Kuvaas (2006). Singh found to provide strong relationship to antecedents like boss support, task control, and burnout management whilst Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed found strong association between positive work-related emotions (enthusiasm, comfort) and commitment levels. Kuvaas on the other hand found performance appraisal and work performance to positively impact commitment. Turnover intention was also strongly related to Porter's commitment scale (see Singh, 2000; Boshoff and Mels, 2000; Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed, 2002; Kuvaas, 2006). Hence, Porter *et al.* (1974) scale adequately measures affective commitment proposed by Meyers and Allen (1991) and Mowday *et al.* (1982) attitudinal commitment dimension. Reliability and validity evidence provided by Porter *et al.*, (1974), Steers (1977), Steers and Spencer (1977), and Stone and Porter (1975) suggests consistently high values in their studies, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93 with a median of 0.90. For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for organisational commitment was 5.18, standard deviation of 1.19, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.89. The six item scale is presented in Table 3.11.

	Table 3.11 Organisational Commitment Items
1.	I really care about the fate of this firm.
2.	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what normally is expected in order to help this firm be successful.
3.	The organisation really inspires me to put forth my best effort.
4.	I would accept any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this firm.
5.	I am extremely glad that I chose this firm to work over others I was considering at the time I joined.
6.	Overall, I am committed to this firm.
	Source: Porter *et al.* (1974)

3-4-12 Measurements for Turnover Intention

A three item scale based on Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975) work is used. Two statements from the original items were altered from: "It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year", to; "It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon". Similarly the statement "I will probably look for a job next year", to; "I will probably look for a job in the near future". For the present study, the sample population was n = 284, the mean for turnover intentions was 3.62, standard deviation of 1.83, a range of 1.0 – 7.0 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.91. The three item scale is presented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Turnover Intention Items	
1.	It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon.
2.	I often think of quitting.
3.	I will probably look for a job in the near future.
Source: Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975) cited in Singh (2000).	

3-5 Pilot Study of the Survey Instrument

A pilot study was conducted prior to actual administration of the questionnaire. This was necessary to test internal reliability of the all the measures. It was also essential to determine clarity and readability of the survey instrument as the measures employed were largely based on US studies. Thirty questionnaires were distributed to staff and post-graduate students of Cardiff Business School. Both administrative, teaching staff and post graduate research colleagues of the business school were asked to complete the questionnaire. Twenty six questionnaires were returned. The questionnaires were analysed using SPSS (1996) version 10.0 for mean scores, standard deviation, t-tests and reliability alphas. Table 3.13 presents the descriptive statistics for the measurements used, including mean scores, standard deviations for each measure for the pilot study. The Cronbach alpha reliability scores for the pilot study were as follows: organicity scale = 0.60, organisational support scale = 0.88, rewards scale = 0.73, training scale = 0.84, information sharing scale = 0.72, leadership trust scale = 0.86, centralisation scale = 0.86, role conflict = 0.77, meaning scale = 0.91, competence scale = 0.78, self-determination scale = 0.93, impact scale = 0.92, job satisfaction scale = 0.86, organisational commitment = 0.80, and turnover intention = 0.77. With exception to organicity, all scales achieved significantly high alpha values. Garson (2005b) suggests that an alpha of 0.60 is reasonable for exploratory studies. Since this is a pilot study, the measures are accepted as the analysis suggests adequate levels of internal consistency and reliability. The questionnaires were then mailed to the sample target.

Table 3.13 Mean, range, standard deviation for pilot study.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ORGANIC1	26	2	7	4.65	1.55
ORGANIC2	26	2	7	4.62	1.36
ORGANIC3	26	1	6	2.88	1.28
ORGANIC4	26	1	6	3.58	1.36
ORGANIC5	26	2	6	4.62	1.13
ORGANIC6	26	1	7	4.08	1.81
ORGANIC7	26	1	6	4.04	1.54
ORGANIC8	26	1	6	4.27	1.46
ORGSUPP1	26	1	7	4.19	1.60
ORGSUPP2	26	1	7	3.19	1.41
ORGSUPP3	26	1	7	3.38	1.81
ORGSUPP4	26	1	7	2.73	1.71
ORGSUPP5	26	2	6	4.23	1.11
ORGSUPP6	26	3	6	4.92	0.80
ORGSUPP7	26	3	6	4.46	0.86
ORGSUPP8	26	2	7	5.08	1.13
ORGSUPP9	26	1	6	4.00	1.20
REWARDS1	26	1	7	4.62	1.50
REWARDS2	26	1	6	4.35	1.52
REWARDS3	26	1	7	4.27	1.76
REWARDS4	26	1	6	4.42	1.30
TRAIN1	26	1	6	4.65	1.47
TRAIN2	26	1	7	2.85	1.74
TRAIN3	26	4	7	5.58	0.86
TRAIN4	26	3	7	5.23	1.03
TRAIN5	26	1	6	2.58	1.39
INFORMA1	26	1	6	2.88	1.70
INFORMA2	26	1	6	3.15	1.54
INFORMA3	26	2	6	4.08	1.26
TRUST1	26	1	7	5.00	1.50
TRUST2	26	1	7	5.12	1.56
TRUST3	26	2	6	4.92	1.29
TRUST4	26	1	7	3.77	1.73
TRUST5	26	1	6	3.62	1.42
CENTRAL1	26	1	7	3.00	1.65
CENTRAL2	26	1	7	2.77	1.53
CENTRAL3	26	1	7	2.62	1.83
CENTRAL4	26	1	7	1.96	1.40
CENTRAL5	26	1	7	2.19	1.44
ROLECON1	26	1	7	4.31	1.89
ROLECON2	26	2	7	4.15	1.29
ROLECON3	26	1	6	3.50	1.50
ROLECON4	26	1	7	3.15	1.59
ROLECON5	26	3	7	5.62	0.90
ROLECON6	26	1	7	5.23	1.68
ROLECON7	26	2	7	5.77	1.21
ROLECON8	26	1	7	4.12	1.51

Table 3.13 Mean, range, standard deviation for pilot study, continued.

ROLEAMB1	26	2	7	4.77	1.48
ROLEAMB2	26	1	7	4.42	1.58
ROLEAMB3	26	1	6	3.62	1.63
ROLEAMB4	26	3	7	5.27	1.19
ROLEAMB5	26	1	6	4.00	1.67
ROLEAMB6	26	3	7	5.00	1.17
ROLEAMB7	26	1	7	4.38	1.47
ROLEAMB8	26	1	7	3.96	1.61
MEAN1	26	2	7	5.50	1.21
MEAN2	26	2	7	5.35	1.32
MEAN3	26	2	7	5.35	1.35
COMPET1	26	5	7	5.88	0.77
COMPET2	26	5	7	5.92	0.74
COMPET3	26	3	7	5.73	0.87
DETERM1	26	3	7	5.42	0.99
DETERM2	26	4	7	5.62	0.75
DETERM3	26	3	7	5.35	1.13
IMPACT1	26	2	7	5.27	1.43
IMPACT2	26	2	7	5.04	1.37
IMPACT3	26	2	7	5.04	1.56
JOBSAT1	26	1	6	3.73	1.40
JOBSAT2	26	1	7	3.54	1.39
JOBSAT3	26	1	7	2.92	1.55
TURNOV1	26	1	7	4.15	1.99
TURNOV2	26	1	7	3.62	1.94
TURNOV3	26	1	7	4.08	2.12
ORGCOMM1	26	3	7	5.73	1.04
ORGCOMM2	26	3	7	5.65	1.20
ORGCOMM3	26	2	7	4.65	1.41
ORGCOMM4	26	1	6	2.92	1.67
ORGCOMM5	26	3	7	4.88	1.28
ORGCOMM6	26	3	7	5.27	1.15

3-6 Data Analysis

The returned questionnaires were coded and the raw data entered into SPSS version 10.0 statistical software. Data analysis commence with an investigation of descriptive statistics to understand the sample demographics. This will be followed by analysis of mean. t-tests and standard deviations of the individual measurements. An investigation of reliability and validity of the measures follows. Following recommended structural equation modeling techniques suggested (see for example, Hair *et al.*, 1998; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Garver and Mentzer, 1999) the data will be analysed firstly via exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to confirm discriminant validity and unidimensionality of the individual variables. The variables and items retained are then subjected confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

employing AMOS 4.01 (Arbuckle and Wothke, 2001) statistical software where the measurement model are then analysed. Further details of the data analyses involved will be covered in Chapter Four.

3-6-1 Scheme for Analysis

The use of previously developed scales that have been validated will reduce reliability and validity issues; however, since this research is conducted in a different setting it is an imperative to investigate these concerns rigorously as the 'portability' of scales developed by other researchers are not always guaranteed. This will ensure that the measures used in this current research are not flawed leading to erroneous conclusions. Experts in the field (see for example, Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; O'Leary-Kelly and Vorkula, 1998; Hair *et al.*, 1998) advocate a two step method. The first step is to perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA) followed by reliability analysis through SPSS statistical software. The second step involves investigation of the measurement model through structural equation modelling (SEM). The scheme for analysis for this research is as follows:

1. Churchill (1979) and Hair *et al.* (1998) explain that no single item can represent a concept or construct completely and recommends that each scale being studied should be represented by multiple-item scales. Hence, EFA of individual scales will be conducted to confirm unidimensionality of the variables. This stage also requires one to select suitable items for each variable.
2. Alpha reliability of construct in the study is then conducted to determine construct reliability (Cronbach, 1951; Hair *et al.*, 1998).
3. The data will next be subject to discriminant validity test by examining the chi square differences between all possible pair-wise constructs as recommended by Bollen (1989). To complement chi square tests, correlation analysis will also be performed. Discriminant validity tests will ensure that each construct discriminates from another variable.
4. Items that do not conform to EFA and other tests described above will be dropped from further analysis. Once the reliability, unidimensionality and discriminant validity have been established, the retained items for the variables is subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

5. At CFA stage, the sample will be examined for content and convergent validity by analysing the measurement model (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Garver and Mentzer, 1999) employing structural equation modeling (SEM). The tests will determine whether the items in a variable converge or load as a single construct.
6. Spreitzer's psychological empowerment model will then be examined to re-validate it following Spreitzer (1995) and Kraimer *et al.* (1999) procedures. The model is valid if the four constructs loads significantly on the 2nd Order model.
7. Because the sample is collected from a single source, it is an imperative that the data be examined for common method bias (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003).
8. When all the above investigations are completed, analysis of the data can be made to support the proposed hypotheses. The study will be examined in three key stages. Firstly, the linear regressions to determine the relationship between antecedents and outcomes, then between antecedents and the four individual empowerment variables. Next, linear regression between the individual psychological empowerment and work outcomes will be examined. Secondly, the mediating effects of the individual empowerment variables between the various antecedents and outcome variables are examined. Third, the moderation effects of demographics like age, job level, tenure, training, reward, information sharing, role conflict and role ambiguity will be tested for moderation against the various potential variables in accordance to procedures recommended by Baron and Kenny (1989); Frazier *et al.* (2004); and Meuter *et al.* (2005). Table 3.14 highlights the measurements and tests adopted to examine the hypotheses.

3-7 Summary

The chapter began with a discussion of the research methodology used in this study to investigate the relationships among perceptions of empowerment and its antecedents and outcomes. The research design, the instruments used for the research, the sample population characteristics, questionnaire design, administration of questionnaires, data collection procedures were also discussed. The pilot study was then discussed. The issue pertaining to response rate and sample obtained for analysis was then examined. In the next chapter, the method of statistical analysis and results of the study will be duly presented. The hypotheses will then be tested based on the results obtained from the sample data.

Table 3.14 Measurements and Tests Adopted to Examine Hypotheses	
Hypothesis	**Statistical Test Used to Examine hypothesis**
Direct relationships between antecedents and the four psychological empowerment variables. Hypotheses are: Hypothesis: 1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a, 7a, 8a, and 9a	**Stage One – Direct Relationships** To test hypotheses, regression analysis via SPSS V.10 software will be conducted. Output results of Beta coefficient, *t*-tests and significance testing will be used to interpret the hypotheses. The results are predicted to have the following relationships for the antecedent variables to individual psychological empowerment variables, meaning, competence, self-determination and impact: • Organicity (+) • Centralisation (-) • Organisational support (+) • Rewards (+) • Training (+) • Information sharing (+) • Leadership trust (+) • Role Conflict (-) • Role Ambiguity (-)
Mediation of the individual psychological empowerment variables will be tested for mediation effect between antecedents and the three outcome variables. Hypotheses involved: Hypotheses: 1b,c,d; 2b,c,d; 3b,c,d; 4b,c,d; 5b,c,d; 6b,c,d; 7b,c,d; 8b,c,d; 9b.c.d; 10a,b.	**Stage Two - Tests for Mediation** A series of tests for mediation will be performed on all the variables as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Meuter *et al.* (2005). The tests will provide a detailed analysis and is hypothesised to support the argument for mediating effect of the four separate empowerment components on antecedent and outcome variables.
The moderation effect of demographics such as job level, age, tenure, and gender will be tested to support the following hypotheses: Hypotheses: 11a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h,I,j,k,l, m, n, o.	**Stage Three - Tests for Moderation** The moderation variables, job level, age, tenure, reward, training, information sharing, role conflict and role ambiguity will be employed for moderation tests as recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), Frazier *et al.* (2004) and Aiken and West (1991). The tests will support if these variables moderate the effect of empowerment.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis and Findings

4-1 Introduction

This chapter will present the empirical findings of this study. It starts with the general examination of the characteristics of the sample and report the breakdown by industry type and profile of respondents' gender, age, job level, tenure and income. This is followed by examination of mean, standard deviation and t-tests of the measurements used in this study. The purpose of this analysis is to provide a general idea into the perceptions of British senior and middle managers. Once descriptive analysis is accomplished, a series of examinations to validate the measures will be performed. Below is the scheme of analysis.

4-2 Sample Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics

The respondents targeted were MBA graduates from a UK business management college alumnus which were randomly selected from the alumni database comprising of middle and senior managers from various industry sectors in the UK. A total of n = 284 usable observations were received and the data was analysed. Table 4.1 presents the breakdown by industry sector. Of the total, 82% respondents were from the private sector, whilst 18% respondents were from public sector. Financial Services and Telecommunications sectors constitute 28% of the total respondents. Information Technology (IT) and Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) sector represented 14% of the total sample. Hence, these four industry sectors (excluding public sector) make up 42% of the total respondents. This is not unusual as most MBA graduates often target these industry sectors. The rest of the respondents were from various sectors like Utilities (5%), Manufacturing (4%), Chemicals (14%), Oil and Gas (4%), Pharmaceuticals (4%), Construction (3%), Consultancy (2%), Engineering (2%), Automotive (2%) and Transport (2%). The rest (2%) came from sectors like aviation and education. The sample data therefore, managed to capture a broad range of industry type and as such, this study potentially represents a UK wide illustration of the perceptions of middle and senior managers.

Table 4.1 Breakdown of Industry Type from Sample

Industry Sector	Total Number Of Respondents	Percentage
Public Sector	51	18%
Financial Services & Investments	45	15%
Telecommunications	39	13%
Information Technology	22	7%
Fast Moving Consumer Goods	22	7%
Utilities	14	5%
Manufacturing	13	4%
Chemicals	13	4%
Oil and Gas	11	4%
Pharmaceuticals	11	4%
Construction	10	3%
Consultancy	8	2%
Engineering	8	2%
Automotive	7	2%
Transport	6	2%
Others	4	2%
Total	284	100%

Table 4.2 provides a profile on gender, sector, age, job level, years on the job (tenure) and income level of the respondents. Male respondents make up 83% compared to 17% females. This is not surprising as in general, middle and senior positions do tend to be filled by male managers. Also as the sample targeted middle and senior management personnel, it is not unexpected that the main age group falls in the range of 31 to 40 years age group (32%) and 41 to 50 years age group (40%). In total the two groups represent 72% of the respondents. The age group of 25 to 30 recorded 1% of total sample and for age group above 50 years of age, there were 27% of total respondents. In terms of job level, senior management job level represent 42% of respondents. Middle management represents 32% of total respondents. In total middle and senior management job level represents 84% of total respondents. This is a reflection of the sample data that targets senior and middle managers. Only 16% of respondents make up junior management job level group. As for number of years on the job, a total of 43% of respondents had job tenure between 1 - 2 years and 28% of respondents had job tenure of between 3 - 4 years. As such, a total of 71% of respondents had only been on the present job for 4 years or less. A total of 18% of the respondents had job tenure of between 5 to 9 years and 11% of respondents had been with the firm for 10 years or more. As for income levels, the sample show the respondents are relatively high wage earners: 44% respondents earn up to £50,000 per annum, whilst 66% of respondents had earnings above £50,000 per annum.

In summary, the sample showed that a large number of respondents are in senior and middle level positions, most between the ages of 31 and 50 and have relatively high earnings. However, the sample also show that a majority of the respondents have relatively short job tenure, i.e. less than 4 years. These perhaps suggest the nature of middle and senior level positions and also MBA graduate aspirants: relatively young, they are on the move, seeking new opportunities and last but not least high wage earners (see for example, Patton, 2006; Baruch and Peiperl, 2000; Leggett, 2002). The sample also shows that men outnumber women in middle and senior positions, where more than 80% of the positions are men. Overall, the results of the sample were as expected and not unusual.

Table 4.2 Profile of Gender, Sector, Age, Job Level, Tenure and Income Level

Profile of Sample (n = 284)		
Demographics	Total Number of Respondents	Percentage
Gender - Male	236	83%
Gender - Female	48	17%
Sector - Public	51	18%
Sector - Private	233	82%
Age - 25 to 30	3	1%
Age - 31 to 40	90	32%
Age - 41 to 50	115	40%
Age - above 50	76	27%
Job Level - Senior Management	147	42%
Job Level - Middle Management	91	32%
Job Level - Junior Management	46	16%
Income - up to £50,000 per year	96	44%
Income - above £50,000 per year	188	66%
Number of Years on the Job (Job Tenure)		
1 - 2 years	123	43%
3 – 4 years	80	28%
5 – 9 years	51	18%
10 years and above	30	11%

4-3 Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and t-tests for Individual Variables

Having explained the research analysis adopted for this study and presenting the descriptive characteristics of the data, examination of mean, t-tests and standard deviation of each individual variable will now be made. Likert-type scales ranging from 1 to 7 are used where 1 = (strongly disagree), 2 = (somewhat disagree), 3 = (mildly disagree), 4 = (neither agree nor disagree), 5 = (mildly agree), 6 =

(somewhat agree) and 7 = (strongly agree) were employed for all the measures, hence, the mid-level point for all the scales is 4. Values below 4 will suggest the extent to which the respondents disagree, 1 being strongly disagreeing with the statements in the questionnaire. Values from 4 to 7 suggest the respondents agree with the statements, with 7 suggesting the respondents strongly agree with the statements asked. Standard deviation measure show how spread out the distribution is, whilst t-tests are performed on the sample set that is assumed to follow a normal bell-shaped distribution. All t-tests scores for all measures and individual items are significant at 95% confidence interval.

4-3-1 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Organicity

Table 4.3 presents the mean, standard deviation and t-tests for organicity scales. The statement for ORGANIC3 item reads: "There is a strong insistence from the firm's management on a uniform managerial style throughout the firm", is negatively phrased, hence, it was reversed scored. High scores (above 4.0), suggest the respondents perceive the firms they work in are more organic. All organicity scale items in the study registered marginally above the mid point of 4.0. Hence, the result from the data suggests marginal organicity in their firms. The average of all 8 scores is indicated as ORGANICA (mean = 4.36, standard deviation = 0.95).

Table 4.3 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Organicity

					Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	(2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
ORGANIC1	284	4.57	1.56	49.38	0.00	4.39	4.76
ORGANIC2	284	4.76	1.44	55.67	0.00	4.59	4.93
ORGANIC3	284	4.90	1.54	53.70	0.00	4.73	5.08
ORGANIC4	284	4.07	1.54	44.49	0.00	3.89	4.25
ORGANIC5	284	4.25	1.50	47.56	0.00	4.07	4.42
ORGANIC6	284	4.14	1.71	40.85	0.00	3.94	4.34
ORGANIC7	284	4.11	1.63	42.42	0.00	3.92	4.30
ORGANIC8	284	4.04	1.47	46.26	0.00	3.87	4.21
ORGANICA	284	4.36	0.95	77.27	0.00	4.24	4.47

4-3-2 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Centralisation

The centralisation measurement for mean, standard deviation and t-tests are presented in Table 4.4. For the centralisation measurement statements, respondents were asked to record the level of centralisation i.e. the locus of control the firm practices. The higher the score, the higher would be the centralisation practiced by the firm. As the mean levels for all the items range from 2.11 to 3.24, the level is below the mid point of 4.0. These relatively low levels suggest that centralisation is low in the sample which is not unusual, considering the respondents were senior and middle management employees and are decision makers in their managerial capacity. CENTRALA depicts the average of the 5 items (mean = 2.59, standard deviation = 1.33).

Table 4.4 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Centralisation

					Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	(2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
CENTRAL1	284	3.24	1.62	33.66	0.00	3.05	3.43
CENTRAL2	284	3.00	1.53	33.07	0.00	2.82	3.18
CENTRAL3	284	2.83	1.73	27.67	0.00	2.63	3.04
CENTRAL4	284	2.11	1.36	26.21	0.00	1.95	2.27
CENTRAL5	284	2.40	1.58	25.65	0.00	2.22	2.59
CENTRALA	284	2.59	1.31	32.68	0.00	2.43	2.74

4-3-3 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Organisational Support Measurement

Organisational support scale measures the level of support the employee perceives he or she gets from the organisation. The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for organisational support scale is presented in Table 4.5. ORGSUPP2, ORGSUPP3 and ORGSUPP4 are negative statements which were reverse scored before the analysis was made. All values are above the mid point level of 4.0 which suggest that organisational support is reasonably high in the sample. The average scores for mean and standard deviation as displayed by ORGNSUPP is 4.71 and 1.07 respectively.

Table 4.5 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Organisational Support

Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
ORGSUPP1	284	4.43	1.61	46.40	0.00	4.24	4.61
ORGSUPP2	284	4.64	1.80	43.57	0.00	4.43	4.85
ORGSUPP3	284	4.69	1.74	45.42	0.00	4.49	4.90
ORGSUPP4	284	5.46	1.37	66.96	0.00	5.30	5.62
ORGSUPP5	284	4.43	1.41	52.86	0.00	4.26	4.59
ORGSUPP6	284	5.00	1.23	68.52	0.00	4.86	5.14
ORGSUPP7	284	4.61	1.33	58.34	0.00	4.45	4.76
ORGSUPP8	284	5.05	1.30	65.66	0.00	4.90	5.20
ORGSUPP9	284	4.11	1.42	48.73	0.00	3.95	4.28
ORGNSUPP	284	4.71	1.07	74.56	0.00	4.59	4.84

4-3-4 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Training

The training measurement for mean, standard deviation and t-tests are presented in Table 4.6. The training measurement TRAIN2, "I do not have enough training to do my job well" and TRAIN5, "Although there is training, I do not get the skills required", were reversed scored, hence, they were recoded before the above analysis was performed. The results show a relatively high mean; as such, scores suggest that the respondents are generally favourable to training provided by their respective firms. TRAINA depicts the average of the 5 items (mean = 5.23, standard deviation = 1.06).

Table 4.6 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Training

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
TRAIN1	284	4.72	1.54	51.62	0.00	4.54	4.90
TRAIN2	284	5.19	1.54	56.84	0.00	5.01	5.37
TRAIN3	284	5.54	1.00	93.67	0.00	5.42	5.65
TRAIN4	284	5.37	1.05	86.18	0.00	5.25	5.50
TRAIN5	284	5.34	1.31	68.54	0.00	5.18	5.49
TRAINA	284	5.23	1.06	82.91	0.00	5.11	5.35

4-3-5 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test for Reward

The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for reward measurement are depicted in Table 4.7. With the exception to REWARDS3, all scores show an average score (marginally above mid level score of 4.0). For REWARDS3, respondents were asked "The firm uses incentives and bonus pay as the major means for motivating me". The mean score registered is marginally below average at 3.70 which suggests that incentives and bonus pay is not generally practised by firms to motivate the respondents in this sample. REWARDSA depicts the average score for rewards construct (mean = 4.23, standard deviation = 1.31).

Table 4.7 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Reward Measurement

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
REWARDS1	284	4.49	1.64	45.98	0.00	4.29	4.68
REWARDS2	284	4.18	1.67	42.11	0.00	3.98	4.37
REWARDS3	284	3.70	1.93	32.29	0.00	3.48	3.93
REWARDS4	284	4.55	1.56	49.26	0.00	4.36	4.73
REWARDSA	284	4.23	1.31	54.35	0.00	4.07	4.38

4-3-6 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Information Sharing

The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for information sharing measurement is shown in Table 4.8. INFORMA1 and INFORMA2 are negative statements and as such, were reversed scored. Mean scores were above average with exception to INFORMA3, in which respondents were asked "Communications in this organisation is really good", registered a marginally below average value of 3.94. Average scores are indicated by INFORMA (mean = 4.35, standard deviation = 1.25).

Table 4.8 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Information Sharing

Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
INFORMA1	284	4.79	1.60	50.42	0.00	4.60	4.97
INFORMA2	284	4.32	1.56	46.59	0.00	4.14	4.51
INFORMA3	284	3.94	1.50	44.16	0.00	3.76	4.12
INFORMA	284	4.35	1.25	58.82	0.00	4.20	4.50

4-3-7 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Leadership Trust

The leadership trust scale measures the amount of trust and support from his/her immediate superior an employee perceives. The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for leadership trust scale is shown in Table 4.9. The mean scores for the leadership trust measures in particular TRUST1, TRUST2 and TRUST3 are above the mid level of 4.0, suggesting a high level of leadership trust among respondents. The scores for TRUST4 and TRUST5 however, registered a low mean score of 3.63, and 3.29 respectively. TRUST4 statement asks "We both feel a sense of loss if we could no longer work together". TRUST5 statement asks "My supervisor and I have made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship". This suggests the opinions of respondents on these two scales are mixed. TRUSTA shows the averages for the scores (mean = 4.52, standard deviation = 1.19). Overall, the leadership trust scales is marginally above the average score.

Table 4.9 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Leadership Trust

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
TRUST1	284	5.15	1.41	61.36	0.00	4.98	5.31
TRUST2	284	5.09	1.48	57.89	0.00	4.92	5.26
TRUST3	284	5.06	1.43	59.87	0.00	4.90	5.23
TRUST4	284	3.63	1.64	37.24	0.00	3.44	3.82
TRUST5	284	3.29	1.56	35.51	0.00	3.11	3.47
TRUSTA	284	4.52	1.19	64.07	0.00	4.38	4.66

4-3-8 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Role Conflict

Role conflict statements ask the extent to which the respondents work responsibilities, conflict with their training and capabilities. The higher the role conflict with their capabilities and training, the higher would be the scores (i.e. the higher the role conflict). The statement for ROLECON1, "I get enough time to complete my work" and ROLECON5, "I receive assignments that are within my training and capability", were reversed scored statements and as such, were recoded. The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for role conflict scale is shown in Table 4.10. The role conflict scales for the sample data show a mix result with the exception to ROLECON5, which suggests they do received adequate training (mean = 2.38) and ROLECON7 "I have to deal with or satisfy too many people in the firm" (mean 2.58) which suggest respondents do not have to deal with or satisfy many people in their organisation. The average scores are indicated by ROLECONA (mean = 3.71, standard deviation = 0.70), is below average.

Table 4.10 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Role Conflict

					Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	(2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
ROLECON1	284	4.06	1.56	43.82	0.00	3.88	4.24
ROLECON2	284	3.77	1.42	44.92	0.00	3.61	3.94
ROLECON3	284	4.85	1.40	58.45	0.00	4.69	5.02
ROLECON4	284	4.78	1.46	54.98	0.00	4.61	4.95
ROLECON5	284	2.38	1.09	36.72	0.00	2.25	2.50
ROLECON6	284	3.01	1.66	30.68	0.00	2.82	3.21
ROLECON7	284	2.58	1.45	30.04	0.00	2.41	2.75
ROLECON8	284	4.24	1.61	44.29	0.00	4.05	4.42
ROLECONA	284	3.71	0.70	89.07	0.00	3.63	3.79

4-3-9 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Role Ambiguity

The role ambiguity scale measures the extent of an employee's uncertainty with regards to his or her authority or responsibilities. The results indicate that the higher the score, the lower the perceptions of role ambiguity in the sample. The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for role ambiguity is shown in Table 4.11. ROLEAMB3 and ROLEAMB8 were negative statements as such, were reversed scored. All scale items in the sample data indicate a mean below 4.0, suggesting that the most respondents find their work roles to be low on role ambiguity. Average scores are indicated by ROLEAMBA (mean = 3.24, standard deviation = 1.08).

Table 4.11 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Role Ambiguity

Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
ROLEAMB1	284	3.14	1.56	33.99	0.00	2.96	3.32
ROLEAMB2	284	3.09	1.58	32.93	0.00	2.90	3.27
ROLEAMB3	284	3.21	1.46	36.92	0.00	3.04	3.38
ROLEAMB4	284	2.38	1.13	35.56	0.00	2.25	2.52
ROLEAMB5	284	3.71	1.72	36.34	0.00	3.51	3.91
ROLEAMB6	284	3.00	1.36	37.23	0.00	2.84	3.16
ROLEAMB7	284	3.50	1.58	37.46	0.00	3.32	3.69
ROLEAMB8	284	3.87	1.66	39.22	0.00	3.67	4.06
ROLEAMBA	284	3.24	1.08	50.50	0.00	3.11	3.36

4-3-10 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Psychological Empowerment

The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for the individual variables of psychological empowerment measurement are shown in Table 4.12. All the four psychological empowerment dimensions show high mean levels (above 5.0) with an exception to impact (Mean = 4.94, SD = 1.39). This is rather encouraging and reflects middle and senior managers in the sample have high levels of psychological empowerment. Of interest are their scores for competence and self-determination. Note COMPET1 and COMPET2, and DETERM3 where none of the respondents rated themselves lower than 2 (the range does not go below 2 from a range of (1) Strongly Disagree to (7) Strongly Agree. Also the peak in standard deviation for competence scales is narrow, suggesting the respondents perceive themselves to be highly competent. This suggests that the respondents are perceived as very determined as well as self-assured and feel that they are competent managers. They also feel their work is meaningful. The results support Baruch and Peiperl's (2000) findings which similarly suggest that MBA graduates display higher self-confidence, self-esteem and self-efficacy. However, because the ratings are self reporting, there is then a tendency to report one's competence and self-determination highly; however, the overall scores for psychological empowerment do reflect high levels of empowerment. MEANA (mean = 5.45, standard deviation = 1.13), DETERMA (mean = 5.55, standard deviation = 1.07), COMPETA (mean = 5.94, standard deviation = 0.75) and IMPACTA (mean = 4.94, standard deviation = 1.39) shows the

average for meaning, self-determination, competence and impact constructs respectively. TOTALEMP (mean = 5.47, standard deviation = 0.80) is the average of all 12 items of the psychological empowerment construct. The mean results are somewhat similar with Spreitzer *et al.* (1997) which also displayed high mean values ranging from 5.60 to 5.99.

Table 4.12 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Psychological Empowerment

					Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	(2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
MEAN1	284	5.57	1.13	82.75	0.00	5.43	5.70
MEAN2	284	5.34	1.26	71.40	0.00	5.19	5.49
MEAN3	284	5.45	1.19	77.00	0.00	5.31	5.59
MEANA	284	5.45	1.13	81.07	0.00	5.32	5.58
DETERM1	284	5.54	1.17	79.45	0.00	5.40	5.68
DETERM2	284	5.64	1.10	86.05	0.00	5.51	5.77
DETERM3	284	5.48	1.22	75.71	0.00	5.34	5.62
DETERMA	284	5.55	1.07	87.10	0.00	5.43	5.68
IMPACT1	284	5.20	1.42	61.89	0.00	5.04	5.37
IMPACT2	284	4.77	1.55	52.00	0.00	4.59	4.96
IMPACT3	284	4.86	1.58	51.92	0.00	4.67	5.04
IMPACTA	284	4.94	1.39	59.77	0.00	4.78	5.11
COMPET1	284	6.07	0.77	133.07	0.00	5.98	6.16
COMPET2	284	5.96	0.84	119.33	0.00	5.86	6.06
COMPET3	284	5.77	0.96	101.44	0.00	5.66	5.88
COMPETA	284	5.94	0.75	132.64	0.00	5.85	6.02
TOTALEMP	284	5.47	0.80	115.69	0.00	5.38	5.56

4-3-11 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Organisational Commitment

The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for organisational commitment is shown in Table 4.13. With the exception to ORGCOMM4 statement (mean = 2.90, standard deviation = 1.56), "I would accept any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this firm", all other organisational commitment statements have a high mean score which suggests the respondents organisational commitment is high. ORGNCOMA indicates the average score (mean = 5.18, standard deviation = 1.19).

Table 4.13 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Organisational Commitment

Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
ORGCOMM1	284	5.60	1.41	67.11	0.00	5.44	5.77
ORGCOMM2	284	5.63	1.34	70.61	0.00	5.47	5.78
ORGCOMM3	284	4.47	1.51	49.81	0.00	4.29	4.64
ORGCOMM4	284	2.90	1.56	31.29	0.00	2.72	3.08
ORGCOMM5	284	4.88	1.50	54.69	0.00	4.70	5.06
ORGCOMM6	284	5.32	1.38	65.04	0.00	5.16	5.48
ORGNCOMA	284	5.18	1.19	73.47	0.00	5.04	5.32

4-3-12 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Job Satisfaction

The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for job satisfaction are shown in Table 4.14. The statements for job satisfaction suggest that the higher the score, the more the respondents perceive to be satisfied with their jobs. The values for the six item job satisfaction in the sample range from 2.62 to 4.90 which suggest a mixed result. Items JOBSAT1, JOBSAT2 and JOBSAT3 suggest low job satisfaction among the respondents despite being highly paid, empowered and committed managers. JOBSAT4, JOBSAT5 and JOBSAT6 suggest that the respondents are satisfied with their jobs as the mean for the three items are above the mid-point level of 4.0. JOBSATA shows the average of the six items (mean = 3.97, standard deviation = 1.11).

Table 4.14 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Job Satisfaction Scale

Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
JOBSAT1	284	3.59	1.61	37.57	0.00	3.40	3.78
JOBSAT2	284	3.43	1.48	39.16	0.00	3.26	3.61
JOBSAT3	284	2.62	1.57	28.13	0.00	2.44	2.80
JOBSAT4	284	4.42	1.54	48.29	0.00	4.24	4.60
JOBSAT5	284	4.85	1.29	63.46	0.00	4.70	5.00
JOBSAT6	284	4.90	1.46	56.39	0.00	4.73	5.07
JOBSATA	284	3.97	1.11	60.40	0.00	3.84	4.10

4-3-13 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Turnover Intentions

The mean, standard deviation and t-tests for turnover intention are shown in Table 4.15. All turnover items registered a mean score below the mid-point 4.0 ranging from 3.45 to 3.73. TURNOVA is below average (mean = 3.62, standard deviation = 1.83).

Table 4.15 Mean, Standard Deviation and t-tests for Turnover Intention Scale

					Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	(2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
TURNOV1	284	3.73	1.99	31.57	0.00	3.50	3.97
TURNOV2	284	3.45	1.94	29.87	0.00	3.22	3.67
TURNOV3	284	3.69	2.03	30.65	0.00	3.45	3.93
TURNOVA	284	3.62	1.83	33.41	0.00	3.41	3.84

4-4 Mean by Gender, Sector, Age, Job Level and Tenure

Table 4.16 presents the mean for gender, sector, age, job level and tenure for the measurements employed for this study. Significant results are reported. With regards to organicity, the mean for private sector (mean = 4.42) and public sector (mean = 4.05) suggests that private sector is more organic than public sector enterprises. The mean by gender suggests male's perceived organicity marginally higher than females suggesting males find their workplace more organic than their female counterparts. The results also suggests that older employees (age 51 and above) find their workplace more organic compared to their younger colleagues. As for job level, the mean results show a corresponding increase in organicity as job levels progresses from junior to top management. There is a marked increase in top level perceptions of organicity (mean = 4.85) compared to junior level employees (mean = 4.17). The mean for tenure is highest for employees having been in the organisation for 5 – 9 years (mean = 4.50).

As for centralisation, the mean by gender show males (mean = 2.76) perceive centralisation to be higher than females (mean = 2.54). The mean by job level for the centralisation measurement ranges from 2.92 for junior level and 2.12 for top level employees suggesting a marked difference. The mean by tenure suggests some minor differences: 1 -2 years = 2.81, 10 years and above = 2.67. Employees serving between 5 to 9 years display the least centralisation (mean = 2.40). Overall the

results suggest the respondents in the sample perceive low centralisation in the organisations they worked in. Respondents in higher job levels and longer tenure perceive lower centralisation compared to those in lower job levels and shorter tenure.

As for rewards, the mean for sector suggests a significant difference between public sector (mean = 3.60) and private sector (mean = 4.32), indicating that private sector respondents obtain significantly higher level of rewards compared to public sector. As for job level, junior level respondents perceive rewards less favourably compared to higher management respondents.

Information sharing by age group suggest age group 51 years and above (mean = 4.57) have the highest perceptions of information sharing followed by age group 31 – 40 years of age (mean = 4.34). Age group 41 – 50 years of age registered the lowest scores (mean = 4.24). Job levels registered marked results for mean, ranging from 3.89 to 4.98. Junior and middle positions (mean = 4.00 and 3.89 respectively) displayed lowest scores followed by middle management (mean = 4.56 and top management (mean = 4.98). The mean for tenure also suggests marked incremental results ranging from 4.17 for respondents having 1 – 2 years tenure to 4.73 for those working in the same firm for 10 years or more.

The mean for organisational support suggests above average results with the age group 31 – 40 reporting the highest mean (4.82) followed by 51 years and above at 4.79. Age group 41 – 50 registered a mean of 4.59. Higher mean scores are recorded for senior and top level positions (mean = 4.86 and 5.22 respectively) compared to junior and middle level positions (mean = 4.51 and 4.46 respectively). As for tenure, respondents having tenure of 1 – 2 years reported the highest mean (4.63), which suggests that shorter tenured employees feel they get more support than longer tenured employees. This perhaps does not come as a surprise as generally organisations do spend more effort supporting employees with training and familiarisation programmes during their initial induction period. Overall, the results point to the fact that most respondents view positively their organisation's supportive efforts with job level and tenure displaying high differences in mean.

As for leadership trust, the mean by sector indicate that public sector (mean = 4.72) have a higher perceived leadership trust compared to private sector (mean = 4.49). For age group, older respondents (51 and above) recorded higher mean scores

(4.63) compared to those age between 31- 40 (mean = 4.57) and 41 – 50 (mean = 4.43). This suggests that older employees have a more trusting behaviour with their managers compared to their younger counterparts. The trend is similar with job level with respondents in top management levels displaying higher trusting behaviours (mean = 5.06) compared to junior (mean = 4.51), middle and senior (mean = 4.45) level positions. The number of years or job tenure also suggests that respondents with longer job tenure (mean = 4.83 for respondents with a tenure of 10 years or more) displaying more trusting behaviours compared to shorter tenured respondents (mean = 4.35 and 4.49 respectively for middle and junior respondents). Overall the leadership trust measurement suggests that higher level management and longer tenured employees display a more trusting behaviour compared to lower management employees.

The mean for role conflict is described next. For age group, respondents aged 51 and above perceived role conflict to be lower (mean = 3.64) than those aged ranged 31 - 40 (mean = 3.95) and 41 – 50 (mean = 4.04). The trend is similarly reported for job levels and tenure with higher management respondents: top level positions (mean = 3.58), senior level (mean = 3.85), middle level (mean = 4.12), and junior positions (mean = 3.91). The finding suggests that higher level positions perceive lower role conflict compared to lower level respondents. Higher level positions, because they have more decision making and control over their work is perceived to be less impacted by role conflict. Similarly, longer tenured employees perceive less role conflict as they are more experienced and familiar with the firms they worked for as suggested by the results: tenure 1 – 2 years (mean = 3.93), 10 years and above (mean = 3.74).

The mean for role ambiguity indicate that female (mean = 3.14) respondents perceive lower role ambiguity than males (mean = 3.26). As for age, the results display that those from 51 and above group reported the least role ambiguity (mean = 2.98). The mean for sector suggests lower perceived role ambiguity among public sector respondents (mean = 2.96) compared to private sector (mean = 3.28). The age group between 31 – 40 and 41 to 50 show a mean of 3.17 and 3.43 respectively. Role ambiguity for job level suggests that higher job levels correlate with lower perceptions of role ambiguity whilst lower job levels have higher role ambiguity.

The result is similarly indicated for tenure; respondents with longer job tenure show less role ambiguity compared to shorter tenured respondents.

Next the mean for meaning measurement of the psychological empowerment construct is discussed. The mean for gender show negligible difference. The mean for public sector (mean = 5.80) is significantly higher than private sector (mean = 5.42) suggesting public sector respondents perceived their work is more meaningful compared to their counterparts in private sector. The mean for age grouping also show marked differences. There is a progressive increase in the mean for meaning measurement as age progresses: for age group 31 – 40 the mean is 5.19, the mean for age 41 – 50 is 5.47 and those above 51 years of age, the mean is 5.77. Furthermore, job level and tenure similarly correlated with perceived meaning measurement. Lower management job levels displayed lower mean (junior = 4.81, middle = 5.20) whilst senior and top management displayed the highest (mean = 5.72 and 6.06 respectively). Long tenured respondents also report high mean (10 years and above = 5.82).

As for competence measurement, males (mean = 5.97) reported higher mean than females (mean = 5.78). Private sector respondents (mean = 5.96) indicate a higher mean than public sector (mean = 5.84) suggesting private sector respondents perceive higher levels of competence. Age and job level mean results displayed a similar trend with the meaning measurement; competence measurement show an increase when age and job level increase. Tenure, however, did not display similar correlations.

Self-determination variable show that female (mean = 5.71) respondents feel more self-determined than males (mean = 5.52). Private sector respondents displayed a marginally higher mean (5.55) compared to public sector (mean = 5.41). The self-determination measurement displayed similar trend as meaning and competence measurements for age and job level; i.e. self-determination increases as age and job level increases.

As for impact variable, the results suggests that male (mean = 4.96) respondents recorded higher mean than females (mean = 4.88). The highest mean score is for age group 51 years and above (mean = 5.10) suggesting this age group perceive they impact highly on their organisations; for age 31 – 40, the mean is 4.92 and age 41 – 50 is 4.87. Not surprisingly the mean for job level also suggest that

the higher the job level, the higher the respondents feel they impact on their organisations. Tenure also correlated highly with the impact dimension as longer tenure show higher mean as suggested by the scores: 1 – 2 years = 4.99, 3 – 4 years = 4.74, 5 – 9 years = 4.94 and 10 years and above = 5.30.

For organisational commitment, female (mean = 5.25) respondents indicated marginally higher organisational commitment than male respondents (mean = 5.16). The mean by sector indicate a marginal difference between public sector respondents (mean = 4.89) compared to private sector respondents (mean = 4.78) suggesting public employees perceived a higher level of organisational commitment. As for age group, respondents from age group 41 – 50 suggest less organisational commitment compared to 31 – 40 (mean = 5.24) and 51 and above (mean = 5.31). Organisational support displaying a corresponding increase in different job level group: junior management level (mean = 4.70), middle management (mean = 4.89, senior positions (mean = 5.43) and top management (mean = 5.85). As for tenure, respondents in the 5 – 9 years displayed the highest organisational commitment (mean = 5.65) suggesting that long tenured respondents have higher perceptions of commitment.

Turning to job satisfaction, the results also indicate public sector respondents (mean = 4.06) perceived marginally higher job satisfaction compared to their private sector counterparts (mean = 3.99). The results also indicate that lower age group indicate lower mean scores whilst higher age group recorded higher job satisfaction: age group 31 – 40 (mean = 3.79), 41 – 50 (mean = 3.92) and 51 and above (mean = 4.26). Job levels similarly corresponded with job satisfaction: higher job levels displaying higher job satisfaction (senior and top level management recorded a mean score of 4.15 and 5.00 respectively), whilst lower job levels suggest lower job satisfaction (junior and middle job levels recorded a mean score of 3.56 and 3.54 respectively). Tenure indicated marginal increases in job satisfaction as job tenure increases ranging from 3.91 for 1 – 2 years tenure and 4.28 for 10 years or more.

Lastly turnover intention measurement is discussed. Public sector respondents (mean = 3.37) show a lower turnover intention compared to private sector (mean = 3.61). Different age grouping similarly suggest marked difference: age 31 – 40 (mean 3.99), 41 – 50 (mean = 4.25) and 51 and above (mean = 5.09) which indicates that older respondents are more likely to want to leave the firm as compared to the

younger age groups. Job level similarly suggest that top level respondents indicate the highest feelings of wanting to quit (mean = 5.36) whilst lower job levels reporting lower mean (3.90, 4.18 and 4.33 for junior, middle and senior levels respectively).

Overall, with respect to the debate with regards to the convergence-divergence in HR practices (see for example, Pudelko, 2005), the UK sample for this study comprising of mainly middle and senior managers of a business school appear to show a convergence rather than divergence with US studies, in particular with psychological empowerment and work outcome constructs, however, a more thorough investigation would reveal a more robust explanation.

Table 4.16 Mean by Gender, Sector, Age, Job Level and Tenure for Individual Measurements																
		Gender		Sector		Age			Job Level				No. of Years (Tenure			
Variable		Male	Female	Public	Private	31 - 40	41 - 50	above 50	Junior	Middle	Senior	Top	1 - 2	3 - 4	5 - 9	Above 10
N = 284	Total	236	48	51	233	90	115	76	46	91	111	36	123	80	51	30
Organicity	Mean	4.38	4.23	4.05	4.42	4.38	4.28	4.47	4.17	4.23	4.34	4.85	4.28	4.39	4.50	4.34
Centralisation	Mean	2.76	2.54	2.73	2.72	2.84	2.64	2.69	2.92	2.93	2.66	2.12	2.81	2.81	2.40	2.67
Training	Mean	5.23	5.24	5.32	5.23	5.24	5.17	5.35	5.14	4.97	5.34	5.60	5.10	5.24	5.37	5.51
Reward	Mean	4.23	4.21	3.60	4.32	4.49	4.08	4.18	3.98	4.20	4.40	4.20	4.15	4.30	4.37	4.12
Information Sharing	Mean	4.36	4.31	4.32	4.33	4.34	4.24	4.57	4.00	3.89	4.56	4.98	4.17	4.30	4.64	4.73
Organisational Support	Mean	4.72	4.67	4.66	4.76	4.82	4.59	4.79	4.51	4.46	4.86	5.22	4.63	4.39	4.50	4.34
Leadership Trust	Mean	4.51	4.57	4.72	4.49	4.57	4.43	4.63	4.51	4.45	4.45	5.06	4.49	4.35	4.69	4.83
Role Conflict	Mean	3.90	3.83	3.90	3.89	4.04	3.95	3.64	3.91	4.12	3.85	3.58	3.93	4.04	3.70	3.74
Role Ambiguity	Mean	3.26	3.14	2.96	3.28	3.17	3.43	2.98	3.39	3.51	3.06	2.92	3.32	3.26	3.14	2.98
Meaning	Mean	5.45	5.44	5.80	5.42	5.19	5.47	5.77	4.81	5.20	5.72	6.06	5.40	5.41	5.43	5.82
Self-Determination	Mean	5.52	5.71	5.41	5.55	5.38	5.58	5.70	5.30	5.27	5.63	6.24	5.56	5.34	5.69	5.84
Impact	Mean	4.96	4.88	4.95	4.94	4.92	4.87	5.10	3.76	4.50	5.48	6.03	4.99	4.74	4.94	5.30
Competence	Mean	5.97	5.78	5.84	5.96	5.84	5.93	6.04	5.63	5.79	6.09	6.06	5.91	5.90	6.03	5.96
Total Empowerment	Mean	5.47	5.45	5.50	5.47	5.33	5.46	5.65	4.88	5.19	5.73	6.10	5.47	5.35	5.52	5.73
Organisational Commitment	Mean	5.16	5.25	5.89	4.78	5.24	5.04	5.31	4.70	4.89	5.43	5.85	5.03	5.08	5.65	5.28
Job Satisfaction	Mean	3.96	3.99	4.06	3.99	3.79	3.92	4.26	3.56	3.54	4.15	5.00	3.91	3.84	4.12	4.28
Turnover Intentions	Mean	3.55	3.63	3.37	3.61	3.93	3.74	2.95	3.56	3.81	3.71	2.47	3.70	3.80	3.33	3.04

4-5 Summary of Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Analysis

The variables organisational support, centralisation, training, leadership trust and role ambiguity all show above average mean (above the mid-point of 4). The organicity, rewards, information sharing, role conflict and turnover intentions measurements show average mean. The mean for organisational commitment (average mean = 5.18 above mid point 0f 4) suggesting above average commitment towards their organisations. Job Satisfaction however, produced a low mean (average mean = 3.21 below mid-point of 4). Turnover intention shows an average mean (average mean 3.62 below mid-point of 4). The average scores for psychological empowerment measurements were higher than the mid-point of 4 suggesting high perceptions of empowerment.

Gender display little differences with exception to role ambiguity which suggests that female respondents felt marginally lower role ambiguity (male = 3.26, female = 3.14; low values suggest lower role ambiguity). As for psychological empowerment construct, male respondents suggest marginally higher competence (male = 5.97, female = 5.78), and impact (male = 4.96, female = 4.88). Interestingly, females display higher self-determination (male = 5.52, female = 5.71). As for outcomes, females suggest slightly higher organisational commitment (male = 5.16, female = 5.25) and turnover intention (male = 3.55, female = 3.63).

With regard to public and private sector, public sector reflects lower organicity and rewards compared to private sector: organicity (private = 4.42, public = 4.05), rewards (private = 4.32, public = 3.60). Whilst leadership trust (public = 4.72, private = 4.49) and role ambiguity (public = 5.04, private = 4.72) suggests higher in public sector. Psychological empowerment displayed little difference between public and private sectors. Marginal difference is also displayed for organisational commitment and job satisfaction, however, turnover intention showed private sector respondents having higher intention to leave (private = 3.61, public = 3.37). Marginal differences are also detected in age, job level and tenure especially with the various constructs. Overall, the initial analysis of mean, standard deviation and t-tests of the sample data is not unusual and not unexpected. The next stage is to perform EFA and validity tests on the sample data for individual constructs to examine unidimensionality followed by alpha reliabilities.

4-6 Exploratory Factor Analysis

EFA is used primarily to establish the underlying factor structure of a set of data or after we have obtained measures on a number of constructs and needs to identify the number and nature of the underlying factors. It is as such, a method to examine the inter-relationship among the items of a scale that are used to justify their grouping as a factor (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Froman, 2001). EFA also helps to reduce the number of items per construct which subsequently helps to decrease multi-colinearity or error variance correlations among indicators when performing CFA in the next stage of analysis. Bollen (1989) recommends that such errors should be avoided as much as possible.

Another reason for conducting EFA is to examine unidimensionality. The use of reliability measures, such as Cronbach alpha, does not guarantee unidimensionality. As such, unidimensionality should be assessed for all constructs before assessing their reliability (Froman, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 1998). 'A Priori Criterion' (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Kline, 1998) was employed to explain how many factors are to be extracted. It simply suggests that, the researcher already knows based on previous theoretical knowledge how many factors are to be extracted. As presented in the proposed hypothesised model, 16 constructs (including 4 separate dimensions for psychological empowerment construct) were initially proposed. Hence, 16 factors are expected to be extracted from EFA analysis. The initial EFA involves inspecting individual construct on its own to examine the interrelationships among items of a scale. The interrelationships are then employed to reveal the clusters of items that have adequate common variation to justify their grouping as a factor (Froman, 2001). As recommended by Hair *et al.* (1998) the extraction method employed was principal component factor, a cut point of 0.4, no significant cross loading criteria and the extracted factors were also subjected to Varimax rotation. According to Hair *et al.* (1998), rotation of factors improves interpretation by reducing ambiguities and hence theoretically achieves a more meaningful factor solution.

4-6-1 EFA for Individual Variables

Table 4.17 shows summary for the individual rotated component matrix of all the variables employed for this study. With regard to the 8 item Organicity construct, three separate components were extracted from the initial analysis. ORGANIC5, ORGANIC6, ORGANIC7 and ORGANIC8 converge as the first component, ORGANIC1, ORGANIC2 and ORGANIC4 converge into a second component whilst ORGANIC2, ORGANIC3 converge as a third component. ORGANIC2 and ORGANIC4 appear to be highly cross-loaded with other components. Because ORGANIC5, ORGANIC6, ORGANIC7 and ORGANIC8 successfully converge as a single component, the items were retained for further analysis. The four retained items still manages to capture Khandawalla's (1977) main organicity measures, i.e. flexible and adaptable work environment (ORGANIC5 and ORGANIC8) and informal work climate (ORGANIC6 and ORGANIC7). Sul and Khan (2006) also reported problems with the organicity scales and had to drop 5 items from the original measures in order to improve reliabilities of the scales. Furthermore, the factor analysis results concur favourably with Burgers (2007) which employed similar items in his study. The total variance extracted for the four retained items was 59.6%.

As for the 5 item Centralisation construct, all items converge as a single component with factor loadings above 0.40, as such all items were retained. The total variance extracted for the retained items was 70.4%. A single component was extracted from the 9 item Organisational Support variable. All the items had factor loadings above 0.40, hence all items were accepted. The total variance extracted for the nine item organisational support was 54.8%.

The 4 item Reward construct also converge as a single component, as such all items were retained. The total variance extracted for reward variable was 60.3%. Similar results were obtained with the 5 item Training construct. All Training items converge as a single component, as such all items were retained. The total variance extracted for the five item variable was 66.9%. Information Sharing construct converge as a single component, as such all items were retained. The total variance extracted for the three item variable was 64.6%. The 5 item leadership trust construct. All items converge as a single component, as such all items were retained. The total variance extracted for the all items was 70.7%.

The EFA of the initial 8 item Role Conflict construct suggests 3 separate components: ROLECON1, ROLECON5, ROLECON6 and ROLECON7 converge as separate components. In their study, Rizzo *et al.* (1970) found weak factor loadings ROLECON1, ROLECON5 and ROLECON7 (Factor loadings were below 0.30) and as such were dropped. As such, ROLECON2, ROLECON3, ROLECON4 and ROLECON8 were accepted for further analysis whilst the rest were dropped due to poor loadings. These four accepted items is defined by Rizzo *et al.* (1970) to encompass conflict between the focal person's internal value (ROLECON2 and ROLECON8), while ROLECON3 suggests conflicting expectations in the form of incompatible policies while ROLECON4 suggest conflict between resources and capabilities of the focal person. Thus dropping the said items did not pose any problems to the Role Conflict measures as the retained items still provide strong measures for Role Conflict. The total variance extracted for the retained items was 56.7%. As for Role Ambiguity, all 8 items had factor loadings above 0.40 and converge as a single component; hence they were retained for further analysis. The total variance extracted for all the items was 64.9%.

As expected, 4 components were extracted with the items loading on their respective construct for the 12 item Psychological Empowerment construct. All the items also had factor loadings of above 0.40. The total variance extracted for the individual variables were: Meaning (89.4%), Self-Determination (84.5%), Impact (86.1%) and Competence (79.3%).

As for the 6 item Job Satisfaction construct, 2 distinct components were extracted in the initial Varimax rotation. JOBSAT1, JOBSAT2 and JOBSAT3 loaded as one component whilst JOBSAT4, JOBSAT5 and JOBSAT6 loaded as a separate component. De Carlo *et al.* (1999) employed a 3 scale job satisfaction measure consisting of JOBSAT1, JOBSAT2 and JOBSAT3 and found good reliability and construct validity. The three items are said to tap into the constructs identified by Porter and Lawler (1968) as important to job satisfaction: personal growth and development, self-fulfillment, and accomplishment. Furthermore, better factor loadings were obtained from JOBSAT1, JOBSAT2 and JOBSAT3 compared to JOBSAT4, JOBSAT5 and JOBSAT6, hence, JOBSAT1, JOBSAT2 and JOBSAT3 was retained for further analysis. The final factor loadings are indicated in bold. The total variance extracted for the three retained items was 79%. All 3 items of Turnover

Intentions had factor loadings above 0.40 and converge as a single component, as such all items were retained. The final factor loadings are indicated in bold. The total variance extracted for the three turnover intention variable was 84.5%.

Lastly, all 6 items Organisational Commitment construct with exception to ORGCOMM4 converge as a single component as such; ORGCOMM4 was dropped from further analysis. ORGCOMM4 asks if the respondent would accept any type of job assignment in order to keep working for the firm. The statement is perhaps not suited in today's dynamic work environment, resulting in low mean (mean = 2.90) and poor factor loading. Baruch, (1998b) for example is critical of organisational commitment measures and argues the need to reassess this measurement. The remaining 5 retained items tap into the constructs identified by Porter *et al.* (1974) as important to organisational commitment. Furthermore, the items are also identified by Allen and Meyer (1990) to represent affective commitment in their multi-dimensional organisational commitment construct. All retained items had factor loadings above 0.40 as indicated in the table. The total variance extracted for the five retained items was 73.4%.

Table 4.17 EFA for Final Items Selected for Individual Measures

Items	Loading
Organicity Items	
ORGANIC5	0.76
ORGANIC6	0.82
ORGANIC7	0.78
ORGANIC8	0.73
Centralisation Items	
CENTRAL1	0.78
CENTRAL2	0.79
CENTRAL3	0.86
CENTRAL4	0.90
CENTRAL5	0.86
Organisational Support Items	
ORGSUPP1	0.65
ORGSUPP2	0.57
ORGSUPP3	0.65
ORGSUPP4	0.63
ORGSUPP5	0.84
ORGSUPP6	0.78
ORGSUPP7	0.85
ORGSUPP8	0.76
ORGSUPP9	0.85
Rewards Items	
REWARDS1	0.69
REWARDS2	0.90
REWARDS3	0.70
REWARDS4	0.79
Training Items	
TRAIN1	0.86
TRAIN2	0.86
TRAIN3	0.78
TRAIN4	0.83
TRAIN5	0.77
Information Sharing Items	
INFORMA1	0.86
INFORMA2	0.87
INFORMA3	0.67
Leadership Trust Items	
TRUST1	0.87
TRUST2	0.89
TRUST3	0.89
TRUST4	0.81
TRUST5	0.73

Items	Loading
Role Conflict Items	
ROLECON2	0.73
ROLECON3	0.80
ROLECON4	0.77
ROLECON8	0.72
Role Ambiguity Items	
ROLEAMB1	0.49
ROLEAMB2	0.82
ROLEAMB3	0.67
ROLEAMB4	0.77
ROLEAMB5	0.75
ROLEAMB6	0.84
ROLEAMB7	0.74
ROLEAMB8	0.66
Meaning Items	
MEAN1	0.90
MEAN2	0.93
MEAN3	0.91
Competence Items	
COMPET1	0.89
COMPET2	0.90
COMPET3	0.79
Self-Determination Items	
DETERM1	0.86
DETERM2	0.87
DETERM3	0.90
Impact Items	
IMPACT1	0.84
IMPACT2	0.88
IMPACT3	0.88
Job Satisfaction Items	
JOBSAT1	0.90
JOBSAT2	0.90
JOBSAT3	0.83
Turnover Intention Items	
TURNOV1	0.94
TURNOV2	0.85
TURNOV3	0.96
Organisational Commitment Items	
ORGCOMM1	0.83
ORGCOMM2	0.81
ORGCOMM3	0.80
ORGCOMM5	0.81
ORGCOMM6	0.91

4-7 Cronbach Alpha Reliability for Individual Constructs

Once EFA has been successfully conducted, Hair *et al.* (1998) suggest that Cronbach alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) be performed for all the items extracted to examine reliability. The closer the alpha is to 1.00, the greater the internal consistency of the items being assessed. Nunnally (1976) suggests that the minimum acceptable standard of internal consistency reliability is 0.70. The alpha values of the constructs are listed in Table 4.18. All values for the individual constructs are above the recommended reliability value of 0.70. The reliability of the total psychological empowerment (i.e. meaning, impact, self-determination and competence as a single construct) is 0.88. The alpha reliabilities of the constructs suggest that all the constructs are within the acceptable limits.

Table 4.18 Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for Items Extracted

Organicity	0.77
Centralisation	0.89
Rewards	0.77
Training	0.87
Information Sharing	0.72
Organisational Support	0.88
Leadership Trust	0.89
Role Conflict	0.74
Role Ambiguity	0.86
Competence	0.85
Self-Determination	0.91
Meaning	0.94
Impact	0.91
Job Satisfaction	0.85
Organisational Commitment	0.89
Turnover Intentions	0.91
Psychological Empowerment (4 constructs)	0.88

4-7-1 Summary of Individual EFA and Reliability Analysis of Variables

When a researcher is not able to measure a construct of interest directly, he or she is faced with problems concerning measurement errors. Measurement error is the degree to which the observed values are not representative of the true values (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Hugh *et al.* (1986) suggest two strategies to prevent these problems. First, by careful selection of items that captures the important characteristics of the construct. Secondly, an index should be formed by a combination of two or more items. Hence, each construct and its measurable items should be carefully examined

and selected for unidimensionality and reliability. Hair *et al.* (1998) and Froman (2001) suggest that EFA and reliability tests must first be carried out. Hence, the sample for this study was subjected to EFA to extract items that best describe each construct. EFA helps to identify the number and nature of the underlying factors and the inter-relationships among the items of a scale that are used to justify their grouping as a factor. EFA also helps to reduce the number of items per construct (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Froman, 2001) by extracting items that best supports each construct. Furthermore, the EFA results of individual constructs were compared with previous studies to ensure consistency. Cronbach's (1951) alpha reliability on the other hand, assesses the internal consistency of the construct is then conducted. As suggested in the analysis, all the 16 items displayed the unidimensionality and reliability. Apart from unidimensionality and reliability, evaluation of discriminant validity followed by convergent validity (see, Hair *et al.* 1998; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Garver and Mentzer, 1999) is crucial. Evaluation of discriminant and convergent validity is done by performing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) which requires the use of structural equation techniques (SEM).

4-8 Analysis of Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity of the scale refers to whether the item in one scale is distinguished from a construct on another construct. This is particularly important as constructs that are too highly correlated may be measuring the same construct rather than different constructs. To support discriminant validity, pair-wise analyses were performed by comparing the chi-square difference between constructs (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Shook *et al.*, 2004). The pair-wise analysis tests if a confirmatory factor analysis model representing the two variables with two different factors fit better the data batter than a single, one-factor model (Shook *et al.*, 2004). Significant difference in chi-square supports discriminant validity and the constructs are said to be distinct. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) propose that the test should be performed for one pair of factors at a time, rather than several constructs simultaneously. The reason for this is that non-significant value for one pair of factors can be obfuscated when tested with several pairs that have significant values. Examination of discriminant validity is performed by firstly constraining the correlation parameter between the two constructs to 1.0 for the first model and freely estimating the second model. In general, a significantly lower chi-square value for the unconstrained model

with the constrained model will support discriminate validity. To determine if the chi-square test is statistically significant, the difference in scores for the chi-square value and degrees of freedom is taken and compared to a chi-square table. The tests were performed for all possible pairs of constructs.

Factor loadings from confirmatory factor analysis were also examined to check for any cross-loadings among items. Cross-loaded items may cause discrepancy in analysis; hence, items found to cross-load were eliminated. The final results of the chi-square difference tests are tabled in Appendix II. All pair-wise tests displayed significant difference between them at $p = 0.00$ except between Organisational Support and Information Sharing constructs ($p = 0.01$) which is still suggests 99% confidence interval. As such all constructs are said to be distinct from each other and were accepted for further analysis.

Relatively low correlations between constructs also suggest the presence of discriminant validity. As a complementary test of discriminant validity, Garver and Mentzer (1999) also recommend investigating the correlations between constructs. Table 4.19 is the correlation matrix for all the constructs of the hypothesised model. Correlations for gender, job level, age and tenure were also examined. The correlation analysis of the sample also suggests support for discriminant validity as the values of the constructs being measured are not exceedingly high (Garson, 2005c; suggests a cut-off point of not more than $r = 0.85$). Bagozzi *et al.* (1991) and Froman, (2001) suggest that the absolute magnitudes of correlations between all pairs of constructs should be below the threshold valued of $r=0.90$. If the correlations are above .90 or equal to 1.0, Froman suggests that redundancy or singularity has probably been violated. The highest value in the matrix is between Organisational Support and Role Ambiguity at 0.61. Hence, all variables in the pair-wise chi-square test as well as correlation analysis suggest strong support for discriminant validity between constructs.

4-8-1 Correlations for Organicity and Centralisation

Because of the likeness in the scales of the two measurements employed for organisational structure i.e. organicity and centralisation, it is necessary to study the two scales in more detail for bipolar phenomenon. Centralisation variable seems to suggest an anti-organicity structure, i.e. an opposite of organicity, being a negative scored scale. Literature review suggests that organicity refers to the architecture of the organisation, and whether the organisation adopts a de-centralised architecture with fluid job responsibilities

and considerable lateral communications (Khandwalla, 1977). Centralisation on the other hand refers to an organisation that has its locus of decision making at or near top management resulting in a lack of freedom to make decisions at lower hierarchy to make important decisions (Aiken and Hage, 1966). If the two constructs are simply an opposite of each other (bipolar), the correlation analysis will suggest a value of -1.0 or close to -1.0 (Froman, 2001). This is not the case as correlation analysis (Table 4.16) suggests that the two constructs are different in nature as the correlation is moderate (-0.27). Furthermore, pair-wise CFA analysis on the two variables performed earlier (see section 4-8) also suggests that the constructs are distinct and both measure quite different but important aspects of organisational structure.

Table 4.19 Correlation Analysis for Sample

		Pearson Correlations																			
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	Organicity	1.00																			
2	Organisation Support	0.25**	1.00																		
3	Reward	0.23**	0.48**	1.00																	
4	Training	-0.04	0.26**	0.14*	1.00																
5	Information Sharing	0.06	0.47**	0.28**	0.42**	1.00															
6	Leadership Trust	0.15*	0.54**	0.28**	0.11	0.40**	1.00														
7	Centralisation	-0.27**	-0.45**	-0.24**	-0.19**	-0.31**	-0.31**	1.00													
8	Role Conflict	0.19**	0.51**	0.33**	0.31**	0.56**	0.35**	-0.41**	1.00												
9	Role Ambiguity	0.14*	0.61**	0.49**	0.35**	0.54**	0.53**	-0.33**	0.52**	1.00											
10	Organisational Commitment	0.22**	0.56**	0.34**	0.17**	0.39**	0.46**	-0.29**	0.32**	0.48**	1.00										
11	Meaning	0.19**	0.28**	0.14*	0.10	0.21**	0.21**	-0.14*	0.28**	0.31**	0.47**	1.00									
12	Competence	0.09	0.10	-0.03	0.41**	0.16**	0.06	-0.10	0.19**	0.20**	0.11	0.30**	1.00								
13	Self-Determination	0.36**	0.44**	0.18**	0.23**	0.32**	0.31**	-0.55**	0.36**	0.42**	0.33*	0.35**	0.36**	1.00							
14	Impact	0.26**	0.40**	0.26**	0.18**	0.28**	0.28**	-0.34**	0.26**	0.35**	0.45**	0.39**	0.31**	0.52**	1.00						
15	Job Satisfaction	0.18**	0.20**	0.22**	0.03	0.18**	0.18**	-0.13*	0.12*	0.20**	0.37**	0.40**	0.08	0.21**	0.25**	1.00					
16	Turnover Intention	-0.11	-0.45**	-0.33**	-0.15*	-0.35**	-0.33**	0.25**	-0.43**	-0.46**	-0.50**	-0.34**	-0.02	-0.23**	-0.19**	-0.25**	1.00				
17	GENDER	-0.04	-0.02	-0.03	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.05	0.06	0.02	0.00	-0.01	-0.09	0.07	-0.03	-0.02	0.01	1.00			
18	AGE	0.02	-0.01	-0.09	0.05	0.08	0.02	-0.04	0.15*	0.04	0.03	0.21**	0.09	0.12*	0.07	0.14*	-0.24**	-0.03	1.00		
19	JOBLEVEL	0.13*	0.19**	0.05	0.16**	0.26**	0.07	-0.17**	0.18**	0.12*	0.24**	0.27**	0.16**	0.24**	0.39**	0.27**	-0.18**	-0.03	0.29**	1.00	
20	NO.YEARS (TENURE)	0.02	0.13*	-0.02	0.13*	0.17**	0.10	-0.08	0.11	0.05	0.12*	0.08	0.04	0.07	0.04	0.07	-0.09	-0.10	0.26**	0.08	1.00

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

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

4-8-2 Items Retained for Further Analysis

The items retained after factor analysis, reliability and discriminant validity are presented in Table 4.20. Some items were deleted upon performing EFA and CFA pair-wise tests which may be due to low factor values (below 0.4) or the items cross-loaded items from other constructs (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Also as explained by Hatcher, (1994), the reliability of multiple-item scale can be improved by dropping from the measurement those items that have demonstrated poor item-loadings. Overall, all the retain items for each construct still manages to capture the essence of the measures proposed and also display good discriminant validity. The retained items also concur with previous studies as discussed in section 4-6-1. As such further analysis can now be conducted.

Table 4.20 List of Items Retained for Further Analysis

Organicity Items Retained (1,2,3,4 Deleted)

5. There is a strong emphasis on adapting freely to changing circumstances without too concerned for past practise.
6. There is a strong emphasis on getting things done even if it means disregarding formal procedures.
7. There is a loose, informal control; heavy dependence on informal relationships and norms of cooperation for getting work done.
8. There is a strong tendency to let the requirements of the situation and the individual's personalities define proper on-job behaviour.

Centralisation Items (All Items Retained)

1. There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.
2. A person who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged here.
3. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.
4. I have to ask my boss before I do almost anything.
5. Any decision I make has to have my boss approval.

Training Item Retained s (Items 4 Deleted)

1. I have more than enough training to do my job well.
2. I do not have enough training to do my job well (Reversed Scored).
3. I have enough training and experience to accomplish my assignments.
5. Although there is training, I don't get the skills required (Reversed Scored). .

Reward Items Retained (Item 1 Deleted)

2. The firm rewards me based on the quality of my work that I have done.
3. The firm uses incentives and bonus pay as a major means for motivating me.
4. In general, I am happy with the rewards offered by the firm.

Information Sharing Items (All Items Retained)

1. I have trouble getting the facts and information needed to do my job well.
2. Sometimes I am not provided with enough relevant information to do my job well.
3. In general, communication between the various departments and employees in this firm is really good.

Table 4.20 List of Items Retained for Further Analysis, continued.

Organisational Support Items Retained (Items 2,3,4 Deleted)

1. If asked, my firm would change my working conditions if at all possible.
5. My firm strongly considers my goals and values.
6. My firm values my contribution to the company.
7. My firm takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
8. My firm is willing to help me when I need a special favour.
9. My firm really cares about me.

Leadership Trust (All Items Retained)

1. My supervisor and I have a sharing relationship. We can freely share our ideas and feelings about the work I do.
2. I can freely talk to my supervisor about difficulties I am having at work and I know he or she will want to listen.
3. If I shared my problems with my supervisor, I know he or she would respond constructively and caringly.
4. We both feel a sense of loss if we could no longer work together.
5. My supervisor and I have made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship.

Role Conflict Items Retained (Items 1,5, 6 and 7 deleted)

2. I have to do things that should be done differently.
3. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines with my job description.
4. I do not get enough help and equipment to get the job done well.
8. I often work on unnecessary things.

Role Ambiguity Items Retained (Items 1,3, and 8 deleted)

2. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
4. I know what my responsibilities are.
5. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.
6. I know exactly what is expected of me.
7. I am told how well I am doing my job.

Psychological Empowerment Construct (All Items Retained)

Meaning Items
1. The work that I do is very important to me.
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
3. The work that I do is meaningful to me.
Competence Items
1. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
2. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
3. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.
Self-Determination Items
1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.
Impact Items
1. My impact on what happens in my department is large.
2. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
3. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.

Table 4.20 List of Items Retained for Further Analysis, continued.

Job Satisfaction Items Retained (Item 4,5,6 Deleted)

1. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.
2. The most important things that happen to me involve my job.
3. I live, eat and, breathe my job.

Turnover Intentions Items (All Items Retained)

1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon.
2. I often think of quitting.
3. I will probably look for a job in the near future.

Organisational Commitment Items Retained (Item 3 and 4 Deleted)

1. I really care about the fate of this firm.
2. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what normally is expected in order to help this firm be successful.
5. I am extremely glad that I chose this firm to work over others I was considering at the time I joined.
6. Overall, I am committed to this firm.

4-9 Examining Convergent Validity

Having established discriminant validity, the next step involves constructing a measurement model via structural equation modeling utilising items that have been validated earlier and perform confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to evaluate convergent validity. Convergent validity is the extent in which the construct correlates to the items designed to measure the construct. As explained earlier (see section 4-6-2), Fornell and Larcker (1981) consider a construct to indicate convergent validity if variance extracted is at least 50% based on results obtained from exploratory factor analysis. However, CFA is a more stringent method to test convergent validity and the procedure is widely used. A brief description on structural equation modeling and the analytical processes involved is apt at this stage to clarify some points.

4-9-1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) For Sample

Once the underlying structure of the set of data has been established, CFA is utilised to determine how well the obtained structure fits the data. This is also known as the measurement model in structural equation modeling (SEM). The SEM terminology for constructs is commonly known as variables; as such, the term variable will be used. SEM is a comprehensive statistical approach of testing relations between observed and latent variables. Observed variables are the individual items being measured, i.e. the scales in the questionnaire used to measure a construct, whilst latent variable is the

construct itself, i.e. organicity, organisational support, leadership trust, etc. SEM is sometimes called covariance structure analysis, causal modelling, LISREL, path analysis and many other things and is in the multivariate regression family of statistical techniques. It combines features of factor analysis and multiple regressions for studying both the measurement and the structural properties of theoretical models (Bollen 1989).

4-9-2 Specifying and Testing the Measurement Model

The purpose of the measurement model is to describe how well the observed indicators serve as a measurement instrument for the latent variables (Garver and Mentzer, 1999). The measurement model specifies how latent variables or hypothetical constructs depend upon the observed variables (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993). Specifying the measurement model consists of assigning scales items of each construct (for example, actual measurement items of each concept or construct from the questionnaire) to a specific latent variable (for example, organicity, organisational support, etc). The reason to conduct a CFA of the measurement model is to validate the factor composition of the measures used, i.e. we test to see the items intended to measure a particular latent variable actually measure that variable (Byrne, 1998).

CFA of the measurement model was analysed with AMOS 4.01 (Arbuckle and Wothke, 2001; Byrne, 2001) SEM statistical package. Following convention (see for example, Arbuckle and Wothke, 2001; Byrne, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 1998), maximum likelihood estimation was employed. Maximum likelihood suggests that the Amos SEM software uses all information of the observed data, while many other methods may not. The likelihood is computed for the observed portion of each case's data and then accumulated and maximized (Smallwaters, 2006). All the constructs under study were allowed to be inter-correlated freely. There are various fit statistics from the Amos 4.01 output which can be used to access the appropriateness of the measurement and structural models. Since Bentler and Bonett (1980) popularised model fit indices, many studies have proliferated recommending new fit indices. At present, a myriad number of fit statistics are available for use in evaluating fit. These can broadly be divided into two main categories: (1) absolute fit indices and (2) incremental fit indices. The absolute fit indices includes the Goodness-of-Fit index (GFI), the root mean square of estimation (RMSEA), and the standardised root mean squared residual (SRMR) which assesses

how well the hypothesised model fits the obtained data sets. The incremental fit indices, on the other hand, assess the degree to which the proposed model improves upon the fit of the baseline model, usually the null model in which all of the observed variables are assumed to be completely uncorrelated (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Examples of incremental fit indices include the Incremental Fit Index, (IFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) also known as the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI).

A fit index is an overall summary statistic that evaluates how well a particular model explains the sample. Hu and Bentler (1998) suggest that fit indices are meant to quantify features such as the sum of residuals or variance accounted for by the proposed model. Fan *et al.* (1999) further states that fit index also provide information about the degree to which a model is correctly or incorrectly specified for the given data.

4-9-3 Recommendations for Cut-Off Criteria of Model Fit Indices

In the past, χ_2 (chi-square) statistic has been used to evaluate model fit; however, several authors have reasoned that due to the SEM sensitivity to sample size and departure from normality and other problems, the chi-squares (χ_2) are not good indicators of model fit (see for example, Bentler and Bonnett 1980; Bentler 1990, Bollen, 1989; Mulaik *et al.*, 1989). Instead, chi-squares per degrees of freedom ($\chi_2/d.f.$) are frequently used to evaluate model fit. In addition, other fit indices are also employed. Six main indices that are commonly reported in the literature are:, Goodness of Fit (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI) , Incremental Fit Index (IFI), (Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) or Non Norm Fit Index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and root mean square of estimation (RMSEA).

As a rule of thumb, GFI, AGFI, IFI, TLI and CFI with values greater than 0.80 have traditionally been suggested as the cut-off criteria to indicate adequate fit (Marsh *et al.*, 1988). Some recent studies also suggests that Goodness of Fit (GFI) is less sensitive to sample size (Stapleton, 1997) but it has been suggested that this statistic is fairly biased and should not be used. Literature also seem to reject Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI) as it is affected by sample size and as such, is not regarded as a valid goodness of fit measure (Kenny, 2001).

Developed by Bentler (1990), the CFI indicates the relative improvement of the assess model over a null model where all observed variables are uncorrelated. CFI is recommended over NFI (Normed Fit Index). The range for CFI is 0 – 1.00 and values of 0.90 is generally accepted as a well fitted model (Gaver and Mentzer, 1999). The Tucker-Lewis Fit index (TLI) is an incremental fit measure that combines the measure of parsimony into a comparative fit index (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The demarcation cut-off recommended is 0.90 or greater (Tucker and Lewis, 1973). Also known as non-normed-fit-index (Bentler and Bonnett, 1980), the NNFI has been found to be very robust and relatively sample size independent (Mulaik *et al.,* 1989).

RMSEA or root mean square error of approximation index measures the discrepancy between the observed and estimated covariance matrices per degree of freedom. Byrne (2001) supports RMSEA and suggests that it is one of the most informative indices. Browne and Cudeck (1993) proposed a RMSEA value of 0.05 as indicating a close fit and a value of 0.08 as representing a reasonable approximation.

Fit indices are sensitive to model misspecification, small sample bias, effects of violation of normality and independence and estimation methods (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Due to these discrepancies in certain fit indices (like AGFI and GFI), Garver and Mentzer (1999) recommend three fit indices that are most robust: (1) TLI, (2) CFI and (3) RMSEA as they are all relatively independent of sample size effects and are highly recommended. For this reason, this research will also employ IFI, TLI, CFI and RMSEA fit indices for assessing model fit. As discussed, although there are many recommendations for indices, there are no fixed recommendations. Byrne (2001: 88) further explains that the myriad of fit indices can no way reflect the extent to which the model is plausible; *this judgement rests squarely on the shoulders of the researcher*. The assessment of model adequacy, Byrne continued, must be based on multiple criteria that take into account theoretical, statistical and practical considerations. A view also shared by Schermelleh-Engel and Moosbrugger (2003) who made it clear that these rule of thumb cut-off criteria are arbitrary and should not be taken too seriously. Table 4.21 suggests a range of recommended fit indices based on selected literature review (see for example: Bentler and Bonnett, 1980; Bentler, 1990, Bollen 1989; Mulaik *et al.*, 1989; Hu and Bentler, 1999; Schermelleh-Engel and Moosbrugger, 2003; Byrne, 2001, Garver and Mentzer, 1999).

Table 4.21 Recommended Cut-off Values for Fit Indices		
Fit Measure	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit
$\chi 2$ $\chi 2/df$	$0 \leq \chi 2 \leq 2df$ $0 \leq \chi 2/df \leq 2$	$2df < \chi 2 \leq 3df$ $2 \leq \chi 2/df \leq 3$
NFI	$0.95 \leq$ NFI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \leq$ NFI < 0.95
CFI	$0.95 \leq$ CFI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \leq$ NFI ≤ 0.95
GFI	$0.95 \leq$ GFI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \leq$ GFI ≤ 0.95
AGFI	$0.90 \leq$ AGFI ≤ 1.00	$0.85 \leq$ AGFI ≤ 0.90
TLI (NNFI)	$0.95 \leq$ TLI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \leq$ TLI ≤ 0.95
IFI	$0.95 \leq$ TLI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \leq$ TLI ≤ 0.95
RMSEA	$0 \leq$ RMSEA ≤ 0.05	$0.05 <$ RMSEA ≤ 0.08
Notes: AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index, GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, NFI = Normed Fit Index, NNFI = Non normed Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardised Root Mean Square Residual. TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) also known as the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), IFI = Incremental Fit Index.		

4-9-4 Model Specification for Evaluation of Convergent Validity

As explained earlier, convergent validity refers to whether the individual measurement scales represent the variable it is intended to measure. CFA analysis is performed by modelling three measurement models as follows:

a) Antecedent Model: organicity, centralisation, organisational support, leadership trust, reward, training, information sharing, role conflict and role ambiguity as the first group,
b) Psychological Empowerment Model: Spreitzer's psychological empowerment four dimension model as the second group, and
c) Outcome Model: Three outcome variables, i.e. job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions as the third group.

This method serves two purposes. Firstly, it enables CFA analysis to be performed without problems associated with insufficient sample size to number of items or constructs (Froman, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 1998) and secondly, it allows convergent validity of each variable to be tested. Using Amos 4.0 SEM software, the fit indices of

the measurement models are then tested. Convergent validity is shown by large significant correlations between each latent variable (construct) and its reflective indicators or scale items (see for example Koufaris and Hampton-Sosa, 2005). Literature review also suggest that convergent validity should be evaluated by examining t-tests (also known as critical ratios in Amos) and factor loadings (see for example: Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Meuter *et al.*, 2005; Garver and Mentzer, 1999). The three measurement models are presented in Figure 4.1 (antecedent model), Figure 4.2 (psychological empowerment model) and Figure 4.3 (outcome model) respectively. The results are shown in Table 4.22, Table 4.23 and Table 4.24 respectively.

4-9-5 Evaluating Antecedents Measurement Model for Convergent Validity

The fit measures for the measurement model were first examined to verify the appropriateness of the model by employing the recommendations described in section 4-9-2 and 4-9-3. The chi-squares per degrees of freedom or discrepancy/df ($\chi 2/df$) is 1.92 which is good as the discrepancy/df is below the recommended minimum of 2.00. The incremental fit index, Tucker Lewis index and comparative fit index (IFI, TLI and CFI) had values of 0.90, 0.89 and 0.90 respectively. As for goodness of fit (GFI) the value was 0.82, above the minimum value of 0.80 as suggested by Marsh *et al.* (1988). RMSEA was 0.06 which is also acceptable (Byrne, 2001). Secondly, inspection of the modification indices and residuals showed no unusually high levels of residuals. Where residuals are very high, those items should be excluded from further analysis. Hence, the criteria for fit measures were met, as the values suggest strong convergent validity and as such, the model fits the underlying sample data well.

An investigation of regression weights will help verify convergent validity. Garson (2005c) suggests that the regression weights (also known as *t*-tests in multi-variate statistical studies) for the individual items employed to represent the variables should be at least 1.96 to be statistically significant (p value) at 0.05 level. Table 4.22 presents the fit measures and regression weights for the antecedent model. All critical ratio values or *t*-tests for the items are statistically significant as the values exceeds 1.96 (p = 0.05 or less). This suggests that all the items provide good measures to their respective variable. As such, convergent validity for all the antecedent variables is met.

Figure 4.1 Antecedents Measurement Model

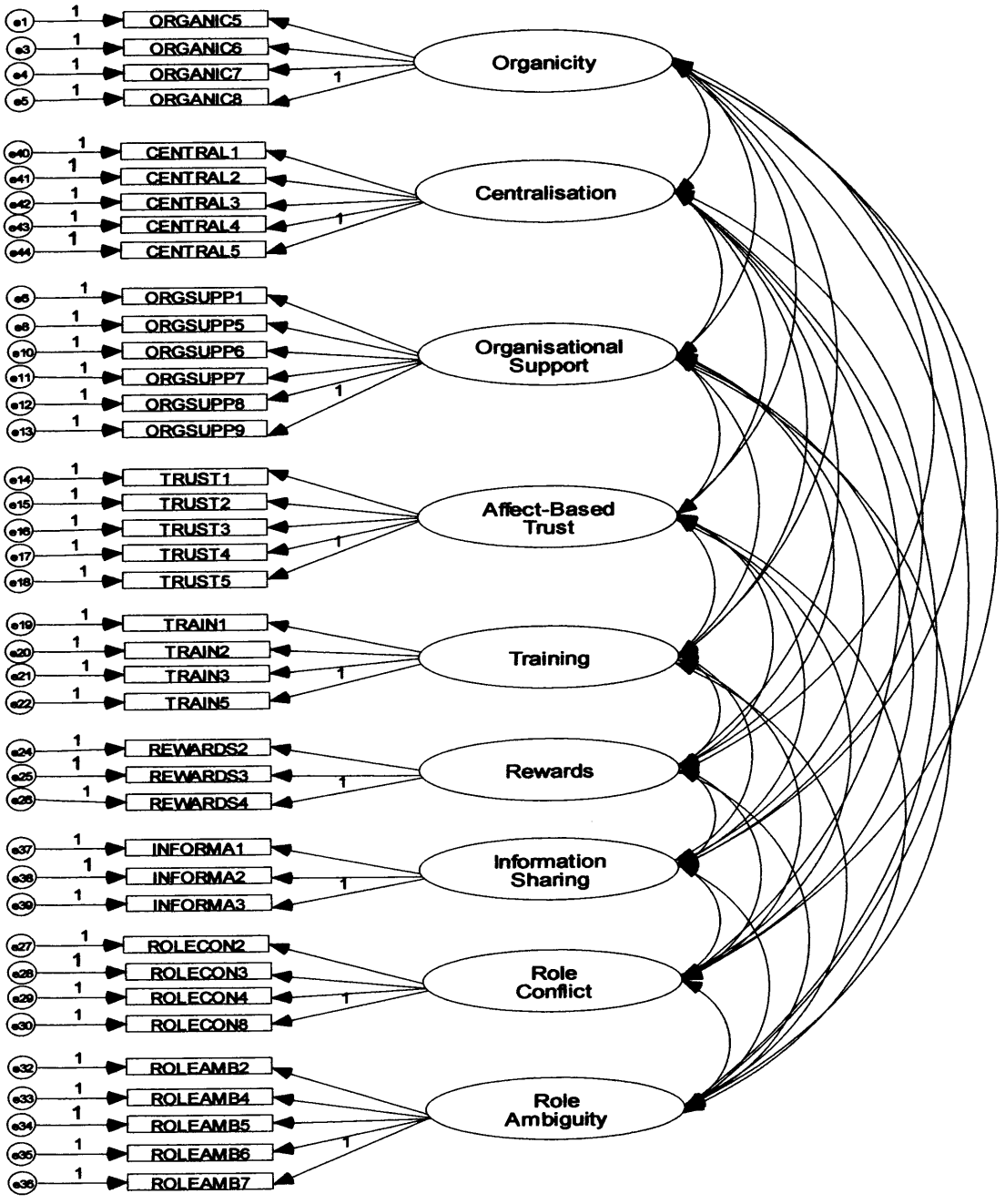


Table 4.22 Fit Measures and Regression Weights for Antecedent Variables

Item		Variable (Construct)	Beta Coefficient	S.E.	Critical Ratios (t-tests)	p
ORGANIC5	<--	Organicity	1.33	0.17	7.57	0.00
ORGANIC6	<--		1.68	0.22	7.64	0.00
ORGANIC7	<--		1.24	0.16	7.83	0.00
ORGANIC8	<--		1	*	*	*
CENTRAL1	<--	Centralisation	0.83	0.07	12.7	0.00
CENTRAL2	<--		0.79	0.06	12.68	0.00
CENTRAL3	<--		1.06	0.06	16.51	0.00
CENTRAL4	<--		0.93	0.05	20.43	0.00
CENTRAL5	<--		1	*	*	*
ORGSUPP1	<--	Organisational Support	0.78	0.07	10.48	0.00
ORGSUPP5	<--		0.96	0.06	16.76	0.00
ORGSUPP6	<--		0.75	0.05	14.99	0.00
ORGSUPP7	<--		0.95	0.05	17.57	0.00
ORGSUPP8	<--		0.77	0.05	14.83	0.00
ORGSUPP9	<--		1	*	*	*
TRUST1	<--	Leadership Trust	1.41	0.14	9.77	0.00
TRUST2	<--		1.53	0.15	10.05	0.00
TRUST3	<--		1.53	0.15	9.97	0.00
TRUST4	<--		1.3	0.15	8.51	0.00
TRUST5	<--		1	*	*	*
TRAIN1	<--	Training	1.63	0.13	12.42	0.00
TRAIN2	<--		1.59	0.13	12.6	0.00
TRAIN3	<--		0.66	0.07	8.84	0.00
TRAIN5	<--		1	*	*	*
REWARDS2	<--	Rewards	1.44	0.15	9.58	0.00
REWARDS3	<--		1.09	0.13	8.52	0.00
REWARDS4	<--		1	*	*	*
INFORMA1	<--	Information Sharing	1.48	0.2	7.41	0.00
INFORMA2	<--		1.7	0.23	7.3	0.00
INFORMA3	<--		1	*	*	*
ROLECON2	<--	Role Conflict	0.84	0.11	7.36	0.00
ROLECON3	<--		1.06	0.12	8.65	0.00
ROLECON4	<--		1.1	0.13	8.51	0.00
ROLECON8	<--		1	*	*	*
ROLEAMB2	<--	Role Ambiguity	0.89	0.08	11.48	0.00
ROLEAMB4	<--		0.71	0.06	11.28	0.00
ROLEAMB5	<--		1.12	0.1	11.49	0.00
ROLEAMB6	<--		0.98	0.08	12.68	0.00
ROLEAMB7	<--		1	*	*	*

Chi-Square Statistics =1275.0, Degree of Freedom = 666, Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom = 1.92, P = 0.00, GFI = 0.82, Normed Fit Index = 0.82, Incremental Fit Index = 0.90, Tucker-Lewis Index = 0.89, Comparative Fit Index = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.06.
* Critical Ratios (t-tests) is not available because the regression weight is fixed at 1 in Amos SEM analysis.

4-9-6 Evaluating Psychological Empowerment Measurement Model for Convergent Validity

Next the fit measures for the psychological empowerment measurement model were examined. Table 4.23 presents the results of the fit measures and regression weights for the psychological empowerment measurement model. The chi-squares per degrees of freedom or discrepancy/df (χ_2/df) is 2.11 which is acceptable as the discrepancy/df is slightly above recommended range of 2.00 but below 3.00. The incremental fit index, Tucker Lewis index and comparative fit index (IFI, TLI and CFI) had values of 0.98, 0.97 and 0.98 respectively. As for goodness of fit (GFI) the value was 0.94. RMSEA was 0.06 which is also acceptable. All regression weights or *t*-tests for the items are statistically significant as the values exceed 1.96 (p = 0.05 or less). This suggests that all the items provide good measures to their respective variable. The criteria for fit measures were met, as the values suggest strong convergent validity which suggests that the model fits the underlying sample well. As such, convergent validity for all the four psychological empowerment variables was met.

Figure 4.2 Spreitzer's Psychological Empowerment Measurement Model

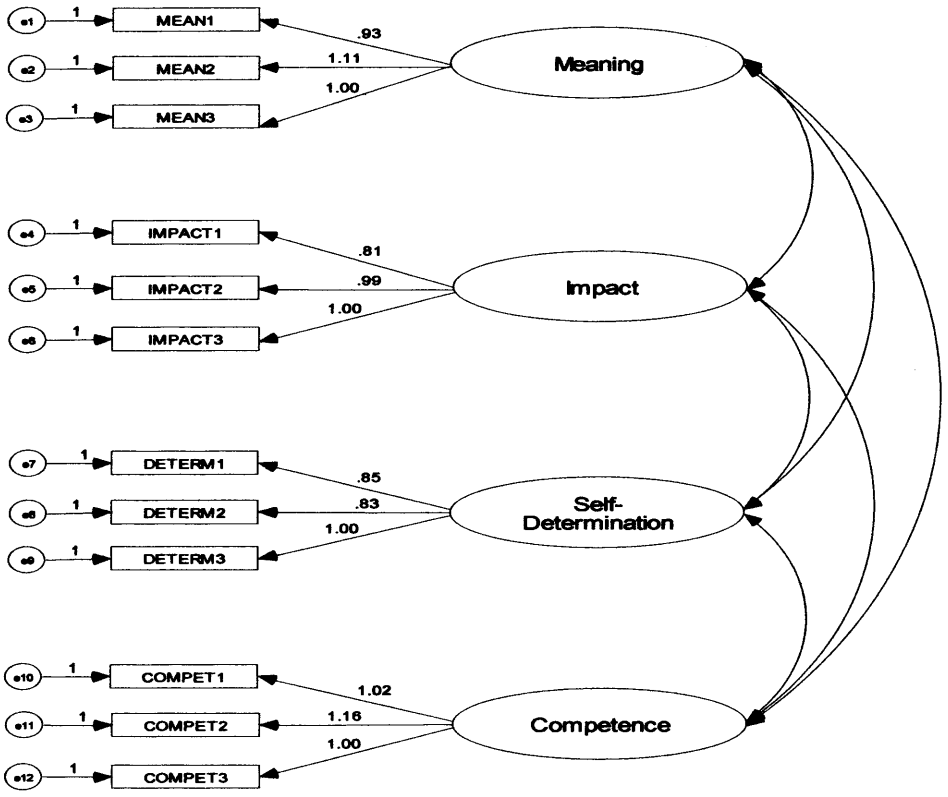


Table 4.23 Fit Measures and Regression Weights for Psychological Empowerment

Item		Variable (Construct)	Beta Coefficient	S.E.	Critical Ratios (t-tests)	p
IMPACT1	<--	Impact	0.81	0.04	19.49	0.00
IMPACT2	<--		0.99	0.04	24.56	0.00
IMPACT3	<--		1	*	*	*
DETERM1	<--	Self-Determination	0.85	0.04	19.93	0.00
DETERM2	<--		0.83	0.04	20.2	0.00
DETERM3	<--		1	*	*	*
COMPET1	<--	Competence	1.02	0.08	13.46	0.00
COMPET2	<--		1.16	0.09	13.59	0.00
COMPET3	<--		1	*	*	*
MEAN1	<--	Meaning	0.93	0.04	23.17	0.00
MEAN2	<--		1.11	0.04	27.44	0.00
MEAN3	<--		1	*	*	*

Chi-Square Statistics = 101.06, Degree of Freedom = 48, Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom = 2.11, P = 0.00, GFI = 0.94, Normed Fit Index = 0.96, Incremental Fit Index = 0.98, Tucker-Lewis Index = 0.97, Comparative Fit Index = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06.
* Critical Ratios (t-tests) is not available because the regression weight is fixed at 1 in Amos SEM analysis.

4-9-7 Evaluating Outcome Measurement Model for Convergent Validity

The fit measures for the three variable outcome measurement model were next examined for convergent validity. The initial model suggested a poor fit; discrepancy/df ($\chi 2/ df$) was 5.15, goodness of fit, incremental fit index, Tucker Lewis index and comparative fit index was 0.90, 0.94, 0.91 and 0.94 respectively. An inspection of modification indices suggest that ORGCOMM1 and ORGCOMM2 error indicators were strongly correlated. Byrne (2001:134) suggests that error correlations are often due to perceived redundancy in item content i.e. items of a measure that deal with the same topic (see also Hatcher, 1994:4). Following Joreskog (1993) caveat, Byrne's treatment for high error correlation is to re-estimate the model by specifying the parameters as free as indicated in Figure 4.3. As a result the re-specified model produced improved fit indices. The chi-squares per degrees of freedom or discrepancy/df ($\chi 2/ df$) is 2.19 which is acceptable as the discrepancy/df is slightly above the recommended minimum of 2.00 but well below 3.00 range. Secondly, the incremental fit index, Tucker Lewis index and comparative fit index (IFI, TLI and CFI) had values of 0.98, 0.97 and 0.98 respectively. As for goodness of fit (GFI) the value

was 0.96, above the minimum value of 0.80. RMSEA was 0.06 which is also acceptable. Hence, the criteria for fit measures were met, as the values suggest good convergent validity which suggests that the model fits the underlying sample well.

Table 4.24 presents the fit measures and regression weights for the outcome measurement model. All critical ratio values or *t*-tests for the items are statistically significant as the values exceeds 1.96 (p = 0.05 or less). This suggests that all the items provide good measures to their respective variable. As such, convergent validity for all the three outcome variables, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions was met.

Figure 4. 3 Outcome Measurement Model

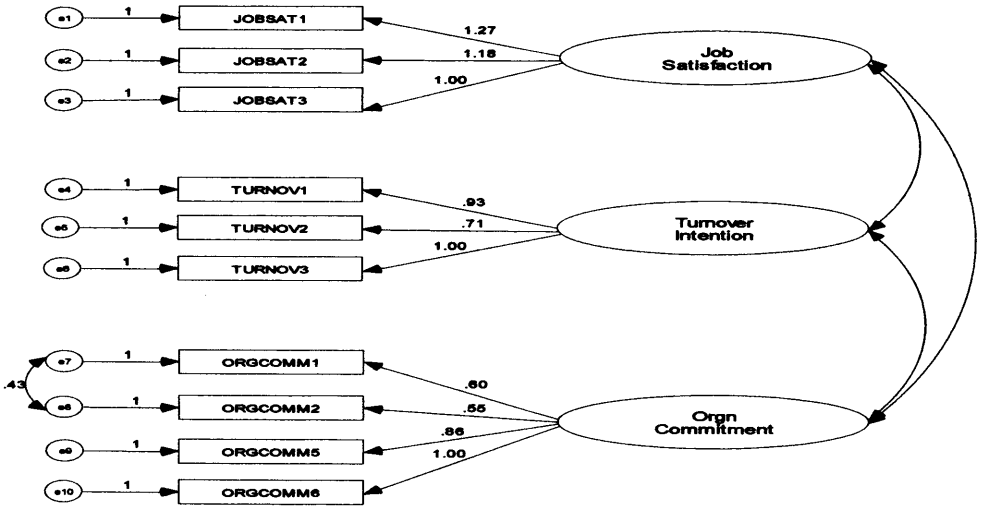


Table 4.24 Fit Measures and Regression Weights for Outcome Variables

Item		Variable (Construct)	Beta Coefficient	S.E.	Critical Ratios (t-tests)	p
JOBSAT1	<--	Job Satisfaction	1.27	0.1	13.37	0
JOBSAT2	<--		1.18	0.09	13.39	0
JOBSAT3	<--		1	*	*	*
TURNOV1	<--	Turnover Intention	0.93	0.03	31.88	0
TURNOV2	<--		0.71	0.04	17.07	0
TURNOV3	<--		1	*	*	*
ORGCOMM1	<--	Orgn Commitment	0.6	0.05	12.78	0
ORGCOMM2	<--		0.55	0.04	12.36	0
ORGCOMM5	<--		0.86	0.05	17.56	0
ORGCOMM6	<--		1	*	*	*

Chi-Square Statistics = 68.01, Degree of Freedom = 31, Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom = 2.19, P = 0.00, GFI = 0.96, Normed Fit Index = 0.97, Incremental Fit Index = 0.98, Tucker-Lewis Index = 0.97, Comparative Fit Index = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06.
* Critical Ratios (t-tests) is not available because the regression weight is fixed at 1 in Amos SEM analysis.

4-9-8 Summary of Discriminant and Convergent Validity

A series of tests and evaluations were made to validate the data to investigate discriminant and convergent validity. Firstly, a measurement model was specified based on results of EFA and alpha reliabilities of the variables. Discriminant validity was then investigated with an examination of the correlation analysis and testing the constructs pair-wise by comparing the chi-square differences and examining any cross-loadings in their factor loadings. Three measurement models were developed in order to evaluate convergent validity; i.e. (1) the first model comprising of all antecedent variables, (2) second model comprising the four psychological empowerment model variables, and (3) the third model comprises the three outcome variables. The measurement models were then subjected to CFA with the Amos 4.01 SEM software. The recommended fit indices were evaluated and found to be acceptable suggesting the models fit well to the data. Next, the critical ratios or *t*-tests of the items were evaluated for convergent validity. Overall, the assessment of the measurement model displayed sufficient evidence for discriminant and convergent validity. An acceptable fit for the measurement models were achieved. The next stage of analysis will involve re-validating Spreitzer's psychological empowerment model and examining common method bias before testing the hypotheses proposed.

4-10 Re-validating Spreitzer's Psychological Empowerment as a 2nd Order Construct

Spreitzer's psychological empowerment is tested to validate the model as a second order construct. This serves two purposes: (1) to compare the results with previous studies and (2) to re-validate the 4 dimension model as literature review suggests inconsistent reports with the model (see for example, Spreitzer, 1995; Kraimer *et al.*, 1999; Siegall and Gartner, 2000; Seibert *et al.*, 2004). The four dimension model was examined for correlations among items and 2nd Order confirmatory factor analysis in accordance to Spreitzer (1995) and Kraimer *et al.* (1999) procedures. Table 4.25 shows the correlations among the 12 items for the current sample. The results suggest that the three meaning items has a correlation of between 0.80 to 0.87, competence items has a correlation of between 0.62 to 0.80, self-determination items has a correlation of between 0.72 to 0.79 and impact items between 0.76 to 0.85. Self-determination and impact items seem to correlate with impact items, although it is not unacceptably high; the highest score being 0.48 i.e. between DETERM1 and IMPACT2, and between DETERM3 and IMPACT2. Correlations between DETERM3 and IMPACT3, DETERM1 and IMPACT3 had a score of 0.47. High correlations may pose a problem with discriminant validity, however chi-square tests conducted earlier (see section 4-9) discounted the problem for the current sample. The present study compares favourably with Spreitzer's (1995) correlation results. Spreitzer's sample (industrial sample) had scores of between 0.40 – 0.42 for self-determination and impact items, while Kraimer *et al.*'s sample however, had scores of between 0.42 - 0.66 which they suggested as strong correlation between the two variables (see Kraimer *et al.*, 1999).

Table 4.25 Pearson Correlations for Psychological Empowerment Items

	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	MEAN1											
2	MEAN2	**0.85**										
3	MEAN3	**0.80**	**0.87**									
4	COMPET1	0.27	0.26	0.29								
5	COMPET2	0.25	0.25	0.24	**0.80**							
6	COMPET3	0.26	0.24	0.20	**0.62**	**0.63**						
7	DETERM1	0.32	0.32	0.34	0.28	0.27	0.24					
8	DETERM2	0.26	0.29	0.29	0.33	0.27	0.31	**0.72**				
9	DETERM3	0.24	0.30	0.33	0.33	0.32	0.27	**0.79**	**0.79**			
10	IMPACT1	0.40	0.41	0.35	0.28	0.31	0.22	0.43	0.38	0.40		
11	IMPACT2	0.29	0.31	0.30	0.25	0.27	0.26	0.48	0.45	0.48	**0.76**	
12	IMPACT3	0.31	0.34	0.37	0.23	0.27	0.19	0.47	0.42	0.47	**0.76**	**0.85**

All items significantly correlate at 0.00 level.

Figure 4.4 shows the 2nd Order CFA model that was analysed whilst Table 4.26 displays the fit measures, beta coefficients and regression weights for the model. The results of the fit

indices were: GFI = 0.94, Normed Fit Index = 0.96, Incremental Fit Index = 0.98, Tucker-Lewis Index = 0.97, Comparative Fit Index = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06, suggesting that the model fits the data very well. All beta coefficients and t-tests between the four variables, namely meaning (beta-coefficient = 0.55, t-tests = 7.56), self-determination (beta coefficient = 0.84, t-tests = 10.79), impact (beta coefficient = 1.02, t-tests = 10.55) and competence (beta coefficient = 0.33, t-tests = 6.53) are significant at 0.00 level. The fit measures are comparable to Spreitzer's industrial sample (AGFI = 0.93, RMSR = 0.04, NCNFI = 0.97) and Kraimer *et al.*'s modified model (AGFI = 0.83, CFI = 0.93, RMSR = 0.10) results. The beta coefficients results for the different variables vary considerably between the different studies. Table 4.27 compares the current study to Spreitzer's and Kraimer *et al.*'s beta coefficient results which suggest that different sample may produce very different results. Spreitzer's sample was derived from staff and managers of a Fortune 50 firm whilst Kraimer *et al.* sample was obtained from the nursing community with a high female bias (90%). Spreitzer's first sample (obtained from managers) seems to be comparable with the current study, although the beta for competence variable is lower for the present study.

Overall, the present results suggest that the current model under study display good discriminant validity and construct validity as all the four constructs suggest significant beta coefficients and all fit indices are met. Having evaluated the psychological empowerment model, the next stage of the investigation is to ensure that the sample is not susceptible to common method bias. This is suggested to be a problem with self-reported questionnaire as employed in this study.

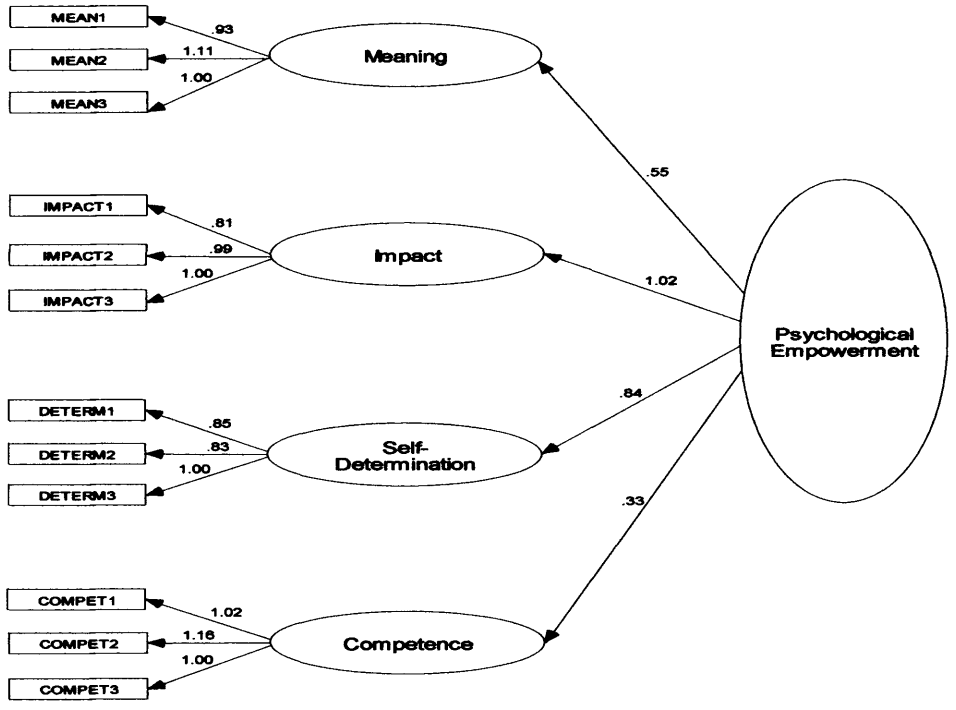
Table 4.26 Psychological Empowerment Model - Results of 2nd Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Item		Variable (Construct)	Beta-Coefficient	Regression Weights (t-tests)	p
Meaning	<--	Psychological Empowerment	0.55	7.56	0.00
Impact	<--		1.02	10.55	0.00
Self-_Determination	<--		0.84	10.79	0.00
Competence	<--		0.33	6.53	0.00

Chi-Square Statistics = 104.6, Degree of Freedom = 50, Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom = 2.09, P = 0.00, GFI = 0.94, Normed Fit Index = 0.96, Incremental Fit Index = 0.98, Tucker-Lewis Index = 0.97, Comparative Fit Index = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06.

Table 4.27 Beta Coefficients of Current and Previous Studies					
Variables	Current Study	Spreitzer's Study		Kraimer et al.'s Study	
		Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 1	Sample 2
Competence	0.33	0.58	0.74	0.71	0.52
Self-Determination	0.84	0.92	0.49	0.50	0.26
Impact	1.02	0.92	0.49	0.40	0.20
Meaning	0.55	0.72	0.83	0.82	1.00
Source: Spreitzer (1995), and Kraimer *et al.* (1999)					

Figure 4.4 Beta Coefficients for the Present Psychological Empowerment Model



4-11 Common Method Bias

Because the sample was obtained from a single source, it is necessary to test for common method bias. Common method bias may happen when the measurements used in a research is filled out by the same person (self-reporting) as in this particular study. The effect of common method bias is that it may increase or decrease the observed relationships (Cote and Buckley, 1987). However, Spector (1987) suggests that common method bias may well be more problematic with single items and poorly designed scales. Hence, multi-item, good design and validated scales such as those employed in this study may negate common factor bias somewhat. Schriesheim (1979) and Podsakoff *et al.* (1984) suggest a procedure to address the presence of this problem employing Harman's (1967) one factor test. The three measurement models evaluated earlier were subjected to a one-factor test by entering the items into a principal components factor analysis with Varimax rotation using SPSS statistical software. According to this technique, if a single factor emerges from the factor analysis or one 'general' factor accounts for over 50% of the covariance in variables, common method variance is suspected (Corsun and Enz, 1999). The analysis suggests that for the antecedent measurement model, only 30% variance was extracted. A 45% variance was extracted from the psychological empowerment four construct and 46.7% variance was extracted from the outcome measurement model. The variance is lower than 50% suggested, hence common method bias does not pose a serious problem in the sample. To further support the data, another technique frequently employed by researchers (see Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003), is the use of CFA analysis as a more sophisticated test of the hypothesis that a single factor can account for all the variance in their data. If the common factor bias was the driving force underlying the significant relationships between variables, the single factor models would provide a better fit for the data than models containing individual constructs (hypothesised models). Table 4.28 shows the tests between the models in question. The results suggest that the hypothesised models provided significantly better fit compared to the single factor models suggesting that common factor bias is not a serious problem. While the one-factor analysis does not completely rule out the issue of common method bias, it does provide some statistical support when interpreting the results of this study. The issue with regards to common factor bias is however without controversy. Spector, (1987) and recently Wall *et al.* (2004) suggests that the problem with common source bias may be overstated and overrated in literature and therefore not necessarily be as biased as one might expect.

Table 4.28 CFA Analysis for Common Factor Bias (One Factor Test)						
Fit Measures For Measurement Models Between Hypothesised and Single Factor Models						
	Antecedent Model		Spreitzer's Model		Outcome Model	
	Hypothesised Model	Single Factor Model	Hypothesised Model	Single Factor Model	Hypothesised Model	Single Factor Model
Discrepancy	1275.96	3806.17	101.26	1579.89	68.01	868.47
Degrees of freedom	666.00	702.00	48.00	54.00	31.00	34.00
P	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Discrepancy / df	1.92	5.42	2.11	29.26	2.19	25.54
GFI	0.82	0.53	0.94	0.51	0.96	0.60
Normed fit index	0.82	0.46	0.96	0.43	0.97	0.58
Incremental fit index	0.90	0.43	0.98	0.43	0.98	0.59
Tucker-Lewis index	0.89	0.51	0.97	0.31	0.97	0.46
Comparative fit index	0.90	0.48	0.98	0.43	0.98	0.59
RMSEA	0.06	0.50	0.06	0.32	0.06	0.29

4-12 Regression Analysis

Having validated the scales and measurement model for unidimensionality, alpha reliabilities, discriminant and convergent validity, and common method bias, the sample can now be evaluated for direct relationships, mediation and moderation effects. Regression tests are conducted on all the constructs being evaluated to investigate the relationships of the variables to each other. Three sets of evaluations are carried out to understand the relationships between: (1) the individual antecedent variables to individual outcome variables (2) the individual antecedent variables to individual psychological empowerment variables and (3) the individual psychological empowerment variables to outcome variables. (Refer to Table 4.29, Table 4.30, and Table 4.31 for the full regression results). The first column indicates the independent variables and its relationship to dependent variables (second column). The t-tests, beta coefficients, significant levels (p value), R square and F values are indicated in columns on the right of the table. The findings from regression analysis will also help to test Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a, 7a, 8a, and 9a which predict that there is a direct relationship between the proposed antecedents and psychological empowerment.

4-12-1 Relationship between Individual Antecedents and Outcome Variables

In line with the literature, all the antecedent variables with exception to the relationship between training and job satisfaction displayed significant relationship with the three outcome variables as illustrated in Table 4.29. Although it is suggested that training may impact job satisfaction (Burke, 1995), the current study did not support any links between the two.

Organicity, which suggests good flow of information and informal work procedures in an organisation is positively and significantly related to job satisfaction (t-test = 3.16, beta = 0.19, p = 0.00) and organisational commitment (t-test = 3.74, beta = 0.22, p = 0.00) whilst being negatively significant to turnover intentions (t-test = -1.94, beta = -0.12, p = 0.05). As expected, centralisation (see Hage and Aiken, 1967; Pfeffer, 1981), which suggests that an organisation that has its command and control close to the top, is negatively predicts job satisfaction (t-test = -2.20, beta = -0.13, p = 0.03) and organisational commitment (t-test = -5.19, beta = -0.29, p = 0.00). Centralisation, on the other hand is positively significant to turnover intention (t-test = 4.39, beta = 0.25, p = 0.00).

Organisational support appears to have a positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction ((t-test = 3.44, beta = 0.20, p = 0.00) and organisational commitment (t-test = 11.56, beta = 0.56, p = 0.00). The t-test and beta scores suggest that organisational support strongly relates to organisational commitment (both outcomes concur with Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986 and Wayne *et al's.*, 1997 studies). Organisational support however, is negatively and significantly related with turnover intention supporting Griffeth *et al.'s* (2000) study. Other studies investigating the effect of organisational support on work outcome variables also produce similar results (see for example, Johnson *et al.*, 1988; Spector, 1997; Moncrief *et al.*, 1997).

Reward variable performed as suggested by Lawler (1981) and Torrington and Hall (1987); a positive relationship to job satisfaction (t-test = 3.86, beta = 0.22, p = 0.00) and organisational commitment (t-test = 6.05, beta = 0.34, p = 0.00) whilst being negatively significant to turnover intention (t-test = 5.93, beta = -0.33, p = 0.00), supporting Zenger's (1991) study on pay and reward which was found to be negatively related to turnover.

Training variable is positive and significant when regressed on organisational commitment (t-test = 2.94, beta = 0.17, p = 0.00) in support of Bartlett (2001) and Al-Emadi and Marquardt (2007) studies. The current study indicates that training has a negative relationship to turnover intention (t-test = -2.46, beta = -0.15, p = 0.00). However, as mentioned above, training variable is not significant to job satisfaction. Information sharing variable registered a positive and significant relationship to job satisfaction (t-test = 3.15, beta = 0.19, p = 0.00) and organisational commitment (t-test = 7.22, beta = 0.40, p = 0.00) whilst being negatively related to turnover intention (t-test = -6.19, beta = -0.35, p = 0.00).

Leadership trust variable also appear to positively and significantly relate with job satisfaction ((t-test = 3.14, beta = 0.18, p = 0.00) and organisational commitment (t-test = 8.65, beta = 0.46, p = 0.00), signifying a strong and positive relationship between leadership trust and organisational commitment. Trust variable was also found to have a negative relationship with turnover intention (t-test = -5.88, beta = -0.33, p = 0.00). As such the present result between trust and work outcome variables is consistent with previous research. For example, Tyagi, (1985) research examines the relationship between trust and support to motivation and work performance found a positive significance; also, the findings strongly support Aryee *et al.* (2002) study that found significant relationship between trust and work outcome variables.

As suggested in literature (see for example, Kahn *et al.*, 1964; and Rizzo *et al.* 1970), both role conflict and role ambiguity variables had a negative and significant relationship with job satisfaction (role conflict: t-test = -2.07, beta = -0.12, p = 0.04, and role ambiguity: t-test = -3.44, beta = -0.20, p = 0.00). Role conflict and role ambiguity also has a negative relationship with organisational commitment (role conflict: t-test = -5.73, beta = -0.32, p = 0.00 and role ambiguity: t-test = -9.31, beta = -0.49, p = 0.00). A positive relationship is recorded for turnover intention (role conflict: t-test = 7.34, beta = 0.41, p = 0.00 and role ambiguity: t-test = 8.62, beta = 0.46, p = 0.00). These findings concur with existing research like Fried *et al.*, (1998) on job satisfaction; Rizzo *et al.*, (1970) for role theory; Jackson and Schuler, (1985) for organisational commitment.

Table 4.29 Relationship Between Individual Antecedent and Outcome Variables							
Antecedents		Outcomes	t-test	Beta	P	R2	F
Organicity	——>	Job Satisfaction	3.16	0.19	0.00	0.03	10.0
Centralisation	——>		-2.20	-0.13	0.03*	0.02	4.8
Reward	——>		3.86	0.22	0.00	0.05	14.9
Training	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.00	0.3
Information Sharing	——>		3.15	0.19	0.00	0.03	10.0
Orgn Support	——>		3.44	0.20	0.00	0.04	11.9
Leadership Trust	——>		3.14	0.18	0.00	0.03	9.9
Role Ambiguity	——>		-3.44	-0.20	0.00	0.40	11.9
Role Conflict	——>		-2.07	-0.12	0.04*	0.02	4.3
Organicity	——>	Turnover Intention	-1.94	-0.12	0.05*	0.01	3.8
Centralisation	——>		4.39	0.25	0.00	0.06	19.3
Reward	——>		-5.93	-0.33	0.00	0.11	35.1
Training	——>		-2.46	-0.15	0.01*	0.02	6.1
Information Sharing	——>		-6.19	-0.35	0.00	0.12	38.4
Orgn Support	——>		-8.58	-0.46	0.00	0.21	73.5
Leadership Trust	——>		-5.88	-0.33	0.00	0.11	34.6
Role Ambiguity	——>		8.62	0.46	0.00	0.21	74.3
Role Conflict	——>		7.34	0.41	0.00	0.19	64.1
Organicity	——>	Organisational Commitment	3.74	0.22	0.00	0.05	14.0
Centralisation	——>		-5.19	-0.29	0.00	0.09	26.7
Reward	——>		6.05	0.34	0.00	0.12	36.6
Training	——>		2.94	0.17	0.00	0.03	8.6
Information Sharing	——>		7.22	0.40	0.00	0.16	52.1
Orgn Support	——>		11.56	0.56	0.00	0.21	74.8
Leadership Trust	——>		8.65	0.46	0.00	0.21	74.8
Role Ambiguity	——>		-9.31	-0.49	0.00	0.24	86.6
Role Conflict	——>		-5.73	-0.32	0.00	0.10	32.8

4-12-2 Relationship between Antecedents and Psychological Empowerment Variables

In order to test hypothesis 1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a, 7a, 8a, 9a, 10a and 10b, it is important to examine the relationship between antecedents and dimensions of psychological empowerment and also between psychological empowerment and outcome variables. Table 4.30 shows the regression results of antecedents being examined and their relationships with the four component empowerment model.

The variables organicity and centralisation are found to have significant relationship with meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions of psychological empowerment. Organicity and centralisation is not significant to competence. The finding seems to partially support Robbins *et al.* (2002) claim that organisational structure and transference of power is a determinant to improved perceptions of empowerment.

Hypothesis 1a suggests: *Organicity will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.* The results suggest that organicity significantly relates to self-determination (t-test = 6.46, beta = 0.36, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 3.24, beta = 0.19, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 3.74, beta = 0.22, p = 0.00). There was no relationship between organicity and competence. Hence, Hypothesis 1a is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact were positively impacted by organicity.

Hypothesis 2a hypothesised that: *Centralisation will negatively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.* The results suggest that centralisation significantly relates to self-determination (t-test =-11.20, beta = -0.56, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = -2.44, beta = -0.14, p = 0.02) and impact (t-test = -6.06, beta = -0.34, p = 0.00). The relationship between centralisation and competence is not significant. Hence, Hypothesis 2a is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are negatively impacted by centralisation.

Turning to Hypothesis 3a which suggests that: *Perception of organisational support will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.* The results suggest that organisational support significantly relates to self-determination (t-test = 8.12, beta = 0.44, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 4.92, beta = 0.28, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 7.38, beta = 0.40, p = 0.00). The relationship between organisational support and competence was not significant. Hence, Hypothesis 3a is partially supported as three

variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are positively impacted by organisational support. There are no direct studies on organisational support variable on psychological empowerment to compare. However, other related studies suggest some common ground: for example Corsun and Enz (1999) study found support for peer helping and supportive customer relations and Koberg *et al.* (1999), leadership approachability found these antecedents relate to empowerment. Overall, the finding of organisational support on empowerment supports Robbins *et al.* (2002) propositions that support plays an important role in empowerment.

Turning to HR Practices dimension, training variable similarly supports Robbins *et al.* (2002) and Peccei and Rosenthal's (2001) findings in that training produce higher feelings of empowerment. Peccei and Rosenthal employed internalisation (of service excellence), job competence and job autonomy to capture 'sense of empowerment'. According to the authors, the three variables are quite similar to Spreitzer's (1995) meaning, competence and self-determination. However, in the current study training is not significant to meaning variable. The results suggest that Spreitzer's meaning dimension is not similar to internalisation construct as posited by Peccei and Rosenthal (2001). Impact variable was not investigated in Peccei and Rosenthal's study but the current result suggest a strong relationship (t-test=3.04, beta=0.18, p=0.00). Reward and information variables similarly support Spreitzer's (1996) findings. However, because Spreitzer aggregated the four psychological empowerment construct, it is not possible to compare the individual variables directly. The current study suggests that information sharing variable has significant relationship to meaning, self-determination, competence and impact. Reward however is significantly related to meaning, self-determination, and impact but not to competence. Overall, the three HR Practices variables, namely training, reward, and information sharing suggest significant relationships to the four psychological empowerment variables, with exception to reward and competence suggesting the findings strongly supports Robbins *et al.* (2002) propositions. This finding supports Hypothesis 4a, 5a and 6a.

With regards to Hypothesis 4a: *Training will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment, in particular competence dimension.* The results indicate that training significantly relates to self-determination (t-test = 3.95, beta = 0.23, p = 0.00); competence (t-test = 7.44, beta = 0.41, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 3.04, beta =

0.18, p = 0.00). Also, as hypothesised, training predicted competence highest in comparison with other empowerment variables. The relationship between training and meaning was not significant. Hence, Hypothesis 4a is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, competence and impact are positively impacted by training.

Turning to Hypothesis 5a: *Reward will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.* The results show that reward significantly relates to self-determination (t-test = 3.09, beta = 0.18, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 2.44, beta = 0.14, p = 0.02) and impact (t-test = 4.43, beta = 0.26, p = 0.00). The relationship between reward and competence is not significant. Hence Hypothesis 5a is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are positively impacted by reward.

As for Hypothesis 6a: *Information sharing will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.* The results indicate that information sharing significantly relates to all four psychological empowerment variables: self-determination (t-test = 5.60, beta = 0.32, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 3.57, beta = 0.21, p = 0.00) competence (t-test = 2.67, beta = 0.16, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 4.91, beta = 0.28, p = 0.00). Hence, Hypothesis 6a is fully supported as all four psychological empowerment variables impacted by information sharing.

Next Hypothesis 7a is analysed: *Perception of leadership trust will positively impact on individual dimensions of psychological empowerment.* The results suggest that leadership trust significantly relates to self-determination (t-test = 5.50, beta = 0.31, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 3.67, beta = 0.21, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 4.85, beta = 0.28, p = 0.00). The relationship between leadership trust and competence was not significant. Hence, Hypothesis 7a is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are positively impacted by leadership trust. The results support suggestions by Luke (1998); Mishra and Spreitzer, (1998) and Robbins *et al.* (2002) that leadership trust is an important facet in empowering employees.

Moving to Hypothesis 8a: *Role conflict will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment,* the results show that role conflict significantly relates to all four psychological empowerment variables: self-determination (t-test = 6.41, beta = 0.36, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 4.95, beta = 0.28, p = 0.00) competence (t-test = 3.28,

beta = 0.19, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 4.54, beta = 0.26, p = 0.00). Hence, Hypothesis 8a is fully supported as all four psychological empowerment variables impacted by role conflict.

Finally, for Hypothesis 9a: *Role ambiguity will positively impact on the different dimensions of psychological empowerment,* the results suggest that role ambiguity significantly relates to all four psychological empowerment variables: self-determination (t-test = 7.82, beta = 0.42, p = 0.00); meaning (t-test = 5.52, beta = 0.31, p = 0.00) competence (t-test = 3.42, beta = 0.20, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = 6.37, beta = 0.36, p = 0.00). Hence, Hypothesis 9a is fully supported as all four psychological empowerment variables impacted by role ambiguity.

Table 4.30 Relationship Between Individual Antecedent and Empowerment Dimension							
Antecedent		Empowerment Dimension	t-test	Beta	P	R2	F
Organicity	——>	Self- Determination	6.46	0.36	0.00	0.13	41.8
Centralisation	——>		-11.20	-0.56	0.00	0.31	125.3
Reward	——>		3.09	0.18	0.00	0.03	9.6
Training	——>		3.95	0.23	0.00	0.05	15.6
Information Sharing	——>		5.60	0.32	0.00	0.10	31.4
Orgn Support	——>		8.12	0.44	0.00	0.19	65.9
Leadership Trust	——>		5.50	0.31	0.00	0.10	30.3
Role Ambiguity	——>		-7.82	-0.42	0.00	0.18	61.2
Role Conflict	——>		-6.41	-0.36	0.00	0.13	41.0
Organicity	——>	Competence	NS	NS	NS	0.01	2.5
Centralisation	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.01	2.7
Reward	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.00	0.2
Training	——>		7.44	0.41	0.00	0.16	55.4
Information Sharing	——>		2.67	0.16	0.00	0.03	7.1
Orgn Support	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.01	2.9
Leadership Trust	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.00	0.9
Role Ambiguity	——>		-3.42	-0.20	0.00	0.04	11.7
Role Conflict	——>		-3.28	-0.19	0.00	0.04	10.8
Organicity	——>	Meaning	3.24	0.19	0.00	0.04	10.5
Centralisation	——>		-2.44	-0.14	0.02*	0.02	6.0
Reward	——>		2.44	0.14	0.02*	0.02	5.9
Training	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.01	2.6
Information Sharing	——>		3.57	0.21	0.00	0.04	12.8
Orgn Support	——>		4.92	0.28	0.00	0.08	24.2
Leadership Trust	——>		3.67	0.21	0.00	0.05	13.5
Role Ambiguity	——>		-5.52	-0.31	0.00	0.10	30.5
Role Conflict	——>		-4.95	-0.28	0.00	0.08	24.5
Organicity	——>	Impact	3.74	0.22	0.00	0.07	20.8
Centralisation	——>		-6.06	-0.34	0.00	0.12	36.7
Reward	——>		4.43	0.26	0.00	0.07	19.6
Training	——>		3.04	0.18	0.00	0.03	9.2
Information Sharing	——>		4.91	0.28	0.00	0.08	24.1
Orgn Support	——>		7.38	0.40	0.00	0.16	54.5
Leadership Trust	——>		4.85	0.28	0.00	0.08	23.5
Role Ambiguity	——>		-6.37	-0.36	0.00	0.13	40.6
Role Conflict	——>		-4.54	-0.26	0.00	0.07	20.6

4-12-3 Relationship between Psychological Empowerment and Outcome Variables

The psychological empowerment dimensions are next regressed to the three outcome variables, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions to evaluate their relationship. The results are displayed in Table 4.31. With regard to relationship to job satisfaction, Liden *et al.* (2000) found that only meaning variable shows significance to job satisfaction, whereas Carless (2004) suggests meaning and competence to be predictors of job satisfaction whilst competence suggests a negative significance to job satisfaction which Carless chose not to explain as negative beta coefficients may suggest suppressor effects that according to Cohen and Cohen (1983) are difficult to interpret. Due to the inconsistent results, it would be interesting to further investigate this relationship. Hypothesis 10a predicts that: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact job satisfaction.*

The results suggest that meaning, impact and self-determination significantly impact job satisfaction: meaning (t-test = 7.25, beta = 0.40, p = 0.00); impact (t-test = 4.31, beta = 0.25, p = 0.00) and self-determination (t-test = 3.55, beta = 0.21, p = 0.00). There was no relationship between competence and job satisfaction. Hence, Hypothesis 10a is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are positively impacting job satisfaction. Whilst three psychological empowerment dimensions are significant, meaning variable appears to be the dominant variable as revealed by the high beta scores.

Turning to the relationship between psychological empowerment dimensions and organisational commitment, Liden *et al.* (2000) suggest that only meaning and impact is positively significantly relate to organisational commitment. Kraimer *et al's.* (1999) study however, found only self-determination and impact to relate to organisational commitment. Hence, further tests need to be made to evaluate the relationship. Hypothesis 10b proposes that: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact organisational commitment.*

The results indicate that meaning, impact and self-determination significantly impact organisational commitment: meaning (t-test = 8.97, beta = 0.47, p = 0.00); impact (t-test = 8.57, beta = 0.46, p = 0.00) and self-determination (t-test = 5.78, beta = 0.33, p = 0.00). There was a relatively weak relationship between competence and organisational commitment (t-test = 1.89, beta = 0.11, p = 0.06). Hence, Hypothesis 10b

is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are positively and significantly related to organisational commitment.

With regards to turnover intention, Kraimer *et al.* (1999) found meaning and competence to negatively impact career intentions. The current study re-evaluates the finding, with Hypothesis 10c predicts that: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will negatively impact turnover intention.*

The results suggest that meaning, impact and self-determination significantly impact turnover intention: meaning (t-test = -6.10, beta = -0.34, p = 0.00); self-determination (t-test = -3.99, beta = -0.23, p = 0.00) and impact (t-test = -3.32, beta = -0.19, p = 0.00). There is a weak but not significant relationship between competence and job satisfaction (t-test = 1.89, beta = 0.11, p = 0.06). Hence, Hypothesis 10c is partially supported as three variables namely self-determination, meaning and impact are negatively impacting turnover intention. Whilst Kraimer *et al* (1999) only found a link between meaning and competence to turnover, the present research suggests self-determination, meaning and impact are related to turnover intentions.

Table 4.31 Relationship Between Individual Empowerment and Outcome Variables

Psychological Empowerment Variables		Outcomes	t-test	Beta	P	R2	F
Self-Determination	——>	Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	0.04	12.6
Competence	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.01	1.9
Meaning	——>		7.25	0.40	0.00	0.16	52.6
Impact	——>		4.31	0.25	0.00	0.06	18.5
Self-Determination	——>	Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	0.05	15.9
Competence	——>		NS	NS	NS	0.00	0.2
Meaning	——>		-6.10	-0.34	0.00	0.12	37.3
Impact	——>		-3.32	-0.19	0.00	0.04	11.0
Self-Determination	——>	Organisational Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	0.11	33.4
Competence	——>		1.89	0.11	0.06*	0.01	3.6
Meaning	——>		8.97	0.47	0.00	0.22	80.5
Impact	——>		8.57	0.46	0.00	0.21	73.5

4-12-4 Summary of Regression and Hypotheses Results

Overall, the regression analysis between antecedents and work outcomes suggests the majority of variables performed in accordance to theoretical and empirical studies. For example, regression results between antecedent and outcome variables support prevailing research except to the relationship between training and job satisfaction which was not significant. Moreover, the results suggest that organisational specific level constructs such as organicity and organisational support a play a role in influencing psychological empowerment, in particular meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions.

With regard to the relationship between antecedents examined and psychological empowerment, two psychological empowerment variables impact and self-.determination were significant to all the antecedents under investigation. Meaning variable was significant to all antecedents except between training and meaning. As for competence variable, regression results were only significant between training, information sharing, role conflict and role ambiguity. As a consequence, all direct relationships between information sharing and psychological empowerment (hypothesis 6a), role conflict and psychological empowerment (hypothesis 8a) and role ambiguity psychological empowerment (hypothesis 9a) were fully supported. All other hypotheses were partially supported (hypothesis 1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, and 7a).

Regression analysis between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes suggests that meaning, self-determination and impact have significant relationships on the three work outcome variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions). Competence did not display any significance to outcome variables. The current research suggests that only meaning variable is found to have significant relationship with work outcome variables consistently across prevailing studies. Self-determination and impact variables suggest limited support, whilst competence variable is poorly supported. The current study partially supports hypothesis 10a, 10b and 10c which dealt with the relationship between empowerment dimensions and work outcomes.

Having examined the relationships between antecedents, psychological empowerment and outcome constructs, mediation and moderation effects will next be conducted. Mediation tests will first be carried out between antecedent variables and

outcome variables with individual psychological empowerment dimensions. The mediation tests will determine if psychological empowerment variables mediates between antecedents and outcomes. This will be followed by test for moderation with job level, tenure and age as well as HR Practices, role conflict and role ambiguity variables will be carried out.

4-13 Analysing Mediation and Moderation Effects

To assess the hypotheses empirically, a series linear and multiple regressions employing Baron and Kenny (1986) and Kenny (2007a; 2007b) approach is adopted to test for mediation and moderation. The first reason for this is that the large number of constructs and hence items that need to be explored exceeds the recommended ratio of indicators to sample size for structural equation modeling (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Secondly, the advantage of this procedure is that it allows a more fine grained analysis of the specific components of psychological empowerment (Carless, 2004; Siebert *et al.*, 2004).

Baron and Kenny (1986) and Kenny's (2007a) mediation analysis consists of four main steps. The first step is to determine the direct effect of the predictor (independent) variable on the criterion (dependent) variable, i.e. the antecedent variable on the outcome variable. The test is similar to the linear regression tests conducted in section 4-12-1. The second step is to determine the effect of the independent (antecedent) variable on the mediator variable. The test is similar to the linear regressions conducted in section 4-12-2. Thus, the second step is to establish if the selected mediator has a significant influence in the trial (Meuter *et al.*, 2005). For this study, the four mediator variables are meaning, self-determination, competence and impact variables of Spreitzer's psychological empowerment construct. The third step involves testing the effect of the mediator on dependent variable similar to tests done in section 4-12-3. Finally, in step 4, the effect of the independent variable is evaluated on the dependent variable with the intermediate variable added to the equation and analysed simultaneously with multiple regression.

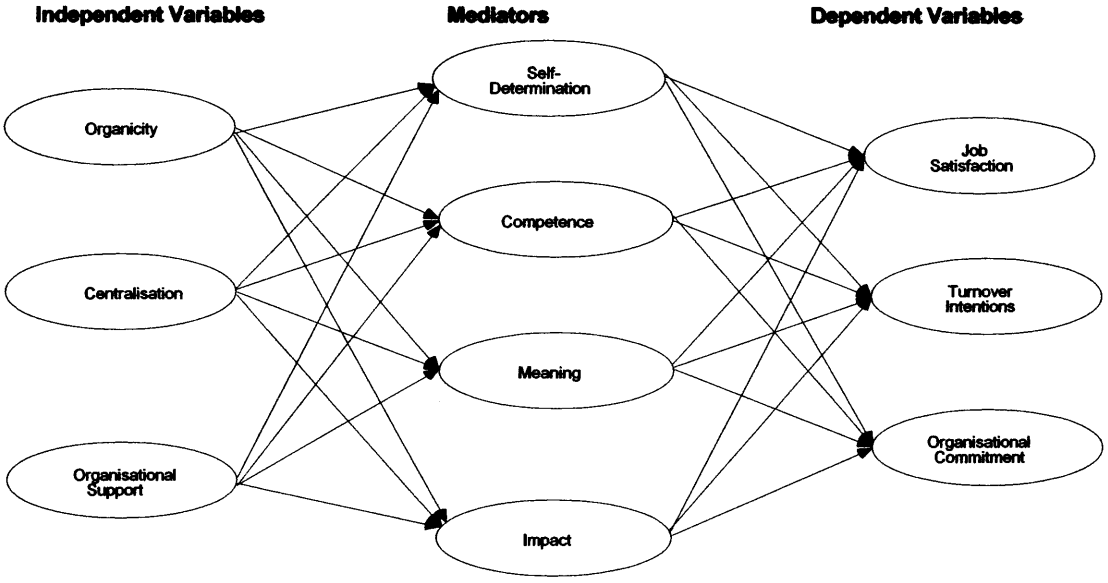
If the effect of the independent variable is reduced when the mediator variable is added to the model, mediation is said to take place. Complete mediation is said to take place when the independent variable has no effect on dependent variable with the inclusion of the mediator variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). However, complete mediation is rarely observed with behavioural data (Meuter *et al.*, 2005), hence, partial mediation is a more realistic expectation

when analysing mediation effects. Partial mediation is observed by examining the beta coefficients and p-values of the independent (antecedent) variable in step two and step four of the procedure. An implication of the Baron and Kenny's approach is that comparisons across the steps in the process require the testing of individual mediators. Hence, tests are conducted on all possible mediating effects. Due to the large number of variables involved in this study, the mediation analysis will be conducted following the hypothesised model (Figure 2.1) described in page chapter two. The mediation of psychological empowerment dimensions on the four main themes will be analysed in the following manner: (1) Structure and Support, (2) HR Practices, (3) Leadership Trust (4) Conflict and Ambiguity. Following this structured investigation will allow a meaningful presentation and observation of results less unwieldy. A brief explanation of the models to be examined will now be discussed before the results are presented.

4-13-1 Structure & Support Model

Figure 4.5 shows the structure and support model to be evaluated. The purpose of this investigation is two-fold. Firstly, to determine if psychological empowerment mediates between the two organisational structures (organicity and centralisation) and outcome variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention). Secondly, is to determine if psychological empowerment dimensions mediate between organisational support and outcome variables. It was hypothesised that psychological empowerment dimensions will mediate between organisational specific constructs and the three outcome variables. The complete Barron and Kenny's (1986) mediation steps are explained in section 4-13. The investigations were performed by individually testing one variable each from antecedent, psychological empowerment and outcome. Hence, a total of 36 individual mediation tests will need to be performed. This is followed by model evaluation of each set of tests and overall model assessment. The steps are repeated for the other models.

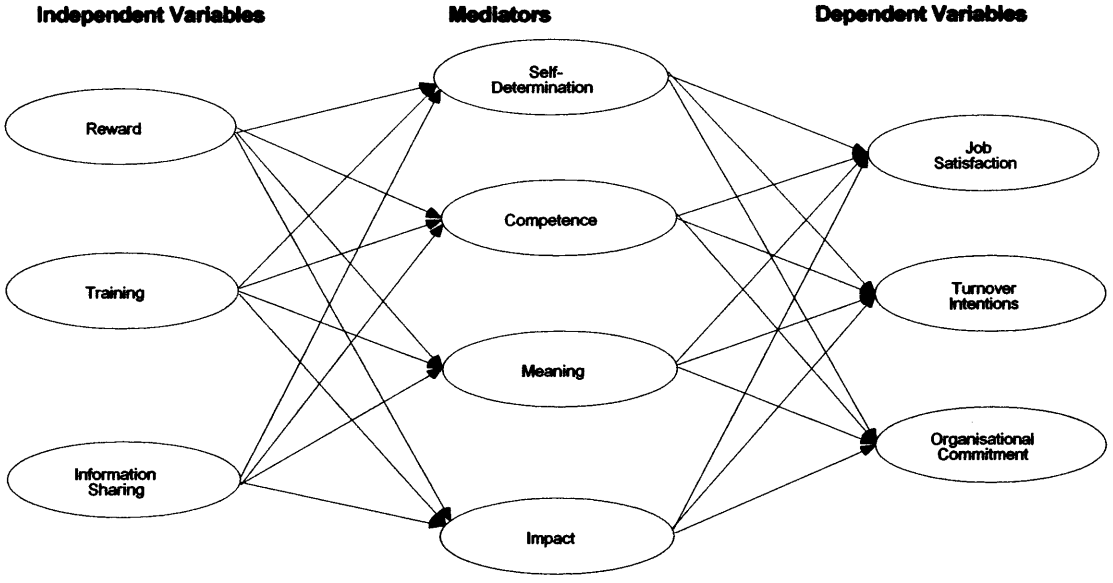
Figure 4.5 Structure & Support Model



4-13-2 HR Practices Model

The HR Practices dimension is made up of three main antecedents, namely reward, training and information sharing variables (Figure 4.6). It is hypothesised that psychological empowerment variables will mediate between HR practices variables and the three outcome variables. Similar mediation tests will be performed with HR practices variables, namely reward, training and information sharing to outcome variables with the four construct empowerment model as mediators. A total of 36 separate mediation tests need to be carried out to complete all possible mediation effect for this model.

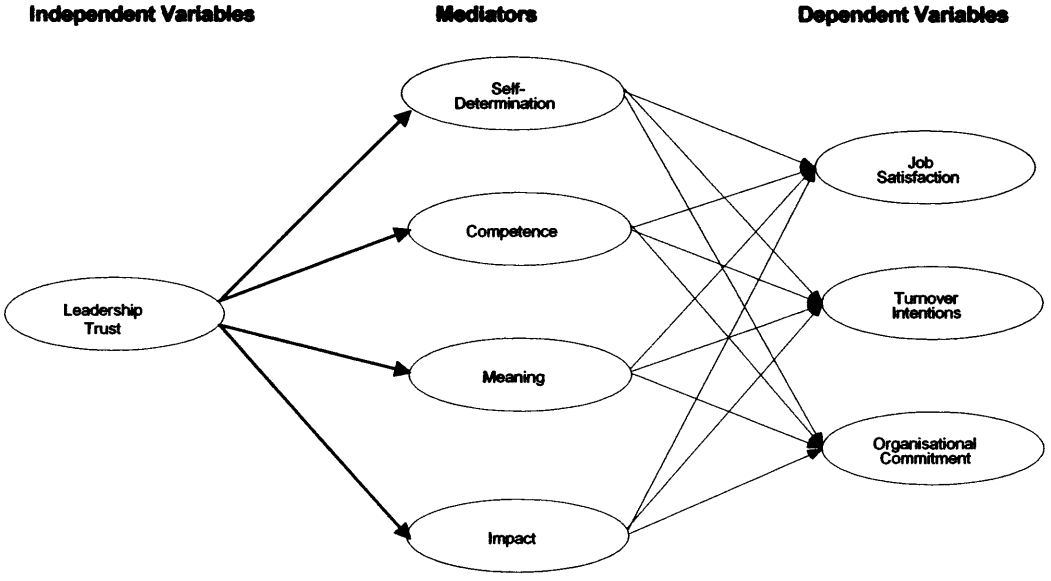
Figure 4.6 HR Practices Model



4-13-3 Leadership Trust Model

Leadership trust is employed trust dimension. Figure 4.7 illustrates the model. It was hypothesised that psychological empowerment variables will mediate between leadership trust and the three outcome variables. In order to evaluate the mediation effects, 12 individual tests are carried out for this model.

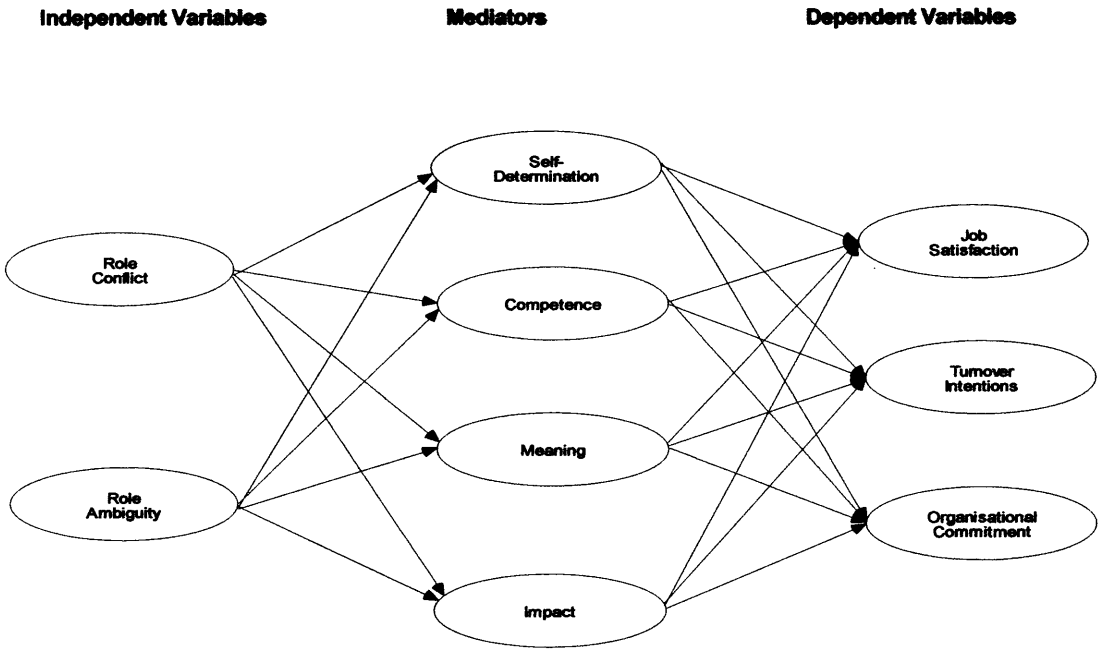
Figure 4.7 Leadership Trust Model



4-13-4 Conflict and Ambiguity Model

The fourth hypothesised model is to test the impact of role conflict and role ambiguity on empowerment and outcomes. Figure 4.8 is the model to be tested. It is hypothesised that psychological empowerment variables will mediate between conflict and ambiguity variables and the three outcome variables. To complete the evaluation, 24 individual mediation tests need to be carried out.

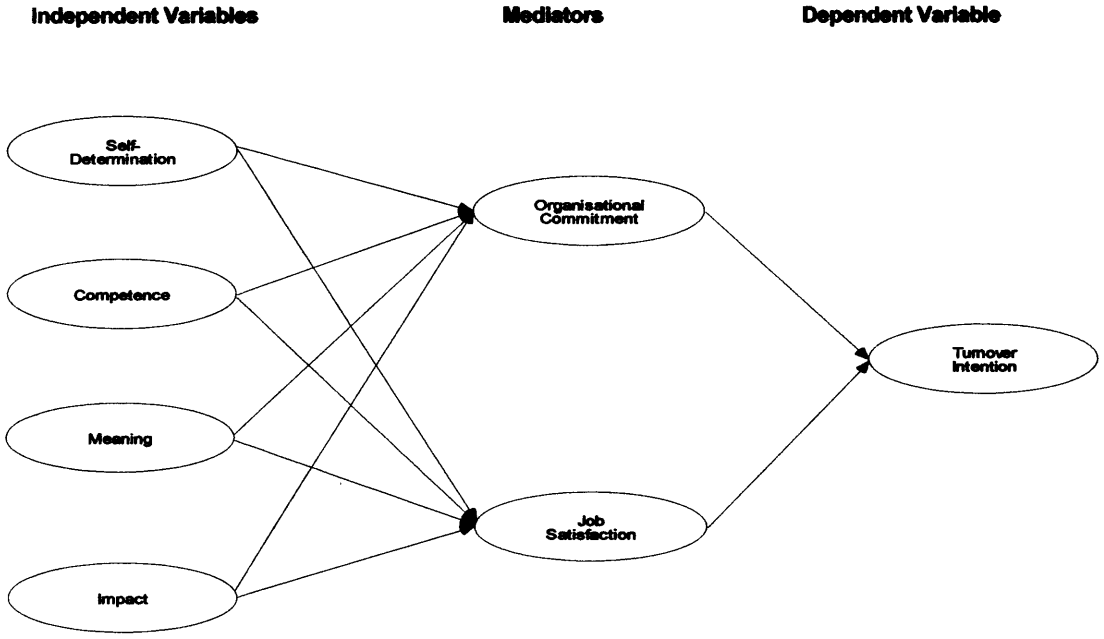
Figure 4.8 Conflict and Ambiguity Model



4-13-5 Mediating Role of Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

It was further hypothesised that organisational commitment and job satisfaction will mediate between empowerment dimensions and turnover. A total of eight individual tests need to be carried out in order to test organisational commitment and job satisfaction as mediators between empowerment and turnover intention. The hypothesised model proposed is illustrated in Figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9 Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction Mediation Model



4-13-6 Summary of Mediation Models

Due to the myriad number of constructs, mediation will be carried out in stages. Firstly, Structure and Support will be carried out, followed by HR Practice, and so on. All possible tests for mediation were methodically carried out with the various antecedent, psychological empowerment and outcome variables. The tests for mediation between each independent to dependent variable could fail at any step. Hence, any independent variable that failed to regress significantly on any dependent variables was dropped from further mediation analysis. The results are reported in the following next section.

4-14 Mediation between Structure and Support and Work Outcomes

The mediation for structure and support involve three independent variables, namely, organicity, centralisation and organisational support as explained in section 4-13-1 (Figure 4.5). A series of tests are carried out between the independent variables the three dependent variables, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

4-14-1 Mediation between Organicity and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.32 shows the results of the individual psychological empowerment variables mediating between organicity and job satisfaction. In order to interpret the results, t-tests, beta coefficients and significance testing will be employed (Meuter *et al.* 2005). By comparing the t-test and beta results, the strength of the regression effects will be noted and interpreted. With regard to significance testing, where $p = 0.00$, the results are interpreted as very significant, $p = 0.05$ suggests significance at 95% confidence interval.

Steps 1, 2 and 3 all regressed significantly to the corresponding variables. More importantly in Step 4, where the mediation variable is added to the antecedent and outcome (job satisfaction) equation, there is a noticeable drop in t-test and beta coefficient (between Step 4 and Step 1). For example, mediation test between organicity and job satisfaction with self-determination as mediator, the t-test and beta coefficient in Step 4 for organicity is 2.04 and 0.13 respectively. In Step 1, the direct relationship between organicity and job satisfaction has a t-test and beta coefficient of 3.16 and 0.19 respectively. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that a zero or non significant effect between the criterion (antecedent variable) and predictor (outcome variable) in Step 4 signifies complete mediation. Meuter *et al.* (2005) provide a detailed explanation on conducting and interpreting mediation results and suggest that a drop in its effect indicates partial mediation, hence the results in Table 4.32 suggest that the mediating variables namely, self-determination, meaning and impact partially mediates between organicity and job satisfaction. Competence, however failed to mediate (Step 1 failed). Similar observations are made with the rest of the mediation effects as detailed in the following tables. Where complete mediation is achieved, the column on the right is indicated with 'YES COMPLETE'. Where mediation suggests partial mediation, 'YES PARTIAL' is indicated. Failed mediation tests are indicated with a 'FAIL'. Table 4.32

will be used to analyse Hypothesis 1b where it was predicted that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and job satisfaction.* The results support hypothesis 1b that self-determination, meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between organicity and job satisfaction. No mediation is detected for competence variable. Hence, the results suggest partial support for Hypothesis 1b. The results also suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variable with significantly higher scores (t-test = 6.77, beta = 0.38).

Table 4.32 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Organicity and Job Satisfaction

Organicity – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity – Job Satisfaction	3.16	0.19	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Organicity – Self-Determination	6.46	0.36	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	2.04	0.13	0.04	
	Determination	2.60	0.16	0.01	
Organicity – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**FAIL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity - Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Organicity – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity – Job Satisfaction	3.16	0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Organicity - Meaning	3.24	0.19	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	2.05	0.11	0.04	
	Meaning	6.77	0.38	0.00	
Organicity – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity –Job Satisfaction	3.16	0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Organicity – Impact	4.56	0.26	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	2.16	0.13	0.03	
	Impact	3.62	0.22	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-2 Mediation between Organicity and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.33 shows the mediation results of psychological empowerment variables between organicity and organisational commitment. The results are used to examine Hypothesis 1c, where *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and organisational commitment.* Employing similar techniques describe above, the mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between organicity and organisational commitment. No mediation is detected for competence variable. Hence, the results suggest partial support for Hypothesis 1c. The results also suggest that meaning and impact variables are the dominant variables in this analysis (t-test = 8.42, beta = 0.45); (t-test = 7.81, beta = 0.43) respectively with meaning being the stronger of the two.

Table 4.33 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Organicity and Organisational Commitment

Organicity – Self-Determination – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			Mediation Achieved?
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity – Orgn Commitment	3.74	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Organicity – Self-Determination	6.46	0.36	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	1.92	0.12	0.06	
	Self-Determination	4.73	0.28	0.00	
Organicity – Competence – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	FAIL
Step 1	Organicity – Orgn Commitment	3.74	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Organicity – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Organicity – Meaning – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity – Orgn Commitment	3.74	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Organicity - Meaning	3.24	0.19	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	2.50	0.13	0.01	
	Meaning	8.42	0.45	0.00	
Organicity – Impact – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity –OrgnCommitment	3.74	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Organicity – Impact	4.56	0.26	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 3	Impact – Orgnl Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	1.94	0.11	0.05	
	Impact	7.81	0.43	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-3 Mediation between Organicity and Turnover Intention

Table 4.34 shows the results between organicity and turnover intention. The results are used to investigate Hypothesis 1d, i.e. *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and turnover intention.* As indicated, the psychological empowerment variables, namely self-determination, meaning and impact variables were found to strongly mediate between organicity and turnover intention as all four Baron and Kenny (1986) steps were met and mediation is indicated with the three tests. Moreover, in step 4, the direct regression between organicity and turnover intention is not significant when the mediating variables, meaning, impact and self-determination is added to the model, suggesting complete mediation. Competence variable failed to mediate. Thus, hypothesis 1d is fully supported for self-determination, meaning and impact with exception to competence variable. The results further suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variable (t-test = -5.82, beta = -0.33).

Table 4.34 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Organicity and Turnover Intentions

Organicity – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			Mediation Achieved?
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity –Turnover Intention	-1.94	-0.12	0.05	YES COMPLETE
Step 2	Organicity – Self-Determination	6.46	0.36	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	NS	NS	NS	
	Self-Determination	-3.51	-0.22	0.00	
Organicity – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity –Turnover Intention	-1.94	-0.12	0.05	
Step 2	Organicity – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Organicity – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES COMPLETE
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity –Turnover Intention	-1.94	-0.12	0.05	
Step 2	Organicity – Meaning	3.24	0.19	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	NS	NS	NS	
	Meaning	-5.82	-0.33	0.00	
Organicity – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES COMPLETE
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organicity –Turnover Intention	-1.94	-0.12	0.05	
Step 2	Organicity – Impact	4.56	0.26	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Organicity	NS	NS	NS	
	Impact	-2.91	-0.18	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-4 Mediation between Centralisation and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.35 shows the results between centralisation and job satisfaction. The results are used to support Hypothesis 2b which proposes that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and job satisfaction.* The analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact variables completely mediate the relationship between centralisation and job satisfaction. No mediation is detected for competence variable. Hence, Hypothesis 2b is supported for self-determination, meaning and impact but not competence variable. The results also suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variable (t-test = 6.99, beta = 0.39).

Table 4.35 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Centralisation and Job Satisfaction

Centralisation – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Job Satisfaction	-2.20	-0.13	0.03	YES COMPLETE
Step 2	Centralisation – Self-Determination	-11.20	-0.56	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	NS	NS	NS	
	Self-Determination	2.78	0.20	0.00	
Centralisation – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Job Satisfaction	-2.20	-0.13	0.03	
Step 2	Centralisation – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Centralisation – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			YES COMPLETE
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation –Job Satisfaction	-2.20	-0.13	0.03	
Step 2	Centralisation – Meaning	-2.44	-0.14	0.02	
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	NS	NS	NS	
	Meaning	6.99	0.39	0.00	
Mediation: Centralisation – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			YES COMPLETE
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Job Satisfaction	-2.20	-0.13	0.03	
Step 2	Centralisation – Impact	-6.06	-0.34	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	NS	NS	NS	
	Impact	3.76	0.23	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-5 Mediation between Centralisation and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.36 shows the results of between centralisation and organisational commitment. Hypothesis 2c is next evaluated. It predicts that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and organisational commitment.* The results suggest that self-determination, meaning and impact variables are found to partially mediate between centralisation and organisational commitment. Competence failed to mediate. Hence, the results suggest partial support for Hypothesis 2c. Results also indicate that meaning and impact variables dominates the relationship (t-test = 8.53, beta = 0.44); (t-test = 7.20, beta = 0.40) respectively.

Table 4.36 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Centralisation and Organisational Commitment

Centralisation – Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Orgn Commitment	-5.17	-0.29	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Centralisation – Self-Determination	-11.20	-0.56	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	-2.44	-0.16	0.02	
	Self-Determination	3.50	0.24	0.00	
Centralisation – Competence – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			FAIL
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Orgn Commitment	-5.17	-0.29	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Centralisation – Meaning – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation –Orgn Commitment	-5.19	-0.29	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Meaning	-2.44	-0.14	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	-4.50	-0.23	0.00	
	Meaning	8.53	0.44	0.00	
Centralisation – Impact – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Orgn Commitment	-5.17	-0.29	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Impact	-6.06	-0.34	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	-2.84	-0.16	0.01	
	Impact	7.20	0.40	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-6 Mediation between Centralisation and Turnover Intention

Table 4.37 shows the results between centralisation and turnover intention. The results are used to examine Hypothesis 2d, i.e., *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and turnover intention.* The analysis supports the hypothesis that meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between centralisation and turnover intention. No mediation is detected for competence whilst a weak support (p = 0.06) was found for self-determination. Since the cut-off significance is p = 0.05, mediation has not been successful in this instance. Hence, only partial support is found for Hypothesis 2d. The results further suggest that meaning variable is the dominants the relationship (t-test = -5.64, beta = -0.31).

Table 4.37 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Centralisation and Turnover Intentions

Centralisation – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Turnover Intention	4.39	0.25	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Self-Determination	-11.20	-0.56	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 4	Centralisation	2.62	0.18	0.01	
	Self-Determination	-1.91	-0.13	0.06**	
Centralisation – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	**FAIL**
Step 1	Centralisation – Turnover Intention	4.39	0.25	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Centralisation – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation –Turnover Intention	4.39	0.25	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Meaning	-2.44	-0.14	0.02	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	3.77	0.21	0.00	
	Meaning	-5.64	-0.31	0.00	
Centralisation – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Centralisation – Turnover Intention	4.39	0.25	0.00	
Step 2	Centralisation – Impact	-6.06	-0.34	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Centralisation	3.47	0.21	0.00	
	Impact	-2.01	-12.00	0.05*	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-7 Mediation between Organisational Support and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.38 shows the mediation results between organisational support and job satisfaction. The results are used to support Hypothesis 3b which suggests that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and job satisfaction.* As observed, three of the psychological empowerment variables, self-determination, meaning and impact variables are also found to partially mediate between organisational support and job satisfaction. The relationship between organisational support and competence is weak (t-test = 1.71, beta = 0.10, p = 0.09) and hence failed to mediate successfully. Hence, Hypothesis 3b is partially supported. Meaning variable also strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = 6.50, beta = 0.37).

Table 4.38 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for mediation between Organisational Support and Job Satisfaction

Organisational Support – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Orgn Support – Self Determination	8.12	0.44	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	
Step 4	Organ Support	2.13	0.14	0.03	
	Self-Determination	2.30	0.15	0.02*	
Organisational Support – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**FAIL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	
Step 2	Organisational Support - Competence	1.71	0.10	0.09	
Organisational Support – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	
Step 2	Orgn Support - Meaning	4.92	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Orgn Support	1.71	0.10	0.09	
	Meaning	6.50	0.37	0.00	
Organisational Support – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organisational Support –Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	
Step 2	Organisational Support – Impact	7.38	0.40	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Organisational Support	1.92	0.12	0.06	
	Impact	3.19	0.20	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-8 Mediation between Organisational Support and Organisational Commitment

The following table 4.39 displays the mediation results between organisational support and organisational commitment. The results are used to support Hypothesis 3c which predicts that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment.* As indicated, self-determination, meaning and impact variables are found to partially mediate between information sharing and turnover intention. In Step 4, the mediation results with self-determination as the mediating variable however, produced a weak relationship (t-test = 1.86, beta = 0.10, p = 0.06) hence mediation is not supported at p = 0.05 level. No mediation is detected for competence. The results also suggest that meaning is the dominant variable (t-test = 7.20, beta = 0.34, p = 0.00); mediation for self-determination was weak and below the cut-off p = 0.05 significance (t-test = 1.86, beta = 0.34, p = 0.06).

Table 4.39 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Organisational Support and Organisational Commitment

Orgn Support – Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Orgn Commitment	11.56	0.56	0.00	
Step 2	Orgn Support – Self Determination	8.12	0.44	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 4	Orgn Support	9.42	0.51	0.00	
	Self-Determination	1.86	0.10	0.06*	
Orgn Support – Competence – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Orgn Commitment	11.56	0.56	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 2	Orgn Support – Competence	1.71	0.10	0.09	
Step 3	Competence – Orgn Commitment	1.89	0.11	0.06	
Step 4	Orgn Support	11.14	0.55	0.00	
	Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Orgn Support – Meaning – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support –Orgn Commitment	11.56	0.56	0.00	
Step 2	Orgn Support – Meaning	4.92	0.28	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Organisational Support	9.77	0.46	0.00	
	Meaning	7.20	0.34	0.00	
Orgn Support – Impact – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Orgn Commitment	11.56	0.56	0.00	
Step 2	Orgn Support - Impact	7.38	0.40	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Impact – Organisational Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Organisational Support	8.70	0.45	0.00	
	Impact	5.33	0.27	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-9 Mediation Tests between Organisational Support and Turnover Intention

The following Table 4.40 reports the mediation results between organisational support and turnover intention. The results will be used to examine Hypothesis 3d which suggests that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intention.* As indicated, only meaning variable is found to partially mediate the relationship between organisational support and turnover intention. The results is (t-test=-4.33, beta = -0.23, p = 0.00). No mediation is detected for self-determination, impact and competence variables, hence, only partial support is found for Hypothesis 3d.

Table 4.40 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for mediation between Organisational Support and Turnover Intention

Orgn Support – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organisational Support – Turnover Intention	-8.58	-0.46	0.00	
Step 2	Organisational Support – Self-Determination	8.12	0.44	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 4	Organisational Support	-7.41	-0.44	0.00	
	Self-Determination	NS	NS	NS	
Orgn Support – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Organisational Support – Turnover Intention	-8.58	-0.46	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 2	Organisational Support – Competence	1.71	0.10	0.09	
Step 3	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Orgn Support – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support –Turnover Intention	-8.58	-0.46	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Orgn Support – Meaning	4.92	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Orgn Support	-7.27	-0.39	0.00	
	Meaning	-4.33	-0.23	0.00	
Orgn Support – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Orgn Support – Turnover Intention	-8.58	-0.46	0.00	
Step 2	Orgn Support – Impact	7.38	0.40	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Organisational Support	-7.75	-0.45	0.00	
	Impact	NS	NS	NS	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-14-10 Summary of Mediation for Structure and Support

A series of tests were carried out between the independent variables (organicity and centralisation) and dependent variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention). As suggested by the results, self-determination, meaning and impact displayed partial mediation between organicity and job satisfaction, and between organicity and organisational commitment whilst complete mediation is found between organicity and turnover intention. Complete mediation by three psychological empowerment variables, namely, self-determination, meaning and impact was found between centralisation and job satisfaction. Partial mediation was indicated for self-determination, meaning and impact between centralisation and organisational commitment. The results between centralisation and turnover intention suggest mediation occurs only for meaning and impact variables. Overall, the results indicate that organicity and centralisation are mediated differently by the different components of psychological empowerment.

The results of the hypotheses for organisational structure variables presented some important findings. Meaning appears to be the dominant variable in the mediating relationship between organisational structure variables of organicity and centralisation to the outcomes namely, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The t-tests and beta coefficients are lower between impact and outcome variables compared to meaning and outcomes, suggesting that impact dimension is the second dominant variable. The results also indicate that self-determination variable is the third dominant variable whilst competence is weakest as no mediation was achieved. Earlier linear regressions among similar variables produced weak or non significant relationships further points to weakness in the competence variable as claimed by Siegall and Gartner (2000).

With regard to mediation between organisational support and outcomes, partial mediation was found for meaning, self-determination and impact between organisational support and job satisfaction. However, only meaning and impact partial mediates between organisational support and organisational commitment. Meaning variable also partially mediates between organisational support and turnover intentions. Competence remains the weakest variable in the mediation analysis. Next the hypotheses to support

mediation effect of psychological empowerment variables between HR Practices and the three outcomes will be examined.

4-15 Mediation between HR Practices and Work Outcomes

As discussed in chapter one, three variables namely reward, training and information sharing shape HR Practices in this study. It is hypothesised that good HR practices will enhance psychological empowerment and hence strengthen job satisfaction, organisational commitment and reduce intention to leave. Hence, investigating if psychological empowerment dimensions mediate between HR practices and work outcomes will help us understand these issues better.

4-15-1 Mediation between Training and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.41 shows the results between training and job satisfaction variables. The results are used to investigate Hypothesis 4b proposes that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and job satisfaction.* As indicated in Step 1, the regression between training and job satisfaction showed no significance, suggesting that mediation failed for all the tests. Hence, all tests failed Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation steps. As such, hypothesis 4b is not supported.

Table 4.41 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Training and Job Satisfaction

Training – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training – Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	
Training – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	**FAIL**
Step 1	Training –Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	
Training – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	**FAIL**
Step 1	Training –Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	
Training – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	**FAIL**
Step 1	Training – Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-2 Mediation between Training Organisational Commitment

Table 4.42 shows the results between training and organisational commitment variables. The results are used to evaluate Hypothesis 4c, i.e. *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and organisational commitment.* The mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between training and organisational commitment. No mediation is detected for meaning and competence variable. Hence, only partial support is found for Hypothesis 4c. The results also suggest that impact variable is the dominant variable (t-test = 8.15, beta = 0.44, p = 0.00); self-determination results are significant as follows: (t-test = 7.81, beta = 0.43, p = 0.00).

Table 4.42 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Training and Organisational Commitment

Training – Self-Determination – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training – Orgn Commitment	2.94	0.17	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Training – Self-Determination	3.95	0.23	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Training	1.79	0.10	0.07	
	Self-Determination	5.24	0.30	0.00	
Training – Competence – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training – Orgn Commitment	2.94	0.17	0.00	FAIL
Step 2	Training – Competence	7.44	0.41	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Orgn Commitment	1.89	0.11	0.06	
Step 4	Training	2.37	0.15	0.02	
	Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Training – Meaning – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	FAIL
Step 1	Training – Orgn Commitment	2.94	0.17	0.00	
Step 2	Training – Meaning	1.60	0.10	0.11	
Training – Impact – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training – Orgn Commitment	2.94	0.17	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Training – Impact	3.04	0.18	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Training	1.76	0.09	0.08	
	Impact	8.15	0.44	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-3 Mediation between Training and Turnover Intention

Table 4.43 shows the results between training and turnover intention variables. The results are used to test Hypothesis 4d which predicts that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and turnover intention.* The mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination variable completely mediates the relationship between training and turnover intention. The results are (t-test=-3.52, beta = -0.21, p = 0.00) and the relationship between training is not significant when self-determination variable is added to the equation. Hence, complete mediation is indicated. Impact variable suggests partial mediation between training and turnover intentions. No mediation is detected for meaning and competence variables as mediators. Hence, partial support is found for Hypothesis 4d as the results demonstrate that self-determination and impact variables mediate the relationship between training and turnover intention, with self-determination being the dominant variable.

Table 4.43 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for mediation between Training and Turnover Intention

Training – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training – Turnover Intention	-2.46	-0.15	0.00	YES COMPLETE
Step 2	Training – Self-Determination	3.95	0.23	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	
Step 4	Training	NS	NS	NS	
	Self-Determination	-3.52	-0.21	0.00	
Training – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training –Turnover Intention	-2.46	-0.15	0.01	
Step 2	Training – Competence	7.44	0.41	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Training – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training –Turnover Intention	-2.46	-0.15	0.01	
Step 2	Training – Meaning	1.60	0.10	0.11	
Training – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Training – Turnover Intention	-2.46	-0.15	0.01	
Step 2	Training – Impact	3.04	0.18	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Training	-1.93	-0.11	0.05	
	Impact	-2.94	-0.17	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-4 Mediation between Reward and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.44 displays the results between reward and job satisfaction. The results are used to test Hypothesis 5b where dimensions of psychological empowerment are expected to mediate the relationship between reward and job satisfaction. As indicated, self-determination, meaning and impact variables were found to partially mediate the relationship between reward and job satisfaction. Competence variable, however, failed to mediate. Hence, partial support is found for Hypothesis 5b. The results suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variable (t-test = 6.84, beta = 0.37).

Table 4.44 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Reward and Job Satisfaction

Reward – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Job Satisfaction	3.86	0.22	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Reward – Self-Determination	3.09	0.18	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	3.31	0.19	0.00	
	Self-Determination	2.95	0.17	0.00	
Reward – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**FAIL**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Job Satisfaction	3.86	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Reward – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward –Job Satisfaction	3.86	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Meaning	2.44	0.14	0.02	
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	3.14	0.17	0.00	
	Meaning	6.84	0.37	0.00	
Reward – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward –Job Satisfaction	3.86	0.22	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Impact	4.43	0.26	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	2.92	0.17	0.04	
	Impact	3.47	0.21	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-5 Mediation between Reward and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.45 shows the results between reward and organisational commitment variables. The results are used to test Hypothesis 5c which suggests that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and organisational commitment.* Similar to the mediation test for job satisfaction above, self-determination, meaning and impact variables are also found to partial mediate between reward and organisational commitment. Competence did not show any mediation. Hence, Hypothesis 5c is partially supported. The results also suggest that meaning and impact variables are the dominant variables (t-test = 8.54, beta = 0.43); (t-test = 7.42, beta = 0.39) respectively with meaning being the stronger of the two.

Table 4.45 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Reward and Organisational Commitment

Reward – Self-Determination – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Orgn Commitment	6.05	0.34	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Reward – Self-Determination	3.09	0.18	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	5.29	0.29	0.00	
	Self - Determination	4.99	0.27	0.01	
Reward – Competence – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Orgn Commitment	6.05	0.34	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Reward – Meaning – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward –Orgn Commitment	6.05	0.34	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Meaning	2.44	0.14	0.02	
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	5.48	0.28	0.00	
	Meaning	8.54	0.43	0.00	
Reward – Impact – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward –Orgn Commitment	6.05	0.34	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Impact	4.43	0.26	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	4.49	0.24	0.00	
	Impact	7.42	0.39	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-6 Mediation between Reward and Turnover Intention

Table 4.46 shows the mediation results between reward and turnover intention variables. Hypothesis 5d will be evaluated, i.e. *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and turnover intention.* As indicated, self-determination, meaning and impact variables were found to partially mediate between reward and turnover intention. However, in Step 4, the regression effect between reward and turnover intention only displayed a small drop in effect. The mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between reward and turnover intention. As such, Hypothesis 5d is partially supported. The results also suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variable (t-test = -5.56, beta = 0.30).

Table 4.46 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Reward and Turnover Intention

Reward – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Turnover Intention	-5.93	-0.33	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Reward – Self-Determination	3.09	0.18	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	-5.35	-0.30	0.00	
	Self-Determination	-3.14	-0.18	0.00	
Reward – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Turnover Intention	-5.93	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Reward – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Turnover	-5.93	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Meaning	2.44	0.14	0.02	
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	-5.37	-0.29	0.00	
	Meaning	-5.56	-0.30	0.00	
Mediation: Reward – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Reward – Turnover Intention	-5.93	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Reward – Impact	4.43	0.26	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Reward	-5.25	-0.30	0.00	
	Impact	-2.02	-0.12	0.04*	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-7 Mediation between Information Sharing and Job Satisfaction

The third HR Practice variable that is hypothesised to impact empowerment is information sharing. Table 4.47 shows the mediation results between information sharing and job satisfaction variables. Hypothesis 6b will be examined the hypothesis that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and job satisfaction.* The mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between information sharing and job satisfaction. No mediation is detected for competence variable. As such, partial support is found for Hypothesis 6b. The results also suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variables (t-test = 6.73, beta = 0.37) in the analysis.

Table 4.47 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Information Sharing and Job Satisfaction

Information Sharing – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Job Satisfaction	3.15	0.19	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Information Sharing – Self-Determination	5.60	0.32	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	2.17	0.13	0.03	
	Determination	2.70	0.17	0.00	
Information Sharing – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**FAIL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Job Satisfaction	3.15	0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Information Sharing - Competence	2.67	0.16	0.00	
Step 3	Competence - Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	
Information Sharing – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Job Satisfaction	3.15	0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Information Sharing - Meaning	3.57	0.21	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	1.92	0.11	0.06**	
	Meaning	6.73	0.37	0.00	
Information Sharing – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing –Job Satisfaction	3.16	0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Information Sharing – Impact	4.91	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	2.09	0.13	0.04	
	Impact	3.57	0.21	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-8 Mediation between Information Sharing and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.48 shows the mediation results between information sharing and organisational commitment. The results are used to analyse Hypothesis 6c where the dimensions of psychological empowerment is expected to mediate the relationship between information sharing and organisational commitment. The mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between information sharing and organisation commitment. No mediation is detected for competence variable. Hypothesis 6c is thus partially supported. The results also suggest that meaning variable is the dominant variables (t-test = 6.73, beta = 0.37) in the mediation test.

Table 4.48 Individual Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Information Sharing and Organisational Commitment

Information Sharing – Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Orgn Commitment	7.22	0.40	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Information Sharing – Self-Determination	5.60	0.32	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	5.77	0.32	0.00	
	Self-Determination	3.97	0.22	0.00	
Information Sharing – Competence – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Orgn Commitment	7.22	0.40	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 2	Information Sharing – Competence	2.67	0.16	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Orgn Commitment	1.89	0.11	0.06	
Step 4	Information Sharing	6.98	0.39	0.00	
	Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Information Sharing – Meaning – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Orgn Commitment	7.22	0.40	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Information Sharing - Meaning	3.57	0.21	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	6.14	0.31	0.00	
	Meaning	8.06	0.41	0.00	
Information Sharing – Impact – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing –Orgn Commitment	7.22	0.40	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Information Sharing – Impact	4.91	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	5.51	0.29	0.00	
	Impact	7.10	0.37	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-9 Mediation between Information Sharing and Turnover Intention

Table 4.49 shows the mediation results between information sharing and turnover intention variables. Hypothesis 6d is next examined, i.e. *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and turnover intention.* The mediation analysis supports the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact variables partially mediate the relationship between information sharing and turnover intention. No mediation is detected for competence variable suggesting that Hypothesis 6d is partially supported. The results further suggest that meaning and impact variables both strongly mediates the relationship (t-test = 8.06, beta = 0.41) and (t-test = 7.10, beta = 0.37) respectively.

Table 4.49 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for mediation between Information Sharing and Turnover Intention

Information Sharing – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing –Turnover Intention	-6.19	-0.35	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Information Sharing – Self-Determination	5.60	0.32	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	-5.19	-0.30	0.00	
	Self-Determination	-2.32	-0.14	0.02*	
Information Sharing – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**FAIL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Turnover Intention	-6.19	-0.35	0.00	
Step 2	Information Sharing – Competence	2.67	0.16	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Information Sharing – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing –Turnover Intention	-6.19	-0.35	0.00	
Step 2	Information Sharing – Meaning	3.57	0.21	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	-5.25	-0.29	0.00	
	Meaning	-5.15	-0.28	0.00	
Information Sharing – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Information Sharing – Turnover Intention	-6.19	-0.35	0.00	
Step 2	Information Sharing – Impact	4.91	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Information Sharing	-5.46	-0.32	0.00	
	Impact	-1.81	-0.11	0.07**	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-15-10 Summary of Mediation for HR Practices

The mediation results for organisational structure involve three variables, namely, reward, training and information sharing. A series of tests were carried out between these variables as independent variables and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention as dependent variables. As indicated, self-determination, meaning and impact displayed partial mediation between reward and job satisfaction, and between reward and organisational commitment. Competence failed to mediate. With regards to mediation between training and outcomes, the results between training and job satisfaction indicated no mediation. The mediation between training and organisational commitment indicated partial mediation for self-determination and impact. Mediation between training and turnover intention also suggests mediation occurs only for self-determination and impact variables.

To summarise, all the hypotheses for HR Practices are partially supported with a few notable points. Competence remains the weakest variable in the mediation analysis as none of the tests between the HR practices and outcomes are significant. No mediation is detected with any empowerment variables between training and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the relationship between training and work outcome variables only suggest self-determination and impact mediated between training and job satisfaction. More discussion is provided on these findings in the next chapter.

4-16 Mediation between Leadership Trust and Work Outcomes

The third model to be investigated is leadership trust. It was hypothesised that actions of management on their employees can impact empowerment positively or negatively. Analyses are performed firstly between leadership trust variable as independent and dependent variables namely, job satisfaction, followed by organisational commitment and finally turnover intention.

4-16-1 Mediation between Leadership Trust and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.50 displays the results between leadership trust and job satisfaction with the four psychological empowerment components. The results will be used to examine Hypothesis 7b, i.e. *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and job satisfaction.* Support is found for psychological empowerment variables self-determination, meaning and impact mediating the relationship between leadership trust and job satisfaction. No mediation is detected for competence suggesting partial support for Hypothesis 7b. Meaning variable also strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = 6.72, beta = 0.37).

Table 4.50 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Leadership Trust and Job Satisfaction

Leadership Trust – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Job Satisfaction	3.14	0.18	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Self-Determination	5.50	0.31	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 4	Trust	2.17	0.13	0.03	
	Self-Determination	2.72	0.17	0.00	
Leadership Trust – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	**FAIL**
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Job Satisfaction	3.14	0.18	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust - Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Leadership Trust – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Job Satisfaction	3.14	0.18	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust - Meaning	3.67	0.21	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	1.90	0.10	0.06	
	Meaning	6.72	0.37	0.00	
Leadership Trust – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust –Job Satisfaction	3.14	0.18	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Impact	4.85	0.28	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	2.09	0.13	0.04	
	Impact	3.58	0.21	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-16-2 Mediation between Leadership Trust and Organisational Commitment

The following Table 4.51 displays the results between Leadership trust and organisational commitment. The results will be used to test Hypothesis 7c where it is predicted that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and organisational commitment.* The results support the hypothesis that self-determination, meaning and impact mediate the relationship between leadership trust and organisational commitment. No mediation is found for competence. As such, partial support is suggested for Hypothesis 7c. Both meaning and impact variables strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = 7.99, beta = 0.39); (t-tests = 6.96, beta = 0.36) respectively. The result of the t-test and beta coefficients suggests that meaning is the stronger mediating variable.

Table 4.51 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Leadership Trust and Organisational Commitment

Leadership Trust – Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Orgn Commitment	8.65	0.46	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Self-Determination	5.50	0.31	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	7.25	0.40	0.00	
	Self-Determination	3.72	0.20	0.00	
Leadership Trust – Competence – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Orgn Commitment	8.65	0.46	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Leadership Trust – Meaning – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust –Orgn Commitment	8.65	0.46	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Meaning	3.67	0.21	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	7.64	0.37	0.00	
	Meaning	7.99	0.39	0.00	
Leadership Trust – Impact – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Orgn Commitment	8.65	0.46	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Impact	4.85	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	7.05	0.36	0.00	
	Impact	6.96	0.36	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-16-3 Mediation between Leadership Trust and Turnover Intention

Table 4.52 displays the results between Leadership trust and turnover intention with the four psychological empowerment components. The results will be used to test Hypothesis 7d, which propose that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and turnover intention.* As indicated, the self-determination, meaning and impact variables are found to partially mediate between leadership trust and turnover intention. Step 4, indicate self-determination supports mediation at p = 0.05. Impact is also seen to mediate moderately between leadership trust and turnover intention as the t-test and beta for impact in Step 4 only displayed weak support (t-test = -1.90, beta = -0.11, p = 0.06). No mediation is recorded for competence. Hence, Hypothesis 7d is partially supported. Meaning variable strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = -5.15, beta = -0.28).

Table 4.52 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Leadership Trust and Turnover Intention

Leadership Trust – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Turnover Intention	-5.88	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Self-Determination	5.50	0.31	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 4	Leadership Trust	-4.89	-0.29	0.00	
	Self-Determination	-2.42	-0.14	0.02*	
Leadership Trust – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	**FAIL**
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Turnover Intention	-5.88	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Leadership Trust– Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Turnover Intention	-5.88	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Meaning	3.67	0.21	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	-4.90	-0.27	0.00	
	Meaning	-5.15	-0.28	0.00	
Leadership Trust – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Leadership Trust – Turnover Intention	-5.88	-0.33	0.00	
Step 2	Leadership Trust – Impact	4.85	0.28	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Leadership Trust	-5.15	-0.30	0.00	
	Impact	-1.90	-0.11	0.06**	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-16-4 Summary for Leadership Trust

In summary, psychological empowerment dimensions (meaning, self-determination and impact) are found to partially mediate between leadership trust and work outcomes except between leadership trust and turnover where impact did not mediate the relationship. Competence again remains the weakest variable in the mediation analysis as none of the tests were significant. Meaning also remains the dominant variable in the mediation tests.

4-17 Mediation for Conflict and Ambiguity

The mediation tests for conflict and ambiguity dimension involve two independent variables, namely, role ambiguity and role conflict. A series of tests are carried out between these independent variables and dependent variables, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

4-17-1 Mediation between Role Conflict and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.53 displays the results between role conflict and job satisfaction. The results are used to test Hypothesis 8b which suggests that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction.* As indicated, the self-determination, meaning and impact variables are found to mediate between role conflict and job satisfaction. Complete mediation is observed for the three tests, as the direct effect of role conflict and job satisfaction is not significant when the mediating variable is added to the equation in Step 4. No mediation is recorded for competence. As such Hypothesis 8b is partially supported. Meaning variable strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = 7.99, beta = 0.39); (t-tests = 6.89, beta = 0.39).

Table 4.53 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Role Conflict and Job Satisfaction

Role Conflict – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	**Achieved?**
Step 1	Role Conflict – Job Satisfaction	2.07	0.12	0.04	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Self-Determination	6.41	0.36	0.00	**YES**
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	**COMPLETE**
Step 4	Role Conflict	NS	NS	NS	
	Self-Determination	3.00	0.19	0.00	
Role Conflict – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict –Job Satisfaction	2.07	0.12	0.04	**FAIL**
Step 2	Role Conflict – Competence	3.28	0.19	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	
Role Conflict – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict –Job Satisfaction	2.07	0.12	0.04	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Meaning	4.95	0.28	0.00	**YES**
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	**COMPLETE**
Step 4	Role Conflict	NS	NS	NS	
	Meaning	6.89	0.39	0.00	
Role Conflict – Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict – Job Satisfaction	2.07	0.12	0.04	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Impact	4.54	0.26	0.00	**YES**
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	**COMPLETE**
Step 4	Role Conflict	NS	NS	NS	
	Impact	3.89	0.23	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-17-2 Mediation between Role Conflict and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.54 shows the results between role conflict and organisational commitment. The results are used to evaluate Hypothesis 8c where dimensions of psychological empowerments are expected to mediate the relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment. The results support the hypothesis that psychological empowerment variables self-determination, meaning and impact partially mediate the relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment; hence, Hypothesis 8c is partially supported. Both meaning and impact variables strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = 7.73, beta = 0.41); (t-tests = 7.44, beta = 0.40) respectively.

Table 4.54 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Role Conflict and Organisational Commitment

Role Conflict – Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict – Orgn Commitment	5.73	0.32	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Role Conflict – Self-Determination	6.41	0.36	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Role Conflict	4.03	0.24	0.00	
	Self-Commitment	4.11	0.24	0.00	
Role Conflict – Competence – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			**FAIL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict – Orgn Commitment	5.73	0.32	0.00	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Competence	3.28	0.19	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Orgn Commitment	1.89	0.11	0.06	
Step 4	Role Conflict	5.45	0.31	0.00	
	Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Role Conflict – Meaning – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict –Orgn Commitment	5.73	0.32	0.00	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Meaning	4.95	0.28	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Role Conflict	3.85	0.21	0.00	
	Meaning	7.73	0.41	0.00	
Role Conflict – Impact – Organisational Commitment		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict – Orgn Commitment	5.73	0.32	0.00	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Impact	4.54	0.26	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Role Conflict	4.09	0.22	0.00	
	Impact	7.44	0.40	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-17-3 Mediation between Role Conflict and Turnover Intention

Table 4.55 displays the results between role conflict and turnover intention. The results are used to evaluate Hypothesis 8d, i.e. *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and turnover intention.* As indicated, only meaning variable partially mediate the relationship between role conflict and turnover intention. Other psychological empowerment variables failed to display any mediation. Self-determination and impact failed in Step 4, whilst competence failed in Step 3. Hence, only partial support is found for Hypothesis 8d as meaning variable significantly mediated the model (t-tests = -4.40, beta = -0.24, p = 0.00). The result also suggests that meaning variable dominates the psychological empowerment construct.

Table 4.55 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for mediation between Role Conflict and Turnover Intention

Role Conflict – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict – Turnover Intention	-8.00	-0.43	0.00	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Self-Determination	6.41	0.36	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 4	Role Conflict	-6.94	-0.40	0.00	
	Self-Determination	NS	NS	NS	
Role Conflict – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict –Turnover Intention	-8.00	-0.43	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 2	Role Conflict – Competence	3.28	0.19	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Role Conflict – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict – Turnover Intention	-8.00	-0.43	0.00	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Meaning	4.95	0.28	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Role Conflict	-6.68	-0.36	0.00	
	Meaning	-4.40	-0.24	0.00	
Role Conflict – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Conflict –Turnover Intention	-8.00	-0.43	0.00	
Step 2	Role Conflict – Impact	4.54	0.26	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Role Conflict	-7.34	-0.41	0.00	
	Impact	NS	NS	NS	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-17-4 Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.56 presents the results between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. These results are used to test Hypothesis 9b where dimensions of psychological empowerment are expected to mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. As indicated, self-determination and impact variables partially mediated the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Meaning variable however, recorded complete mediation in shown in Step 4 where the direct relationship between role ambiguity (independent) and job satisfaction (dependent) is not significant when meaning is added to the equation. No mediation is recorded for competence (failed at Step 3). Hence, partial support is found for Hypothesis 9b. Meaning variable strongly dominates the mediation (t-tests = 6.44, beta = 0.37).

Table 4.56 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Job Satisfaction

Role Ambiguity – Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity – Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Self-Determination	7.82	0.42	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	2.16	0.14	0.03	
	Self-Determination	2.33	0.15	0.02*	
Role Ambiguity – Competence – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Competence	3.42	0.20	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Job Satisfaction	NS	NS	NS	
Role Ambiguity – Meaning – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Meaning	5.52	0.31	0.00	**YES COMPLETE**
Step 3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	NS	NS	NS	
	Meaning	6.44	0.37	0.00	
Role Ambiguity – Impact – Job Satisfaction		7Coefficients			
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Job Satisfaction	3.44	0.20	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Impact	6.37	0.36	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 3	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	2.10	0.13	0.03	
	Impact	3.31	0.20	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-17-5 Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.57 displays the mediation results between role ambiguity and organisational commitment. These results are used to test Hypothesis 9c which suggests that: *dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and organisational commitment.* The results suggest self-determination, meaning and impact to partially mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and organisational commitment. Hence, hypothesis 9c is partially supported. Meaning and impact variables dominates the mediation (t-tests = 6.99, beta = 0.36); (t-tests = 6.18, beta = 0.32).

Table 4.57 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Organisational Commitment

Role Ambiguity – Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity – Orgn Commitment	9.31	0.49	0.00	YES PARTIAL
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Self-Determination	7.82	0.42	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	7.40	0.42	0.00	
	Self - Determination	2.59	0.15	0.01*	
Role Ambiguity – Competence – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity – Orgn Commitment	9.31	0.49	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Competence	3.42	0.20	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Orgn Commitment	1.89	0.11	0.06	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	9.04	0.48	0.00	
	Competence	NS	NS	NS	
Role Ambiguity – Meaning – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Orgn Commitment	9.31	0.49	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Meaning	5.52	0.31	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	7.38	0.37	0.00	
	Meaning	6.99	0.36	0.00	
Role Ambiguity – Impact – Orgn Commitment		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Orgn Commitment	9.31	0.49	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Impact	6.37	0.36	0.00	
Step 3	Impact – Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	7.07	0.37	0.00	
	Impact	6.18	0.32	0.00	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-17-6 Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Turnover Intention

Table 4.58 shows the mediation results between role ambiguity and turnover intention with the four psychological empowerment components. The results are used to evaluate Hypothesis 9d in which dimensions of psychological empowerment are expected to mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and turnover intention. The results only support the hypothesis for meaning variable to partially mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and turnover intention, hence partial support is found for Hypothesis 9d. Meaning variable significantly mediated the model (t-tests = -4.06, beta = -0.22, p = 0.00). The result is identical to the relationship between role conflict and turnover intention.

Table 4.58 Psychological Empowerment variables tested for Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Turnover Intention

Role Ambiguity – Self-Determination – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity – Turnover Intention	-8.62	-0.46	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Self-Determination	7.82	0.42	0.00	
Step 3	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	-7.50	-0.44	0.00	
	Self-Determination	NS	NS	NS	
Role Ambiguity – Competence – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Turnover Intention	-8.62	-0.46	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Competence	3.42	0.20	0.00	
Step 3	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Role Ambiguity – Meaning – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity –Turnover Intention	-8.62	-0.46	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Meaning	5.52	0.31	0.00	
Step 3	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	-7.14	-0.39	0.00	
	Meaning	-4.06	-0.22	0.00	
Role Ambiguity – Impact – Turnover Intention		Coefficients			
	Variables	t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Role Ambiguity – Turnover Intention	-8.62	-0.46	0.00	
Step 2	Role Ambiguity – Impact	6.37	0.36	0.00	**FAIL**
Step 3	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 4	Role Ambiguity	-7.82	-0.44	0.00	
	Impact	NS	NS	NS	

*Significance at 0.05, ** Significance at p = 0.10, otherwise all tests are significant at 0.00. NS = No significance.

4-17-7 Summary of Mediation for Conflict and Ambiguity

The results for Conflict and Ambiguity dimension involve two independent variables namely, role ambiguity and role conflict. Self-determination, meaning and impact indicate partial mediation between role ambiguity and job satisfaction, role ambiguity and organisational commitment. Moreover, meaning completely mediates the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Competence failed to mediate in both instances. With regards to mediation tests between role ambiguity and turnover intention, the results only indicated mediation with meaning variable. Self-determination, competence and impact failed to mediate between role ambiguity and turnover intention.

Complete mediation was found for self-determination, meaning and impact dimensions between role conflict and job satisfaction. Partial mediation was observed between role conflict and organisational commitment for the same mediating variables. Competence failed to mediate between any antecedent and outcome variable. Test for mediation between role conflict and turnover intention suggest that meaning variable mediated the relationship. Other mediating variables failed to mediate successfully.

To summarise, hypotheses testing for role conflict and ambiguity dimension suggest the mediating variables behave differently on outcome variables. Meaning remains the dominant mediating variable whilst competence is the weakest as it did not mediate with any relationship. Having completed hypotheses testing for role conflict and ambiguity dimension, we now turn to the mediating role of organisational commitment and job satisfaction on the relationship between psychological empowerment as antecedent and turnover intention as outcome.

4-18 Mediating Role of Organisational Commitment between Psychological Empowerment and Turnover Intentions

Table 4.59 shows the results between the four empowerment variables to turnover intentions with organisational commitment as the mediating variable. The results are used to test Hypothesis 10d which suggests that: *Organisational commitment will mediate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and turnover intention.* As suggested, organisational commitment displays strong evidence for mediation between empowerment variables self-determination, meaning and impact to the outcome variable turnover intention. The results suggest that organisational commitment completely mediates the relationship between self-determination and impact to turnover intention. Organisational commitment however is suggested to partially mediate the relationship between meaning and turnover intention. Mediation is not achieved for the relationship between competence and turnover intention. Hence, Hypothesis 10d is partially supported.

Table 4.59 Organisational Commitment tested for Mediation between Psychological Empowerment variables and Turnover Intention

Self-Determination – Orgn Commitment - Turnover Intention		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.23	0.00	YES COMPLETE
Step 2	Self-Determination - Orgn Commitment	5.78	0.33	0.00	
Step 3	Orgn Commitment – Turnover Intention	-9.62	-0.50	0.00	
Step 4	Self-Determination	-1.42	-0.08	NS	
	Organisational Commitment	-8.65	-0.47	0.00	
Competence – Orgn Commitment -Turnover Intention		Coefficients			FAIL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Meaning – Orgn Commitment - Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES PARTIAL
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 2	Meaning – Orgn Commitment	8.97	0.47	0.00	
Step 3	Orgn Commitment – Turnover Intention	-9.62	-0.50	0.00	
Step 4	Meaning	-2.38	-0.14	0.00	
	Organisational Commitment	-7.43	-0.43	0.00	
Impact – Orgn Commitment - Turnover Intention		Coefficients			YES COMPLETE
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Impact - Orgn Commitment	8.57	0.46	0.00	
Step 3	Orgn Commitment – Turnover Intention	-9.62	-0.50	0.00	
Step 4	Impact	0.69	0.04	NS	
	Organisational Commitment	-8.87	-0.52	0.00	

4-19 Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction between Psychological Empowerment and Turnover Intention

Table 4.60 shows the result of mediation tests between the four empowerment variables to turnover intentions with job satisfaction as mediator. The results are used to test Hypothesis 10e, i.e. *Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and turnover intention.* As the results indicate, job satisfaction suggests strong evidence for partial mediation between empowerment variables self-determination, meaning and impact and dependent variable turnover intention. Hence, the results suggest that job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between psychological empowerment variables, self-determination, meaning and impact to turnover intention. Mediation is not achieved for the relationship between competence and turnover intention. Hence, hypothesis 10e is partially supported.

Table 4.60 Job Satisfaction tested for Mediation between Individual Psychological Empowerment variables and Turnover Intention

Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction - Turnover		Coefficients			**Mediation Achieved?**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Self-Determination – Turnover Intention	-3.99	-0.02	0.00	**YES PARTIAL**
Step 2	Self-Determination - Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.21	0.00	
Step 3	Job Satisfaction - Turnover Intention	-4.32	-0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Self-Determination	-3.24	-0.19	0.00	
	Job Satisfaction	-3.63	-0.21	0.00	
Competence – Job Satisfaction - Turnover		Coefficients			**FAIL**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Competence – Turnover Intention	NS	NS	NS	
Meaning – Job Satisfaction - Turnover		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Meaning – Turnover Intention	-6.10	-0.34	0.00	
Step 2	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	7.25	0.40	0.00	
Step 3	Job Satisfaction - Turnover Intention	-4.32	-0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Meaning	-4.76	-0.29	0.00	
	Job Satisfaction	-2.23	-0.14	0.03	
Impact – Job Satisfaction -Turnover		Coefficients			**YES PARTIAL**
Variables		t-test	Beta	P	
Step 1	Impact – Turnover Intention	-3.32	-0.19	0.00	
Step 2	Impact – Job Satisfaction	4.31	0.25	0.00	
Step 3	Job Satisfaction - Turnover Intention	-4.32	-0.25	0.00	
Step 4	Impact	-2.39	-0.14	0.02	
	Job Satisfaction	-3.63	-0.21	0.00	

4-20 Moderation Effects

Having completed mediation tests, analysis for moderation will now be conducted. It was hypothesised that job level, age and tenure (length of service), training, reward, information sharing, role conflict and role ambiguity may impact the effects between antecedents and psychological empowerment dimensions and between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that a moderator can be categorical (i.e. gender) or continuous (i.e. level of rewards) in nature that affects the direction or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable. It is also suggested that moderator variables are introduced when a weak or inconsistent relationship between antecedent and outcome variable exists. Frazier *et al.* (2004; citing Chaplin, 1991) suggest that all study design for moderation tests must be made on the basis of well-defined theory, a similar issue is voiced by Jaccard *et al.* (1990) and Irwin and McClelland, (2001).

Conceptually, Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that when running a test for moderation, one need to test the main effects of the predictor and moderator on the outcome variable and the interaction between predictor and the moderator simultaneously as illustrated in Figure 4.10.

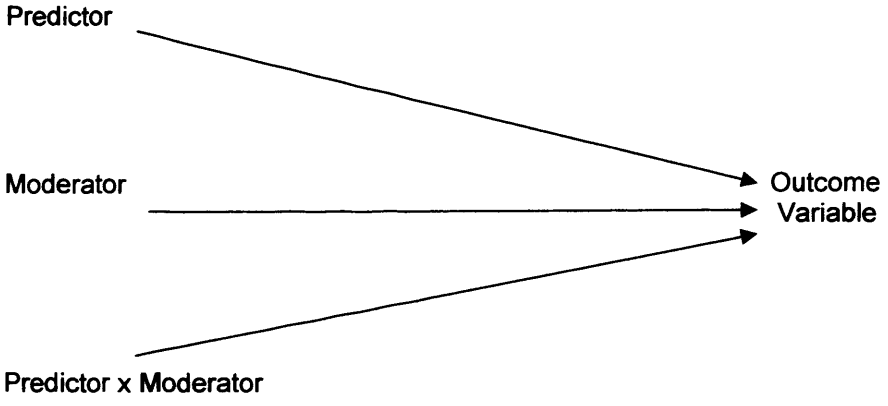


Figure 4.10 Barron and Kenny's (1986) Model for testing Moderation Effects

Frazier *et al.* (2004) suggest that all the variables should be in place to structure a hierarchical multiple regression equation using standard statistical software like SPSS (see also Aiken and West, 1991). The variables are entered into the regression equation through a series of steps: First the predictor variable is regressed to the outcome variable (for example

'organicity' for predictor and job satisfaction for dependent); second, the moderator variable is regressed to the dependent variable (for example 'job level' for moderator) and the third important step is to regress the product of the predictor and moderator (organicity x job level) to the outcome variable. Hence, product terms should be created prior to modelling the tests and all individual variables contained in the interaction term must be included.

Following recommendations proposed by Aiken and West (1991), the individual predictor and moderator variables are first mean centred. According to Aiken and West (see also Irwin and McClelland; 2001; Frazier *et al*, 2004), centering or standardardizing the variables provide a more meaningful interpretation of results and reduces problems associated with multi-collinearity among variables. Also as recommended by Frazier *et al.* (2004), un-standardised beta coefficients are used to interpret the results. In accordance to Baron and Kenny (1986), moderation is said to exist if all three tests are significant. Aiken and West (1991) and (Frazier *et al.* (2004) suggest that interpretation of moderation analysis involves three steps: (a) interpreting the effects of the predictor and moderator variables, (b) testing the significance of the moderator effect and (3) plotting significant moderator effects. The moderation plots follow Aiken and West's (1991) procedures by arranging the regression equation by plotting the predicted values for the dependent variables. Since all variables are continuous variables, the common procedure described by Aiken and West is to choose groups at the mean at low (-1 SD from the mean) and high (1 SD from the mean). As with mediation tests, moderation analysis are also carried out using SPSS. Plots are carried out using Microsoft Excel software (see Dawson, 2007; Frazier *et al.*, 2004) which provided a suitable programme to calculate the predicted values to plot the slopes by entering the results of beta coefficients. The following are the results and interpretation of the test results and individual plots carried out. Due to the large number of individual tests carried out, only significant results are reported.

4-20-1 Job Level, Age and Tenure as Moderators

Table 4.61 shows the significant results for the variables under study and their moderation effects. Because statistical power issues can make interactions difficult to detect (see: Aguinis and Stone-Romero, 1997; Aguinis, 1995; Stone, 1988), a more liberal significance testing (significance threshold at $p = 0.10$ rather than $p = 0.05$ or higher) is used. Aguinis and Stone-Romero (1997) further suggest that an effect on statistical power is particularly important as otherwise moderating effects may go

undetected. The results from the analysis suggest that job level appear to moderate the direct effect between organicity and meaning. The moderation tests suggest that when job level is tested as a moderator following Baron and Kenny's (1986) moderation procedures, job level supports a moderating relationship with the following interaction results: organicity x job level and meaning (Test No. 1: beta = 0.11, p = 0.05); organisational support x job level and meaning (Test No. 2: beta = 0.11, p = 0.05); meaning x job level and job satisfaction (Test No. 3: beta = 0.23, p = 0.00); Self determination x job level and job satisfaction (Test No. 4: beta = 0.14, p = 0.01); Impact x job level and job satisfaction (Test No 5: beta = 0.25, p = 0.00); Next simple plots will be used for better graphical presentation of the 5 test results.

Table 4.61 Significant Results for Job Level as Moderator

Test no.	Relationship Between	Baron and Kenny Procedure	Coefficients		
			Beta	t-test	P
1	Organicity - Meaning	Organicity - Meaning	0.17	3.00	0.00
		Job Level - Meaning	0.24	4.10	0.00
		Organicity x Job Level - Meaning	0.11	1.99	0.05
2	Orgn Support - Meaning	Orgn Support - Meaning	0.24	4.23	0.00
		Job Level - Meaning	0.22	3.84	0.00
		Orgn Support x Job Level - Meaning	0.11	1.92	0.05
3	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	Meaning – Job Satisfaction	0.37	6.86	0.00
		Job Level - Job Satisfaction	0.19	3.58	0.00
		Meaning x Job Level - Job Satisfaction	0.23	4.26	0.00
4	Determination – Job Satisfaction	Self-Determination – Job Satisfaction	0.17	2.87	0.04
		Job Level - Job Satisfaction	0.22	3.73	0.00
		Determination x Job Level - Job Satisfaction	0.14	2.42	0.02
5	Impact – Job Satisfaction	Impact – Job Satisfaction	0.16	2.77	0.00
		Job Level - Job Satisfaction	0.24	4.00	0.00
		Impact x Job Level - Job Satisfaction	0.25	4.50	0.00

The first moderation effect to be examined is hypothesis 11a: *Job level will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.* In order to test the above hypothesis, a series of multiple regressions were performed to investigate the moderation effect of job level between (1) organicity and psychological empowerment dimensions, and (2) centralisation and psychological empowerment dimensions. Only one moderation effect is found to be significant: i.e. the interaction of job level between organicity and meaning variable as indicated in Test 1 of Table 4.61. As illustrated, all three Baron and Kenny's moderation steps are significant and the interaction is

significant (beta = .11, p = 0.05). Figure 4.11 illustrates the significant moderation model.

Figure 4.11 Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Organicity and Job Level

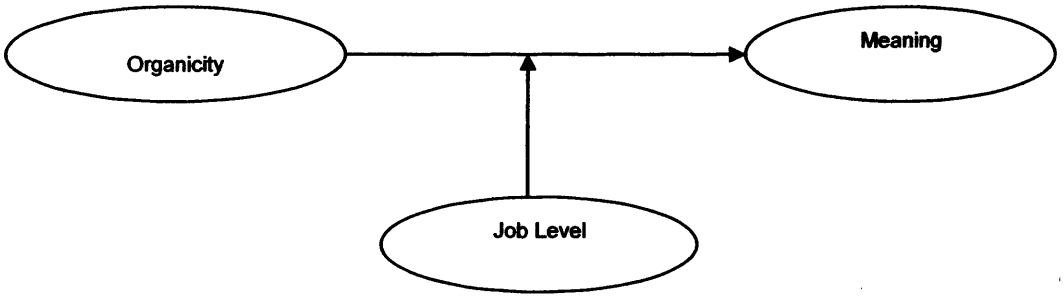
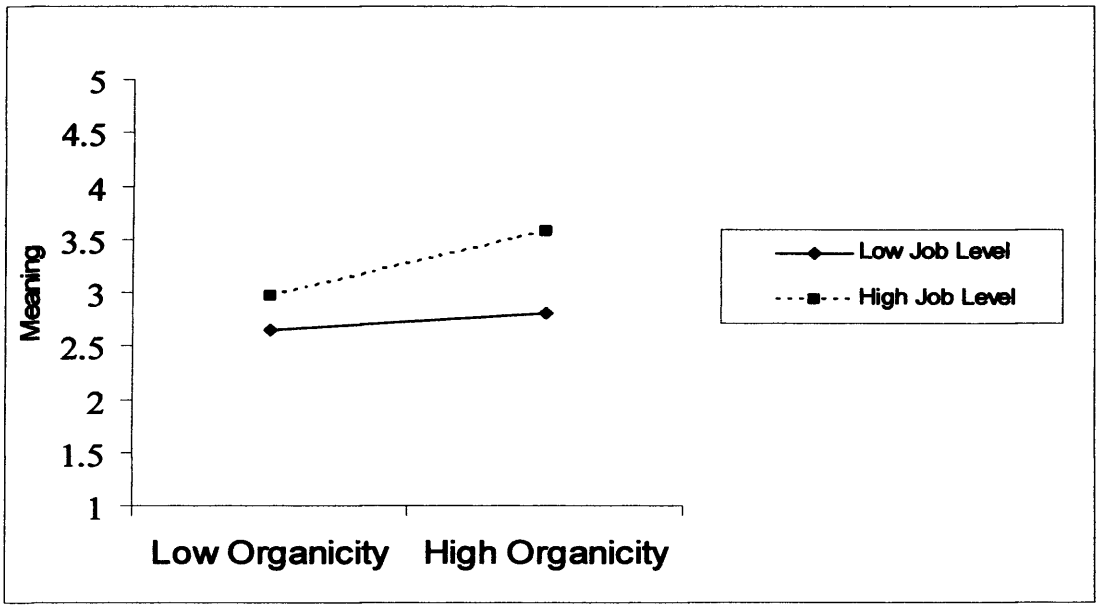


Figure 4.12 illustrates the slopes which suggest that high organicity coupled with high job level, the sense of meaning is greater than in a low job level. Hence, the slopes imply that in the presence of high organicity, coupled with high job level, meaning is predicted to be enhanced.

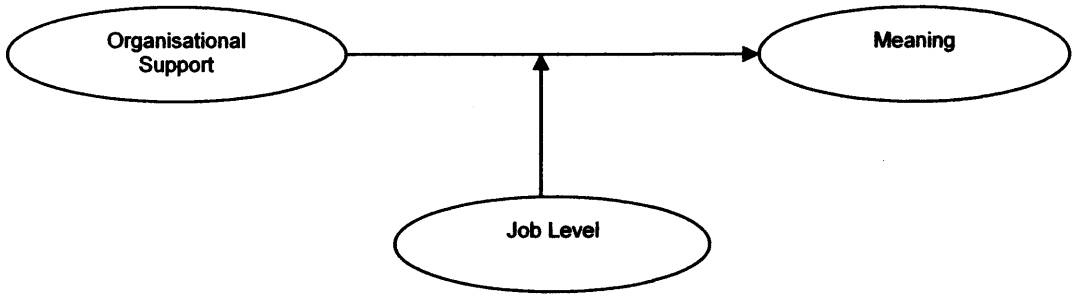
As mentioned, only one interaction is significant between organisational structure and psychological empowerment dimensions. The moderation effect between organicity and the three other empowerment variables (self-determination, impact and competence) did not produce any significant interaction. Furthermore, no significant interactions were detected between centralisation and any of the four psychological empowerment dimensions.

Figure 4.12 Plots for Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Organicity and Job Level



Next, hypothesis 11b is analysed, i.e. *job level will moderate the relationship between organisational support and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.* With regard to hypothesis 11b, only one moderation test is significant. The results (Test 2) suggest that the interaction between organisational support and job level predicts meaning as outcome (beta = 0.11, p = 0.05). Figure 4.13 illustrates the significant model.

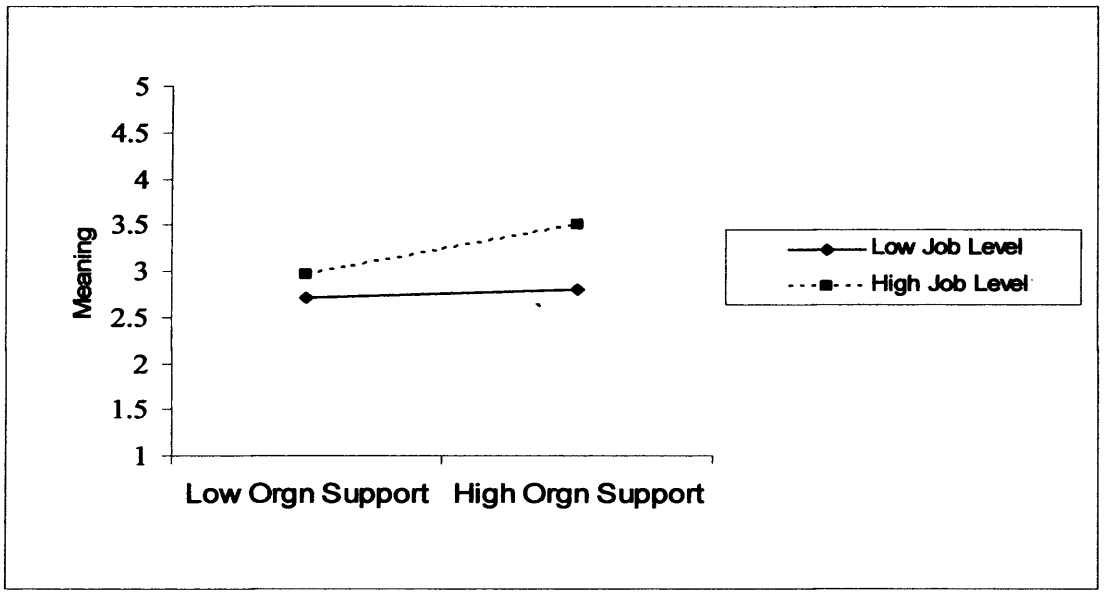
Figure 4.13 Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Organisational Support and Job Level



Also as illustrated by the plots in Figure 4.14, meaning is enhanced when high organisational support is moderated by job level. Moderation tests for job level between

organisational support and the three other psychological empowerment dimensions (self-determination, impact and competence) did not produce any significant results.

Figure 4.14 Plots for Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Orgn Support and Job Level



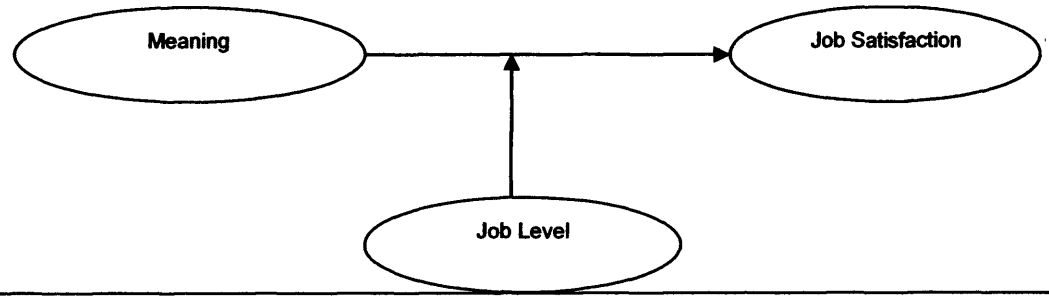
Results related to hypothesis 11c are next reported. It is proposed that: *Tenure will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.* Moderation tests carried out did not support any interaction between organisational structure constructs (organicity and centralisation) and tenure on any psychological empowerment dimensions. As such, hypothesis 11c is not supported. As for Hypothesis 11d: *Age will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.* Similar with hypothesis 11c above, no significant results were found, hence, hypothesis 11d is also not supported.

Next, hypothesis 11e is which suggests that: *Job level will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).* A series of hierarchical regressions were carried out to investigate the moderation effect of job level between (1) psychological empowerment dimensions and job satisfaction, (2) psychological empowerment dimensions and organisational commitment and (3)

psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions. The investigation indicated that three moderation effects were detected as illustrated in Table 4.61 above (Test 3, Test 4 and Test 5).

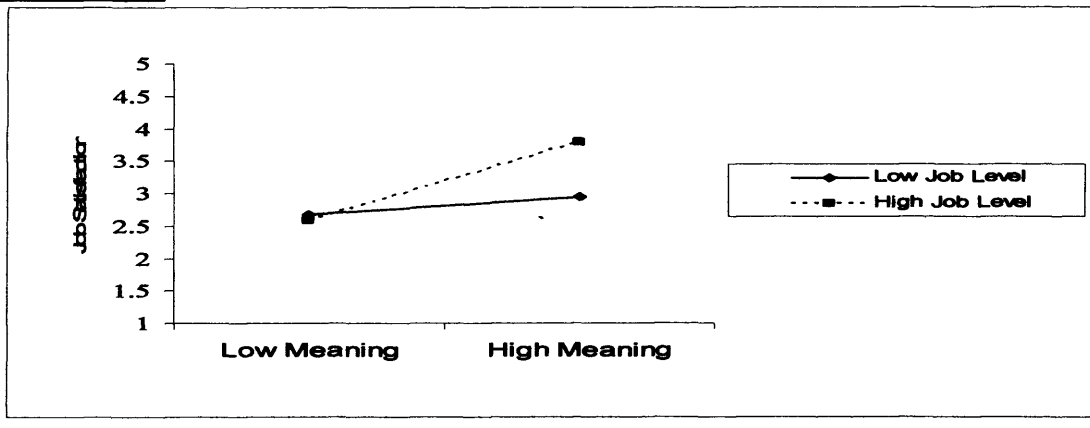
Test 3 of Table 4.61 is the moderation results for job satisfaction variable predicted by the two-way interaction between meaning and job level (Figure 4.15). The result suggests a strong significance (beta = 0.23, p = 0.00).

Figure 4.15 Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Meaning and Job Level



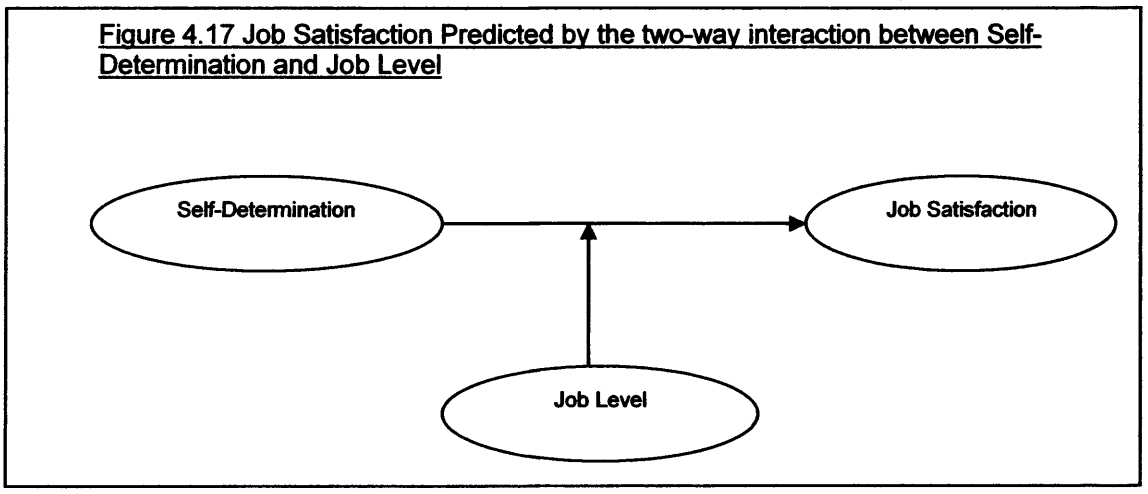
As illustrated in Figure 4.16, in the presence of high meaning, coupled with high job level, job satisfaction is predicted to be high.

Figure 4.16 Plots for Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Meaning and Job Level



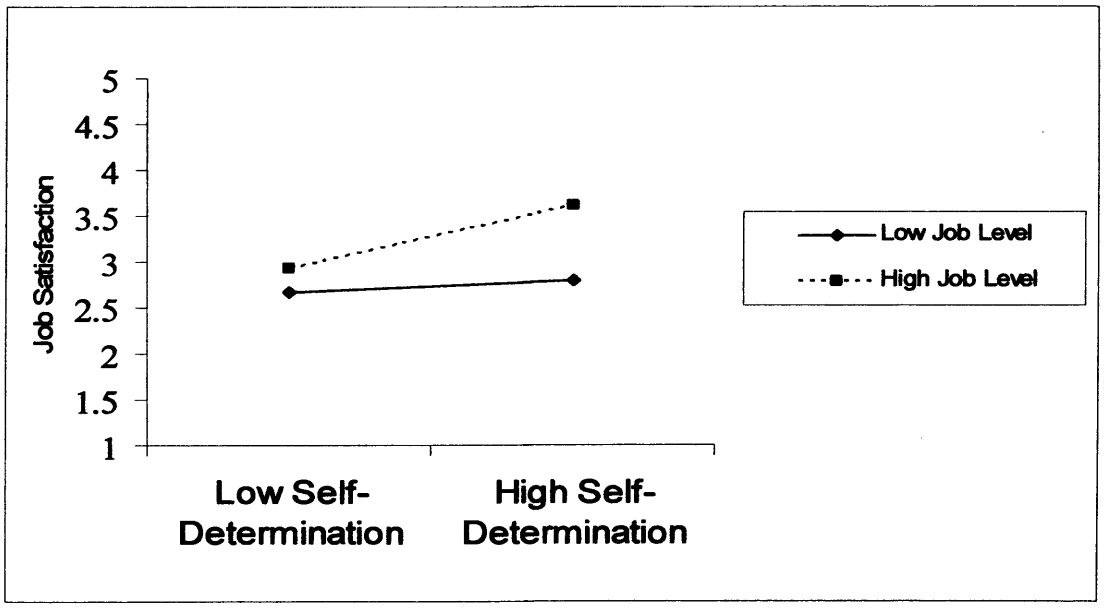
Test 4 above is the moderation result predicting job satisfaction between the interaction self-determination and job level (beta = 0.14, p = 0.02). Figure 4.17 illustrates the significant model.

Figure 4.17 Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Self-Determination and Job Level



As illustrated in Figure 4.18, the interaction slopes demonstrates job satisfaction is enhanced when high self-determination is moderated by high job level.

Figure 4.18 Plots for Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Self-Determination and Job Level



Test 5 (Table 4.62) is the moderation result for job satisfaction between impact and job level (beta = 0.21, p = 0.01). Figure 4.19 illustrates the significant model.

Figure 4.19 Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Impact and Job Level

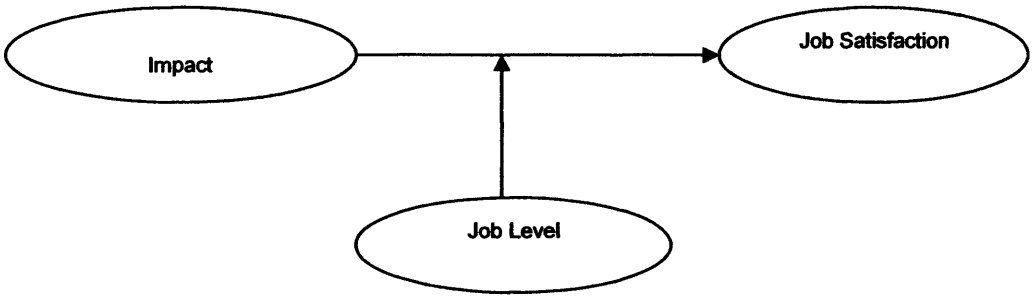
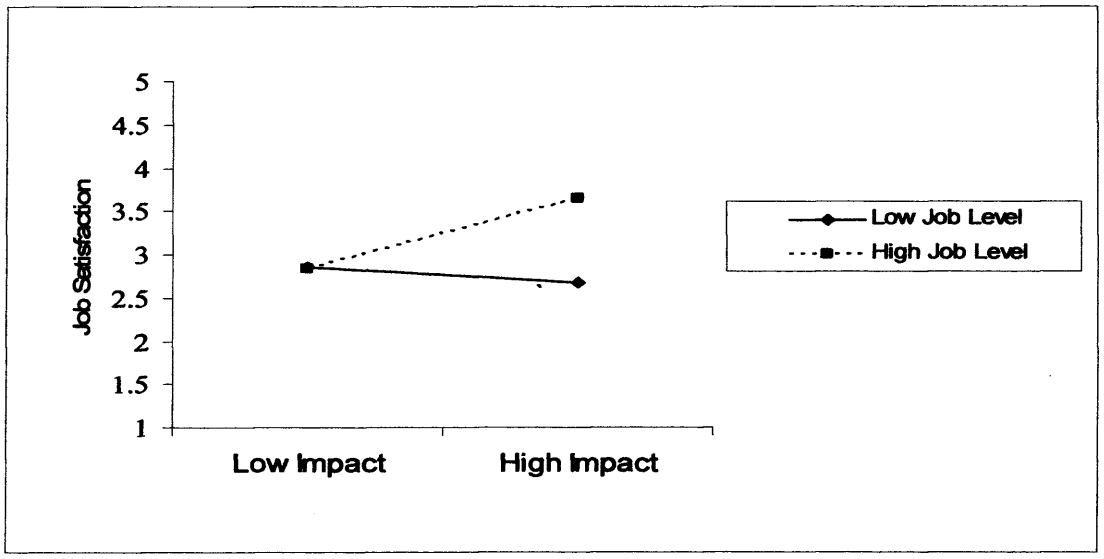


Figure 4.20 is a graphical presentation of the moderation effect. Job satisfaction is enhanced when high impact is moderated by job level.

Figure 4.20 Plots for Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Impact and Job Level



With regards to hypothesis 11f, i.e. *Tenure will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).* Moderation tests carried out did not support any interaction for psychological empowerment dimensions and tenure on any work outcome variables. As such, hypothesis 11f is not supported.

Next, hypothesis 11g is next analysed: *Age will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).* With regards to

interaction of age and the dimensions of psychological empowerment on work outcomes, only one result was significant as indicated in Table 4.62. The results suggest that the interaction of impact variable and age predicts job satisfaction (beta = 0.23, p = 0.00).

Table 4.62 Significant Results for Age as Moderator				
Relationship Between: Impact – Job Satisfaction		Coefficients		
Moderator	Baron and Kenny Procedure	Beta	t-test	P
Age	Impact – Job Satisfaction	0.22	3.11	0.00
	Age – Job Satisfaction	0.11	1.86	0.06
	Impact x Age – Job Satisfaction	0.23	4.04	0.00

The results above suggest that support is only found for the relationship between impact and job satisfaction. Figure 4.21 demonstrates the significant model.

Figure 4.21 Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Impact and Age

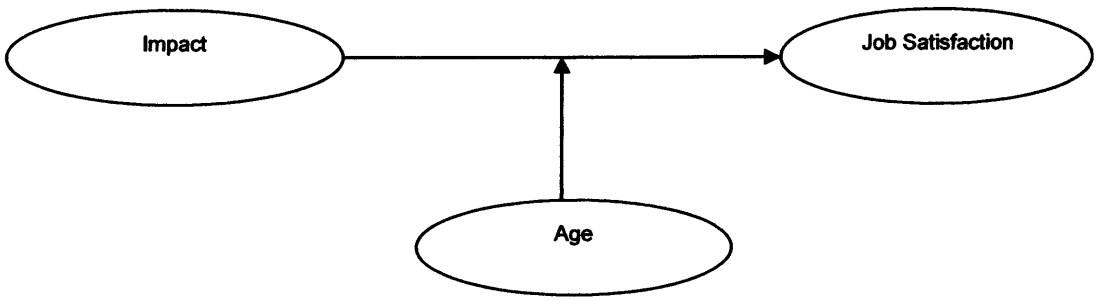
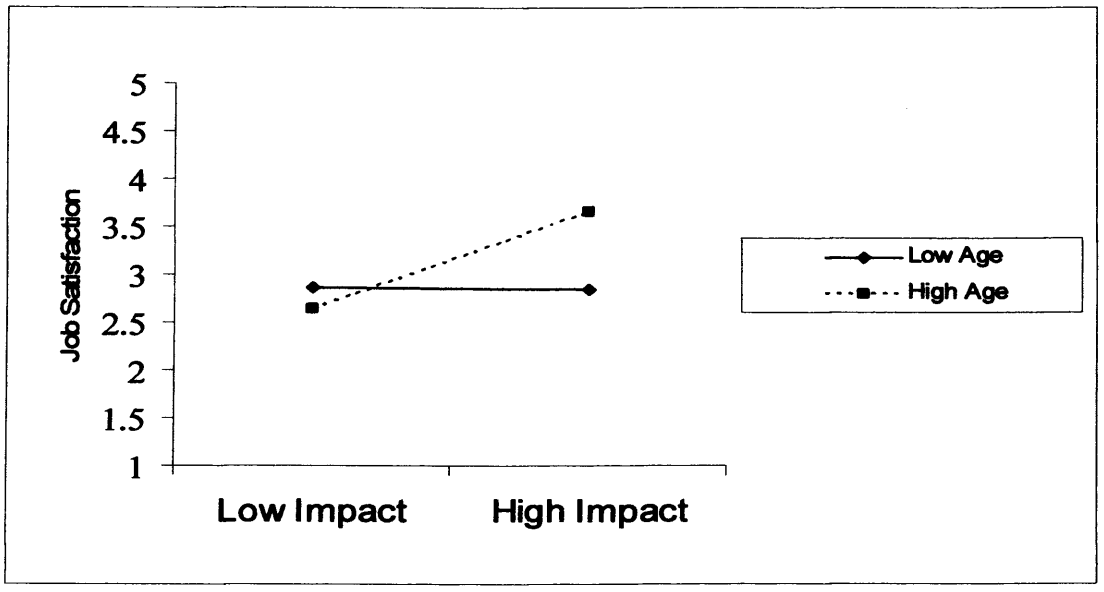


Figure 4.22 illustrates the moderation plot for the above result. No support was found for competence, self-determination and meaning variables of psychological empowerment construct.

Figure 4.22 Plots for Job Satisfaction Predicted by the two-way interaction between Impact and Age



4-20-2 Summary of Moderated Effects of Job Level, Age and Tenure

Hypothesis 11a is partly supported as demonstrated in several tests conducted above. The moderation effect suggests several important points: (1) job level of employees play an important role in organisational factors like organicity and support in making their work more meaningful. Meaning according to Hackman and Oldham (1980) involves the fit between the needs of one's work role and one's beliefs, behaviours and value of work. Hence, the moderation effect suggest that where organicity and organisational support is strong, the higher the job level, the more meaningful the job is, (2) meaning, impact and self-determination are important empowerment variables in determining job satisfaction, and (3) meaning variable is the dominant variable in the present research reflecting similar situation in previous research (see for example, Spreitzer *et al.*, 1997; Siegall and Gartner, 2000). No support for the hypothesis can be made for competence variable.

4-20-3 Reward as Moderator

Reward variable as a moderator is next examined. Two significant results are found as indicated in Table 4.63. The hypotheses and moderation plots are presented next.

Table 4.63 Significant Results for Reward as Moderator

Test no.	Relationship Between	Baron and Kenny Procedure	Coefficients		
			Beta	t-test	P
1	Organicity – Impact	Organicity – Impact	0.20	3.53	0.00
		Reward - Impact	0.21	3.71	0.00
		Organicity x Reward – Impact	0.13	2.35	0.02
2	Impact – Turnover	Impact – Turnover	-0.11	-1.81	0.07
		Reward - Turnover	-0.30	-5.28	0.00
		Impact x Reward - Turnover	0.10	1.67	0.10

The result (Test 1) above is used to support hypothesis 11h which proposes that: *reward will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and dimensions of psychological empowerment.* Table 4.63 and Test 1 present the result for impact predicted by the two-way interaction between organicity and reward. A positive and significant result is reported (beta = 0.13, p = 0.02). Figure 4.23 demonstrates the significant model.

Figure 4.23 Impact Predicted by the two-way interaction between Organicity and Rewards

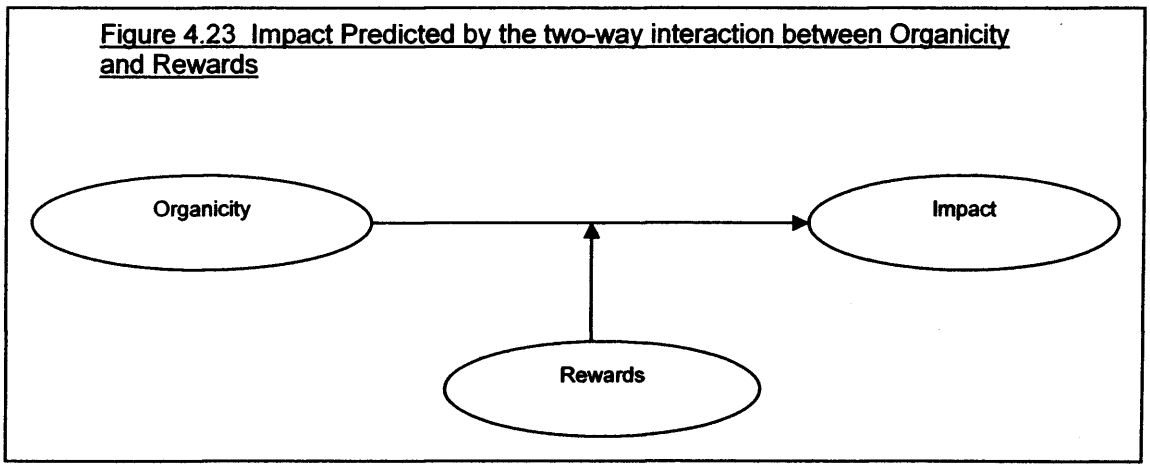
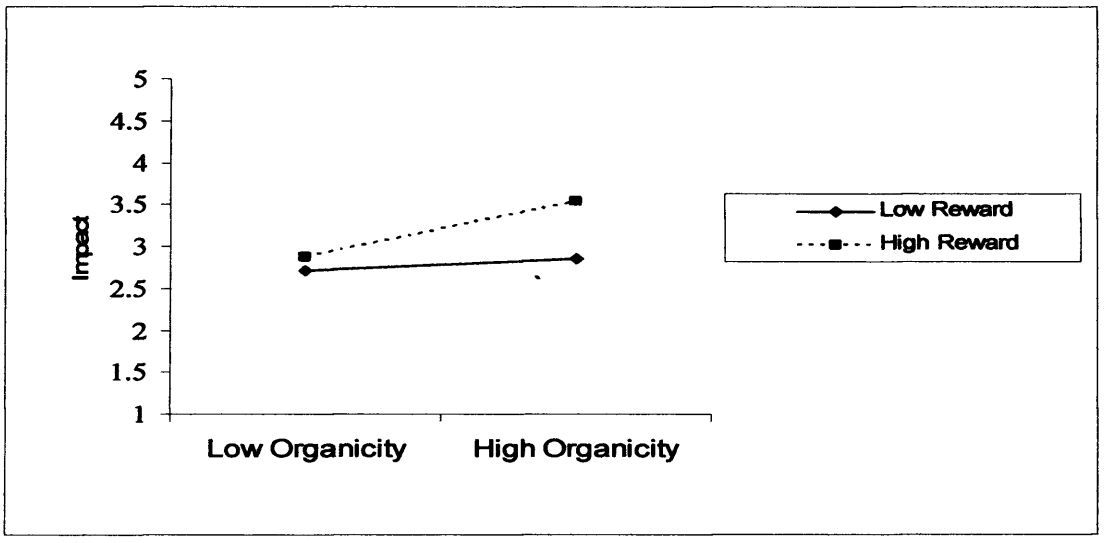


Figure 4.24 illustrates the regression plot which suggests that the interaction between high organicity and high rewards predict perceptions of impact.

Figure 4.24 Plots for Impact Predicted by the two-way interaction between Organicity and Rewards



4-20-4 Information Sharing as Moderator

Two significant results are found for information sharing as indicated in Table 4.64. The hypotheses and moderation plots are next presented.

Table 4.64 Significant Results for Information Sharing as Moderator			Coefficients		
Test No.	Relationship Between	Baron and Kenny Steps	Beta	t-test	P
1	Centralisation - Meaning	Centralisation - Meaning	-0.15	-2.42	0.02
		Information - Meaning	0.18	3.06	0.00
		Centralisation x Information - Meaning	-0.22	-3.78	0.00
2	Trust - Meaning	Trust - Meaning	0.19	2.94	0.00
		Information - Meaning	0.19	2.55	0.00
		Trust x Information - Meaning	0.18	3.00	0.00

Hypothesis 11i predicts that information sharing is expected to moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and dimensions of psychological empowerment. The interaction between centralisation and information sharing (Table 4.64, Test 1) is found to significantly predict meaning variable (beta = -0.22, p = 0.00). No moderation effect was detected for interaction between other empowerment variables, hence partial support is reported. Figure 4.25 illustrates the moderation model.

Figure 4.25 Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Centralisation and Information Sharing

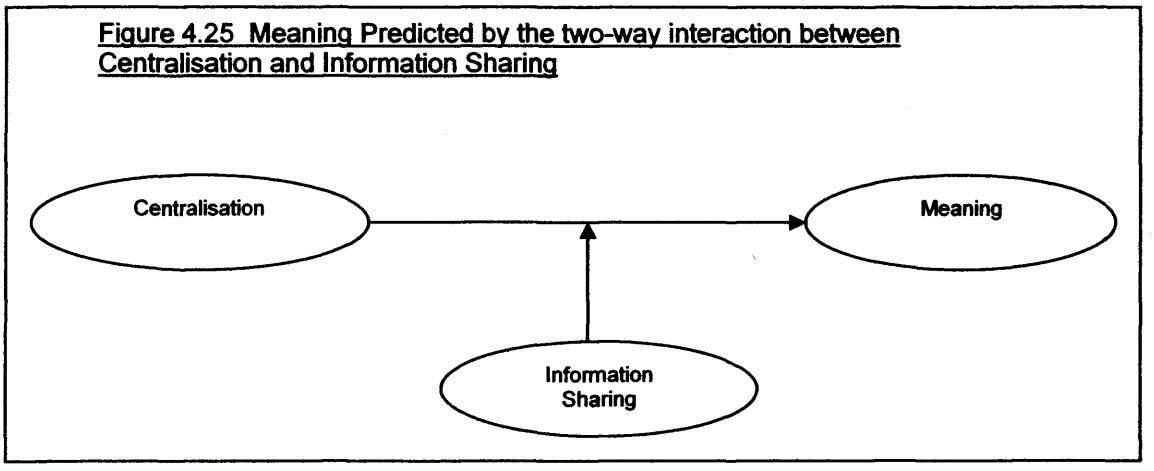
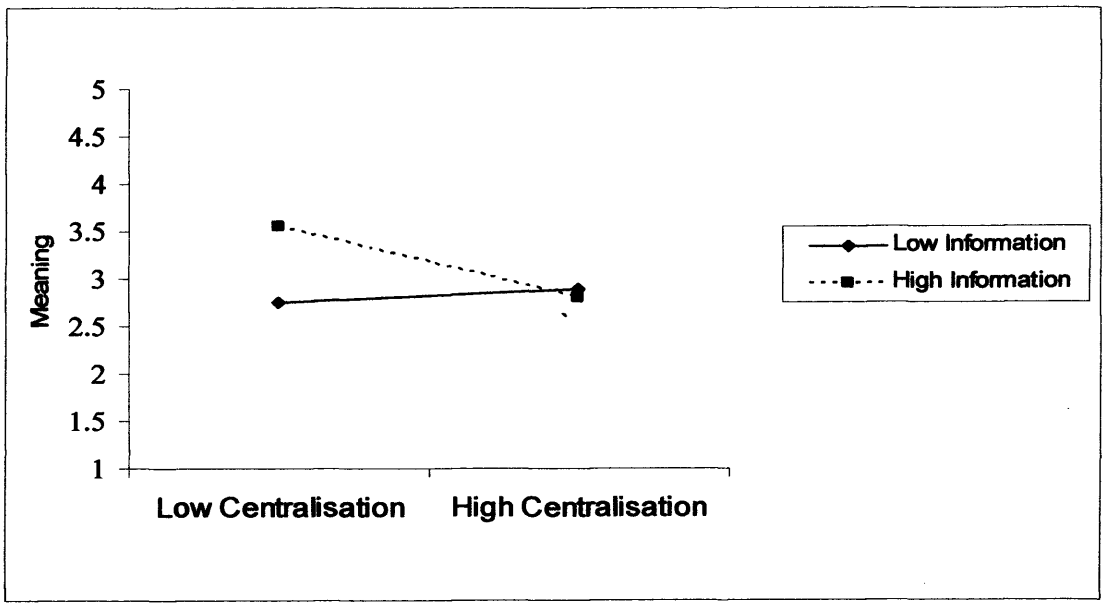


Figure 4.26 demonstrates the regression plot which suggests that high information sharing coupled with low centralisation increases perceptions of meaning.

Figure 4.26 Plots for Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Centralisation and Information Sharing



Hypothesis 11j proposes that information sharing is expected to moderate the relationship between leadership trust and dimensions of psychological empowerment. The interaction between leadership trust and information sharing (Table 4.64, Test 2) is found to significantly predict meaning variable (beta = 0.18, p = 0.00). No moderation effect was detected for interaction between other empowerment variables; hence partial support for hypothesis 11j is reported. Figure 4.27 illustrates the moderation model.

Figure 4.27 Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Leadership Trust and Information Sharing

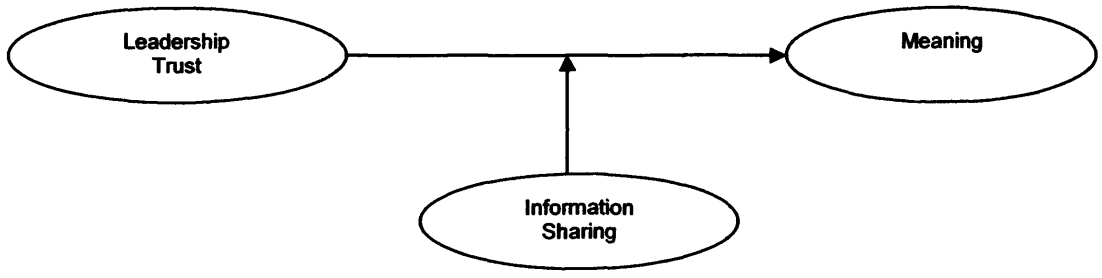
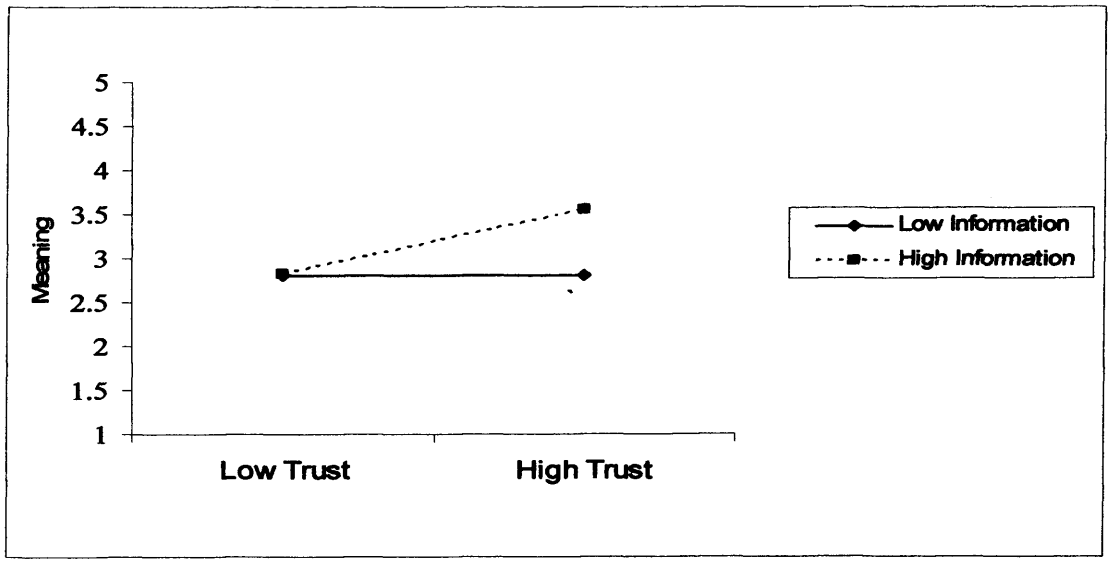


Figure 4.28 illustrates the regression plot which suggests that high information sharing coupled with high leadership trust increases perceptions of meaning.

Figure 4.28 Plots for Meaning Predicted by the two-way interaction between Leadership Trust and Information Sharing



4-20-5 Training as Moderator

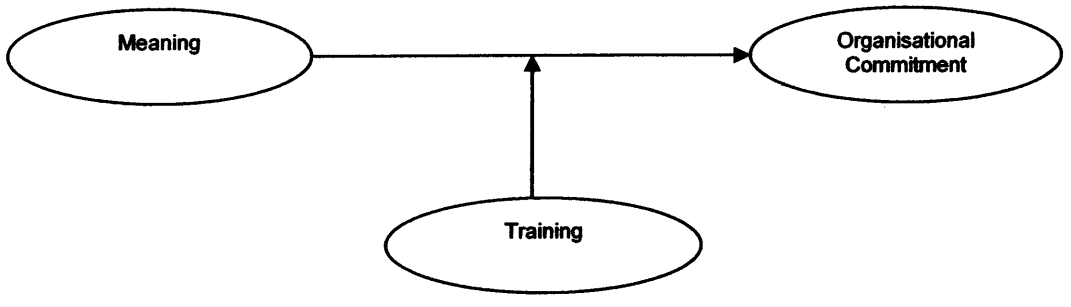
The interaction of training x individual psychological empowerment dimensions on job satisfaction, (2) the interaction of training x individual psychological empowerment dimensions on organisational commitment and (3) the interaction of training x individual psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions is next performed. Only one test is found to be significant as indicated in Table 4.65.

Table 4.65 Significant Results for Training as Moderator Variable

Test no.	Relationship Between	Baron and Kenny Procedure	Coefficients		
			Beta	t-test	P
1	Meaning – Orgn. Commitment	Meaning – Organisational Commitment	0.45	8.68	0.00
		Training - Organisational Commitment	0.13	2.40	0.02
		Meaning X Training - Organisational Commitment	0.11	2.15	0.03

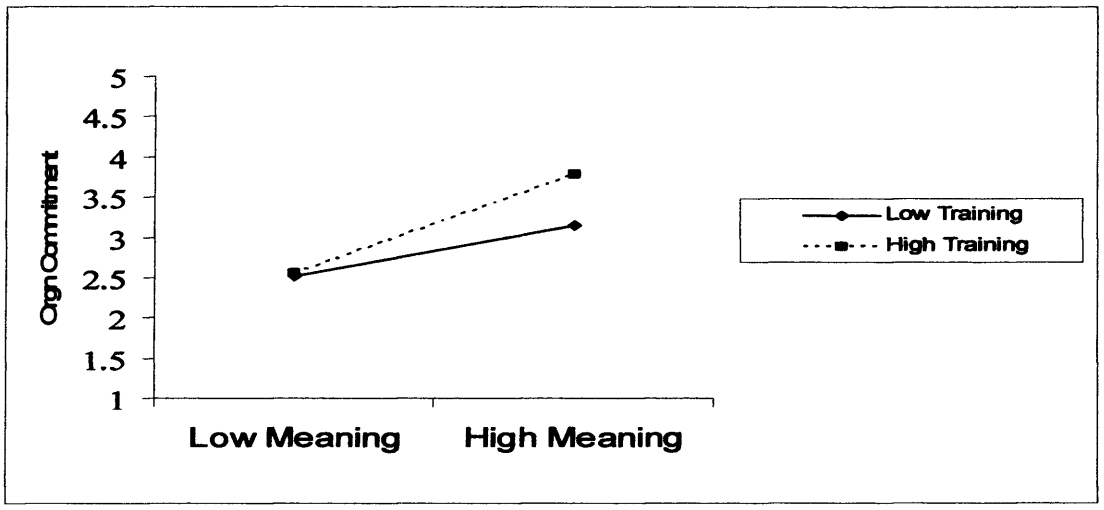
The result above is used to analyse hypothesis 11k which suggests that: *Training will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).* The result for organisational commitment predicted by the two-way interaction between meaning and training suggest a moderate interaction (beta = 0.15, p = 0.01). Figure 4.29 illustrates the significant model.

Figure 4.29 Organisational Commitment Predicted by the two-way interaction between Meaning and Training



The slopes in Figure 4.30, suggests that in situation where meaning is high coupled with high levels of training will further the sense of organisational commitment.

Figure 4.30 Plots for Organisational Commitment Predicted by the two-way interaction between Meaning and Training



In summary, Hypothesis 11k is partially supported as the findings for training as a moderator suggest that training helps to enhance meaning further heightens organisational commitment. The finding also suggest that meaning is an important component of empowerment as purported by Spreitzer (1995; 1996), high level of training enhances empowerment and consequently organisational commitment. No support was found for the three psychological empowerment dimensions (self-determination, impact and competence). Furthermore, no moderation effect was detected between psychological empowerment dimensions and job satisfaction and between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions.

4-20-6 Reward as Moderator

The reward variable as a moderator is the next moderation effect to be performed. The interaction of reward and (1) psychological empowerment dimensions on job satisfaction, (2) psychological empowerment dimensions on organisational commitment and (3) psychological empowerment dimensions on turnover intentions. One test is found to be significant as indicated in Table 4.66.

Table 4.66 Significant Results for Reward as Moderator Variable					
Test no.	Relationship Between	Baron and Kenny Steps	Coefficients		
			Beta	t-test	P
1	Impact – Turnover	Impact – Turnover	-0.11	-1.81	0.07
		Reward - Turnover	-0.30	-5.28	0.00
		Impact x Reward - Turnover	0.10	1.67	0.10

Hypothesis 111 is which suggests that: *reward will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcome (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions).* As indicated bin Table 4.66, (Test 1) the result for turnover intention predicted by the two-way interaction between impact and reward show a mild significance (beta = 0.10, p = 0.10). Figure 4.31 illustrates the significant model.

Figure 4.31 Turnover Intentions Predicted by the two-way interaction between Impact and Reward

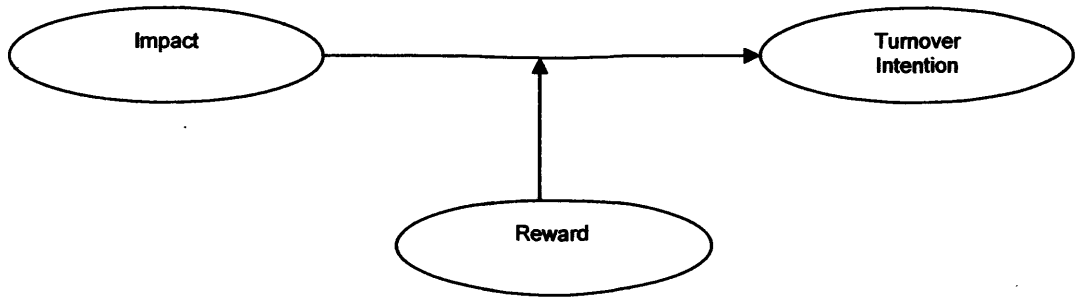
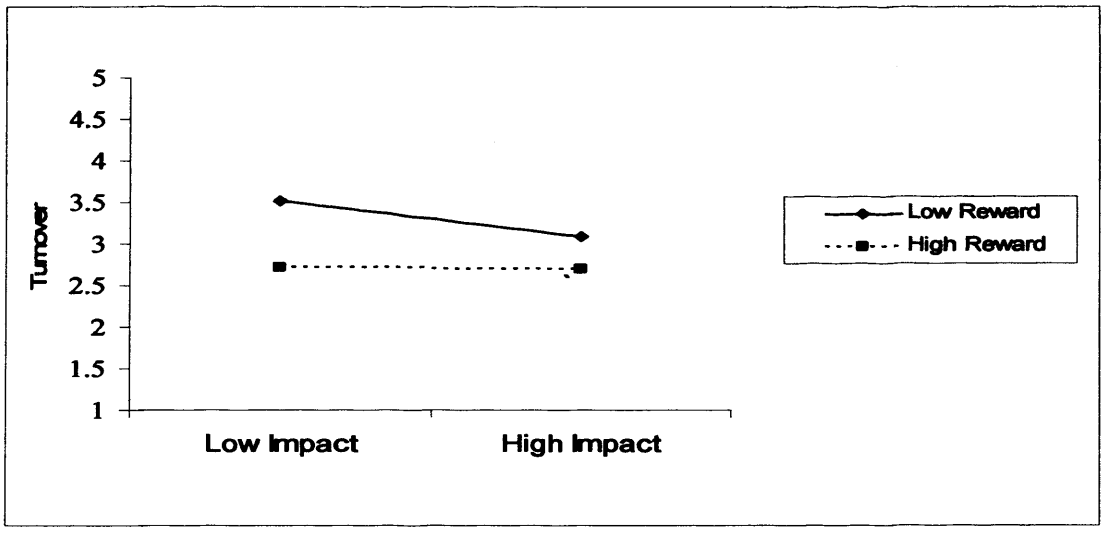


Figure 4.32 illustrates the regression plot which suggests that high impact coupled with high reward reduces effect of intention to quit.

Figure 4.32 Plots for Turnover Intention Predicted by the two-way interaction between Impact and Reward



In summary, Hypothesis 111 is partially supported. The role of reward as a moderating variable has been demonstrated. Turnover intention is demonstrated to be attenuated where high impact is present coupled by high reward whilst impact variable of the psychological empowerment construct indicate any interaction to reward as a moderator in predicting turnover intentions. No support was found for meaning, self-determination and competence. Also no significant moderation effect was found between psychological empowerment dimensions and job satisfaction and between empowerment dimensions and organisational commitment.

Information sharing as a moderator between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes is next reported. No significant moderation results were detected. Hence, hypothesis 11m below is not supported as none of the relationship between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcome variables is moderated by information sharing.

4-20-7 Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict as Moderator

Next, the effect of role ambiguity and role conflict as moderators were tested. As described in section 3-5-6-3, role ambiguity and role conflict potentially moderates the relationship between antecedents and outcomes. In order to test the following hypotheses, Baron and Kenny's (1986) moderation steps are used to analyse the data. No significant moderation was detected for role ambiguity and role conflict as moderators between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes. Hence the following hypotheses 11k and 11l were not supported.

4-21 Summary

This chapter began with an investigation into the characteristics of the sample collected. This was followed by an examination of mean scores, standard deviations and t-tests for all the measurements used in this study. An examination of reliability and validity of the measures employed were then made. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed to validate unidimensionality. Alpha reliabilities were next computed. Pair-wise confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) examinations on all variables were investigated for discriminant validity. The constructs retained for further analysis was then subjected to CFA where the constructs were examined for content, convergent and discriminant validity. The sample was then analysed for common method bias. When all the necessary reliability and validity tests have been made, the sample was thoroughly analysed in detail. A series of linear regressions, followed by mediation and moderation tests were then made according to recommendation by Baron and Kenny (1986). The proposed hypotheses were tested and the results of hypotheses were presented. The hypotheses examining the direct relationships (Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a, 7a, 8a, and 9a) between the proposed antecedents and psychological empowerment dimensions were strongly supported, with exception to competence variable which seems to relate only to some antecedents. The direct relationship between training and meaning also did not produce a significant result. With regards to mediation tests, interesting and significant results were obtained as meaning, self-determination and impact variables appear to mediate many of the relationships hypothesised. Competence variable to be the weakest dimension as none of the results suggest any mediation. The investigation of the role of demographics (job level, age tenure), HR Practices (training, reward, information sharing), role conflict and role ambiguity in moderating the relationship between the hypotheses raised produced some mixed but

noteworthy results. In the next chapter, a discussion of the results and findings is presented. This will be followed by a discussion on limitations of the present research and future research prospects. A summary of the entire hypothesis tested and their results are tabled in Table 4.67.

Table 4.67 Summary of Hypotheses

Direct Relationships	Result (Beta coefficients in brackets)
Hypothesis 1a: Organicity will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for self-determination (0.36), impact (0.22) and meaning (0.19). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 2a: Centralisation will negatively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for, self-determination (-0.56), impact (-0.34) and meaning (-0.14). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 3a: Perception of organisational support will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for self-determination (0.44), impact (0.40) and meaning (0.28),. No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 4a: Training will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment, in particular competence dimension.	Supported for competence (0.41), self-determination (0.23) and impact (0.18). Also as predicted competence produced the strongest beta coefficient. No support for meaning variable.
Hypothesis 5a: Reward will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for impact (0.26), self-determination (0.18) and meaning (0.14). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 6a: Information sharing will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for all four psychological empowerment variables. Self-determination (0.32), impact (0.28), meaning (0.21), competence (0.16).
Hypothesis 7a: Perception of leadership trust will positively impact on individual dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for self-determination (0.31) impact (0.28) and meaning(0.21). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 8a: Role conflict will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for all four psychological empowerment variables. Self-determination (0.36), meaning (0.28), impact (0.26), competence (0.19).
Hypothesis 9a: Role ambiguity will positively impact on the different dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Supported for all four psychological empowerment variables. Self-determination (0.42), impact (0.36), meaning (0.31), competence (0.20).
Hypothesis 10a: The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact job satisfaction.	Supported for meaning (0.40), impact (0.25) and self-determination (0.21). No support was found for competence variable.
Hypothesis 10b: The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact organisational commitment.	Supported for meaning (0.47), impact (0.46) and self-determination (0.33). Weak support was found for competence (0.11, p = 0.06) variable.
Hypothesis 10c: The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will negatively impact turnover intention.	Supported for meaning (-0.34), self-determination (-0.23) and impact (-0.19). No support was found for competence variable.

Summary of Hypotheses...continued	
Hypotheses for Mediation Between Variables	Results (beta coefficient in brackets)
Hypothesis 1b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and job satisfaction.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.38), impact (0.22) and self-determination (0.16). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 1c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.45), impact (0.43) and self-determination (0.28). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 1d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between organicity and turnover intention.	Support for complete mediation for meaning (-0.33), self-determination (-0.22) and impact (-0.18). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 2b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and job satisfaction.	Support for complete mediation for meaning (0.39), impact (0.23) and self-determination (0.20). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 2c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.44), impact (0.40) and self-determination (0.24). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 2d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between centralisation and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.31) and impact (-0.12). No support for competence and self-determination variable.
Hypothesis 3b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and job satisfaction.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.37), impact (0.20) and self-determination (0.15). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 3c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.34), and impact (0.27) No support for competence and self-determination variables.
Hypothesis 3d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.23). No support for self-determination, impact and competence.
Hypothesis 4b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and job satisfaction.	Not Supported. None of the psychological empowerment indicates significance.
Hypothesis 4c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for impact (0.44) and self-determination (0.30). No support for competence and meaning variable.
Hypothesis 4d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between training and turnover intention.	Support for complete mediation for self-determination (-0.21) and partial mediation for impact (-0.17). No support was detected for meaning and competence variables.
Hypothesis 5b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and job satisfaction.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.37), impact (0.21) and self-determination (0.17). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 5c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.43), impact (0.39) and self-determination (0.27). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 5d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between reward and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.30), impact (-0.12) and self-determination (-0.18). No support for competence variable.

Summary of Hypotheses...continued	
Hypotheses for Mediation Between Variables	Results (beta coefficient in brackets)
Hypothesis 6b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and job satisfaction.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.37), impact (0.21) and self-determination (0.17). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 6c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.41), impact (0.37) and self-determination (0.22). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 6d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between information sharing and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.28), self-determination (-0.14) and impact (-0.11). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 7b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and job satisfaction.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.37), impact (0.21) and self-determination (0.17). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 7c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.39), impact (0.36) and self-determination (0.20). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 7d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between leadership trust and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.28), and self-determination (-0.14) No support was detected for competence and impact variables.
Hypothesis 8b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction.	Support for complete mediation for meaning (0.39), impact (0.23) and self-determination (0.19). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 8c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.41), impact (0.40) and self-determination (0.24). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 8d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role conflict and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.24). No support was found for self-determination, impact and competence.
Hypothesis 9b: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction.	Support for complete mediation for meaning (0.37). Support for partial mediation for impact (0.20) and self-determination (0.15). No support was found for competence.
Hypothesis 9c: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and organisational commitment.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (0.36), impact (0.32) and self-determination (0.15). No support for competence variable.
Hypothesis 9d: Dimensions of psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for meaning (-0.22). No support for self-determination, impact and competence.
Hypothesis 10d: Organisational commitment will mediate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and turnover intention.	Support for complete mediation for impact (-0.52) and self-determination (-0.47). Partial mediation is indicated for meaning (-0.43). No support was found for competence.
Hypothesis 10e: Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and turnover intention.	Support for partial mediation for self-determination (-0.21), impact (-0.21) and meaning (-0.14). No support was found for competence.

Summary of Hypotheses...continued	
Hypotheses for Moderation Between Variables	Results
Hypothesis 11a: Job level will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Support for moderation between organicity and meaning. No moderation was found between organicity and other psychological empowerment dimensions. Furthermore, no moderation was detected between centralisation and any dimensions of psychological empowerment.
Hypothesis 11b: Job level will moderate the relationship between organisational support and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Support for moderation between organisational support and meaning. No moderation was found between organisational support and other psychological empowerment dimensions.
Hypothesis 11c: Tenure will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.	No support was detected between organisational structure constructs (organicity and centralisation) and any psychological empowerment variables.
Hypothesis 11d: Age will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.	No support was detected between organisational structure constructs (organicity and centralisation) and any psychological empowerment variables.
Hypothesis11e: Job level will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	Support for moderation between: (a) meaning and job satisfaction, (b) self-determination and job satisfaction, (c) impact and job satisfaction
Hypothesis 11f: Tenure will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	No support was detected.
Hypothesis 11g: Age will moderate the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	Support for moderation between impact and job satisfaction.
Hypothesis11h: Reward will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Support for moderation between organicity and impact
Hypothesis11i: Information sharing will moderate the relationship between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Support for moderation between centralisation and meaning
Hypothesis11j: Information sharing will moderate the relationship between leadership trust and dimensions of psychological empowerment.	Support for moderation between leadership trust and meaning
Hypothesis 11k: Training will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and outcomes.	Support for moderation between meaning and organisational commitment
Hypothesis 11i: Reward will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	Support for moderation between impact and turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 11m: Information Sharing will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	No support was detected.
Hypothesis 11n: Role ambiguity will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	No support was detected.
Hypothesis 11o: Role conflict will moderate the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and work outcomes.	No support was detected.

Chapter 5

Discussion, Managerial Implications and Future Directions

5-1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to contribute to the extant body of knowledge with regard to employee empowerment, specifically employing Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment model. Despite much empirical research into psychological empowerment in the past decade, there is still much that is needed to be investigated. Research on empowerment seems to focus on psychological and motivational aspects but less on power, structure and conflict measurements. Research also seems to focus more on personality specific antecedents (for example, leadership trust, role ambiguity, reward and information sharing) but not on organisational specific constructs as proposed by Seibert *et al.* (2004). As such, organicity and organisational support measures were introduced in this research to explore the impact of organisational specific issues on empowerment. Furthermore, there seems to be a lack of integration in the studies examining a broader range of antecedents and work outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Added to this, many research seems to focus on psychological empowerment as a 'total construct', aggregating the four dimension, 12 item construct into one scale. Carless (2004) and Siebert *et al.* (2004) suggest that a more fine grain understanding of psychological empowerment will be more meaningful. Hence, the current research attempted to investigate closely how each psychological empowerment dimension, namely; self-determination, competence, meaning and impact influence or is influenced by other organisational behaviour dimensions.

It was earlier proposed that such a study could allow the researcher to obtain a more complete picture of employee empowerment (see for example, Wilkinson, 1998; Robbins *et al.*, 2002; Spreitzer 1995). Because of the close links between HR dimensions, HRM researchers like Huselid, (1995), Guest, (2001) and Wall and Wood (2005) among others, proposed that by 'bundling' or combining a range of HR practices, a better understanding of the study can be made. Hence, a theoretical model was conceptualised consisting of four main antecedents loosely termed 'empowering behaviours': (a) Structure and Support, (b) HR practices, (c) Leadership Trust and (d) Conflict and Ambiguity. Structure was proposed to have two variables: organicity and centralisation; Support with one variable: organisational support; HR Practices with three variables: rewards, training and information sharing; Leadership Trust had

one variable: Conflict and ambiguity with two variables: role conflict and role ambiguity. These empowering behaviours are the antecedents of psychological empowerment. Three variables were suggested as work outcomes of empowerment: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Literature also suggests that whilst many studies have been made on direct links between antecedents and empowerment and between empowerment and work outcomes, not much have been investigated with regards to the mediating and moderating effects of psychological empowerment.

This research was aimed at middle and senior managers. It is thought that since senior and middle managers are channels in which change programmes and important aspects of organisational strategy and objectives are facilitated to lower level employees, it is vitally important that managers are empowered themselves. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) posit that it is unlikely for an un-empowered manager to empower another employee. By understanding what organisational factor(s) impact on empowerment and therefore outcomes, organisations can better implement empowerment initiatives. Hence, examination of research questions and hypotheses were raised in section 1-5 and section 2-5, will add to the further understanding of empowerment in organisations in their effort to reach their strategic goals. Having completed all the statistical analyses and hypotheses testing, a discussion of the findings will now follow.

5-2 Discussion of Study

The study was examined in three main stages. Firstly, the direct relationships between antecedents and the four individual empowerment variables and between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes were examined. Secondly, the mediating effects of the individual empowerment variables between the various antecedents and outcome variables were examined. Thirdly, the moderation effects of demographics like age, job level, tenure; enabling HR practices like training, reward and information sharing; and disempowering behaviours like role conflict and role ambiguity were investigated for moderation against the various potential variables.

5-2-1 Organisational Structure

The study aimed to investigate the effects of two components of organisational structure namely organicity and centralisation on empowerment. Discriminant validity and correlation analysis of the two variables suggest that they measure different but important aspects of organisational structure. Organicity for this study implies the adaptability of an organisation to changing circumstances, less formal procedures and informal controls and flexible job functions depending on the employee's personality. The data reported here (see section 4-13-1) suggests significant relationship among the two components of organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and the three work outcome variables (job satisfaction, turnover intention and organisational commitment).

In terms of the first hypothesis: Hypothesis 1a (*Organicity will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*) the results suggest that organicity appear to strongly relate to self-determination, meaning and impact but not to competence. Moreover, organicity appears to be a stronger predictor of self-determination than meaning and impact. Self-determination, according to Deci and Ryan (1985), is the sense of choice in initiating and managing one's action and how much autonomy an employee has over the initiation. Thus, the more organic the firm is perceived by employees, the more self-determined they become. More specifically, it appears that when firms put a stronger emphasis on adapting freely to changing circumstances, getting things done without formal procedures and providing an informal control over what employees do, could lead to enhanced perceptions of autonomy and decision making abilities.

Meaning, as defined by Hackman and Oldham (1980) involves the fit between employees' work role to their beliefs whilst impact is the degree an employee can influence organisational outcomes (Ashford, 1989). The results also support that organicity significantly and positively impact employees' belief that they can impact organisational outcomes, particularly employees will perceive that the work they do is important and meaningful. Organicity similarly relates positively and significantly to impact variable, suggesting that firms practising organic policies above could lead to employees feeling that they have a great deal of control and influence over their department. Hence, the findings partially support the hypothesis that organisations that

practice organicity impact positively on the three empowerment dimensions, namely self-determination, meaning and impact.

With regards to centralisation (Hypothesis 1b: *Centralisation will negatively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*), the results also indicate that centralisation relates negatively to self-determination, impact and meaning. Competence is not significant in this study. Similar to organicity but negatively impacted, centralisation appears to be a stronger predictor of self-determination than meaning and impact. A centralised structure takes away autonomy, giving less choice and ability for an employee to initiate work processes. This in turn reduces their ability to make an impact in the organisation resulting in a less meaningful situation for the employee. This finding is consistent with Koberg *et al.*'s (1999) study, which employed locus of control scales and found similar negative results. Locus of control measures one's personal control over their life experiences, whether they determine their success and failures or that it was due to luck and fate. The finding also supports Gomez and Rosen (2001) suggestion that managers must relinquish control by transferring decision making powers to employees in order for empowerment to be realized.

Hence, the first research question (Does organisational structure impact empowerment?) can be addressed as follows: The findings of these two hypotheses (hypothesis 1a and 2a) provide strong evidence to the question as to whether organisational structure that promotes informal decision making and high levels of autonomy impact positively on empowerment. The results strongly suggest that organisational structure is clearly important to three dimensions of psychological empowerment; self-determination, meaning and impact. Organisations that make effort to increase organicity proposed by Khandawalla (1977), i.e. operate in informal and less uniformity, allowing employees' freedom in making key decisions and increase openness in channels of communications will enhance perceptions of empowerment, in particular the three dimensions described above. Similarly, organisations that display less centralisation as suggested by Aiken and Hage (1967), i.e. transferring more decision making opportunities to employees, will further develop perceptions of self-determination, impact and meaning. Organicity and centralisation were not significant to competence. Competence was suggested by Spreitzer (1995; 1996) to be a key component of psychological empowerment. It is possible that because competence is

training (knowledge) and information related, measures that relate closely to knowledge or learning and training might be more useful in explaining competence. The phenomenon is evident in the current research where training variable strongly relates to competence.

To the question as to whether psychological empowerment variables mediate the relationship between organicity and centralisation to work outcomes, hypotheses 1b (between organicity and job satisfaction), 1c (organicity and organisational commitment), 1d (organicity and turnover intention) and 2b (centralisation and job satisfaction), 2c (centralisation and organisational commitment), 2d (centralisation and turnover intention) were analysed. Figure 5.1 illustrates the results of the mediation model between organicity and work outcomes respectively. As demonstrated in Figure 5.1, self-determination, meaning and impact partially mediates between organicity and job satisfaction as well as organicity and organisational commitment, or more specifically, affective commitment dimension of Meyers and Allen (1991) three dimensional organisational construct. Self-determination, meaning and impact fully mediate between organicity and turnover intentions, suggesting that these three empowerment variables are strong predictors of turnover intentions. As with the earlier direct relationship between organicity and empowerment dimensions, all the hypotheses are strongly supported for meaning, impact and self-determination variables but not for competence.

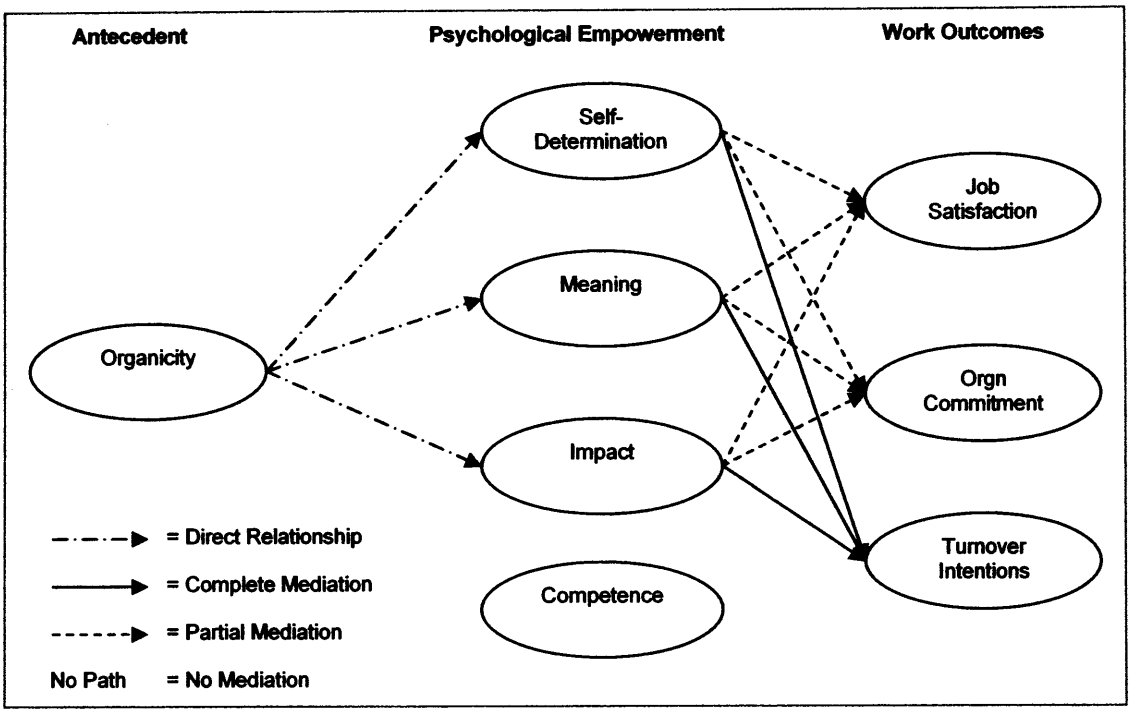


Figure 5.1 Results of Mediation between Organicity and Work Outcomes

Figure 5.2 shows the mediation between centralisation and work outcomes. Complete mediation was found between centralisation and job satisfaction, suggesting self-determination, meaning and impact are enhanced and consequently results in improved job satisfaction, negating the effects of centralisation. To elaborate the point further, when it comes to the mediating role played by empowerment dimensions, the link between centralisation and job satisfaction, the results suggest that the three psychological empowerment dimensions play the mediating role whereas competence does not. Moreover, whilst self-determination, meaning and impact fully mediate the relationship between centralisation and job satisfaction, suggesting that job satisfaction is strongly predicted by the mediation effects. In the case of the relationship between centralisation and organisational commitment and between centralisation and turnover intention, there was only evidence for partial mediation, with exception to mediation of self-determination between centralisation and turnover intention. Thus, although meaning and impact play a partial mediating role in between centralisation and turnover intention, self-determination does not seem to have any mediating effect.

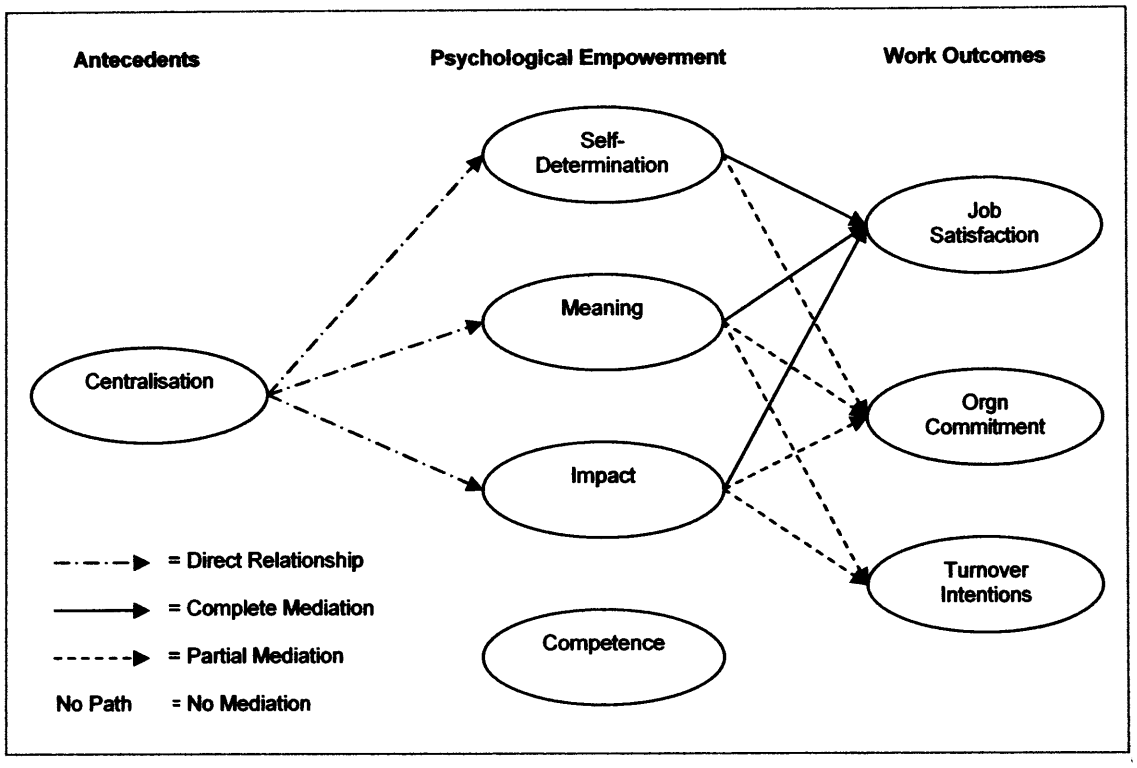


Figure 5.2 Results of Mediation between Centralisation and Work Outcomes

The finding for organisational structure is significant since the result adds to the existing body of knowledge as no prior similar investigation has been made to-date (see Eylon, 1998; Robbins *et al.*, 2002) with exception to Seibert *et al.* (2004), employing empowerment climate scale. Seibert *et al.* found that psychological empowerment aggregate scale mediates empowerment climate construct and job satisfaction, the current research further suggests that specific dimensions of psychological empowerment, particularly self-determination, meaning and impact mediates between organisational structure (organicity and centralisation) and three work outcome variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions). Firstly, the results suggest that whilst three psychological empowerment variables are significant in the study, meaning followed by impact dominates the psychological empowerment construct. Self-determination variable failed to mediate the relationship between centralisation and turnover intention. Competence variable is not significant in any mediation tests. The results for organisational structure dimension provides further support that empowerment efforts are determined by the type of structure as suggested by Chaston (1996) and others. Hence, where there is high level of belief in wanting empowerment to succeed (see Baruch, 1998a), coupled with a more organic structure

will permit such a situation and empowerment efforts will be able to flourish. A less centralised structure where transfer of power is high, allowing employees to make decisions similarly encourages meaning, impact and self-determination, providing strong support to Robbins *et al.'s* (2002) propositions that organisational structure forms an important organisational dimension impacting empowerment. The employment of two measures for organisational structure, namely organicity and centralisation, appear to reveal different but important aspects of organisational structure. Organicity measurement indicates a firm that has a lateral and informal style of structure, especially desirable in entrepreneurial and innovative firms that need to be quick and agile, a condition encouraging empowerment efforts. Centralisation as previously mentioned measures where decision making (power and control) is located in a firm. The higher the up the hierarchy decision making is, the more centralised a firm is. The results suggest that centralisation adversely affect empowerment, particularly self-determination, meaning and impact. The message emerging from the investigation of organisational structure suggests that employee empowerment requires a more organic structure and less centralised environment, failing which empowerment would be difficult to take place. Organisational structure is therefore an important organisational aspect to consider when implementing empowerment initiatives.

5-2-2 Organisational Support

Consistent with theoretical expectations, the question: "Does perceptions of organisational support impact empowerment?" The research question was strongly supported by results. Hypothesis 3a (*Perception of organisational support will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*) found positive and significant linkages between organisational support and the individual psychological empowerment variables; self-determination, impact and meaning. No significance was found for competence. The findings suggest that organisations must contribute substantially towards supporting employees in order to enhance perceptions of empowerment, in particular in enhancing employee self-determination, impact and meaning. Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) suggest organisations that exercise flexibility with employees, like allowing employees to change their work conditions, not take unfair advantage of them, try to understand and care for their problems and complaints, and

would increase employees' perceptions of organisational support. Furthermore, organisations must genuinely show that they take pride in employee's accomplishments and contributions. Genuine support and caring attitudes of the organisation will enhance employee's perceptions of empowerment in particular the three dimensions that are significantly impacted.

Turning to mediation effects, organisational support is mediated by meaning, impact and self-determination to job satisfaction; hence hypothesis 3b is partially supported. For hypothesis 3c, (*psychological empowerment will mediate relationship between organisational support and organisational commitment*) however, support is only found for meaning and impact. There is no support for competence and self-determination. As for hypothesis 3d (*psychological empowerment will mediate between organisational support and turnover intention*), only meaning found any significance. Figure 5.3 illustrates the results of the mediation model between organisational support and work outcomes. As shown, partial mediation is indicated for relationship between organisational support to work outcomes by three empowerment variables, namely self-determination, meaning and impact.

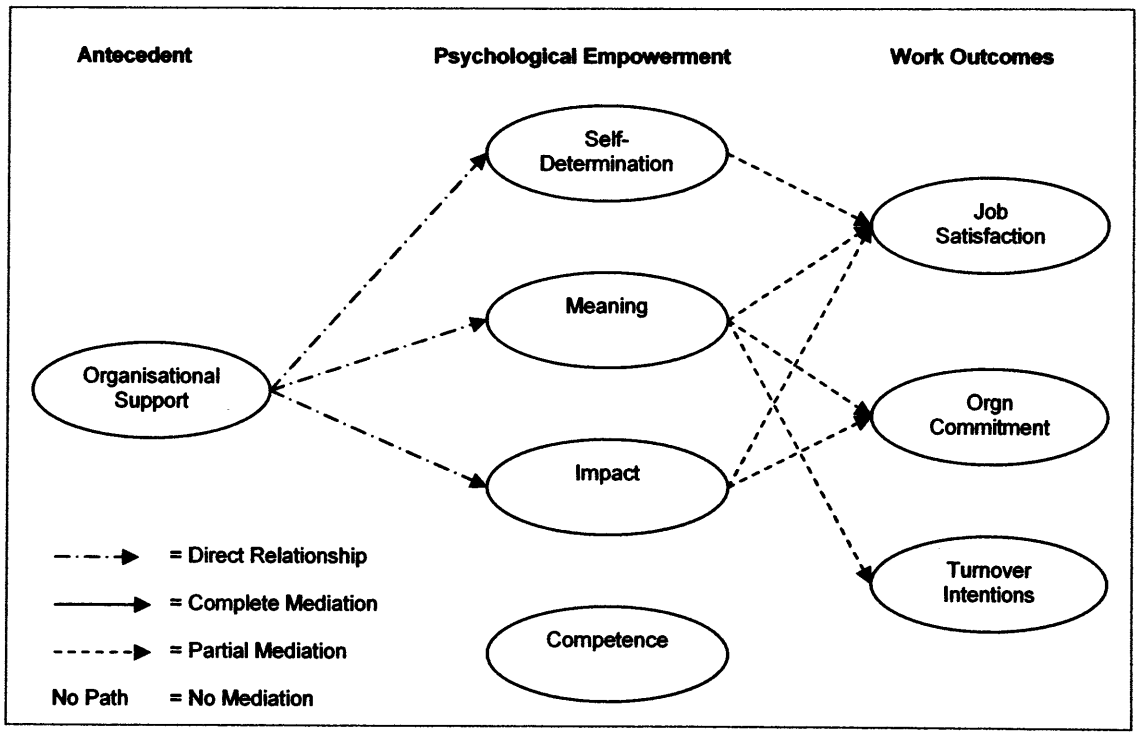


Figure 5.3 Results of Mediation between Organisational Support and Work Outcomes

Overall, the results for hypothesis 3a, b, c, and d, are noteworthy. Since there is no study investigating organisational support to psychological empowerment, this study provides some insight into organisational support and the links to psychological empowerment variables. Also as illustrated in Figure 5.3, the mediation tests also revealed new and interesting information. The main finding is that meaning variable seems to be the principal component in Spreitzer's empowerment model, as the beta results are highest compared to other variables. Also when mediation is tested with organisational commitment, self-determination is not significant, indicating that meaning and impact plays a more important role in realizing organisational commitment. Finally, only meaning mediates turnover intention, suggesting that meaning, more than other psychological empowerment variables explains turnover intention. Hence, firms that introduce supportive environment that improve employee's sense of meaning may potentially reduce turnover intentions. Competence variable, as reported earlier, is weak and does not indicate any support to organisational support, in contrast with Carless (2004) study which found competence negatively related to job satisfaction. Carless however, did not explain the negative relationship, citing difficulties in interpreting the negative phenomenon.

On the whole, the study on Structure and Support constructs has been revealing. It further suggests that organisational specific constructs clearly do relate to psychological empowerment dimensions especially meaning, self-determination and impact. The study also provides strong evidence that these three dimensions mediate between organisational specific constructs and work outcomes.

5-2-3 HR Practices

The study also aims to investigate the effects of HR practices on the four dimensions of psychological empowerment by asking: "Do HR practices like rewards, training and information sharing impact positively empowerment?" This question is best answered by referring to hypothesis 4a (*Training will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment, in particular competence dimension*); hypothesis 5a (*Reward will positively impact dimensions of psychological*

empowerment in particular meaning, self-determination and impact) and hypothesis 6a (*Information sharing will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*). Findings suggest that training strongly predicts competence, self-determination and impact. No significant relation is found for meaning suggesting that the training measure for this study seems less relevant to meaning. As suggested earlier, competence variable, because it is closely related to knowledge and learning, is strongly impacted by training. The results also suggest that training relates to self-determination; hence training is perceived to enhance determination suggesting that firms that provide adequate training improves decision making, autonomy and freedom in getting the job done.

Turning next to hypothesis 5a, consistent with Spreitzer (1996), reward strongly predicts impact, self-determination and meaning. This finding extends Spreitzer's (1996) study by investigating the relationship of the four individual empowerment variables as Spreitzer aggregated the psychological empowerment measurement. The present study found impact is the dominant variable affected by rewards, implying that reward bestowed to employees is perceived by employees as a form of recognition; i.e., employees see reward (in the form of bonus payout or feedback) based on the quality of work performed. Reward as such is perceived as a measure of their contribution and hence they feel they have impacted the organisation. Reward is also seen as a 'carrot' to achieve their target or goals, making employees more self-determined to push themselves further in order to be rewarded. Meaning variable is also significantly related to reward, but it implies that reward makes work more meaningful to employees. The finding further supports existing literature (see for example: Lawler, 1992; Baruch, 1998a; D'Anunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999; Arnolds and Boshoff, 2002) that fair rewards are necessary to enable empowerment.

Hypothesis 6a indicates significant results for information sharing to all psychological empowerment variables. The results suggest that information sharing plays a key role in determining psychological empowerment as it impacts all measures. Firstly, information sharing is linked to self-determination, followed by impact, meaning and competence. Hence organisations that practice information sharing are likely to impact psychological empowerment. Whereas Spreitzer's (1995) study found communication with regards to an organisation's mission and goals and Siegall and

Gartner's (1999) study which investigated communications between supervisor and subordinate correlate with empowerment, the current study further suggests that having adequate information, ease of collecting and acquiring information to complete a work task and good communication between various departments are also important considerations in improving empowerment. This finding further supports theoretical (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Wilkinson, 1998; Robbins *et al.,* 2002) and empirical research (Spreitzer, 1996 and Samad, 2007) in which the aggregated the empowerment construct was found to relate to information sharing.

Turning to the mediation effects of psychological empowerment variables between training and job satisfaction (Hypothesis 4b); the result did not support a case for mediation. Hence, when it comes to job satisfaction, training does not play a role in predicting job satisfaction either directly or through a mediated variable. With regard to Hypothesis 4c (between training and organisational commitment), partial mediation was found for impact and self-determination, implying that training induces impact and self-determination and consequently employees feel more committed. No mediation was found for meaning and competence. A similar (but negatively significant) finding was reported for hypothesis 4d (between training and turnover intention). The finding suggests that self-determination and impact mediates between training and turnover intention. Furthermore, complete mediation is indicated for self-determination. Hence, when training is present, self-determination is enhanced and consequently results in reduced turnover intention. To elaborate the point further, when it comes to the mediating role played by empowerment dimension, the link between training and outcome variables, the results suggest that self-determination and impact seems to play the mediating role whereas meaning and competence do not play such a role. More specifically, self-determination fully mediates the relationship between training and turnover intentions whereas in all other cases there is only evidence for partial mediation. Figure 5.4 illustrates the results of the mediation model between training and work outcomes.

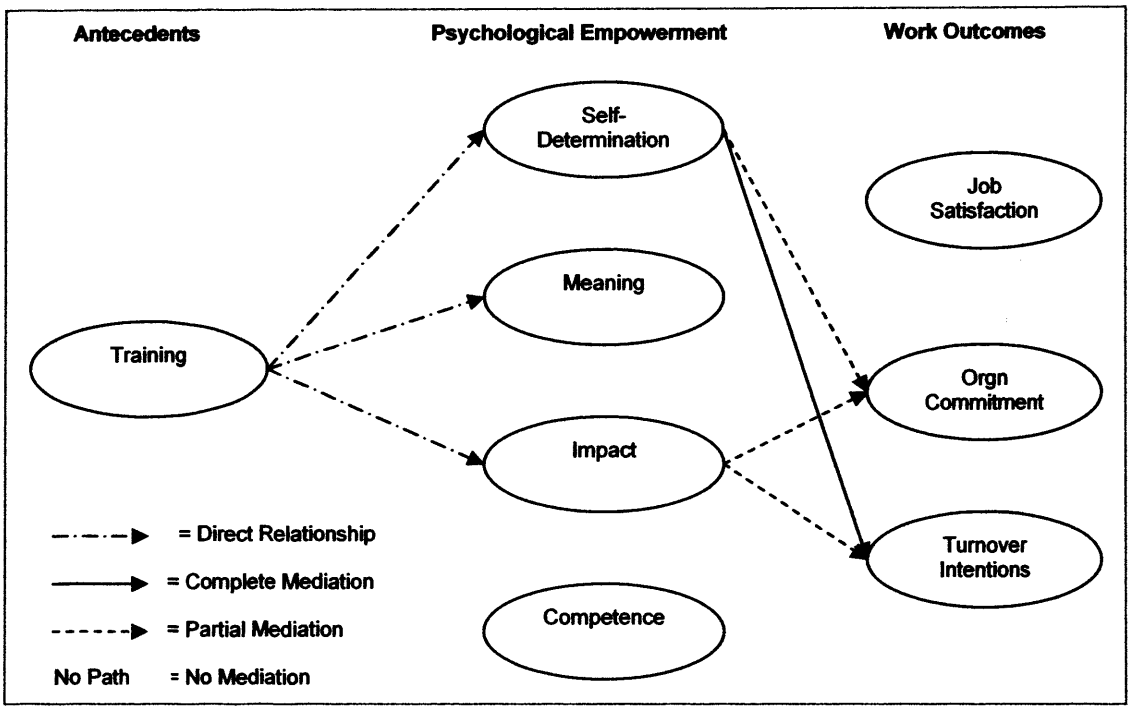


Figure 5.4 Results of Mediation between Training and Work Outcomes

Hence, whilst previous studies has only focussed on direct links between training and outcome variables and between training and psychological empowerment, the current study contributes towards the existing knowledge by confirming the partial and full mediation of self-determination and impact variables of psychological empowerment and ruling out the mediating effect of meaning and competence. Therefore, in addition to training, firms can consider enhancing self-determination and impact as these variables are significant determinants of organisational commitment and turnover intention.

Next the mediation effect of psychological empowerment between reward and work outcomes (Hypothesis 5b, 5c, 5d) is discussed. Results indicate that three out of four psychological empowerment variables (meaning, impact and self-determination) appear to mediate the relationship between reward and each of the outcome variables. However competence appears to play no mediating role. Hence, whilst previous research has investigated the direct links between reward and each of the outcome variables, the current study contributes by confirming the partial mediating role of self-determination, meaning and impact variables and ruling out any mediating effect for competence. Meaning variable is dominant in all three mediation tests suggesting that

meaning explains a high proportion of the result. To demonstrate the results, Figure 5.5 illustrates the results of the mediation model between reward and work outcomes.

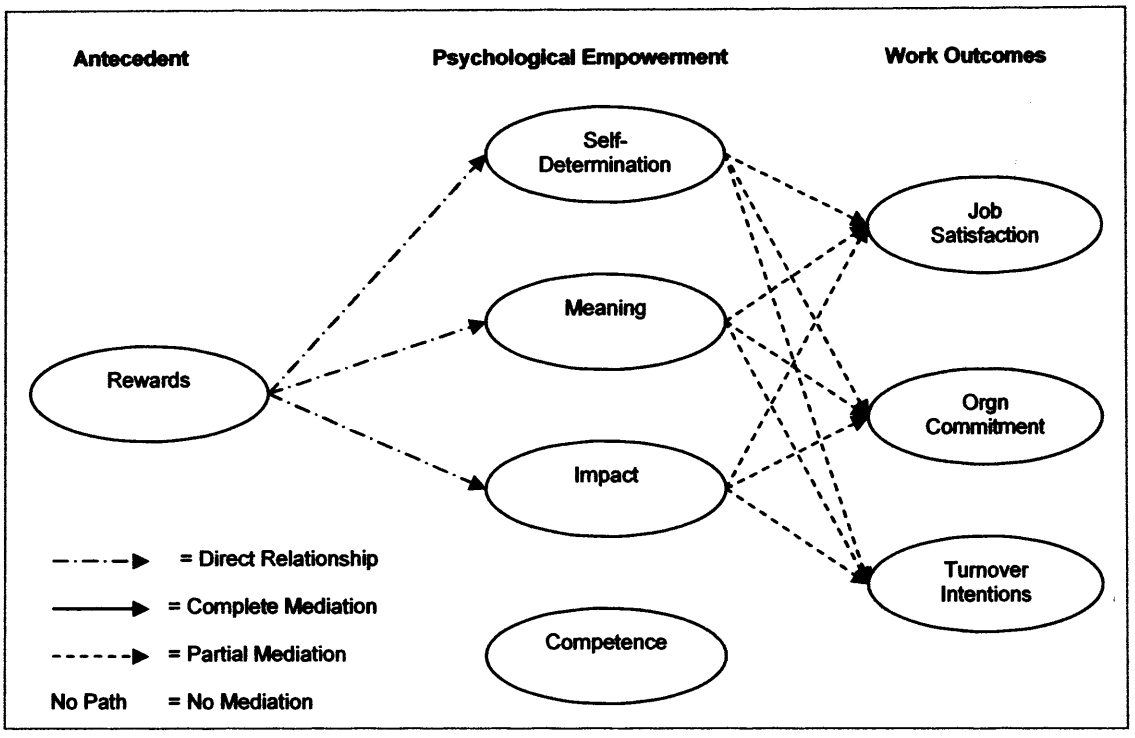


Figure 5.5 Results of Mediation between Reward and Work Outcomes

Turning to information sharing as a mediator (Hypothesis 6b, 6c, 6d), significant results are found for meaning, impact and self-determination for the three work outcomes. Again, no mediation is found for competence. The results mirrors reward as mediator above and also suggest that meaning variable dominates the mediation effects. The result for information sharing is further evidence supporting many studies (see for example, Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Gomez and Rosen. 2001; Samad, 2007) which suggests that poor access to information can contribute to a reduced sense of empowerment. Figure 5.6 illustrates the results of the mediation model between information sharing and outcomes. As shown, partial mediation is demonstrated for self-determination, meaning and impact between rewards and the three work outcome variables.

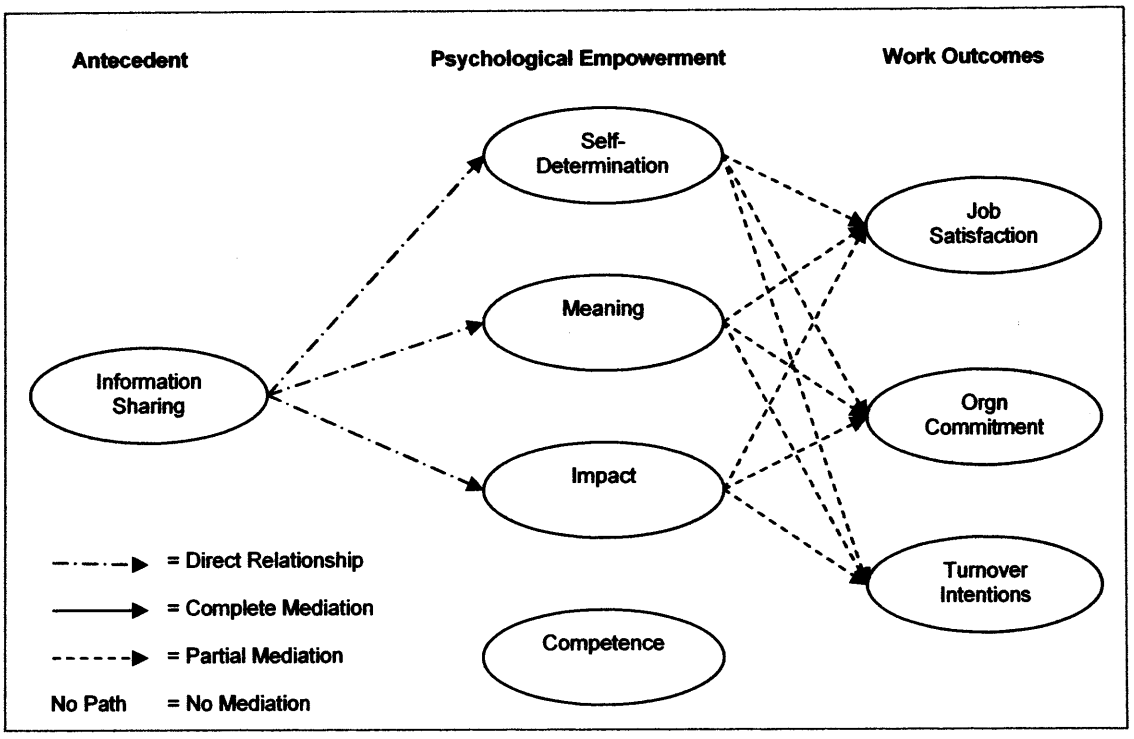


Figure 5.6 Results of Mediation between Information Sharing and Work Outcomes

A deeper understanding into the psychological empowerment construct and how the four variables behave reveals some significant points: Firstly, meaning dimension, more than any other variable explains Spreitzer's empowerment construct. Hence, aggregating the four variables into one scale may be flawed as the single scale may not measure all the four dimensions equally. Secondly, weakness in the competence variable, suggest that it may be unwise to aggregate the 12 item psychological empowerment variable. Thirdly, the psychological empowerment variables, in particular meaning and impact indicate higher beta coefficient scores to organisational commitment than to job satisfaction and turnover intention. This would suggest that psychological empowerment may be an important antecedent to organisational commitment as posited by Bhatnagar (2005).

It can be concluded from the discussion so far that self-determination, meaning and impact appear to play either a full or partial mediating role on the relationship between the antecedents and outcome variables studied in this research. Since no prior research exists concerning the mediating role of psychological empowerment dimensions, the current study contributes by improving the diagnostic value of psychological empowerment dimensions in predicting the outcome variables studied in

this research. Whilst some previous research has focused on investigating the mediating role of psychological empowerment as a whole (see Siebert *et al.*, 2004), the current study provide additional insight by identifying specific dimensions of empowerment (self-determination, meaning and impact) in determining the relationship between the antecedents and outcome variables.

Hence, when it comes to designing strategies and policies for improving job satisfaction, organisational commitment and reducing turnover intentions, managers can focus on not only HR practices antecedents but also on the three significant psychological empowerment dimensions. More importantly, the dimension specific analysis on the role of psychological empowerment in determining the outcome variables has been established in this research. The results provide a more predicting value to managers as they can direct their resources on improving self-determination, meaning and impact dimensions of psychological empowerment to enhance job satisfaction, organisational commitment and reduce turnover intentions.

5-2-4 Leadership Trust

To the question: "Do perceptions of leadership trust impact empowerment?" Hypothesis 7a, (*Perception of leadership trust will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*) indicate that leadership trust is strongly related to self-determination, impact and meaning. The results concur with previous studies on trust and leadership (see for example, Corsun and Enz, 1999; Gomez and Rosen, 2001 and Koberg *et al.*, 1999; Tzafrir, *et al.*, 2004). These investigations on leadership trust, LMX (leader-member exchange) and leadership approachability show positive significance to 'total' psychological empowerment, suggesting that managerial trusting actions impact empowerment. Corsun and Enz (1999) who studied the individual psychological empowerment variables separately also found supportive peer helping behaviours to relate to the three psychological empowerment variables.

With regards to mediation effects, support is found for meaning, impact and self-determination to mediate two work outcome variables, namely; job satisfaction and organisational commitment; only meaning and self-determination mediated between leadership trust and turnover intention. The results suggest that meaning variable, as indicated by earlier findings, is the dominant variable, displaying strong beta scores to

antecedents and outcomes. As a whole, leadership trust can be seen as an important organisational behaviour encouraging empowerment efforts, in particular meaning, self-determination and impact supporting Robbins *et al.* (2002) suggestion that trust impacts empowerment. Trust did not relate to competence. Also, whilst Ergeneli *et al.* (2007) found leadership trust to relate only to impact, the current study suggests that self-determination, meaning and impact dimensions to relate to leadership trust but additionally, these three empowerment dimensions mediates the relationship between leadership trust and work outcome variables like job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Figure 5.7 illustrates the results of the mediation model between leadership trust variable and work outcomes. Partial mediation is demonstrated for all mediation in this model.

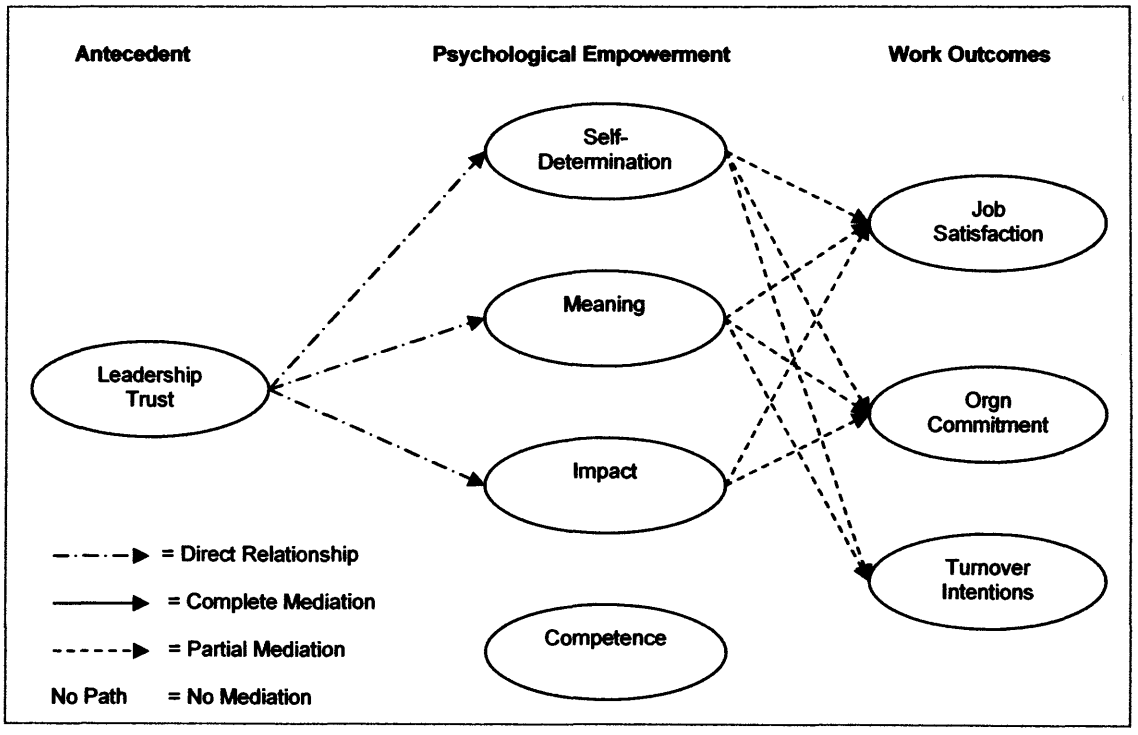


Figure 5.7 Results of Mediation between Leadership Trust and Work Outcomes

Hence, whilst trust (in organisations) is seen to mediate the relationship between organisational justice dimensions to the three work outcomes (see Aryee *et al.*, 2002), the current research further suggest that psychological empowerment variables of meaning, self-determination and impact mediates between leadership trust and the three work outcomes. McAlister (1995) pointed out that leaders that create a trusting and

caring environment, i.e., freely sharing ideas and feelings, having an openness to allow subordinates to talk about their difficulties and problems by having a listening ear enhances organisational commitment, as established by hypothesis 7c. Trusting actions that elevate meaningfulness, self-determination and impact consequently improve organisational commitment. Trust must also be displayed by a genuine desire by being responsive to subordinates' problems. So to the question as to whether leadership trust impact empowerment, the answer is yes to meaning, self-determination and impact. Overall, the results for leadership trust are noteworthy as a more in-depth understanding is obtained for leadership trust based on the individual examination of the psychological empowerment variables.

5-2-5 Conflict and Ambiguity

To the question: "Does role ambiguity and role conflict impact empowerment?" This question is best explained by hypothesis 8a (*Role conflict will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*) and hypothesis 9a (*Role ambiguity will positively impact on dimensions of psychological empowerment*). The result is interesting as all four psychological empowerment dimensions are significant for both hypotheses. The results for role ambiguity correspond with Spreitzer's (1996) study on 'total empowerment' but additionally suggest that self-determination is the strongly predicted by role conflict followed by impact, meaning and competence. Research by Carless (2004) suggests that role clarity impacted meaning and competence dimensions of psychological empowerment. As for role conflict, the results seem to mirror the results between role ambiguity and psychological empowerment. Furthermore, since no study has been made on the relationship between role conflict and psychological empowerment, the present study contributes by suggesting that apart from role ambiguity and role clarity, role conflict construct is also an important predictor of psychological empowerment dimensions. Hence, employees must know for certain how much authority they have, they must also have clear goals and objectives and guidelines. Additionally, employees that have a clear certainty as to how well they are doing and when they will be evaluated for a raise (or promotion) reduces perceptions of role ambiguity and hence, increases empowerment and consequently outcomes. Similarly reduction of role conflict, or role incompatibility to one that an employee has

been trained for or ineffective use of resources will potentially improve empowerment prospects and consequently work outcomes as posited by Rizzo *et al.* (1970).

Hence, whereas Spreitzer (1996) found role ambiguity supports perceptions of psychological empowerment as a total construct, the present study suggests that both role conflict and ambiguity is significant to all the four dimensions of psychological empowerment. The results from this research further extends current knowledge by suggesting that whilst role ambiguity and role clarity relates negatively to psychological empowerment variables; additionally low levels of role conflict will be beneficial in enhancing empowerment efforts. Furthermore, the present results are also interesting as role conflict and role ambiguity variables are the few antecedents (apart from training and information sharing) that significantly relate to competence dimension in this study. Perhaps because Rizzo *et al.'s* (1970) role conflict and role ambiguity measures relate closely to training, capability (competencies), and policies and guidelines may explain the reason for the significant relationship.

Turning to mediation effects, meaning variable completely mediates the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction and between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Impact and self-determination variables indicated partial mediation between role ambiguity and job satisfaction whilst complete mediation is indicated between role conflict and job satisfaction. In all other cases, partial mediation is indicated. Figures 5.8 and 5.9 illustrates the results for the mediation between role ambiguity and role conflict to work outcomes respectively partially supporting hypothesis 8c and 9c. Finally, mediation between role conflict and role ambiguity to turnover intention are only significant with meaning variable (hypothesis 8d and 9d). As such, meaning variable is shown to be the dominant mediating variable in this study. In contrast with the direct relationships examined earlier (hypothesis 8a and 9a), competence did not indicate any mediation suggesting that further research into this area may be needed. Overall, the mediation results are noteworthy as the hypotheses for mediation demonstrated partial support and suggest that whilst three psychological empowerment variables (self-determination, meaning and impact) play a mediating role, meaning is the dominant variable explaining Spreitzer's psychological empowerment construct in mediation analysis. Hence, whilst Ackers (2004) suggests that both role ambiguity and role conflict impacts job satisfaction and intention to

leave, psychological empowerment dimensions in particular meaning, self-determination and impact to be predictors of workplace outcomes. Additionally, the three empowerment dimensions appear to strongly predict job satisfaction, compared to organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

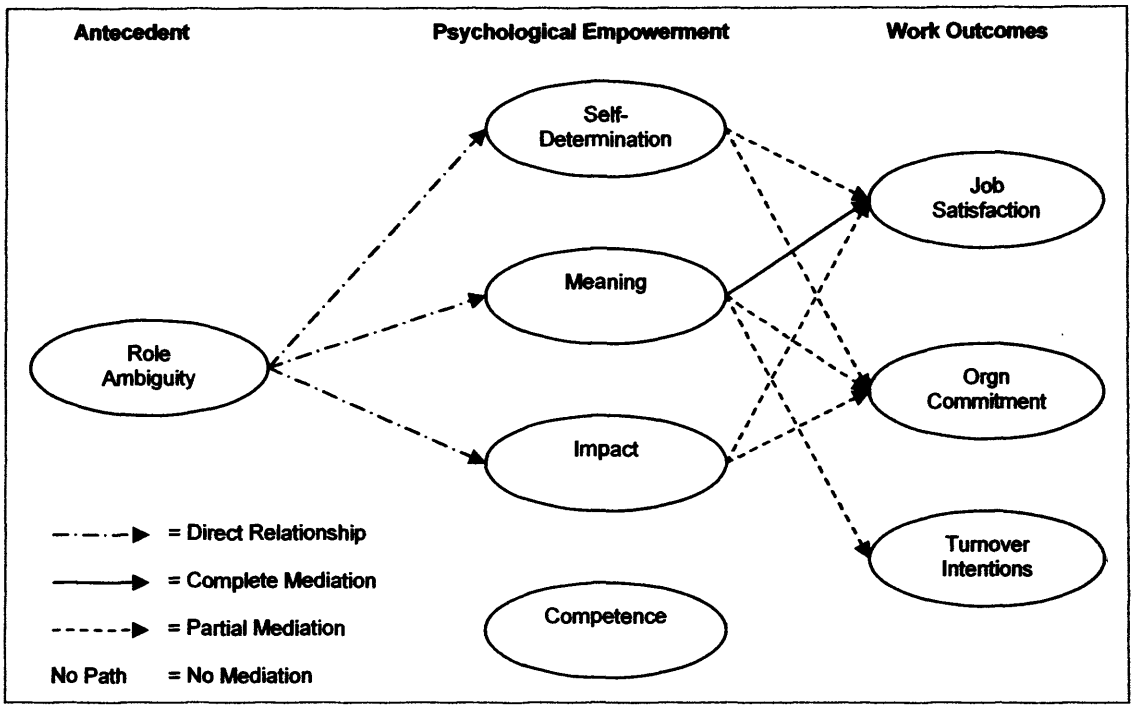


Figure 5.8 Results of Mediation between Role Ambiguity and Work Outcomes

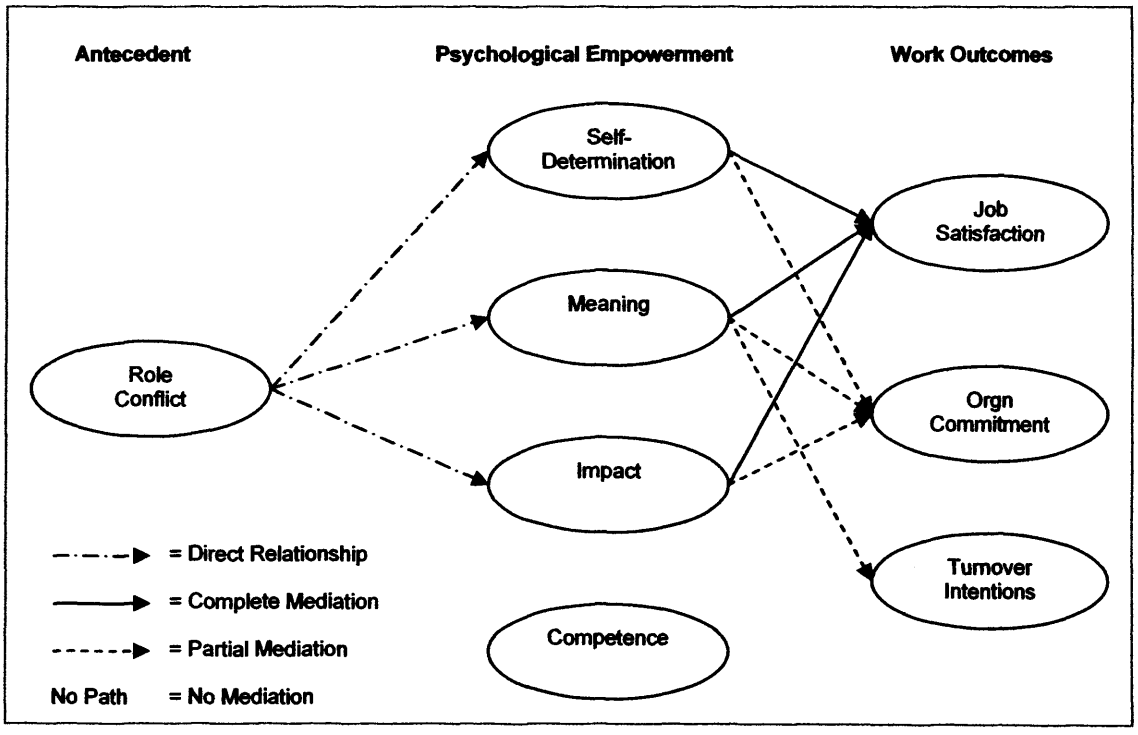


Figure 5.9 Results of Mediation between Role Conflict and Work Outcomes

5-2-6 Effects of Psychological Empowerment Variables on Work Outcomes

Another aim of this study was to investigate the effects of psychological empowerment dimensions on work outcome variables. This will determine whether high degree of perceived empowerment impact work outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. To examine this study, three hypotheses were raised to examine if the variables namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention are impacted by perceptions of empowerment. It was hypothesised that high levels of empowerment impacts positively on job satisfaction (hypothesis 10a: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will positively impact on job satisfaction*) and organisational commitment (hypothesis 10b: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will impact positively on organisational commitment*), whilst turnover intention (hypothesis 10c: *The different dimensions of psychological empowerment will negatively impact on turnover intention*) should impact negatively to psychological empowerment.

Several studies have investigated relationships between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Three studies (Liden *et al.* (2000), Spreitzer *et al.* (1997) and Koberg *et al.,* 1999) investigating 'total empowerment' found that the aggregated scale to significantly relate to job satisfaction. Carless (2004) on the other hand, attempt to study the empowerment dimensions individually and found significant relationship between two dimensions namely, meaning and impact to relate to job satisfaction. The current study re-evaluates previous research by testing the relations of each individual empowerment variable and found some interesting results. As suggested by Hypothesis 10a, the relationship between psychological empowerment variables and job satisfaction is strongly supported as the *t*-test and beta coefficient results indicate that meaning, impact and self-determination were significant whilst competence failed to show any relationship. Hence, the current study provide a strong support to previous research but also make additional contribution by revealing the effect of impact variable predicting job satisfaction. As discussed earlier (see section 3-4-11), the current organisational measure employed in this study (Porter *et al.* 1974) measures affective commitment dimension of Meyers and Allen's (1991) multi-dimensional construct and Mowday *et al.* (1982). Gautam *et al.* (2004) suggests that

Porter's construct measures emotional attachment, identification and involvement cognitions. Hence, one could argue that different dimensions of psychological empowerment play a critical role in enhancing not only job satisfaction but also organisational commitment, in particular organisational attachment, identification and involvement. Overall, the current study provides a strong empirical support for the need to conduct dimension specific analysis of the psychological empowerment construct as a more refined understanding of empowerment could be made.

Similarly, the current study provides further insights into the specific relationship as only meaning, impact and self-determination had a role to play whereas competence does not appear to impact work outcomes. In terms of the effects of each of the psychological empowerment dimensions on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the results pointed to the direction that all except competence had a positive and significant relationship to organisational commitment followed by impact and self-determination. An examination of the beta weights suggests that meaning had the strongest impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The finding concurs with Janssen's (2004) and Bhatnagar's (2005) aggregated psychological empowerment studies, but captures a more acute interpretation of the role of individual psychological empowerment dimensions. Hence, whilst the results point to a strong and positive relationship between empowerment and organisational commitment suggesting managers and organisations that improve perceptions of empowerment, meaning and impact are the variables indicating stronger relationship to organisational commitment.

Koberg *et al.*, (1999) reported a negative relationship between psychological empowerment (as an aggregate construct) and turnover intentions. The present study contributes by pointing that self-determination, meaning and impact are negatively related to turnover intentions whereas competence has no relationship. Examination of the beta weights of the present research suggest that meaning has the strongest effect on turnover intentions followed by self-determination and impact.

This study provides further insights by exploring the mediating role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions. Figure 5.10 illustrates the results of the mediating role of organisational commitment between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions. The mediation results revealed that organisational commitment

fully mediates the relationship between self-determination and turnover intentions and between impact and turnover intention while partial mediation is reported between meaning and turnover intention. The results suggest that whilst organisational commitment relates to turnover intention (see for example Griffeth *et al.*, 2000; Boshoff and Mels, 2000), the three empowerment variables (self-determination, impact and meaning) are also antecedents to organisational commitment. Moreover, organisational commitment mediates the relationship between psychological empowerment variables and turnover intentions. Thus, whereas Janssen (2004) and Bhatnagar (2005) found a relationship between the total empowerment construct and organisational commitment, the present research provides more information by suggesting that organisational commitment mediates the individual empowerment dimensions (particularly self-determination, impact, and meaning) and turnover intentions.

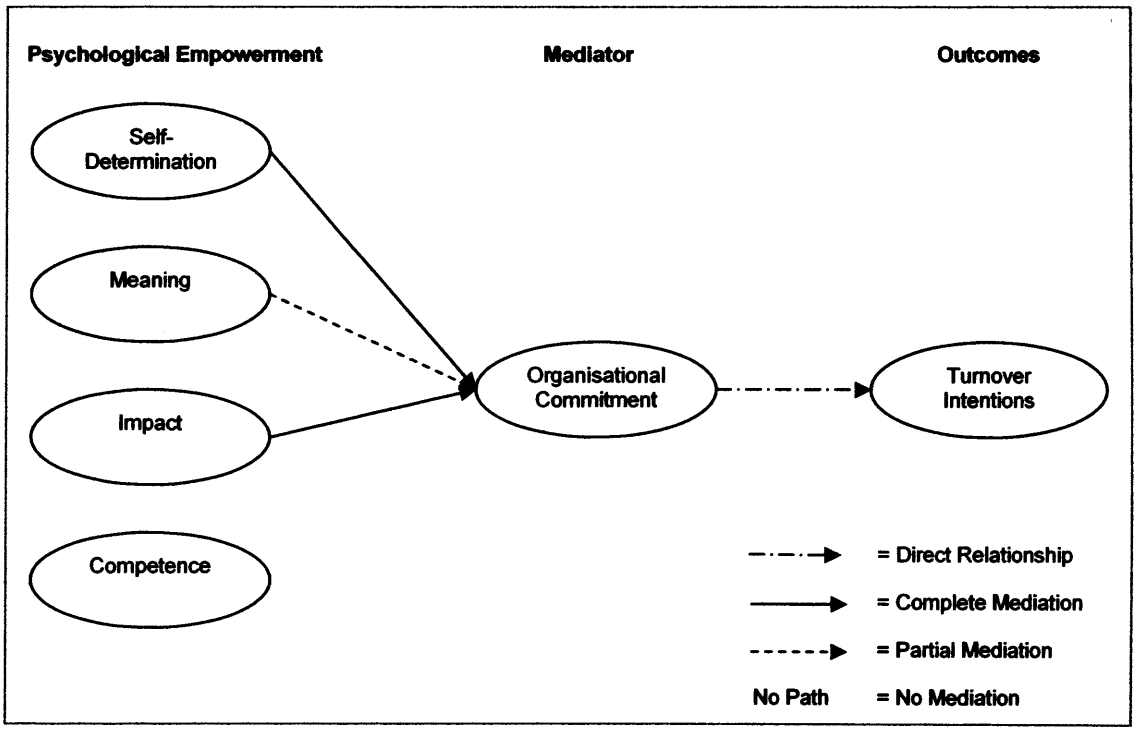


Figure 5.10 Results of Mediation Model between Psychological Empowerment Dimensions and Turnover Intentions with Organisational Commitment as Mediator.

Figure 5.11 illustrates the results of the mediating role of job satisfaction between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions. The results

suggest that whilst previous studies have suggested that job satisfaction is important in negating perceptions of turnover intentions (see for example; Boswell *et al.*, 2005; Johnson, 1988; Mobley, 1977), the results from this study further suggest that self-determination, impact and meaning dimensions are also important aspects in reducing turnover intention. More importantly the results appear to suggest that job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between the psychological dimensions (with exception to competence) and turnover intentions demonstrating support for Millet and Sandberg's (2005) argument that empowerment can have positive consequences to working life. Overall, the research question as to whether high degree of perceived empowerment impact on empowered attitudes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions is strongly supported as all the three work outcomes are consistent with the hypotheses. However, the impact and relationships of the four empowerment variables display different behaviours.

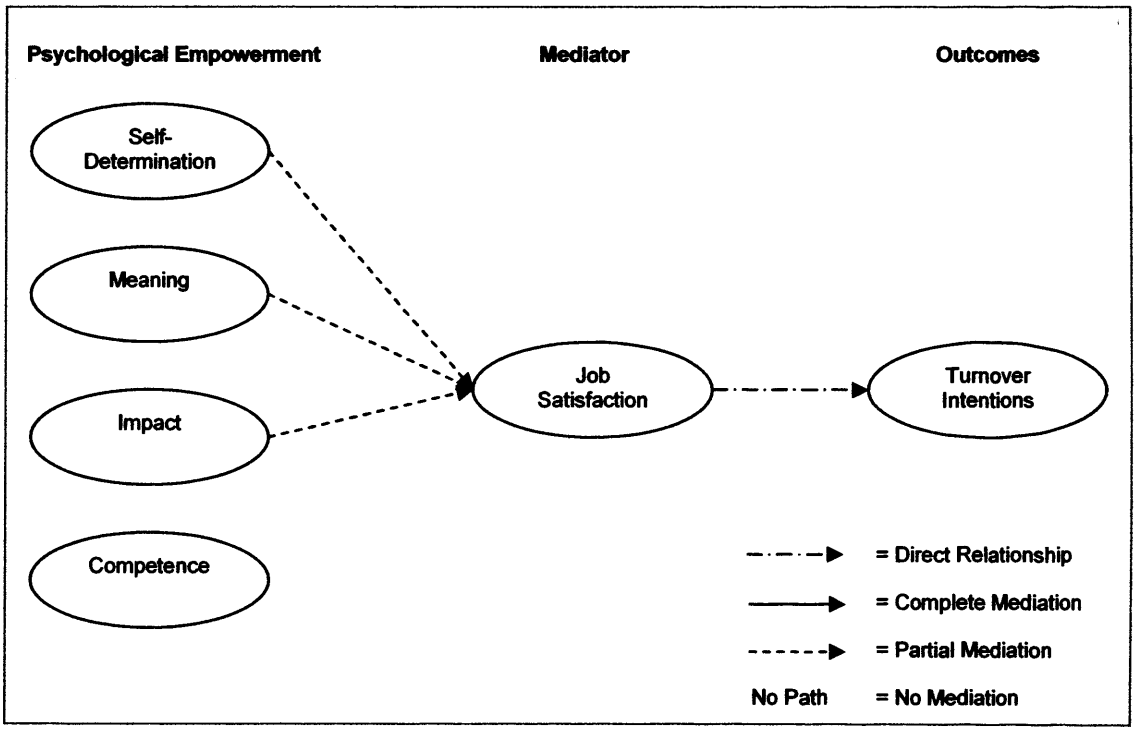


Figure 5.11 Results of Mediation Model between Psychological Empowerment Dimensions and Turnover Intentions with Job Satisfaction as Mediator.

To summarise, the results of this study managed to achieve many research objectives. The first research question pertaining to the relationship between structure and support and psychological empowerment, in particular self-determination, meaning

and impact dimensions is strongly supported. The second research question pertaining to the relationship between HR practices and psychological empowerment is also supported as training, reward and information sharing significantly impacting meaning, impact and self-determination variables. Competence dimension which did not show clear significance to most antecedents however is found to strongly relate to training and information sharing variables. Another important finding is that training did not relate to meaning variable. The third research question proposed a link between leadership trust to psychological empowerment. This research question is supported as leadership trust significantly relates to meaning, self-determination, and impact. The fourth question with regard to conflict and ambiguity is significant to all the four empowerment variables. The fifth research question pertaining to the psychological empowerment variables relationship to work outcome variables is also significantly supported by the results. As reported, meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions strongly relate to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Psychological empowerment (meaning, self-determination and impact) were also found to mediate between antecedents and work outcomes. Hence, with exception to competence dimension, all outcome variables performed as predicted in the hypotheses. Competence variable seems to be sensitive to different antecedents. The tests have demonstrated that competence is related to variables like training, information sharing, role conflict and role ambiguity. These variables, because they are closely related to competency and capabilities, seems to relate to competence variable. Hence, it is also likely that competence variable may be impacted by antecedents pertaining to knowledge-based and learning organisation behaviours. Additionally, the research found support for the mediating effect of organisational commitment between psychological empowerment dimensions particularly meaning, self-determination and impact) and turnover intentions. Similar mediating effect was found for job satisfaction between the three empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions.

5-2-7 The Role of Moderating Variables

Interesting and significant results are demonstrated by moderating effects of the various hypothesised variables. The results suggest that empowerment intervention coupled with moderating variables further improve aspects of psychological

empowerment dimensions. The finding for moderation effects are original and significant in several areas: firstly it suggest that job level as posited by Hong *et al.* (1995) and D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, (1999) plays a role in moderating the relationship between organicity and meaning, suggesting that the interaction between organicity and job level predicts meaningfulness among employees (see Figure 4.11 and 4.12) partially supporting hypothesis 11a. Hence, the moderation result is further indication that organisational structure, in particular a more organic structure is vital in predicting meaning among higher job level employees. Other psychological empowerment dimensions (self-determination, impact, competence) were not predicted by the interaction between job level and organicity, suggesting the dominance of meaning variable in the overall psychological empowerment construct. Furthermore job level did not moderate the relationship between centralisation and psychological empowerment dimensions. Hence, while organicity, which suggests a firm adapting freely to changing circumstances, disregarding formal procedures, practise loose and informal relationships, allowing individual's personality to define on-job behaviour is moderated by job level in predicting meaning among high level employees; the relationship between centralisation and job level is not moderated by any psychological empowerment dimensions.

Support is also indicated that when high organisational support is present among higher job level employees the perceived meaning is also higher as illustrated by Figure 4.13 and 4.14 partially supporting Hypothesis 11b. The result supports the notion that the only meaning dimension is predicted by the interaction between organisational support and job level. Hence, in the presence of high organisational support and high job level, work becomes more meaningful. No interaction was detected between organisational support and job level on other psychological empowerment variables.

The results from these two moderation effect (Hypothesis 11a and 11b) are significant and further broadens our understanding of empowerment and the moderating effects of job level. It suggests that organisational specific constructs (organicity and organisational support) are important constructs in determining meaningfulness among high job level employees.

Moving to moderation effects of job level between psychological empowerment and work outcomes (Hypothesis 11e), three interactions predicting job satisfaction are

found, i.e. the interactions between: (1) meaning and job level, (2) self-determination and job level, and (3) impact and job level. Job satisfaction is predicted by the interaction between meaning and high job level (Figure 4.15 and 4.16), indicating that high job level employees having high perceptions of meaningfulness in their jobs also experience higher job satisfaction. Interaction between self-determination and job level also predicted positively and significantly to job satisfaction (Figure 4.17 and Figure 4.18). Similar results are found for interaction between impact and job level predicting job satisfaction (Figure 4.19 and Figure 4.20). The reasonably high beta and significance suggest that the moderation effect clearly imply that meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions of psychological empowerment are essential among high job level employees in elevating job satisfaction. Hence, whilst Oshagbemi (1997) found job level significantly and positively impact job satisfaction, the current research further extends the investigation between job level and job satisfaction by suggesting that the interaction between impact dimension and job level positively and significantly predicts job satisfaction.

Overall, the results for moderation effect for job level provides reasonable evidence that psychological empowerment variables, particularly meaning, impact and self-determination are crucial among higher job level employees. It has been suggested by Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) that it is impossible for un-empowered managers to empower their subordinates. The moderation results on job level provide support for this argument implying that higher job level employees need to be self-determined and have meaningful work roles so that they are able to impact on their organisations. Consequently, their high sense of empowering behaviours will also encourage empowerment among lower level employees. Organisational commitment and turnover intentions were not predicted by any interactions between job level and dimensions of psychological empowerment. Moreover, no significant results were found for interaction between job level and competence predicting work outcomes, suggesting weakness in the competence dimension as explained earlier. Hence, job satisfaction has shown to be a significant outcome variable in the interaction effects between psychological empowerment dimensions (self-determination, meaning and impact) and job level whereas organisational commitment and turnover intention variables are not.

Turning to the moderating role of tenure (Hypothesis 11c, 11f), and age (Hypothesis 11d, 11g), only the moderation effect for job satisfaction predicted by the two-way interaction between impact and age was significant, partially supporting hypothesis 11g. As demonstrated in Figure 4.21 and Figure 4.22, higher age employees with higher perceptions of impact are predicted to feel higher job satisfaction. The result provides some understanding into the role age of employees on psychological empowerment variables, in particular impact in predicting job satisfaction. Hence, whilst research by Criffeth *et al.* (2000) and Cotton and Tuttle (1986) suggest that age relates to both organisational commitment and turnover intention, the current research further suggest higher age employees perceive they also impact highly on the firms they worked for and feel higher job satisfaction compared to lower aged employees. Furthermore, although Sarker *et al.* (2003) did not find age to directly associate to job satisfaction, the present research found that the interaction of impact dimension and age is found to predict job satisfaction, suggesting that age moderates the relationship between impact dimension and job satisfaction.

With regard to the HR Practice variables, the interaction between organicity and reward is found to predict impact dimension (demonstrated by Figure 4.23 and 4.24) partially supporting Hypothesis 11h. The result suggests that when organicity and reward are both high, creating a high level of fairness in organisations, or an 'enlightened' situation (see Baruch, 1998a), perceptions of impact is enhanced. Thus, whereas Hypothesis 4a earlier suggests that reward is linked to impact, self-determination and meaning, hypothesis 11h is further evidence in support of Baruch's arguments. The interaction between reward and impact in predicting turnover intentions is also weakly significant (See Figure 4.31 and 4.32), partially supporting hypothesis 11l. The result suggests that where reward is low, perceptions of high impact among employees reduces to some extend perceptions of turnover intention. More specifically, where rewards are low, firms could improve perceptions of impact among employees to help reduce tendency to quit among employees by enhancing perceptions of control and influence over what happens in their department. Hence, although low rewards are detrimental to turnover intentions, providing employees a sense of feeling that their work is very much valued, and that they have control and influence in their department negate somewhat the effects of turnover intentions.

Turning to moderating effect of information sharing, Figures 4.25 and 4.26 illustrates the interaction between centralisation and information sharing in predicting meaning. The result suggests that a low centralised environment coupled with high information sharing significantly predicts meaning, partially supporting Hypothesis 11i. Thus, information sharing is a key requirement in centralized environment in shaping meaningfulness among employees. The availability of information to assist employees complete a task also makes firms less centralized and hence more organic. Information sharing enhances an employee's ability to make decisions (Lawler, 1992), moreover, information sharing is important as it creates a sense of meaning and purpose as it enables transfer of power (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). The finding strongly supports the proposition by Conger and Kanungo that effective communications and flow of information will lead to better knowledge and job meaningfulness. Baruch (1998a) also suggests the importance of information sharing to improve perceptions of empowerment even in hierarchical organisations. He provides an interesting account of air force pilots in the Israeli Air Force where detailed debriefing is carried out before any encounter is conducted during training (or live action). Such debriefing enables junior pilots to have a voice, to contribute to the discussion and participate in the action. Hence, as demonstrated by results, information sharing can be a useful empowerment intervention tool in particular for meaning dimension in centralised environment where decision making is essentially low. Firms that encourage and promote dissemination of information and improve communications would certainly be helpful in these conditions.

Turning to the result for hypothesis 11j, Figures 4.27 and 4.28 suggest that the interaction between leadership trust and information sharing predicts meaningfulness among employees. The plot demonstrates that in situations where high leadership trust and high information sharing are both present, perceptions of meaning are enhanced. The finding supports Kouzes and Posner (1993) suggestion in that it is in the interest of managers to share knowledge with all employees. Politis (2001; 2002) research also suggests that leadership style that is characterised by mutual trust and respect correlates stronger with knowledge acquisition. Furthermore, Politis suggests that leadership behaviours enable followers' knowledge acquisition and increases confidence and motivation.

The third HR practices variable, training, organisational commitment was predicted by the two-way interaction between meaning and training (see Figure 4.29 and 4.30). Hence, high level of training coupled with high meaningfulness among employees is suggested to enhance organisational commitment. Therefore, firms can not only enhance organisational commitment among employees that perceived high level of meaning in their jobs but also by providing high level of training.

Interaction between training and other psychological empowerment dimensions did not show any significance. Similarly, no significant results were found for interactions between psychological empowerment dimensions and job satisfaction and between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions.

Overall, the moderation tests for HR variables revealed many interesting and new facts useful to academicians and practising managers alike. The results illustrate that HR practices interventions like training, reward and information sharing moderates and further enhances empowerment dimensions as well as work outcomes as posited by organisational behaviour authors such as Torrington and Hall (1987); Fill and Mulins (1990); and Wood (1999). Wood for example, posit that HR practices provides synergy and the combination of these HR practices will produce a stronger effect than applying them on their own. As such the findings on the role of HR variables by interacting with antecedents in predicting outcomes add support that 'bundling' a range of HR practices could provide a better understanding of empowerment concepts (see also Huselid, 1995; Guest, 2001; Wall and Wood, 2005).

Turning to the moderating effects of role ambiguity and role conflict, the moderation tests failed to reveal any significant findings. The result is surprising as role ambiguity is said to reduce when information sharing is high (Singh and Bhanarker, 1983). For example, not knowing fully proper guidelines and policies or not having clear plans and goals often lead to feelings of role ambiguity. In the presence of information, ambiguity is lessened; hence job meaningfulness should have displayed an increase.

In summary, the findings have shown that investigating the psychological empowerment dimensions separately rather than aggregating the construct has been fruitful. For example, the tests demonstrated that the individual empowerment dimensions have unique qualities as they affect different organisational behaviour

variables. The tests have also revealed that demographics such as job level, tenure and age moderate various independent and dependent variables providing an in-depth understanding into organisational behaviours. Similarly moderation effects were also detected with variables like training, rewards, and information sharing. A summary of all the significant moderation results is illustrated in Table 5.1. These results provide better insight for researchers and managers to introduce suitable empowerment interventions depending on the organisational behaviours involved.

Table 5.1 Summary of Significant Moderation Tests

Interaction Between (Independent x Moderator)	Dependent Variable
Organicity x Job Level	Meaning
Organisational Support x Job Level	Meaning
Meaning x Job Level	Job Satisfaction
Self-Determination x Job Level	Job Satisfaction
Impact x Job Level	Job Satisfaction
Impact x Age	Job Satisfaction
Meaning x Training	Organisational Commitment
Organicity x Rewards	Impact
Impact x Rewards	Turnover Intentions
Centralisation x Information Sharing	Meaning

5-3 Contribution

Overall, the present research has achieved many key objectives. Firstly, this study has successfully investigated the impact of organisational specific constructs like organisational structure and support on psychological empowerment. It was demonstrated that organisational structure and organisational support are important organisational dimensions for academicians and management practitioners to seriously consider when implementing or considering empowerment initiatives. Since no research has yet been made on these dimensions, the findings are original and significant. Secondly, the study investigated psychological empowerment dimensions separately and has revealed a more in-depth understanding into the behaviours of each dimension. It has been found for example that the antecedents under investigation seem to relate more to meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions but not to competence. Similarly these three psychological empowerment dimensions appear to predict job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, whilst competence failed. Thirdly, few studies have attempted to examine the mediating and moderating role of the four

empowerment variables by investigating its behaviour between antecedents and work outcomes. These objectives have also been met as the present research has revealed new findings. The study also suggests that psychological empowerment variables particularly meaning, self-determination and impact mediate the relationship between antecedents and outcomes as hypothesised albeit differently depending on the antecedent and work outcome variable involved. The study of individual empowerment dimensions has been enlightening, as different empowerment dimensions behave differently. Also, as demonstrated in the moderation studies, the four construct empowerment variables revealed different results when tested for moderation. Furthermore, competence variable seems to be weakly associated to most antecedents and outcome variables, impacting mainly training and information sharing variables indicating that competence variable is sensitive to antecedents and outcomes related more to knowledge and information acquisition facet. Authors investigating these dimensions (see for example, Siegall and Gartner, 2000; Spreitzer, 1997; Liden *et al.*, 2000; Carless, 2004) also suggest problems associated with competence variable. Hence, the use of psychological empowerment construct by aggregating the four dimensions into one scale may be flawed as the actual measures of the individual components may mask one another. Additionally, this study indicates that meaning variable seems to be the dominant measure in many investigations although at other times; self-determination seems to be the dominant variable.

Furthermore, as elucidated in chapter one, although there has been a number of studies on empowerment, especially on Spreitzer's psychological empowerment construct, much still needs to be clarified. As such it was the aim of this research to integrate the study of employee empowerment by tackling the various organisational dimensions in a broader perspective. It was the objective of this research to view empowerment in a holistic manner as it is argued that such a research will provide a better understanding pertaining to a *gestalt* of empowerment. Academicians like Huselid (1995), Huselid *et al.* (1997), Guest (2001), and Wall and Wood (2005), advocated that a broader approach in research studies would be extremely useful due to the inter-related organisational behaviour dimensions. Similar views have also been raised by researchers like Conger and Kanungo (1988), Zimmerman (1990), Spreitzer (1995; 1996), Wilkinson (1998), Robbins *et al.* (2002), and Psoinos and Smithson (2002). The current research seems to have met this objective by suggesting that the various dimensions under study, i.e., (1) Organisational Structure; (2) HR Practices; (3) Trust and Support; (4) Conflict and Ambiguity are all important dimensions in promoting employee empowerment which

consequently impact work outcomes like job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Hence, managers concentrating on limited initiatives to promote empowerment are unsound. For example, improving reward system but not follow through with reduction in centralisation, conflict and ambiguity will not produce the desired results. So introducing haphazard, short-term approach to improve empowerment efforts would be meaningless and short-sighted. Clearly, employee empowerment needs to be implemented in a wider approach, and empowerment interventions need to look into aspects of structure and support, HR practices, leadership trust and conflict and ambiguity that may be present in the firm. Employing a multi-dimensional approach and by implementing far reaching changes in procedures, hierarchies and reward structures, according to Psoinos and Smithson (2002) will have better success in empowering employees.

The research has demonstrated that whilst psychological empowerment dimensions such as meaning, self-determination and impact have strong and significant relationship to work outcomes. However, psychological empowerment variables are also antecedents to job satisfaction and organisational commitment which mediates turnover intention. Research into this issue found significant support that organisational commitment to mediate the relationship between the psychological empowerment variables (self-determination, impact and meaning) and turnover intentions. Job satisfaction similarly strongly supports the case for mediation between psychological empowerment variables (self-determination, impact and meaning) and turnover intentions. Hence, whilst structure, organisational support, HR practices, leadership trust, conflict and ambiguity impacts empowerment efforts, psychological empowerment variables self-determination, impact and meaning are also demonstrated to improve perceptions of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and consequently reduce tendency to quit. Lastly moderation tests on job level, age and tenure as well as HR dimensions (reward, training and information sharing), further revealed useful and significant findings that managers can employ to improve psychological empowerment and work outcomes dimensions.

To summarise, this research has provided a comprehensive understanding into the study of employee empowerment. The study has not only provided evidence of the direct relationship of organisational specific constructs (organicity and organisational support) as well as personality specific constructs (for example, leadership trust, reward, information sharing, training and role theory constructs) on the individual psychological empowerment dimensions. Also, the study has extended to a better understanding between the role of individual

empowerment dimensions and work outcomes. Additionally, the study also extended the understanding of the mediating role of empowerment dimensions between antecedents and work outcomes. Finally, this research has also contributed by providing evidence of the role of demographics (such as job level, tenure and age) and enabling variables (training, reward and information sharing) in moderating the relationships between various antecedents and outcomes.

5-4 Managerial Implications and Recommendations

The present study provides practising managers a number of avenues to enhance empowerment through several organisational interventions. Firstly, the direct link between key antecedents (Structure and Support, HR Practices, Leadership Trust and Conflict and Ambiguity) and psychological empowerment and the link between psychological empowerment dimensions and work outcomes, the study positively identified organisational specific constructs like structure and support as important aspects in promoting empowering initiatives. Hence, managers should make firms more organic by creating an environment where the organisational structure is less formalised, and less dependent on rules and set procedures. Organisations practising this informal form of organisational style will stand a better chance in getting employees have a greater perception of empowerment, in particular increasing job meaningfulness. Similarly, making firms less centralised by transferring decision making to employees by de-centralising decision making by giving employees more decision making opportunities clearly benefits empowerment efforts as well. Implementation of any empowerment initiative however must consider if the firm has a structure that supports the scheme. For example it has been shown that firms that are organic in structure will associate well with empowerment. Firms that are very centralised in nature, however, make it more difficult to implement empowerment. As suggested by Hennestad (1998), in order to empower, management must remove situations that de-empower. Firms that only pay lip service to empowerment but do nothing to reduce centralisation and transfer decision making to employees is simply fraudulent empowerment (Baruch, 1998a). Poole and Jenkins (1996; 1997) and Budhwar (2000) argue that companies find it difficult to devolve responsibilities even-though in principle many firms desire to achieve this. Thus, unless leaders can share power (Conger and Kanungo, 1998), empowerment will be a futile exercise. The finding also suggests a significant relationship between organisational support and leadership trust to empowerment dimensions such as meaning, self-determination and impact. These findings suggest that in

order to enhance employee empowerment, in particular meaning, self-determination and impact dimensions, organisations can play an important role in that they must support employees by being committed to solve and understand employee problems.

The present research strongly suggests that several empowering behaviours must be in place for empowerment to take place successfully. Among the main recommendations that can be suggested are: (a) improving organisational structure to one that is more organic by improve channels of communications and less dependent on rules and set procedures and, (b) transferring decision making to employees by de-centralising decision making by giving employees more decision making opportunities clearly benefits empowerment efforts as well.

Organisational support appears to be another important antecedent to empowerment. As such, managers should also be geared to be able to support and assist employees and display that their organisations do care and are responsible towards their welfare. Klagge (1998) sums this up with the following recommendations: Firstly, organisations should not neglect the creation of a unifying vision (of empowerment); second, organisations should not empower employees before they are competent and confident; and third, organisations should not squeeze out middle managers through empowerment process but instead use them as natural bridges (facilitators) within the organisation to implement empowerment.

Many firms take the view that if performance or functions cannot be met, firms should downsize (due to lack of competence), automate, or outsourcing these functions. Ulrich *et al.* (2007) however suggest an alternative view: instead to denigrating HR practices, management should raise the bar by introducing better HR practices that add value. For example, "gaps" in competency, skills, could be improved by high value training in order to empower employees. Broderick (1995), states that there is an intense pressure for organisations to identify and implement programs that will prove truly effective in improving employee productivity. Programs that can improve competency and multi-skilling are often advocated. Also seen as very important is moral support from management. Tangible skills and competency in job roles, multi-skills seem to be there. It is more in the intangible area like confidence building, attitudes towards empowerment, team building and dependency on other members of the team that appeared to be issues for development (D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew, 1999). Hence, there is a need for organisations to include confidence and team building skills in their training repertoire. Training and development must also match personal goals of the employee with that of the organisation (Seyed-Mahmoud, 2007). A structured, needs accessed training programme

could be beneficial. This way, the right training will be given, resulting in an increase in employee competence and consequently a reduction in role conflict. This suggests the importance of training to improve employees' skill and competence to be able to carry out their work roles more confidently. Increased competence in employees could also potentially improve performance and quality. Psoinos and Smithson (2002) in their study on UK manufacturing organisations suggested that whilst training is important in building competence and motivational levels, equally important is a de-centralised structure. The two must exist as a constraining and highly structured environment impedes employee empowerment. Furthermore, effectiveness of training programmes, in particular interpersonal skills training (soft skill) is often difficult to quantify. Research by Hunt and Baruch (2003) found mix results suggesting that investments in training programmes may need to be justified before hand.

This research has also illustrated that reward plays an important role in predicting impact, meaning and self-determination among employees. According to expectancy theory, when management has high expectations and make jobs challenging, employees will perform at a high level of effort if he or she perceives that there is a strong relationship between effort and performance, performance and rewards, and rewards and satisfaction of personal goals (Robbins, 1993). Herzberg, (1987) suggests job redesign and making the job more interesting, for example by changing the characteristics of a person's job and work tasks as a means of improving job satisfaction. Hence, enticing employees with fair rewards coupled with challenging roles will enhance employee sense of impact, meaning and self-determination.

The finding also suggests a significant link between leadership trust to empowerment dimensions such as meaning, self-determination and impact. These findings suggest that in order to enhance empowerment, managers must be able to demonstrate a strong sense of trust and openness in their relationship towards their subordinates as posited by Kouzes and Posner (1993: 1995) and Luke (1998). A high level of leadership trust between employee and immediate supervisor allows employees to feel empowered (Mishra and Spreitzer, 1998). Employees want to trust that they can take risks, make mistakes, and determine how best to do their jobs without fear of blame. As such, employees must trust that the management really wants to empower them, and the employee must be willing to accept and utilize the empowerment opportunities they are given. When the employee trusts that their superior have a sincere interest in their welfare and keep their promises, the employee will respond

constructively to the challenges and opportunities that are presented to them (Mishra and Spreitzer, 1998).

As for role ambiguity and conflict, a reduction in both is found to enhance all four empowerment variables. Therefore, managers could help reduce role ambiguity by setting clear guidelines as to what is expected of the employee. Clear job specifications will certainly be welcome as the employee would be more certain as to what their responsibilities are.

Secondly, the mediating role of psychological empowerment dimensions between organicity and outcomes suggests that managers can reduce the level of turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organisational commitment by not only making the firm more organic but also improving perceptions of the three psychological dimensions (meaning, self-determination and impact). Moreover these dimensions appear to impact strongly on turnover intentions, suggesting that these three dimensions are particularly important mediating dimensions. The mediating role of empowerment dimensions between centralisation and work outcomes suggests to managers that although the three empowerment variables mediate work outcomes, meaning, self-determination and impact appear to be the main predictors of job satisfaction. Thus, in centralised environment, the mediating effects of the three empowerment variables assist in elevating job satisfaction. In the same vein, the dimensions meaning and impact partially mediate job satisfaction and turnover between the relationship organisational support and all three work outcomes, whereas self-determination appear to only mediate job satisfaction. Hence, depending on the relationship of the mediation properties, managers could better manage perceptions of work outcomes by applying organisational support or empowerment interventions. With regard to HR practices and leadership trust, the relationship between (a) reward and work outcomes, (b) information sharing and work outcomes and (c) leadership trust and work outcomes produced similar results suggesting that the empowerment dimensions (meaning, self-determination and impact) partially mediates their relationships. Hence, managers should consider not only reward, information sharing and leadership trust but also empowerment dimensions above to enhance job satisfaction and organisational commitment and reduce turnover intentions. The mediation of empowerment dimensions on the relationship between training and work outcomes produced a rather surprising result as only self-determination and impact mediated the relationship. Moreover no relationship or mediation was detected between training and job satisfaction. Additionally, self-determination fully mediates the relationship between training and turnover intentions suggesting that in this instance, self-

determination plays a very significant role in predicting turnover intentions. Meaning, which displayed strong mediation properties in many of the relationships, failed to display any mediation. Thus it is crucial that managers enhance self-determination rather than just offering training to reduce the effects of turnover intentions. Whereas training is a poor predictor of job satisfaction, role ambiguity and role conflict appear to play a significant role both in the direct relationship but also when mediated by meaning, self-determination and impact. The relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction suggest that meaning, self-determination and impact fully mediates relationship suggesting that managers should seriously consider empowerment dimensions in enhancing job satisfaction.

Thirdly, the mediating role of organisational commitment between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions suggests that organisational commitment plays a critical role in predicting turnover intentions. In the case of the mediating role of job satisfaction between psychological empowerment dimensions and turnover intentions suggests to managers that the three empowerment dimensions as well as job satisfaction play a role in predicting job satisfaction.

Finally the investigation into the moderation effects not only support Hong *et al.* (1995) and Arnolds and Boshoff's (2002) studies that job level impact differently on antecedents and outcomes but suggests that job level provided strong evidence that when interacted with psychological empowerment, the dimensions meaning, impact and self-determination is crucial in predicting job satisfaction. Furthermore, job level interacted significantly with organicity to predict meaning, suggesting that where organicity in an organisation and job level are both high, work roles become increasingly meaningful for the employee. Job level also interacted with organisational support in predicting meaning. Therefore, managers tackling empowerment issues would differ in lower level and higher level employees. As an example, because lower job level employees do not perceive their job roles as meaningful even in highly organic environment, other organisational interventions may be necessary, like increase leadership trust and information sharing. Also, where impact is seen lacking in lower level employees, the reward system (feedback and incentives) may need to be addressed. Although only one significant result is found for age as a moderator, the finding still provide an understanding into its role on psychological empowerment as the current research suggests that the interaction of impact dimension and age significantly predicts job satisfaction. Thus older employees that perceive higher perceptions of impact consequently experience higher job satisfaction. The

implication is that younger employees may need to be supported with additional organisational interventions (like better rewards) to improve their sense of impact and hence higher job satisfaction. Hence, it is in the interest of managers to take these factors into consideration when implementing empowerment initiatives.

The study also suggests that even in highly centralised work environment, some aspects of empowerment, for example, meaningfulness can be achieved by providing more information sharing among employees. The research also demonstrated that higher training elevates meaning, and consequently enhancing organisational commitment. Hence, managers can employ training to further enhance organisational commitment especially where there is high sense of meaningfulness among employees. The research also suggests that where rewards are low, inducing employees with higher perceptions of impact will reduce the effects of turnover intentions. Reward is also found to interact with organicity to predict impact which suggest that when organicity and reward are both high, creating a high level of fairness in organisations, or an 'enlightened' situation (see Baruch, 1998a), empowerment levels in particular impact dimension will improve. These findings on HR practices strongly support prevailing studies (see for example, Wood, 1999; Tzafrir *et al.* 2004; Wall and Wood, 2005) which suggests that collectively, HR practices (training, reward and information sharing) supports an organisation's internal fit by synergizing other organisational behaviours.

In summary, it is clear that a broad range of organisational behaviours impact on empowerment and hence outcomes. It is thus imperative on the part of management to look at the holistic or *gestalt* view of employee empowerment to ensure success not just in empowering employees but also in producing better organisational performance and hence competitive advantage as proposed by authors in the field of organisational behaviours (Piore and Sabel, 1984; Pfeffer, 1994; Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Poole and Jenkins, 1996; Ferris *et al.*, 1999; Way, 2002).

5-5 Limitations

This study of employee empowerment is by no means without limitations. Firstly, the findings of this research must be viewed with prudence given the cross-sectional nature of the research design, which only captures a one-time snapshot of relationships among variables and thus does not permit strong statements on causality. As such a longitudinal research would be beneficial. However, in the absence of research with regards to the role of antecedents and their

impact on psychological empowerment, the study does make a useful contribution despite this limitation. Secondly, the low response rate of the current study presents some serious problems (see Baruch, 1999). Could the findings be significantly different if the response rate was higher? This was perhaps a serious oversight on my part; by not to follow-up to improve response rates having achieved the 'minimum' sample size suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998). Baruch suggests comparing the demographics between those who responded and those who did not. Since the sample is derived mainly from members of a business school, the demographics are not significantly different, suggesting that the sample is consistent. Thirdly the limited sample size to variables employed for this study is a serious drawback in interpreting the results (Froman, 2001). Fourth, the sample data is from a single alumni membership which is self reporting. Therefore, the scale ratings is susceptible to problems associated to common method bias which may have over-inflated some measurements, and under-inflated some other measures. The sample is obtained from MBA graduates of a business school spread across many different industries. MBA graduates tend to be highly skilled and motivated as such, the study may be biased to produce positive outcomes as suggested in the high mean scores for psychological empowerment instrument. Although, the sample was examined for common method bias employing Harman's one factor test, the sample may not be completely free from common method bias. Hence, caution should be taken when interpreting the findings of this study as to the generalisability of the sample to general population cannot be guaranteed. Future research must carefully examine the sample source and questionnaire design in detail. Podsakoff *et al.* (2003) provide a suitable framework to control common factor bias. For example, is it possible for the predictor (antecedents) and criterion (outcomes) variables to be obtained from different sources and can they be measured in different contexts? On the whole, pair-wise tests suggest that all scales display reasonable strong discriminant validity, however, organisational support and information sharing constructs may suggest some scale item overlap. As such the results of this study should be on these two particular variables should also be taken with discretion.

To improve consistency, future research must address these issues with the following recommendations: (a) improve sample size and response rate and (b) study should include junior-level supervisory and non supervisory staff. Hales (2000) postulates that junior managers often react differently to empowerment initiatives; this is because in the current business environment junior managers are faced with ambiguity; on the one hand they embrace empowerment efforts and are happy to act as coach or facilitators but on the other hand they are

faced with the prospect of being made redundant putting them in a defensive situation. This condition provides the organisational behaviour researcher with a strong argument to study junior management sense of empowerment. (c) Find ways to improve response rates from target population. Some suggestions offered by Baruch (1999) include use of "promotions", follow-up letter, phone call and prize draws. (d) The sample population must be targeted to a wider audience to reduce or eliminate common method bias. Furthermore a larger number of observations will enhance quality of results and eliminate the problem of rogues and splinters (Froman, 2001). Thus, clearly this research could be further improved by a major additional data collection, bearing in mind earlier concerns on response rates. Three benefits can arise from this. Firstly a second set of data would improve sample size. Secondly the second set of data could be used as a comparison and test and retest procedures advocated by Spreitzer (1995) and Kraimer *et al.* (1999). Thirdly, a longitudinal study could be investigated.

The current sample is also highly biased in gender profile. Males (83%) outnumber females (17%) in the sample by 4 to 1. Whilst this shows the true nature of the state of affairs in the corporate world and is unavoidable, the results of this study must be interpreted to consider this gender bias.

Many of the scales in this study, for example reward, training, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and turnover, were chosen as a matter of convenience. Although the scales are simple, well designed and are selected based on previous empirical research, they lack many multi-dimensional benefits associated with more sophisticated multi-facet measurements. This research also relied exclusively on Spreitzer's measurement as a means to examine an individual's perception of empowerment. Spreitzer (1995) herself commented that a *gestalt* of empowerment that goes beyond a simple combination of four dimensions should explored. For instance, Menon (2001) argued that 'goal internalisation' (employee perception of ownership of an organisation's goal or an employee having control over strategy making in an organisation) may be an important dimension to include in the overall empowerment construct. Menon's (2001) study found goal internalisation to be a unique variable offering different dimension to meaning variable of psychological empowerment. Hence, future studies should be expanded include goal internalisation as part of employee empowerment construct.

Another important limitation is the use of measurements that may be dated. For example, the organicity (Khandwalla, 1977) and centralisation (Aiken and Hage, 1968) scales are measures from 1970's literature. However, due to the lack of relevant instruments to

measure organisational structure, Khandawalla and Aiken and Hage's measurements remain popularly employed in the study of structure (see for example, Tse, 1991; Naman and Slevin, 1993; Chaston, 1996; Jabnoun, 2005; and Shivers-Blackwell, 2006 for studies employing organicity scale whilst Tata and Prasad, 2004; Schminke *et al.,* 2002; and Sarros *et al.,* 2002 for centralisation studies). Furthermore, the organisational commitment measurement (Porter *et al.*, 1974) lacks the multidimensional elements that Meyer and Allen's (1991) measures of affective, continuance and normative commitment can provide. However, Porter *et al.'s* (1974) scale provides conceptually strong support for Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment dimension. Organisational commitment measures have also come under criticism (Baruch, 1998b). Baruch argues that statements in the measurement questions like "The organisation really inspires me to put my best efforts" and "I would accept any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this firm" (reference to Porter *et al.* 1974 organisational commitment construct) will probably be met with a cynical smile from respondents. Therefore, measurement scales must reflect this new changing paradigm. Baruch posited that although there is no longer to commitment to lifetime employment, there is a commitment to investment in human development and offering interesting jobs. Thus, in the event of redundancy, the employee has the capability and experience to find a new job without difficulties (Baruch, 1998b). Along similar vein, the scale item for job satisfaction may need re-examination. For example one item in the job satisfaction scale reads 'I eat, live and breathe my job", may sound uneasy for respondents. Overall, the current research would benefit from another round of rigorous data collection, bearing in mind the caveats outlined above.

With regard to HR Practices dimension, only three scales were employed i.e. rewards training and information sharing. It would be beneficial if HR practices may include scales like performance appraisal, career development, employee ownership and other business practises that can potentially impact empowerment and commitment. Researchers in these areas have suggested a link to commitment (see for example Meyer and Smith, 2000 for a review). Some investigators suggest that these relations are not necessary direct or unconditional. Hence, psychological empowerment may well mediate these HR dimensions as well. In the same vein, the turnover intention measure employed for this research may need expanding if research into employee empowerment is to be beneficial. Contemporary turnover literature (see for example, Hulin, 1991; Lee and Mitchell, 1994; Mitchell *et al.,* 2001) suggests that voluntary turnover is impacted by factors like on-the-job and off-the job embeddedness. The studies have shown

significant relationship between citizenship behaviours, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Since these organisational behaviours are inter-related, there is a strong possibility that empowerment could also impact on job imbeddedness variables especially on-the-job aspect.

Turning to moderation effects, Podsakoff *et al.* (1995) also argue the need for prudence when interpreting results and if possible the results should be replicated. As such although many moderation effects in this thesis were significant, replicating the findings would further support these findings.

5-6 Recommendations for Future Research

Carless (2004) suggests that the four factor psychological empowerment construct could be better understood when investigated individually. As this research has shown, much has been revealed by a closer examination of the different variables. The current research suggests that the different dimensions behave differently on antecedents and outcomes. Furthermore, meaning seems to be the dominant variable whilst competence relate poorly on many of the antecedents tested. It is recommended that more research be made especially on antecedents that may impact competence favourably. It is also proposed that concepts of knowledge and learning organisations (Mykytyn *et al.*, 1994; Gold, 1997; Bourdreau and Couillard, 1999; Brockman and Morgan, 2003) may be of interest. Brockman and Morgan (2003) for example, found a link between learning culture and knowledge building to organisational performance in particular new product development. Competence, because of its close links to training and information sharing would potentially be impacted as well. Deci and Ryan (1985) and Baard *et al.* (2004) propose that there are three innate psychological dimensions of self determination, namely; competence, autonomy and relatedness. Competence suggested by the authors is the ability for individuals to succeed optimally to challenging tasks to achieve the desired outcomes. As such Deci and associates argue that competence is an antecedent to self-determination, as competence is a necessary condition for self-determination to take place. In the same vein, competence may also act as antecedent to impact variable as a sense of competence seems to be a requirement to enable perceptions of impact. These arguments, including that of Siegall and Garner (2000), Carless (2004) and also the results of this present study suggests that further research into competence dimension as an antecedent rather than part of psychological empowerment construct is warranted.

Further to some of the above recommendations, there are many issues not covered by this study and prevailing studies on employee empowerment. For example, Robbins *et al.* (2002) and Spreitzer (1995) suggest that broader conceptualisations of managerial effectiveness, performance appraisal ratings and opportunity are likely to impact employee empowerment. Hence, it will be useful that future research explore employee effectiveness, organisational performance and opportunity. Furthermore, longitudinal studies are lacking (Spreitzer 1995). Current research on employee empowerment, with exception to India, Greece and Netherlands, seems to focus on the western world and mainly English speaking countries. Perhaps future studies should focus on third world economies where cultural differences are starkly diverse. There is growing evidence that HRM concepts and policies should be implemented differently across cultural boundaries and better results could be obtained by employing localised HR practices (see for example, Farndale and Paauwe, 2007; Bjorkman and Budhwar, 2007). Furthermore, language barriers may impact the study on empowerment. As such, a Chinese or Japanese manager may look at employee empowerment in quite a different context. Thus, cross-cultural studies need to be expanded. For example, many employee empowerment studies carried out presently are primarily on Western cultures. Studies have shown that Western cultures (for example USA) are high on individualism, low on uncertainty avoidance (hence high risk taking), and low on power distance. These are cultural dimensions ideal for empowerment to take place effectively. Accordingly, employees with high collectivism, high uncertainty avoidance and high power distance (Hofstede gave Mexico as an example), would employee empowerment produce similar results? Dimitriades (2005) have made the first step into this inquiry employing a Greek sample. However more countries, particularly on Middle Eastern and far eastern cultures which have very different power-distance and uncertainty avoidance behaviours need investigation. Also important but in a different perspective is with regards to organisational culture and historical experiences which may impact empowerment uniquely (see Collins, 1998).

TQM is also an area that seems to be lacking in empowerment studies. Views with regards to empowerment and TQM seem to differ. Wilkinson *et al.* (1992) agree that the quality movement appears to have strong empowerment connotations. TQM advocates continuous improvement by those involved in the process and as such, introduces a form of bottom-up work practice to solving problems. Thus, TQM can essentially empower employees by delegating functions that were previously the preserve of senior staff members and management

(Hill, 1991; Ooi *et al.* 2007). Middle managers become facilitator/coach encouraging participation, teamwork and delegation of responsibility and accountability and this helps foster pride and job satisfaction. Interestingly however, Randeniya *et al.* (1995) give a conflicting account with regards to TQM and empowerment – they identified empowerment as a leading cause of failure in TQM. This could be due to the fact that TQM requires rigid structures and control resulting in employees feeling vulnerable. If this is the case, then empowerment would not work well in a manufacturing/production situation where there is a high degree of certainty and predictability. On the other hand, the phenomenon of empowerment would thrive in situations where some degree of decision making is present and flexibility is warranted. Peccei and Rosenthal's (2001) findings on front-line supermarket staff seems to support this argument as well. Wall *et al.* (2002) hypothesis that where organisational uncertainty is high, knowledge is incomplete and problem solving requirements are high, there are ample opportunities to empower employees, giving them important area of decision making, and scope for learning, hence, providing an environment to empower employees, in this case it is revealed that self-determination of the empowerment dimension that is positively moderated. Gagne and Deci's (2005) study on self-determination theory (SDT) also suggest that autonomous motivation, consisting of a mix of intrinsic motivation and internalised extrinsic motivation, is greater in circumstances that have both complex tasks that are interesting and less complex tasks that require more discipline. When a job involves only mundane tasks, however, there appears to be no performance advantage to autonomous motivation. Therefore, firstly SDT suggests that tasks that include elements of challenge improve sense of self-determination, and secondly where tasks are less challenging (less complex), more centralisation (discipline) is required to produce the same effect. Future studies should investigate impact of psychological empowerment on TQM, uncertainty, and problem solving opportunities.

Another area is the relationship between employee empowerment and firm performance. Do empowered employees improve the firm's performance and competitive advantage? Whilst there are studies and arguments suggesting that implementing empowerment and HR best practices will improve a firm's performance (Menon, 2001) and competitive advantage (Poole and Jenkins, 1996), no empirical attempt has been made to study this phenomenon. In practice, managers are keen to know the impact of heighten empowerment levels to key business outcomes. Some useful measures would include customer satisfaction, financial performance and market share. Certainly the real purpose of employee empowerment initiatives must be

translated into these performance indicators, especially in today's competitive and demanding business environment. Hence, future empowerment studies should extend research into these areas.

Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) envisioned that future research should focus on attracting people to change. It is argued that rather than pushing people to change, it is better to empower people to change through the empowerment mechanism. Empowerment it is suggested provides the mechanism for attracting people to want to change because they have ownership of the change process. They proposed a new movement called positive organisational scholarship (POS) that focuses on the dynamics in organisations that lead to developing human strength, producing resilience and restoration, fostering vitality and cultivating extraordinary individuals (Cameron *et al.,* 2003). POS which is based on the understanding of how human excellence in organisations can be enabled will help unleash hidden potential and reveal possibilities. So, with so much more to examine, it seems the journey in the understanding of empowerment has only just begun.

Organisational commitment studies have received much attention of late (see for example Bhatnagar, 2005; Baruch, 1998b; Benkhoff, 1997). Meyer and Allen, (1991) suggest three types of organisational commitment i.e. affective, continuance and normative commitment. As such, research should now be paid to organisational commitment in different dimensions suggested by Meyer and Allen (1991) and also Boshoff and Mels (2000) who proposed commitment to organisation, job, profession and supervisor as commitment variables. Additionally emerging studies on organisational politics found to negatively impact on employee's performance and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and work outcomes like job satisfaction and turnover (see for example, Vigoda-Gadot, 2003; 2006). Since employee performance, OCB and psychological empowerment are personality and emotional traits that are closely related, it is plausible that organisational politics is also detrimental to dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Furthermore, Prasad *et al.* (2007) for example propose that there is a need to design employment strategies to fit new work environment, especially in IT firms as "*one size doesn't fit all*". Hence, with more and more firms engaging in new employment strategies like part-time, job sharing, flexi-hours to suit the changing employee needs, there is a need to understand how different employment strategies impact on empowerment. Future research should be targeted in these areas.

Wall and Wood (2005) conclude that future progress on HRM in what they refer to as 'big science' depends on investments on stronger research methods and design, which will require large-scale long-term research at a magnitude that can only be achieved through partnerships between research, practitioner and industry and government communities. They further insist that if academics, practitioners and policy makers are serious in wishing to understand the effect of HRM and other practices on performance, a more robust way of data collection will be required. Finally, this research relied exclusively on positivist approach to study the empowerment phenomena. Future research should explore the possibility of integrating case study with interview survey research methods (Gable, 1994) as a combination of these research methods could enriched the study of employee empowerment. A triangulation of research methods (Jick, 1979) can further add to a more in-depth understanding of empowerment processes.

When implementing empowerment initiatives, Ezzamel *et al.'s* (2001) account of a large manufacturing plant struggling to adopt modern manufacturing practices is worth reminiscing. The resistance to change, new methods of control, job insecurity were but some insurmountable problems faced by the firm. What finally happened was that the employees simply work under the "guise" of modernisation in what Senge (1990) and Handy (1989) describe as the parable of the boiled frog. They describe how a frog if left on a pan of water and the pan is slowly heated up, the frog gets boiled to death due to over adaptation and feeling comfortable. An organisation (or person) must not fall into this trap. Often in the guise of "adapting" to changes, a company goes along with the economic climate and conditions itself to the environment, not realising that they are in effect falling deeper and deeper into a trap as their market share and sales and profit continue to decline. The above scenario provides a somewhat bleak account of what can go wrong in an empowerment programme. It does seem that empowerment may be risky or even dangerous if wrongly applied. The road to elevated empowerment is certainly difficult but if measures are not taken to improve employee empowerment is equality hazardous.

Finally, I draw upon an interesting article by Wickisier (1997) who gave a practitioner's view of empowerment. He describes the trials and tribulations a company had to go through from start up and through maturity. Empowerment concepts and ideas were introduced and implemented. The article describes how leadership and communication played a profound role in empowerment. Trust and commitment is also vital and to keep the vision alive,

improved training techniques and constancy of purpose is needed. Efforts to empower need to be continuously and persistently manage. There is also a need to periodically evaluate empowerment initiatives, making sure that it meets strategic objectives. This real life example has shown how, by employing a holistic view, employee empowerment can be achieved and consequently lead to improved competitiveness and profitability for an organisation. Last but not least, it must be remembered that empowerment cannot be bestowed upon to another person; all a manager or organisation can do is provide the means and suitable environment for empowerment to be felt and experienced by their employees (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005). Additionally, managers and organisations must continually monitor and access their empowerment interventions and improve any underperformance so that employees are competent. By including elements that are challenging in work will help improve strong sense of self-determination to carry out the tasks ahead of them. They will thus continue to feel that their work is meaningful and feel that they have impacted somewhat to the success and well-being of the organisation.

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APPENDIX I

Cover Letter and Questionnaire

Dear Henley Alumni Member,

Re: Employee Empowerment Questionnaire

The importance of an employee to the success of a firm cannot be over-emphasised – in fact it is perhaps the biggest challenge facing managers regarding how to get the maximum out of their employees. Empowered employees are said to be more motivated and can improve organisational performance. This research attempts to address issues related empowerment in an integrated and holistic manner. The main aims of this research are to examine if:

- Organisational and leadership styles affect empowerment of employees?
- Upper and middle level employees in an organisation feel empowered in a given context?
- Better training, communication and information improve feelings of empowerment?
- A job with more uncertain tasks and problem solving attributes provide a better empowerment atmosphere?

Your participation in this survey is **VITAL.** It will contribute to a better understanding of the impact of organisational and leadership on employees' empowerment and employee performance and ultimately, organisational effectiveness.

Please read each question carefully and answer it according to how you personally feel about it. There are no **RIGHT** or **WRONG** answers. For the study to be meaningful, it is important that you answer all questions. In accordance with the ethics of behavioural science research, individual responses would be completely **CONFIDENTIAL.**

Since it is so easy to set a questionnaire aside and forget about it, please complete the survey within the **NEXT COUPLE OF DAYS.** Once you have completed the questionnaire, please look it over to make sure that you have not missed any questions.

Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed reply-paid envelope. Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Please attach your business card, if you would like to receive the summary of the findings of this research.

Respectfully,

Derek Tan
Henley MBA graduate, 2000
Doctoral Researcher
E-Mail: TANDM@cf.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr Pawan Budhwar

Please respond to all the statements in this questionnaire. By circling on the number you think best describes your perception or situation. All the items are on rating scale 1 to 7 where "1" indicate that you "Strongly Disagree" and "7" indicate that you "Strongly Agree" with the statement. The scale ratings are as follows: "1" (strongly disagree), "2" (somewhat disagree), "3" (mildly disagree), "4" (neither agree nor disagree), "5" (mildly agree), "6" (somewhat agree) and 7 (strongly agree).

Section A: The statements below describe perceptions related to organisational characteristics. For each statement, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to the statement with your current firm.

In General,	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
The operating management philosophy in my firm favours open channels of communication with important information flowing freely throughout the firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The managers' operating styles are allowed to range freely from the very formal to very informal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a strong insistence from the firm's management on a uniform managerial style throughout the firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a strong tendency to let the expert in a given situation to have the most say in decision making even if this means temporary bypassing of formal line authority.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a strong emphasis on adapting freely to changing circumstances without too concerned for past practise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a strong emphasis on getting things done even if it means disregarding formal procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a loose, informal control; heavy dependence on informal relationships and norms of cooperation for getting work done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a strong tendency to let the requirements of the situation and the individual's personalities define proper on-job behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I asked, my firm would change my working conditions if it is at all possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If my firm could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, it would do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If given the chance, my firm would take unfair advantage of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
My firm would ignore any complaint from me.							
My firm strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm values my contribution to the company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm is willing to help me when I need a special favour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm really cares about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm provides me with performance feedback on a regular basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm rewards me based on the quality of my work that I have done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My firm uses incentive and bonus pay as the major means for motivating me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, I am happy with the rewards offered by the firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have more than enough training to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not have enough training to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have enough training and experience to accomplish my assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am well trained for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Although there is training, I don't get the skills required for the job that I am performing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have trouble getting the facts and information needed to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sometimes I am not provided with enough relevant information to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, communication between the various departments and employees in this firm is really good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section B: The statements below describe the leadership characteristics of an immediate superior. Indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement in relation to your current superior.							
	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
My superior recognises my contribution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My superior favours some employees over others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My superior seldom supports my actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My superior is competent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My superior and I have a sharing relationship. We can freely share our ideas and feelings about the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can freely talk to my superior about difficulties I am having at work and I know he or she will want to listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I shared my problems with my superior, I know he or she would respond constructively and caringly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We both feel a sense of loss if we could no longer work together.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My superior and I have made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My superior keeps things I tell him/her confidential.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There can be little action taken here until my superior approves a decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A person who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have to ask my boss before I do almost anything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Any decision I make has to have my boss's approval.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section C: The following statements describe perceptions on work related matters. For each statement, indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement in relation to your current firm.							
I get enough time to complete my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I work under incompatible policies and guidelines with my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not get enough help and equipment to get the job done well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am often trying to meet conflicting demands of different departments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have to deal with and satisfy many different people in the firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

There is a lack of policies and guidelines to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am told how well I am doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have to work under vague directives or orders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section D: The statements below describe various perceived feelings pertaining to your job. For each statement, indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
The work that I do is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The work that I do is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am confident about my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My impact on what happens in my department or firm is large.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department or firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have significant influence over what happens in my department or firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section E: This section contains statements with regards to perceived job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention of leaving for another job. For each statement, indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement.

(a) How Satisfied Are You With Your Job?							
The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most important things that happen to me involve my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I live, eat and, breathe my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am very much involved personally in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job provides a feeling of self-fulfilment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generally, I am satisfied with my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(b) How Committed Are You Towards Your Firm?							
I really care about the fate of this firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this firm be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organisation really inspires me to put forth my best effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would accept any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am extremely glad that I chose this firm to work over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, I am committed to this firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(c) Turnover Intentions							
It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often think of quitting my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will probably look for a job in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section F: The following demographic or background information is needed to make meaningful comparison of group results. Please check the appropriate box or write in your response as appropriate. Your individual responses will not be identified.

Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

Age Range: [ ]Below 25 [ ]25 to 30 [ ]31 – 40 [ ]41 to 50 [ ]above 50	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Your job role or title:

Number of years in present job: _____ years

In terms of hierarchy in your firm, where would you place yourself?

[ ] Top Management (Director or Board Member)
[ ] Senior Management [ ] Middle Management [ ] Junior Management [ ]

Others_____

Your industry specialisation: _____.
(e.g. chemical, electronics, pharmaceutical, insurance, banking, automotive, public sector, etc.)

Does your job involve a lot of field (out of office) work? Tick the scale that best represents your job. '1' being little or no field work, '5' being 81 – 100% field work.
[ ] 1 (0 – 20%) [ ] 2 (21 – 40%) [ ] 3 (41 – 60%) [ ] 4 (61 – 80%)
[ ] 5 (81 – 100%)

Your present annual income:
[ ] less than £20,000 [ ] £20,001-£30,000 [ ] £30,001 - £40,000
[ ] £40,001 - £50,000 [ ] above £50,000.

If you like an executive summary of the results of this research, please provide an email address:

_____

Thank you very much for your time and effort! Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed reply-paid envelope by 25th April, 2004 to:

Derek Tan, Doctoral Researcher
Cardiff Business School
Cardiff University
Aberconway Building
Colum Drive
Cardiff CF10 3EU
Email: TANDM@cf.ac.uk

Appendix II. Chi Square Tests for Discriminant Validity

Variable 1	Variable 2	Model 1 (Constrained)			Model 2 (Unconstrained)			Chi-Sq Difference	Significance	Construct Distinct?
		Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F	Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F			
Organicity	Orgn Support	447.6	6.9	64.9	199.6	3.1	64.4	248.0	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Leadership Trust	514.0	19.0	27.1	232.0	8.9	26.1	282.0	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Centralisation	356.8	13.2	27.0	116.6	4.5	25.9	240.2	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Role Conflict	268.9	13.4	20.1	60.9	3.2	19.0	208.0	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Role Ambiguity	378.3	8.6	44.0	113.5	2.6	43.0	264.8	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Reward	397.5	19.9	20.0	85.8	4.5	19.1	311.7	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Training	446.8	16.6	26.9	161.6	6.2	26.0	285.2	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Information	274.1	19.6	14.0	76.5	5.9	13.0	197.6	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Meaning	321.8	23.0	14.0	52.0	4.0	13.0	269.8	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Competence	334.3	23.9	14.0	49.8	3.8	13.1	284.5	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Self-Determination	274.2	19.6	14.0	52.1	4.0	13.0	222.1	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Impact	308.3	22.0	14.0	49.3	3.8	13.0	259.0	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Job Satisfaction	320.2	22.9	14.0	50.8	3.9	13.0	269.4	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Turnover	326.7	23.3	14.0	44.9	3.5	13.0	281.8	0.00	Yes
Organicity	Orgn Commitment	403.9	20.2	20.0	143.6	7.6	18.9	260.3	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Leadership Trust	922.6	12.0	76.9	343.1	4.5	76.2	579.5	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Centralisation	786.8	10.2	77.1	220.8	2.9	76.1	566.0	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Role Conflict	281.7	4.3	65.5	160.3	2.5	64.1	121.4	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Role Ambiguity	525.4	5.1	104.0	222.6	2.2	103.1	302.8	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Reward	314.0	5.8	53.0	187.0	3.5	54.0	111.2	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Training	950.8	12.4	76.7	304.7	4.0	76.2	646.1	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Information	315.9	5.9	53.5	232.5	4.4	52.8	83.4	0.01	Yes
Orgn Support	Meaning	876.5	16.2	54.1	161.7	3.1	52.2	714.8	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Competence	602.1	11.2	53.8	151.0	2.9	52.1	451.1	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Self-Determination	606.2	11.2	54.1	149.7	2.8	53.5	456.5	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Impact	682.9	12.7	53.8	146.1	2.8	52.2	536.8	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Job Satisfaction	589.8	10.9	54.1	163.5	3.1	52.7	426.3	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Turnover	776.4	14.4	53.9	175.5	3.3	53.2	600.9	0.00	Yes
Orgn Support	Orgn Commitment	613.6	9.4	65.3	273.4	4.3	63.6	340.2	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Centralisation	912.7	26.1	35.0	229.2	6.7	34.2	683.5	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Role Conflict	363.9	13.5	27.0	167.9	6.5	25.8	196.0	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Role Ambiguity	712.1	13.2	53.9	227.5	4.3	52.9	484.6	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Reward	482.3	17.9	26.9	215.8	8.3	26.0	266.5	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Training	971.0	27.7	35.1	286.3	8.4	34.1	684.7	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Information	339.8	17.0	20.0	182.0	9.6	19.0	157.8	0.00	Yes

Chi Square Tests for Discriminant Validity...continued

Variable 1	Variable 2	Model 1 (Constrained)			Model 2 (Unconstrained)			Chi-Sq Difference	Significance	Construct Distinct?
		Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F	Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F			
Leadership Trust	Meaning	941.7	47.1	20.0	175.9	9.3	18.9	765.8	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Competence	508.1	25.4	20.0	54.8	2.9	18.9	453.3	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Self-Determination	421.9	21.1	20.0	64.7	3.4	19.0	357.2	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Impact	635.9	31.8	20.0	66.4	3.5	19.0	569.5	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Job Satisfaction	495.6	24.8	20.0	57.8	3.0	19.3	437.8	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Turnover	757.3	37.9	20.0	85.7	4.5	19.0	671.6	0.00	Yes
Leadership Trust	Orgn Commitment	683.6	25.3	27.0	162.5	6.3	25.8	521.1	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Role Conflict	227.0	8.4	27.0	79.1	3.0	26.4	147.9	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Role Ambiguity	562.7	16.1	35.0	91.2	2.7	33.8	471.5	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Reward	394.2	14.6	27.0	98.9	3.8	26.0	295.3	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Training	977.4	27.9	35.0	181.3	5.3	34.2	796.1	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Information	233.8	11.7	20.0	70.5	3.7	19.1	163.3	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Meaning	821.2	41.1	20.0	59.6	3.1	19.2	761.6	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Competence	508.1	25.4	20.0	54.8	2.9	18.9	453.3	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Self-Determination	421.9	21.1	20.0	64.7	3.4	19.0	357.2	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Impact	635.9	31.8	20.0	66.4	3.5	19.0	569.5	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Job Satisfaction	495.6	24.8	20.0	57.8	3.0	19.3	437.8	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Turnover	757.3	37.9	20.0	85.7	4.5	19.0	671.6	0.00	Yes
Centralisation	Orgn Commitment	683.6	25.3	27.0	162.5	6.3	26.0	521.1	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	131.3	4.9	27.0	30.1	1.2	25.9	101.2	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Reward	206.8	10.3	20.1	61.9	3.3	18.8	144.9	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Training	333.5	12.4	26.9	144.6	5.6	25.8	188.9	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Information	85.4	6.1	14.0	30.2	2.3	13.1	55.2	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Meaning	222.4	15.9	14.0	19.7	1.5	13.0	202.7	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Competence	242.0	17.3	14.0	17.5	1.4	12.5	224.5	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Self-Determination	209.8	15.0	14.0	30.8	2.4	12.8	179.0	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Impact	225.1	16.1	14.0	18.3	1.4	13.1	206.8	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Job Satisfaction	441.2	31.5	14.0	6.8	0.5	13.6	434.4	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Turnover	203.0	14.5	14.0	23.5	1.8	13.1	179.5	0.00	Yes
Role Conflict	Orgn Commitment	284.4	14.2	20.0	103.0	5.4	19.1	181.4	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Reward	260.2	9.6	27.0	122.5	4.7	26.1	137.7	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Training	635.9	18.2	34.9	150.0	4.4	34.0	485.9	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Information	143.3	7.2	19.9	61.1	3.2	19.1	82.2	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Meaning	719.2	36.0	20.0	30.2	1.6	18.9	689.0	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Competence	455.3	22.8	20.0	29.1	1.5	19.4	426.2	0.00	Yes

Chi Square Tests for Discriminant Validity...continued

Variable 1	Variable 2	Model 1 (Constrained)			Model 2 (Unconstrained)			Chi-Sq Difference	Significance	Construct Distinct?
		Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F	Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F			
Role Ambiguity	Self-Determination	455.1	22.8	20.0	29.2	1.5	19.5	425.9	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Impact	571.7	28.6	20.0	26.5	1.4	18.9	545.2	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Job Satisfaction	443.6	22.2	20.0	21.2	1.1	19.3	422.4	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Turnover	595.1	29.8	20.0	30.3	1.6	18.9	564.8	0.00	Yes
Role Ambiguity	Orgn Commitment	480.4	17.8	27.0	122.3	4.7	26.0	358.1	0.00	Yes
Reward	Training	486.0	18.0	27.0	166.9	6.4	26.1	319.1	0.00	Yes
Reward	Information	221.0	15.8	14.0	8.7	6.2	1.4	212.3	0.00	Yes
Reward	Meaning	363.3	26.0	14.0	22.6	1.7	13.3	340.7	0.00	Yes
Reward	Competence	484.9	34.6	14.0	27.5	2.1	13.1	457.4	0.00	Yes
Reward	Self-Determination	570.7	40.8	14.0	22.7	1.8	12.6	548.0	0.00	Yes
Reward	Impact	343.7	24.6	14.0	26.0	2.0	13.0	317.7	0.00	Yes
Reward	Job Satisfaction	449.5	32.1	14.0	23.0	1.8	12.8	426.5	0.00	Yes
Reward	Turnover	352.9	25.2	14.0	78.2	6.0	13.0	274.7	0.00	Yes
Reward	Orgn Commitment	397.4	19.9	20.0	167.7	8.8	19.1	229.7	0.00	Yes
Training	Information	310.9	15.5	20.1	162.9	8.6	18.9	148.0	0.00	Yes
Training	Meaning	889.2	44.5	20.0	113.2	6.0	18.9	776.0	0.00	Yes
Training	Competence	544.7	27.2	20.0	196.4	10.4	18.9	348.3	0.00	Yes
Training	Self-Determination	679.5	34.0	20.0	130.6	6.9	18.9	548.9	0.00	Yes
Training	Impact	759.6	38.0	20.0	133.2	7.0	19.0	626.4	0.00	Yes
Training	Job Satisfaction	567.5	28.4	20.0	122.0	6.4	19.1	445.5	0.00	Yes
Training	Turnover	858.2	43.0	20.0	145.3	7.7	18.9	712.9	0.00	Yes
Training	Orgn Commitment	810.3	30.0	27.0	223.3	8.6	26.0	587.0	0.00	Yes
Information	Meaning	205.2	22.8	9.0	15.9	2.0	8.0	189.3	0.00	Yes
Information	Competence	208.1	23.1	9.0	6.7	0.8	8.0	201.4	0.00	Yes
Information	Self-Determination	190.3	21.2	9.0	19.2	2.4	8.0	171.1	0.00	Yes
Information	Impact	194.1	21.6	9.0	23.4	2.9	8.0	170.7	0.00	Yes
Information	Job Satisfaction	212.1	23.6	9.0	20.7	2.6	8.0	191.4	0.00	Yes
Information	Turnover	214.9	23.9	9.0	34.5	4.3	8.0	180.4	0.00	Yes
Information	Orgn Commitment	263.8	18.8	14.0	134.2	10.3	13.0	129.6	0.00	Yes
Meaning	Competence	429.8	47.8	9.0	12.4	1.6	7.9	417.4	0.00	Yes
Meaning	Self-Determination	530.7	59.0	9.0	21.3	2.7	7.9	509.4	0.00	Yes
Meaning	Impact	589.4	65.5	9.0	35.5	4.4	8.1	553.9	0.00	Yes
Meaning	Job Satisfaction	379.3	42.1	9.0	4.5	0.6	7.5	374.8	0.00	Yes
Meaning	Turnover	674.5	75.0	9.0	11.5	1.4	8.2	663.0	0.00	Yes
Meaning	Orgn Commitment	564.0	40.3	14.0	112.5	8.6	13.1	451.5	0.00	Yes

Chi Square Tests for Discriminant Validity...continued

Variable 1	Variable 2	Model 1 (Constrained)			Model 2 (Unconstrained)			Chi-Sq Difference	Significance	Construct Distinct?
		Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F	Chi-Sq	Chi-Sq/D/F	D/F			
Competence	Self-Determination	404.3	44.9	9.0	13.1	1.6	8.0	391.2	0.00	Yes
Competence	Impact	593.3	65.9	9.0	12.2	1.5	8.1	581.1	0.00	Yes
Competence	Job Satisfaction	459.4	51.0	9.0	14.4	1.8	8.0	445.0	0.00	Yes
Competence	Turnover	742.4	82.5	9.0	15.0	1.9	7.9	727.4	0.00	Yes
Competence	Orgn Commitment	548.6	39.2	14.0	96.2	7.4	13.0	452.4	0.00	Yes
Self-Determination	Impact	470.2	52.2	9.0	6.5	0.8	8.1	463.7	0.00	Yes
Self-Determination	Job Satisfaction	430.8	47.9	9.0	6.1	0.8	7.7	424.7	0.00	Yes
Self-Determination	Turnover	708.8	78.8	9.0	9.1	1.1	8.3	699.7	0.00	Yes
Self-Determination	Orgn Commitment	605.9	43.3	14.0	95.4	7.3	13.1	510.5	0.00	Yes
Impact	Job Satisfaction	618.6	68.7	9.0	10.3	1.3	8.0	608.3	0.00	Yes
Impact	Turnover	656.7	73.0	9.0	21.6	2.7	8.0	635.1	0.00	Yes
Impact	Orgn Commitment	611.5	43.7	14.0	126.2	9.7	13.0	485.3	0.00	Yes
Job Satisfaction	Turnover	426.6	47.4	9.0	2.9	0.4	7.2	423.7	0.00	Yes
Job Satisfaction	Orgn Commitment	475.2	33.9	14.0	98.0	7.5	13.0	377.2	0.00	Yes
Turnover	Orgn Commitment	656.0	46.9	14.0	148.8	11.5	12.9	507.2	0.00	Yes

