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AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR
THE ROLE OF LMX AND PERSONALITY AND THE
MEDIATING EFFECTS OF EMPOWERMENT

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
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By

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to identify motivational factors that would predict organisational commitment and citizenship behaviour. One important motivational factor is empowerment, which is an intrinsic motivator (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 121 table 5), this study examined the contribution of each of its four dimensions in predicting affective commitment and citizenship behaviours targeted towards both individuals and the organisation. I also investigated the association that leader-member exchange and three personality factors (extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience) had with both empowerment and organisational outcomes (affective commitment, citizenship behaviours). I further examined empowerment mediation effects.

This research was conducted among ten occupational groups at The Waikato District Health Board in New Zealand. 872 questionnaires were distributed and a final sample of 306 responses (35.1%) was obtained. The results, consistent across all occupational groups and other demographics, suggested that although extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience individually contributed to empowerment, affective commitment and citizenship behaviours, when their contribution towards affective commitment and citizenship behaviour was examined simultaneously with empowerment and LMX contributions, personality contribution decreased. The regression equation results showed emotional stability as the only significant personality contributor towards citizenship behaviours. In addition, leader member exchange contribution was significant only towards affective commitment whereas empowerment was the strongest predictor of the three organisational outcomes explored. Moreover, two of the four empowerment dimensions were also found to mediate the relationship between LMX and affective commitment. However, no empowerment mediation effects were found between LMX and citizenship behaviours. Overall, this research provides valuable information on how to increase employee’s affective commitment and extra role behaviours by adjusting organisation’s structures and policies and fostering employees’ perception of empowerment. Recommendations for further research and practical implications for organisations are discussed in the final chapter.
Acknowledgements

Resilience and passion are the first two concepts that come to mind when I think of completing my thesis. Endless, is the third! I strongly believe that the final prize is not the mark we get or the job opportunities but the growth and enrichment as a person. I am proud of having ‘stuck with it’, although many times the process fell apart.

I wish to say thank you to Michael O’Driscoll my supervisor for his guidance and support all the way through. To Samuel Charlton for his encouragement and support in the early stages of this journey and to Donald Cable for his wise advice and support just when it was most needed. Special thanks go to the Waikato District Health Board staff members who provided the sample for this research, thank you for your time and valuable contribution.

I am also grateful to my fellow colleague Tian Li who took time to come back to the ‘grads room’ to lend me a hand with statistics programs. Tian, I wish you all the best in your PhD. Also, thanks to other PhD students, who showed compassion and support and especially to Rob, Allan, Alistair and Heather who were always of service when technical problems rose.

My thesis is not mine anymore it belongs to all of you who have helped and especially to my husband Bresson Llewellyn. Thank you for listening, for your patience and for doing all the house chores while I was working on this project. I could not have finished this thesis without your unconditional support. It is time to get on with our life projects and to fulfil new dreams, I adore and admire you.

Finally, a message for you who whilst reading this, are trying to decide what to do next and whether you could do it or not:

“Impossible is just a big word thrown around by small men who find it easier to live in the world they’ve been given than to explore the power they have to change it...”

Be passionate, be focused and you soon will be writing your own acknowledgments.
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Chapter One: Introduction

In the current competitive and fast changing market, employee commitment and citizenship are the attributes that would help a company stand out in the face of tough times. Extensive evidence has shown that higher performance is achieved by those employees who are loyal, committed to the organisation and willing to work beyond their job description (Carson, Carson, Roe, Birkenmeier, & Phillips, 1999; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Kamdar & Dyne, 2007; John P. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). Work places where commitment and citizenship behaviours are among its workers see their performance enhanced not only by increased production and quality, but also by low turnover and absenteeism rates (Steers, 1977). For instance, uncommitted employees were found to report the highest levels of both job and career withdrawal intentions, therefore managers of organisations have been busy finding ‘what and how’ to increase commitment and to motivate people to “go the extra mile” (Anonymous, 2007; Erenstein & McCaffrey, 2007; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Steers, 1977). Moreover, over the last decade the New Zealand economy has been feeling the effects of a mass migration of skilled people to overseas markets (Kroeck & Brown, 2004a). We have also seen business downsizing as a consequence of the high production costs compared to offshore labour (Littler, Dunford, Bramble, & Hede, 1997). As organisations struggle to deliver the same competitive level of quality products and services with fewer resources, managers are challenged to find new ways to motivate employees to perform beyond expectations and to also retain those skills.

Work redesign, new strategies and policies have to come on board in order to sustain the economy in a changing world. Employees’ display of commitment and citizenship behaviours (sense of organisation ownership, facing organisation’s problems as of their own and willing to work beyond the job requirements), are most desired outcomes for organisations. However, as it will be explained below, there are different types of commitments and not all types will increase performance. For example, a study done among registered nurses showed that people with ‘calculative commitment’ are absent and poor performers, “uncommitted nurses who choose to remain in their positions because of scarcity
of jobs are more likely to be absent and demonstrate poor performance” (McDermott, Laschinger, & Shamian, 1996, p. 44).

As Walton (1985) stated, “market success depends on a superior level of performance, a level that, in turn, requires the deep commitment, not merely the obedience- if you could obtain it- of workers” and he added, “As painful experience shows, this commitment cannot flourish in a workplace dominated by the familiar model of control” (p. 79). Hence, it seems that organisations have to foster the ‘appropriate commitment behaviour’ and this will involve changes in the way employees are managed. Consequently, answering the questions of ‘what and how’ to motivate employees and increase their commitment and citizenship behaviours is of high priority for managers.

It is believed that motivating and empowering employees enhances productivity and performance (Liu, Chiu, & Fellows, 2007). Companies in diverse fields have been experimenting with empowerment policies since the early 1970’s. Underlying these managerial policies is the acknowledgement of a shared ownership among employees, owners and customers and, as evidence shows, these policies elicit commitment which in turn enhances performance (Walton, 1985).

The present study examines the notion of employee empowerment and high quality relationship between supervisors and their employees, as a possible answer to the question of ‘what and how’ to motivate employees. Wilson and Laschinger (cited in Liu et al., 2007), examined the empowerment perceptions of registered nurses and their commitment to their organization. They provided evidence for nurses perception’s of empowerment to be a determinant of their commitment to their organization. In other words, the opportunity to increase their competence and skills whilst being rewarded and recognized for contributing to organizational goals would determine the extent to which employees invest in their organization (McDermott et al., 1996).

In addition, a study conducted in Hong Kong among quantity surveyors in four different types of construction organisations provided support for empowerment as an antecedent of affective commitment (Liu et al., 2007). Consequently, structures that foster empowered behaviours will enable employees to be more committed and to invest considerable energy to provide effective, high
quality service. Conversely, controlled and blocked opportunities will only produce low motivation and low commitment (McDermott et al., 1996).

However, as noted above, empowerment strategies cannot be successful on their own. Organisations have to provide a) procedures and policies that support empowered employees and b) managers that facilitate the empowerment process thorough their relationship with their subordinates. After exploring empowerment and its consequences in the work place Spreitzer (1995) concluded that future research needed to explore the association between empowerment and organisational commitment.

In summary, the present study aimed to answer the question of ‘what and how’ to motivate employees and increase their levels of commitment and citizenship behaviours by examining the role that empowerment and leader-member exchange have on affective commitment and citizenship behaviour towards individuals and organisations.

I am also aware of workforce diversity (individual differences) might affect the extent to which employees want to feel empowered and are willing to invest in their organisation. Therefore, I further investigated the relationship between three personality attributes, extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience and perceptions of empowerment and organisational outcomes.

**Scope of the study**

This thesis was part of a broader project which aimed to answer questions the Waikato District Health Board (WDHB) had regarding its staff motivation and engagement behaviours. For the broader project a questionnaire including twenty five variables related to work environment, personality, motivation and organisational outcomes was designed (Appendix B). Although this information will be presented to the DHB representatives in an executive summary, the scope of the present thesis involved only eleven of the twenty five variables.

Specifically, the purpose of my master thesis is to examine the extent to which Leader-member exchange, personality and empowerment, were related to affective commitment and organisation citizenship behaviours. I further explored a) the relationship between personality factors such as extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience and employees’ empowerment feelings; and
b) the mediation effects of empowerment between LMX and organisational outcomes. Therefore, my research model shown in Figure 1 includes 11 variables which are explained in detail next. The criterion variables, affective commitment (AC) and citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO) were presented first followed by empowerment and leader member exchange (LMX). I last discussed each of the three personality factors, extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience and I explained the reasons for including them in this study.

**Research Model**

![Research Model Diagram]

Figure 1.1: Thesis model

1.2 Affective commitment

Organizational commitment is an attitudinal variable that denotes an employee’s level of attachment to the organization. It is differentiated from commitment to the job (job involvement). The latter, refers to employees’ identification to the specific job they perform regardless of the organization they are working for. However, an employee who has a high level of job involvement and organizational commitment will contribute to organizational success and well-being (Spector, 2003). Therefore, understanding what causes and under
which circumstances, both organizational commitment and job involvement can be enhanced, has become an important role for I/O professionals.

Research supports the existence of three types of organizational commitment (OC); affective (AC), normative (NC) and continuance (CC), also known as calculative commitment (McDermott et al., 1996). Affective refers to an incumbent’s emotional attachment to the organization. In other words, his /her expectations are met and he/she wishes to stay in the organization; whereas normative commitment is based on the individual’s values (has to stay because it is the right thing to do). On the other hand, continuance commitment relates directly with perceived benefits of doing so by the employee.

Employees with continuance commitment remain in the organization because they need to (John P. Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Moreover, employees who stay in the organisation due to continuance commitment do so because they perceive that there are no opportunities for them outside it or because it would mean to engage in personal sacrifice. For example, they may feel that they have invested time and efforts in the organization which would be lost if they leave (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; John P. Meyer et al., 1989).

This type of commitment has been seen as instrumental and calculative and it is easy to assume that employees of this kind are unlikely to have enough motivation to overcome obstacles, strive for achievement and willingness to perform at their best by ‘going the extra mile’ if required. Hence, it is difficult to associate this type of employee with those who are willing to engage in organisational behaviours that lead to development, citizenship behaviour and increased performance levels. There is evidence supporting a negative relationship between continuance commitment and promotion opportunities and performance (John P. Meyer et al., 1989). Therefore, organizations seem to wish for employees who are high in affective commitment level and low in continuance commitment.

Antecedents of the three types of commitment have been discussed by Meyer et al. (1993). They stated that affective commitment is determined by job conditions and met expectations whereas benefits accrued and job availability, determine the level of continuance commitment. Normative commitment derives from personal values and felt obligations.
Porter et al. found that organizational commitment was a more effective predictor of employee’s intentions to quit than job satisfaction was (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). In addition, Steers studied commitment antecedents and outcomes among 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers, and reported organizational commitment as a strong predictor of both desire and intentions to remain within the organisation (Steers, 1977).

Furthermore, Shore and Wayne (1993), found that only affective commitment was positively associated with citizenship behaviours whilst continuance commitment was negative related citizenship and Meyer and colleagues reported a positive relationship between affective commitment and performance whereas continuance commitment correlated negatively (John P. Meyer et al., 1989).

Also, O’Driscoll & Randall (1999), found that perceived organizational support had a positive relationship with affective commitment whilst it negatively related to continuance commitment. Based on the above evidence it seems that affective commitment is a much more effective way for increasing organisational performance and citizenship behaviours and reducing turnover intentions than continuance commitment is.

Whilst Meyer and colleagues, associated the fulfilment of employee’s needs and goals with affective commitment and employee’s desire to remain within the organization, Townsend and associates suggested that an organisation fulfils its employee’s work needs and goals through resources managed by their supervisors (John P. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000). Hence, one could assume that the quality of the relationship an employee has with his/her supervisor (LMX) would determine the extent to which an employee feels their needs are met. This in turn as suggested by Meyer et al., (2002), would predict an employee’s affective commitment and intention to quit.

Previous studies have also found organizational commitment positively related to leader-member exchange (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000). Thus, for the purpose of this study I was interested in further exploring the association between affective commitment and leader member exchange.
Research has also been done to find out the relationship between OC and other variables such as perceived organizational support (POS) and reward (intrinsic/extrinsic) satisfaction. The influence of demographic factors (job level and tenure) and job characteristics (job scope, variety and challenge) on employee commitment has also been of interest for researchers (Spector, 2003).

Another significant contribution of O’Driscoll & Randall study (1999), is that intrinsic and extrinsic reward satisfaction influence both job involvement and commitment. However, satisfaction with extrinsic rewards (e.g. pay and fringe benefits) has a lower impact on job involvement and organizational commitment than satisfaction with intrinsic rewards (e.g. job scope, variety and challenge). These findings are meaningful for I/O practitioners, leading them to focus on improving intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards, in order to enhance motivation and affective commitment levels when designing interventions.

For instance, empowerment at work has been defined as a source of intrinsic motivation (Benabou & Tirole, 2003) and Carson et al. suggested that people committed to both their career and organisation show the highest level of empowerment and willingness to engage (Carson et al., 1999). Nevertheless, the present study addressed the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment by exploring the extent to which affective commitment is related to perceptions of employee’s empowerment at work.

Since, situational rather than dispositional factors are considered when researching organizational commitment antecedents, the evidence regarding the influence that personality traits may have on employees’ commitment is limited (Erdheim, Wang, & Zickar, 2006). Hence, the present research contributed to this body of knowledge by exploring the association between affective commitment and three of the five factor personality model (Barrick & Mount, 1991), extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience. The reasons why I chose to only include three of the Big Five personality factors in this research will be explained later in this chapter when the these key variables are presented in detail.
1.3 Organisational citizenship behaviours

Another important behaviour that contributes to organization’s overall effectiveness and profitability is organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), also referred to as contextual performance (Burch & Anderson, 2007). It is also defined as “altruism” because it represents the action of an employee who helps colleagues without being asked and without pursuing selfish outcomes (Spector, 2003). It could be described as the ‘going the extra mile” behaviour. In contrast, a compliant behaviour is that which involves following the rules and doing what is expected at work, not more or less.

OCB is opposite to tardiness and lack of effort and it has a positive relationship with affective commitment and job satisfaction (Spector, 2003). Another variable that enhances organizational citizenship is the perception of equity and fairness that employees have. This sense of fairness leads an employee to trust in the organization and therefore is likely that she/he will engage in OCB. However, Hui, Lam and Law (2000) argued that incumbents could display organizational citizenship behaviour as a strategy to improve their job level (e.g. role promotion, salary raise) and once this goal is achieved their level of OCB would be reduced. In this specific case, one could argue that although the motivation an individual has to display OCB is not altruism per se, the outcome behaviour is still an OCB. Because employees’ citizenship behaviour is vital to effective organizational functioning, finding out ways to encourage OCB has been of increasing interest for practitioners and researchers within the I/O field.

To this day, several studies have explored the extent to which personality would predict citizenship behaviours and the results are mixed (Burch & Anderson, 2007). While some authors argue that personality may relate to OCB through its relationship with job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2000; Organ & Konovsky, 1989) others suggest that personality is directly linked to organizational citizenship behaviour (Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006). Specifically, Sackett et al. (2006), found extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience significantly related to OCB, p = 0.01. Conversely, Organ and Ryan (1995), suggested that personality may influence an individual’s motives for engaging in citizenship behaviours, hence personality has an indirect rather than direct effect on OCB.
Based on the above evidence, it seems clear that the relationship between citizenship behaviours and personality is complex and requires further research. In the present study I contributed to this body of knowledge by exploring further the nature of the association between OCB and three of the Big Five dimensions, extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience.

Another predictor of citizenship behaviour is employee empowerment. The latter has been found to promote helping behaviours and working outside of job requirements (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Mediation effects of empowerment between citizenship behaviours and decision making have also been reported (Bogler & Somech, 2005). Nevertheless, research in this area is limited and more research examining the relationship between citizenship behaviours and each of the empowerment dimensions is needed. Thus, the present study also explored the extent to which citizenship behaviours can be enhanced through employee empowerment. I specifically examined the relationship between empowerment and two types of organisational citizenship behaviours, those directed at an individual (OCBI, also referred to as citizenship behaviour individual) and organisational citizenship behaviour directed at the organisation (OCBO, also referred to as citizenship behaviour organisation). The former type, have a direct and immediate beneficial effect on a specific individual; however it indirectly contributes to the organisation. On the other hand, OCBO represent behaviours such as participating in meetings that are not compulsory but of benefit to the organisation, looking after the organisations interests as they were own by the employee or simply giving advance notice when not able to come to work (Fields, 2002; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

1.4 Empowerment:

Greasley and her colleagues (2008), examined the various meanings of empowerment. They focused on psychological empowerment as a mean to understand employee’s perception of it and explored whether or not employees wanted to be empowered at work (Greasley, K., Bryman, A., Dainty, A., Price, A., Naismith, N., & Soetanto, R., 2008). The authors explained that psychological empowerment is based on perceptions and cognitions rather than in organisational policies and practices. In other words, psychological empowerment considers the extent to which an employee feels he/she is empowered regardless any
empowerment program (e.g. employee participation) that the organisation has put in place and the employee has attended. The latter approach to empowerment when the organisation has set policies and managerial practices to facilitate empowerment is also known as ‘structural empowerment’ (Greasley et al., 2008).

Greasley et al. (2008) findings revealed, firstly, that employees relate to empowerment as a) a sense of having control over their job content and context, b) having responsibilities and c) participating in decision making. Secondly, although employees wanted to be empowered in various ways, the level of empowerment employees aimed for would vary among them. One reason for this is that empowerment involves undertaking further responsibilities by employees, thus not everyone is willing to do so (Greasley et al., 2008). For example, some of the responsibilities are seen as part of the manager’s job, thus employees are clear about the limits between empowerment and “doing a manager’s job” for a non-managerial salary (Greasley et al., 2008). This findings are similar to those of Ford and Fottler (1995) who suggested that empowerment begins when employees accept responsibility for their job’s content and quality and that empowerment comes from having the authority to make decisions and act upon problems they face when performing the job.

Moreover, Greasley and associates (2008), noted that employees need to feel competent and confident in themselves that they can perform successfully therefore, their level of capability will also determine the level of empowerment employees are happy to accept. Furthermore, there are certain requirements for the organisation to be able to successfully facilitate empowerment to its workforce. In contrast to traditional management techniques which emphasised hierarchy and control, managers should be flexible, promote openness and participation and effectively listen to employee’s suggestions.

Similarly, Ford and colleagues stated that organisations need to make clear their goals and vision and that managers have to share knowledge and information with employees. This will allow employees to understand the purpose of their job and enable them to contribute to organisation’s performance (Ford et al., 1995). With respect to employee participation, Ford et al. argued that empowerment’s concern with participation goes beyond the traditional employee participation approach where employee could participate but the decision authority remained with the manager. They stressed that empowerment gives the power to the
employee to decide and act, therefore organisations should also “provide a mechanism by which responsibility for those decisions is vested in individuals or teams” (1995, p. 22). In addition, they noted that there are different levels or degrees of empowerment and organisations need to work out the level of empowerment their employees are able to take within the organisation’s structure (Ford et al., 1995).

In other words, an organization aiming to succeed in the implementation of empowerment among individuals or teams should have aligned its structure to the empowerment strategy. For example, a workplace which emphasises hierarchy holds its managers responsible for the subordinate’s job performance, thus managers would resist the idea of giving their employees the freedom to decide what and how to do their job. In this case the organisation structure does not support employees’ empowerment process hence the organisation is unlikely to succeed empowering its personnel.

There is evidence of organisations who have managed to successfully implement empowerment and rip the benefits of it. Such is the case of W.L Gore and Associates, Chaparrel Steel, Saturn plant of General Motors among others (Ford et al., 1995). Cunningham, Hyman and Baldry (1996), researched 20 empowering organisations and only three of them were from the public sector nevertheless, they found that empowerment practices were more common in the manufacturing and production industry than in the retail, banking and telecommunications field. Therefore, the present study also contributes to this body of knowledge by exploring the role of empowerment in a public health sector.

In addition, Cunningham et al. (1996), noted that in order to ensure an appropriate intervention organisations need to develop tailored training and development programmes that account for organisation’s specific resources, goals and budget. Also, the purpose of the training and development programs should be to assist managers and non-managers acquiring the skills needed to work within the new structure. For example, employees would need to develop planning and problem solving skills whilst managers would need to master their listening, motivational and facilitation skills.

In summary, the organization has to provide a safe environment for employees to exercise empowerment. For instance, allowing employees to take
risks and to discuss the outcomes among the team members looking for improvement and learning rather than focusing on the mistakes and blame (Cunningham et al., 1996). Until now I have provided the reader with an overview of empowerment definitions and its practical implications for the organisation. I will next present empowerment as a four dimension construct and I will develop some hypothesis to be investigated in this research.

1.4.1 Four dimensions of empowerment

Thomas and Velthouse (1990), defined empowerment as increased intrinsic task motivation and stated that individual’s beliefs would impact on their motivation. Specifically, they presented a model with four cognitions or task assessments. Employees would assess their task in terms of impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice. Impact refers to employee’s assessment of making a difference in terms of accomplishing the task. Competence is the degree to which the worker performs the task skilfully. Meaningfulness refers to the value of the task and it is assessed by each individual based on his/her own ideals. Finally, choice refers to personal responsibility for one’s actions. These task assessments are subjective to individual’s beliefs, thus they are likely to vary among workers.

Similarly, Speitzer (1995) studied empowerment as a motivational construct and defined meaning, competence, self-determination and impact as the four cognitive dimensions of empowerment. These four dimensions combine to create an overall construct and variations in any of them would affect the general level of an individual’s psychological empowerment at work. In addition, Speitzer argued that the feelings of empowerment are specific to the work place rather than global as defined in the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model. Moreover, in Spreitzer’s terms psychological empowerment is a matter of degree hence people feel less or more empowered rather than empowered or disempowered.

A more inclusive definition of empowerment is that of Lee and Koh (2001), who integrated both ‘supervisor’s behaviour’ and ‘individual’s perceptions’ as cause and effect of empowerment. In other words, a managerial practice that promotes authority delegation and helps employees to develop their abilities at work enhances employee’s feelings of self-efficacy or empowerment. This ability that a leader has to empower his/her subordinates would affect the subordinates’ assessment of the four dimensions of empowerment. Thus, the
ability a leader has to empower a subordinate would affect the extent to which an individual would a) find his/her job meaningful, b) feel confident of having the skill required to successfully perform their job (competence), c) feel he/she has authority to determine how to do the job and, d) feel that she/he ‘makes a difference’ in the organisation outcomes by achieving the job purpose. Simply put, the relationship between leaders and subordinates will impact on subordinates’ perception of empowerment.

Lee and Koh’s (2001) integrated definition of empowerment agrees with that of Spreitzer (1995) in that empowerment is a continuous variable and it is specific to the work context in organizations. Lee and Koh (2001), have also made a valuable contribution by differentiating empowerment from a wide range of terms that have been used in place of empowerment. They concluded that empowerment is a unique concept different from delegation, authority, self-determination, self-management, self-control, self-influence, involvement, participative management, job enrichment, self-efficacy, employee ownership and self-leadership. For instance, Lee and Koh explained that self-determination and the other self-relevant constructs refer to situations where a person makes his/her own decisions, thus this would cover only one of the four empowerment dimensions.

Moreover, they stated that any self-related constructs can be generated without being affected by superiors’ empowering behaviour, while the concept of empowerment necessarily involves the relationship between a supervisor and his/her subordinates (for a detailed discussion refer to Lee & Koh, 2001). In the present study I adopted Spreitzer’s model of psychological empowerment with its four dimensions (1995), and I further explored the extent to which employees’ empowerment is determined by the quality of the relationship between the incumbents and their leader.

1.4.2 Empowerment and personality

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) provided further evidence on the effect that individual differences may have on their perception of empowerment, which in turn would have an effect on a worker’s behaviours. For instance, people experiencing high levels of impact, would present increased motivation and ability to recognise opportunities whereas low levels of impact are associated with
feelings of depression and low motivation. Conversely, workers who perceive themselves as highly competent display initiative and persistence whereas people experiencing high degree of meaningfulness are also likely to be committed and involved. In contrast, employees whose job is not perceived as meaningful would lack concentration, present apathy and show detachment or disengagement at work whilst those low in choice (self determination) would have decreased self-esteem, be likely to display counter- productive behaviours, feel tense and depressed.

Another interesting contribution of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model is the notion of “interpretative styles” (individual differences) that underlie individuals’ perceptions of their task impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice which in turn will increase or decrease individuals’ empowerment (intrinsic motivation). Thomas and Velthouse (1990), stated that individuals’ empowerment would be partly determined by the different interpretations individuals make around causes of their task performance. For example, depressed individuals would tend to explain their failures as a product of their own inability which they have little hope to improve, whereas non-depressed individuals would attribute success or failure to situational causes (effort put in the task and resources available) or to personal but controlled causes (e.g. lack of effort) which can be modified. Furthermore, evidence shows that high performers tend to visualize success and avoid thinking of setbacks, in other words they focus on their task purpose and its meaningfulness which is likely to increase task competence and motivation (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Regarding the association between empowerment and individuals, Ford and colleagues noted that employees who are driven by achievement, have social needs, strong interpersonal skills and value growth, are likely to feel highly motivated when empowered to decide how to define their job content in order to achieve the set goals (Ford et al., 1995). Hence, the present study argued that there may be personality factors underlying worker’s perceptions which in turn would determine their intrinsic motivation or empowerment. On one hand, people high in emotional stability may tend to be more positive in their interpretation of task assessments showing increased feeling of empowerment, compared to those individuals low in emotional stability or depressed.
Another reason for considering emotionally stable people more likely to embrace empowerment is that the latter comes with a set of changes in habits and attitudes, development of new skills, ambiguity and broader responsibilities (Walton, 1985), that would certainly require coping skills and have the potential to produce discomfort and even high levels of stress to individuals with low levels of emotional stability. In the present study I explored the association between emotional stability and empowerment.

H1: Emotional stability will be positively related to:
   a. Empowerment meaning.
   b. Empowerment competence.
   c. Empowerment self determination.
   d. Empowerment impact.

On the other hand, extroverts are highly social and talkative and usually display great commitment towards social groups and activities (Erdheim et al., 2006) thus, based on Ford et al. (1995) people high in extraversion are likely to feel highly empowered. Similarly, extraversion implies seeking out exciting new situations and challenging activities (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006; Judge, Martocchio, & Thoresen, 1997) thus, extraverts are likely to be willing to take new responsibilities and embrace authority opportunities in terms of how to go about their job. I hypothesised that extraversion would be positively associated with empowerment.

H2: Extraversion will be positively related to:
   a. Empowerment meaning.
   b. Empowerment competence.
   c. Empowerment self determination.
   d. Empowerment impact.

Accordingly, people with high levels of openness to experience are usually creative, curious and they value growth, thus they are normally motivated by achievement (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997). Also, Barrick and Mount (1991), pointed out that individuals with high scores on openness to experiences accepted personal responsibility and were willing to try harder when facing difficulties, attributes which underlie motivation to learn. Furthermore, openness
to experience was the dimension with the highest correlation with ability to learn, thus they concluded that openness measures both motivation and ability to learn.

It follows from this that people high in openness to experience are likely to take on more responsibilities and are willing to learn and face challenges, which is at the core of empowerment. Since they are creative people (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and value growth, they may embrace the opportunity to have autonomy around their job tasks (Ford et al., 1995). In addition, upon empowerment employees face task changes and they have to respond to adjusted organisational policies (Cunningham et al., 1996), thus those individuals who are willing to learn and experience new paths are likely to embrace empowerment practices at ease, whereas those workers who do not like changes and do not value development are likely to show less support to empowerment. Because of their curiosity and desire to seek novel experiences those who are open to experience are motivated to explore opportunities (McCrae, 1996). In this study I hypothesised the following:

H3: Openness to experience will be positively related to:
   a. Empowerment meaning.
   b. Empowerment competence.
   c. Empowerment self determination.
   d. Empowerment impact.

1.4.3 Advantages of empowerment at work

The advantages of empowerment at work as a mean to improve organisational performance and to differentiate between average and high performance are well documented (Liu et al., 2007; Proenca, 2007; Sparrowe, 1994; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Thayer, 1995). It seems that empowered employees would present high levels of motivation and activity; they would stay focused and be persistent when facing obstacles at work. They would also demonstrate to be flexible and responsible for the accomplishment of their own task by working hard towards the task goal even when unsupervised, they would embrace obstacles as new opportunities (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) and they would help to plan and get things done (Cunningham et al., 1996).

Empowerment has shown to increase organizational commitment (Liu et al., 2007; Walton, 1985), managerial effectiveness and innovative behaviours
Organisations gain commitment by empowering their employees through the promotion of mutual goals, rewards, responsibility and respect, which in turn would yield improved organisational performance and human development.

Some of the advantages for the organisation identified by Cunningham et al (1996) were “greater awareness of business needs among employees, cost reduction from delayering and employee ideas, improved quality, profitability and productivity measures and, organisation able to respond quicker to market changes” (p. 152). Also, the same study produced evidence supporting empowerment responsible for increased employee job satisfaction, increased day to day task control and increased self confidence. Moreover, empowerment promotes team work and gets rid of peer pressure syndrome where committed or new employees are kept from exceeding the minimum standards and work beyond their job requirements (Walton, 1985).

Regarding the dimensions of empowerment, meaning has been related to performance and satisfaction whereas competence has been reported to be positively related to learning, achievement and higher levels of job performance (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Moreover, Liden et al. (2000) posit the association between the meaning dimension of empowerment and affective commitment.

In a literature review Spreitzer et al., reported self-determination to be associated with higher job performance and commitment and their study findings supported the association between self determination and work satisfaction (1997). Conversely, the impact dimension was found to predict performance effectiveness. In summary, the results of the above mentioned study, suggested that meaning and self determination contribute to the affective domain whilst impact contributes to the performance domain and competence contributes to both affective and performance domain (Spreitzer et al., 1997). However, Ashford (1989) defined powerlessness as a lack of autonomy and participation. His notion of autonomy and participation are similar to those of self determination and impact used in the present study, therefore we could say that lack of self determination and lack of impact leads employees to feel powerlessness. In addition, powerlessness also leads individuals to feel helplessness (there is nothing they can do to alter their work outcomes). Consequently, individuals would display ‘uncommitted behaviours’ such as work alienation and lack of job
involvement (Ashforth, 1989). Following this logic, one could argue that employees with low self determination and impact are likely to feel detached from their job, thus I expect that employees’ perceptions of both, self determination and impact would predict their level of commitment to the organisation. Supporting my hypothesis is Kraimer and colleagues’ work which provided evidence for the predictive validity of empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995) and found the four empowerment dimensions related to organizational commitment (Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999).

Based on these findings I hypothesised that:

H4: Empowerment meaning will be positively related to affective commitment.

H5: Empowerment competence will be positively related to affective commitment.

H6: Empowerment self determination will be positively related to affective commitment.

H7: Empowerment impact will be positively related to affective commitment.

Furthermore, Niehoff and Moorman (1993), suggested that close managerial control discourages employee’s motivation to go above and beyond their job description, decreasing employee citizenship. The notion of close managerial control is similar to the notion of lack of self-determination dimension of empowerment, thus I expect that lack of empowerment self determination would be associated with citizenship behaviours. However, Bogler and Somech (2005) found that the four empowerment dimensions were significantly related to both OCBI (citizenship behaviour individual) and OCBO (citizenship behaviour organization). Hence, my hypotheses were as following:

H8: Empowerment meaning will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behavior individual.

b. Citizenship behavior organization.

H9: Empowerment competence will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behaviour organization

b. Citizenship behaviour individual.

H10: Empowerment self determination will be positively related to:
a. Citizenship behaviour individual
b. Citizenship behaviour organization.

H11: Empowerment impact will be positively related to:
   a. Citizenship behaviour individual
   b. Citizenship behaviour organization.

1.4.4 Limitations of empowerment

As noted above, evidence shows that empowerment practices cannot be done successfully in isolation. They are part of and call for, an overall organisation culture that provides a structure where other employee involvement schemes, profit related rewards and a ‘no-blame’ procedures are developed. An organisation with a no-blame policy would allow for employees to take measured risks and make mistakes without focusing on the mistake and blaming the employee but aiming to learn from that experience and do better in the future (Cunningham et al., 1996). In addition, the extent to which empowerment reaches managers and non-managerial staff will vary among organisations. It will depend partly on the readiness of top line managers to “let go” control and form work partnerships with their subordinates, and partly on the training the staff has received to develop the skills needed for accepting new responsibilities, (Cunningham et al., 1996).

1.5 Leader member exchange (LMX)

Social exchange theory has been behind the major research on LMX. Social exchanges entail unspecified obligations; when a person receives a favour from another, there is a sense of obligation to reciprocate the favour over time. Moreover, Settoon, Bennet and Liden (1996) refer to this as an intense sense of indebtedness which the person will seek to reduce thorough reciprocation. Furthermore, the sense of obligation will be reduced only if the partner notices the reciprocation act. According to Gouldner, reciprocity is based in two assumptions: “people should help those who have helped them, and people should not injure those who have helped them” (1960, p. 171). The leader-member exchange theory of leadership has its main focus on the quality of the relationship between an incumbent and his/her supervisor. LMX theory proposes that this relationship is particular to each individual and thus, the relationship between a leader and the
subordinates might be as diverse as the number of employees the leader associates with (Hersen, 2004).

Graen and colleagues stated that the quality of LMX has a noticeable impact on employees’ performance and various organisational outcomes. They explain that a relationship-based approach would aim to identify the relationship's characteristics needed to achieve organisational outcomes rather than to identify leaders and employees characteristics (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Several studies confirmed that effective leader-member relationships are based on mutual trust, respect and obligation. These characteristics were also valid in cross-culture settings and they are the foundation for a leader-member relationship which is likely to produce desired organisational outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden R. & Graen C, 1980; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999).

For instance, leader member exchange has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment and turnover rates (Bauer et al., 2006; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Ilies et al., 2007). A recent study of employees in a diverse set of job types provided support for the notion that a high quality leader-member relationship enhances the strength of the relationships between procedural and interpersonal justice and a variety of outcomes including affective commitment, job satisfaction and well-being (Piccolo, Bardes, Mayer, & Judge, 2008). Similar findings were reported by Epitropaky and Martin (2005).

In addition, Schriesheim, Castro and Yammarino (2000) examined the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment among 150 bank employees. Their findings support a positive relationship between the two variables.

LMX was also found to predict organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), procedural justice and turnover (Ilies et al., 2007; Kamdar & Dyne, 2007; Setton, Bennet, & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). More specifically, Setton et al. (1996) findings suggested that leader-member exchange has a strong impact as a mediator between OCB and procedural justice, whilst Wayne et al.(1997) also supported the role of LMX as a predictor for citizenship behaviour. Similar to these findings, a meta-analysis by Illies, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007), reported a strong positive relationship between LMX and both types of citizenship behaviours, with individual-targeted behaviour showing a higher coefficient (p = .38) than organisational-targeted behaviours (p= .31).
Moreover, in a more recent conceptualization of LMX relationship, the focus is on partnership. Hence, in contrast to the superiors-subordinates concept, leader and employee are associated in a partnership where both parties acknowledge rights and obligations within a more balanced interaction (Gouldner, 1960). It is within this framework that individuals develop a strong sense of loyalty and mutual support. Partners also internalize mutual goals and a sense of obligation (Setton et al., 1996). They realize that by satisfying partnership interests over own self-interests, they can also fulfill the later (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Furthermore, based on social exchange theory and Gouldner’s norm of reciprocity, feelings of obligations to reciprocate with beneficial behaviour occur when the person who has done a favour in the first place has gone beyond the demand of social role (Gouldner, 1960; Settoon et al., 1996).

In terms of leader-member exchange, it is the leader’s responsibility to first promote partnership through an ‘inclusive’ practice, thus I would expect that the other member in the partnership (the employee) would feel a sense of obligation to reciprocate with beneficial behaviour towards the leader. Since citizenship behaviour has been understood as a social resource likely to be exchanged for received social rewards (Moorman, 1991), I could assume that employees will engage in citizenship behaviours to reciprocate the leader. In addition, the need for repayment and feelings of gratitude constitute a social mechanism that provides stability and a source of motivation which remains alive throughout time (Gouldner, 1960). Hence, the display of citizenship behaviour as a repayment could also remain stable and perpetuate over time within LMX relationships. This in turn, would benefit both the partners involved and the organisation.

In other words, if LMX motivates members of the partnership to display behaviours in the work place that go beyond the job description, then I can argue that LMX will have a positive relationship with citizenship behaviour towards both individuals and organisation. Liden and Graen (1980) and Townsend et. al. (2000), noted that employees experiencing high quality LMX made contributions beyond their formal job requirements. Also, Settoon and colleagues found a positive relationship between citizenship behaviour towards individuals and LMX (Settoon et al., 1996).
1.5.1 Consequences of poor LMX

In contrast, Townsend, Phillips and Elkins (2000) found that poor exchange relationships were likely to predict employee retaliation behaviour. The authors reviewed the consequences of ‘poor exchange’ relationships, suggesting that individuals who rated low in LMX suffer more work problems, receive less support and engages in counteractive behaviour or ‘negative reciprocity’.

According to Gouldner’s (1960) norm of retaliation, employees displaying negative reciprocity are motivated by self-interest and in terms of leader-member exchange they feel neglected by their supervisor. Thus, these individuals are likely to reciprocate to their supervisors with comparable behaviour such as withdrawing from work, reduced performance, damaging equipment, taking extensive breaks and increasing absenteeism.

Also, as presented in Townsend’s et al. (2000) study, the organisational trust literature refers to similar behaviours as ‘revenge behaviours’. Employees are likely to engage in revenge behaviours when the expectations they have regarding their supervisor’s behaviour are not met. Morrison (1994) defines these expectations as ‘psychological contract’, because they are based on assumptions of reciprocal behaviour between employee and employer that although are not specified in a written job contract, they are assumed to be part of it and hence they are expected. Therefore, the unmet expectations leave individuals feeling that their trust has been violated and hence their social identity has been damaged. These perceptions in turn could lead employees to further damaging actions such as violence, unauthorized use of organisation resources, withholding help and working less among other. In addition, Farmer and Aguinis (2005) suggested that within a low LMX quality employees’ disengagement, untrustworthiness, absenteeism and turnover among other negative performance outcomes are likely to occur.

In summary, evidence clearly supports that poor quality of LMX has a negative effect on organisational outcomes such as decreasing levels of citizenship behaviours and commitment towards the organisation, as well as increasing the subordinates’ intentions to quit, absenteeism and turnover rates. Conversely, high LMX quality produces effective leadership processes which in turn will have positive outcomes for both individuals (leaders and subordinates) and organisations.
Based on the above evidence I hypothesised the following:

H12: Perception of LMX will be positively associated with:

a. Affective commitment.
b. Citizenship behaviour individual.
c. Citizenship behaviour organization.

1.5.2 LMX and empowerment

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), proposed that the leadership process involves three domains, the leader, the follower and the relationship between them. They posit that empowerment for example, is an approach that addresses ‘the follower’ whereas LMX focus is on ‘the relationship’. Nevertheless, promoting and applying managerial practice is one of the tasks a leader has, thus if employees are to be empowered this would be through their leader (Lee and Koh, 2001; Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005).

On one hand, one could argue that the extent to which a leader empowers his/her subordinate varies from member to member (Townsend et al., 2000). This will depend on the degree to which this leader is aware of the employee’s needs and abilities which in turn would be determined by the quality of the relationship that the leader has with the subordinate. On the other hand, Lee and Koh (2001) suggested that employee’s perception of empowerment (task competence, meaningfulness, impact and self-determination) is an effect of supervisor’s empowering behaviours. Although, there is evidence supporting the influence that leaders have on their follower’s motivation, the mechanisms used to influence are not clear. For example, transformational leaders encourage employees to think critically, promote intrinsic value associated with goal accomplishment, motivate them to get involved and support employee’s development (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Barbuto, 2005). Thus, one could expect the four dimensions of empowerment to be affected by a transformational leader approach. However, in the present study LMX measures how well a) the leader knows the employee’s needs, b) he/she is aware of the employee’s skills and c) promotes a relationship based on trust but, LMX does not measure the procedures the leader uses to do so. Furthermore, as previously explained, empowerment meaning refers to the extent to which individuals’ values and goals fit with those of the job they perform (Spreitzer, 1995), thus it is unlikely that those values can be affected by the
relationship that employee has with his/her supervisor (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Similarly, competence has to do with the level of confidence an employee has regarding mastering the skills needed to perform the job (Spreitzer, 1995). This sense of confidence is usually assessed by an employee based on his/her work outcomes, that is whether the job results much the employee’s and his/her supervisor expectations rather on how good is their relationship (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Consequently, although I argue that the element of trust would foster both, self-determination and impact dimensions of empowerment, we haven’t got enough theoretical support to hypothesise a relationship between LMX and the meaning and competence dimensions.

H13: Perceptions of leader-member exchange will be positively related to:
   a. Empowerment self-determination
   b. Empowerment Impact

1.6 Mediating effects of empowerment

Generally speaking, a variable is a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relationship between a predictor or independent variable and a criterion or dependant variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Baron and Kenny posit four mediation conditions which have to be met for a variable to have mediation effects between a predictor and a criterion. These conditions are first, the independent variable must affect the mediator; second, the independent variable must also affect the dependant or criterion variable; third, the mediator has to affect the criterion variable and fourth, when both independent and mediator variables are regressed simultaneously on the criterion variable, the contribution that the independent variable has on the criterion has to be less than its contribution when solely regressed on the criterion (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

As mentioned earlier leader-member exchange (LMX) and empowerment are expected to be positively related to affective commitment and citizenship behaviours (see H12 and H4-11). In addition, LMX is expected to be associated with two of the four empowerment dimensions. These are empowerment self determination (H13-a) and empowerment impact (H13-b). Hence high quality of leader member exchange is likely to lead to increased empowerment (self determination and impact), which in turn will predict affective commitment,
citizenship behaviour individual and citizenship behaviour organisation. Therefore, it is expected that:

H14: The positive association between LMX and affective commitment would be mediated by:
   a. Empowerment self determination.
   b. Empowerment impact.

H15: The positive association between LMX and citizenship behaviour individual will be mediated by:
   a. Empowerment self determination.
   b. Empowerment impact.

H16: The positive association between LMX and citizenship behaviour organization will be mediated by:
   a. Empowerment self determination.
   b. Empowerment impact.

1.7 Personality

Over the last twenty years, numerous studies aimed to define personality and explore its use in organizational psychology. The consensus is that a five-factor model of personality (the ‘Big Five’) describes the most salient aspects of personality and it can be a useful tool in personnel selection (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Fields, 2002; Kroeck & Brown, 2004b; Salgado, 1997).

Although there is extensive work done regarding the positive effects of personality on job performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2000; Ployhart, Lim, & Chan, 2001; Salgado, 1997; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991), only limited research has linked the Big Five to organisational commitment and citizenship behaviours (Erdheim et al., 2006; Gelade, Dobson, & Gilbert, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Sackett et al., 2006). Thus, one of the aims of this study was to explore the extent to which personality factors are related to affective commitment and citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, conscientiousness and agreeableness are the two most researched factors amongst the Big Fig (Burch & Anderson, 2007; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Judge et al., 1997), thus I specifically examined the relationship between the other three dimensions of the Big Five.
(extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience) and employee affective commitment and citizenship behaviour.

Moreover, also dearth is the information associating personality and employee’s intrinsic motivation (Ford et al., 1995), hence as I mentioned in the section dedicated to empowerment, this study takes a closer look at the possible associations between each of the empowerment dimensions and extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience.

1.7.1 Extraversion

Extraversion concerns the degree to which individuals are sociable, assertive and gregarious versus quiet, timid and reserved (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997). Evidence supports extraversion as a predictor of performance for managers and sales positions, however the magnitude of the correlations varies, hence extraversion predictive validity needs further examining (Kroeck & Brown, 2004b). Extraversion was found to moderate the relationship between LMX, performance and turnover. People with low levels of extraversion were found to be more likely to under-perform and have poor quality relationship with their supervisors compared to those employees who rated high in extraversion (Bauer et al., 2006). In addition, Judge et al. (1997) suggested that extraversion is a predictor of absence, similar results were found by Piccolo and associates (Piccolo et al., 2008).

Moreover, extraverts are highly social and talkative. They are characterized by excitement seeking behaviours and usually display great commitment towards social groups and activities (Salgado, 1997). Thus, extraverts are more likely engage in social behaviour with co-workers (Erdheim et al., 2006). Furthermore, extraverts were found more inclined to share their knowledge with fellow workers than people low in extraversion (Wang & Yang, 2007). Extraverts tend to be more sensitive to social stimuli and their external environment thus, since citizenship behaviours towards individuals (OCBI) is about helping others with their job, which in turn may entail sharing knowledge to help co-workers, one could expect extraverts to engage in OCBI behaviours.

Also consistent with these behaviours, extraverts may direct their excitement seeking tendencies (Barrick & Mount, 1991) into organising work group meetings or presenting developmental projects as a way of sharing
knowledge, which in turn may translate into work outcomes such as increased levels of organisation targeted behaviour organisation (OCBO). For instance, extraversion was found to strongly relate to ‘pro-social behaviour’ (Smith et al., 1983) and ‘contextual performance’ (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). Contextual performance has been defined as “pro-social and extra-role behaviour that go above and beyond mere task performance” (Kroeck & Brown, 2004b, p. 115) which is similar to the concept of citizenship behaviours (Spector, 2003) used in the present study. Therefore, based on the above evidence I posit that extraversion would be associated with citizenship behaviours.

Following the above logic regarding extraverts’ tendency to organise work groups and get involved in work projects, it is sensible to think that people would feel more committed to projects they own or projects in which their ideas have been taken into consideration. Consequently, extraversion is likely to affect the degree to which an employee feels affectively committed to the organisation. In addition, Watson and Clark (1997) stated that positive emotionality is at the core of extraversion hence, given that affective commitment represents an employee’s positive emotional reaction to the organization (Erdheim et al., 2006), it seems natural to assume that people who score high in extraversion are likely to also display higher levels of affective commitment compare to those employee who are more introverted.

In a recent study, Erdheim et al. (2006), reported extraversion to be significantly related to affective commitment, and Gelade and associates, found that affective commitment was higher in countries with populations high in extraversion (Gelade et al., 2006). Therefore, based on the evidence presented above regarding extraversion association with both, citizenship behaviours and affective commitment, my hypotheses are as follow:

H17: Extraversion will be positively related to:

a. Affective commitment.

b. Citizenship behavior individual.

c. Citizenship behavior organization.

1.7.2 Emotional stability

Emotional stability, also referred to as lack of neuroticism, concerns the extent to which an individual experiences feelings of insecurity, anxiousness,
worry and depression as opposed to feelings of calmness, self confidence and cool (Kroeck & Brown, 2004b; Salgado, 1997). Hurtz and Donovan (2000) found significant positive relationships between emotional stability and contextual performance or citizenship behaviours. Similarly, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) posited a negative relationship between neuroticism (low emotional stability) and altruism. They suggested that people low in emotional stability (high neuroticism) tend to be more preoccupied with their own anxieties, hence they are unlikely to be able to cope with others’ problems. Thus, I expect that emotional stability will be positively related to citizenship behaviours.

In addition, Erdheim et al. (2006) posit that people low in emotional stability or high in neuroticism tend to experience ‘negative affect’. Given that affective commitment represents an employee’s positive emotion, it seems logic to think that people low in emotional stability, are less likely to experience affective commitment. Also, Gelade et al. (2006) reported that affective commitment was higher in nations where neuroticism was lower. Therefore, I expect emotional stability to be associated with affective commitment. In summary, based on the preceding evidence I hypothesised:

H18: Emotional stability will be positively related to:

a. Affective commitment.

b. Citizenship behavior individual.

c. Citizenship behavior organization

1.7.3 Openness to experience

According to Salgado (1997), openness to experience represents individuals who are creative and curious rather than practical and narrow minded. Although openness to experience has been investigated in terms of performance, leadership and career development (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Guthrie, Coate, & Schwoerer, 1998; Ployhart et al., 2001), to date I am not aware of studies exploring a direct association between citizenship behaviour and openness to experience.

Openness to experience appears to assess an individual’s readiness to participate in learning experiences and it has been found to predict training proficiency (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997). Guthrie, Coate and Schwoerer (1998) studied the impact of personality on career management
strategies. They found that people with high openness to experience are inclined to build developmental relationships with individuals both inside and outside the organization. One of the purposes of building developmental relationships is to network with other people who can enrich or challenge the knowledge of those eager to learn and progress. In addition, openness to experience has been associated with high levels of performance and transformational leadership which indicates that people with high openness to experience have the ability to motivate and inspire followers by creating a sense of ‘team work’ and ‘shared goals’ (Ployhart et al., 2001).

Since citizenship behaviours involve group involvement and knowledge sharing, people with high openness to experience may display citizenship behaviours to help and be helped. Therefore, although the research support is limited I expect that openness to experience will be associated with citizenship behaviours.

H19: Openness to experience will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behavior individual.

b. Citizenship behavior organization.

1.8 Summary of hypothesis

Personality and empowerment

Hypothesis related to emotional stability (EMST)

H1: Emotional Stability will be positively related to:

a. Empowerment meaning.
b. Empowerment competence.
c. Empowerment self determination.
d. Empowerment impact.

Hypothesis related to extraversion (EXT)

H2: Extraversion will be positively related to:

a. Empowerment meaning.
b. Empowerment competence.
c. Empowerment self determination.
d. Empowerment impact.

Hypothesis related to openness to experience (OPEN)

H3: Openness to experience will be positively related to:
a. Empowerment meaning.
b. Empowerment competence.
c. Empowerment self determination.
d. Empowerment impact.

**Empowerment and affective commitment**

H4: Empowerment meaning will be positively related to affective commitment.

H5: Empowerment competence will be positively related to affective commitment.

H6: Empowerment self determination will be positively related to affective commitment.

H7: Empowerment impact will be positively related to affective commitment.

**Empowerment and citizenship behaviours**

H8: Empowerment meaning will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behavior individual.
b. Citizenship behavior organization.

H9: Empowerment competence will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behaviour organization
b. Citizenship behaviour individual.

H10: Empowerment self determination will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behaviour individual
b. Citizenship behaviour organization.

H11: Empowerment impact will be positively related to:

a. Citizenship behaviour individual
b. Citizenship behaviour organization.

**Leader member exchange**

H12: Perception of LMX will be positively associated with:

a. Affective commitment.
b. Citizenship behaviour individual.
c. Citizenship behaviour organization.

H13: Perceptions of leader-member exchange will be positively related to:

a. Empowerment self-determination
b. Empowerment impact

**Mediation effect of empowerment**

H14: The positive association between LMX and affective commitment will be mediated by:
a. Empowerment self determination.
b. Empowerment impact.

H15: The positive association between LMX and citizenship behaviour individual will be mediated by:
   a. Empowerment self determination.
   b. Empowerment impact.

H16: The positive association between LMX and citizenship behaviour organization will be mediated by:
   a. Empowerment self determination.
   b. Empowerment impact.

**Personality and affective commitment and citizenship behaviour**

**Hypothesis related to extraversion (EXT)**

H17: Extraversion will be positively related to:
   a. Affective commitment.
   b. Citizenship behavior individual.
   c. Citizenship behavior organization.

**Hypothesis related to emotional stability (EMST)**

H18: Emotional stability will be positively related to:
   a. Affective commitment.
   b. Citizenship behavior individual.
   c. Citizenship behavior organization.

**Hypothesis related to openness to experience (OPEN)**

H19: Openness to experience will be positively related to:
   a. Citizenship behavior individual.
   b. Citizenship behavior organization.
Chapter 2: Methodology

2.1 Organisational context

The Waikato District Health Board (WDHB) was established in 2001 to improve, promote and protect the health of people and communities, and reduce health disparities among population groups in its district. It is governed by a board that is responsible to the Minister of Health.

The WDHB directly employs more than 5000 doctors, nurses, allied health professionals and support staff and it serves a population of more than 342,000 people, stretching from the northern tip of Coromandel Peninsula to south of Taumarunui, and from Raglan in the west to Waihi in the east. About 40% of its population lives in rural areas (see Figure 2.1). Allied health professionals are those different from doctors, nurses, managers and clerical staff (e.g. physiotherapist, phlebotomist and pharmacist).

The WDHB structure includes its own hospitals, community services, older persons and rehabilitation service, population health service and mental health and addiction services. It also funds and monitors a large number of other health and disability services that are delivered by independent providers such as GPs and practice nurses, rest homes, community laboratories, dentists, iwi health services, Pacific Peoples’ health services, and many other non-government organisations and agencies (Waikato District Health Board, 2008).
2.2 Sample and procedure

Respondents were employed by the Waikato District Health Board located in the central North Island region of New Zealand (refer to fig.2.1). The surveys were distributed to a total of 896 employees grouped within the following 10 work categories: Consultant/ Moss, Radiographer/ Sonographer/ Radiation Therapist, Psychologist/ Counsellor, Occupational Therapist, Physiotherapist, Dietician, Technicians (other than laboratory or pharmacy), Pharmacist/ Pharmacist Technician, Laboratory technologist/ Technician/ Assistant, Phlebotomist. A total of 307 completed questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 34.3%. The gender composition of the sample was 34% male (N= 104), 56% female (N= 173) and 10% (N=30) of respondents did not declare gender. On average, respondents had worked in their profession for 15 years and for the WDHB for 8 years, with only 25 % of the employees having job tenure.
below three years. The average age was 43 years, with only 25% of the employees being younger than 35 years of age or older than 51 years of age.

The subcategories were defined by the WDHB human resource department. Although it was not the aim of the present study to specifically examine the impact that each of these ten categories had on the research criterion variables, I included them as part of the demographic data. Table 2.1 shows the number and percentage of respondents for each occupational group.

Three meetings were held by the researcher with WDHB human resource manager, the manager for business re-engineering and two other staff members of the WDHB human resource department. The purpose of these meetings was to define the scope of the research, to review and approve the questionnaire content and to establish the most appropriate ways for questionnaire distribution. Once the questionnaire was reviewed and approved by WDHB human resource representatives, and before delivering the questionnaires to the prospect participants, a copy of the questionnaire’s cover letter explaining both the purpose and confidentiality of the research and the value of the voluntary cooperation of employees was distributed via email among WDHB occupational group managers and supervisors (refer to Appendix A). This study was also approved by the Research and Ethics Committee of the Psychology Department at the University of Waikato.

2.3 Instrument

My data was collected as part of a broader research project for the WDHB which included 25 variables (see Appendix B for details). However, as explained in the introduction chapter, the purpose of my master thesis was to specifically examine the effect that leader-member exchange (LMX), personality and empowerment may have on affective commitment and organisation citizenship behaviours. Therefore, the present research model (Figure 1.1, p.4) focused on 11 variables. The data were collected by way of an anonymous questionnaire in hard copy version. The questionnaire contained quantitative measures of affective commitment, citizenship behaviours, empowerment, leader-member exchange and three personality dimensions (extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience).
Table 2.1 Number of respondents for each occupational group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Group</th>
<th>Surveys distributed</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Response rate/ Occupational Group</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consultant/ Moss</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radiographer/ Sonographer/ Radiation Therapist</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychologist/ Counsellor</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Therapist</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physiotherapist</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>44.3%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietician</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians (other than laboratory or pharmacy)</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacist/ Pharmacist Technician</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratory technologist/ Technician/ Assistant</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phlebotomist</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing data</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>896</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, participants were asked to provide demographic information on their gender, age, tenure in the organisation, tenure in their position, ethnicity and occupational group. The full questionnaire, containing measures of the above variables along with others which were not analysed for this thesis, is contained in Appendix B.
2.4 Measures

Measures were carefully selected based on their appropriateness, validity and reported reliability (Fields, 2002). Furthermore, measures were also individually tested for factorial validity (first –order confirmatory factor analysis or CFA) before proceeding with hypothesis testing (Byrne, 2001). Responses to all items were provided on a 6 –point scale.

For items with missing values that is, not responded to, a mean score was calculated. This procedure was done within each participant for each applicable section and only when 50% of that particular section had been responded to by the individual. In those cases where less than 50% of the items corresponding to a specific variable were responded to, a mean was not calculated and hence the questionnaire was entirely excluded from the research sample. Consequently, of a total of 305 questionnaires received only 282 were used for further hypothesis testing.

2.4.1 Distal variable

Leader-member exchange, or employee perception of the quality of their exchange relationship with their supervisors, was measured by a scale developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). The measure of LMX has changed over the years in light of new research evidence on the appropriateness of LMX scale and its dimensionality (refer to Schriesheim et al.1999, for a detailed overview). Nevertheless, a review of several studies concluded that the 7-item LMX with its central focus on “ How effective is your working relationship with your leader” is the most recommended measure of LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Schriesheim et al., 1999) and was used in the present study. A sample item for LMX is “How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?” and the responses were rated on a 6 point scale where 1= not at all and 6= fully.

The Alpha coefficient and confirmatory analysis using AMOS (see p.39 for CFA details) confirmed the validity and reliability of the measure. This questionnaire has two levels of analysis, the leader level and the subordinate level. The leader level is the questionnaire to be responded by leaders of the organisation and the subordinate level refers to the questions directed to the subordinates. However, the researcher may adopt the level of analysis that suits the research goals (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) thus, for the purpose of this study
only obtained the subordinates’ perceptions of their leader. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for LMX in the present sample was .93.

2.4.2 Proximal variables

**Empowerment** in the present study was based on Spreitzer’s (1995) model and measure of psychological empowerment. Empowerment is defined as “the intrinsic motivation resulting from four cognitions reflecting an individual’s orientation to his/ her work role” (Fields, 2002, p. 113). The four dimensions are empowerment meaning, empowerment competence, empowerment self determination and empowerment impact. Meaning (EMPM) refers to the extent to which a job’s role requirements are aligned with the person’s beliefs and values. A sample item for EMPM is “The job activities are personally meaningful to me”. Competence (EMPC) refers to how confident the person feels that he/she has the skills required to efficiently perform the job. A sample item for EMPC is “I am confident about my ability to do my job”. Self determination (EMPS) refers to the degree of authority the person has to initiate and decide how to do the job. A sample item for EMPS is “I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work”. Impact (EMPI) reflects a person’s perception of his/her influence in the organisations outcomes. A sample item for EMPI is “I have significant influence over what happens in my department” (Spreitzer, 1995) and the responses were rated on a 6 point Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. Each of these 4 dimensions has three items and the dimensions’ reliability and validity was confirmed by alpha coefficient and confirmatory analysis using AMOS (see p.39 for CFA details) respectively. The alpha coefficients in the present sample were: EMPM = .91, EMPC = .89, EMPS = .67 and EMPI = .91.

**Extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience** measures included ten items each as defined in the Big Five Personality measure developed by Goldberg (1990). The responses to these three variables were rated on a 6 point scale where 1 = very inaccurate and 6 = very accurate. A sample of extraversion items is “I talk to a lot of different people at parties”. Extraversion items 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 were negatively worded (e.g. ‘I don’t like to draw attention to myself”), thus they were recoded. Similar treatment was applied to emotional stability items number 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 (e.g. “I often feel blue”), and to three of the ten
items for openness to experience (items 2, 4 and 6. E.g. “I do not have a good imagination”).

The alpha values in the present sample were .83, .87, and .79 for extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience respectively. I also conducted a CFA and the results are presented below (p.39)

2.4.3 Criterion variables

Affective commitment was assessed with a self report scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). A sample item of this measure is “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation”. Some of the affective commitment items were negatively worded (e.g. “I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation”), thus items 3, 4 and 6 were recoded. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for Affective Commitment in the present sample was (.84) and the CFA results are detailed in the confirmatory factor analysis section (p.39).

Organisational citizenship behaviours measure was developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). For the purpose of this study I focused on organisational citizenship behaviours directed at individuals (OCBI) and directed at the organisation (OCBO).

Organisational citizenship behaviours directed at an individual (mentioned in this study as citizenship behaviour individual) have immediate benefits to a specific person and indirectly contribute to the organisation, whereas behaviours that directly benefit the organisation (citizenship behaviour organisation) are for example “giving advanced notice of inability to come to work” (Fields, 2002, p. 240). A sample item for OCBI is “I help others who have heavy workload” and for OCBO is “I take extra work breaks”.

I included two additional items to measure OCBO, (“I attend meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important”) and (“I obey organisation’s rules and regulations even when no one is watching”). They were developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne and Bommer (1990 ) and I considered them to investigate relevant aspect of behaviour directed at the organisation which were not included in Williams and Andersons (1991) questionnaire. Items 4, 5 and 6 of the OCBO scale were negatively worded and thus they were recoded.
The alpha coefficients in this sample were .81 and .78 for OCB (individual) and OCB (organisation) respectively.

2.5 Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out to test the factorial validity of each of the theoretical constructs (variables) and the results are presented in Table 2.2. This procedure is known as first-order CFA and I used AMOS 6.0 (Byrne, 2001) to evaluate the fit of the model. AMOS calculates the parameter estimates based on ‘maximum likelihood’ (ML) estimation which assumes that the four following conditions are met: a) The sample is very large, b) the distribution of the observed variables is multivariate normal, c) the hypothesized model is valid and, d) the response scale of the observed variables is continuous (Byrne, 2001, p. 70).

Ideally, the goodness of fit of a model should be based on several criteria hence I focused on a) the model as a whole and b) the factor loadings. Firstly, statistical significance for parameter estimates was represented by critical ratio (c.r.), which tests that the estimate is statistically different from zero. Thus, based on a level of .05 the values should be c.r. > 1 (Byrne, 2001). Secondly, to test the model as a whole I generated the following indices: $x^2/\text{df}$ (chi-square /degrees of freedom) with values < 2 considered ideal and values up to 3 considered acceptable. GFI (goodness of fit index) and AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index), values should be greater than (.9), whereas CFI (comparative index fit) value resulting from the comparison between the hypothesized model with a baseline model should be > .9 and < 1.00 (Byrne, 2001). The RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) considers the error of approximation in the population. Values less than .05 are ideal and values up to .08 are considered acceptable. In addition, I also considered the confidence interval (90%) around the RMSEA value; the narrower the confidence interval the more precise the RMSEA fit (Byrne, 2001).

Finally the Akaike’s information criterion (AIC) and consistent version of AIC (CAIC) indices are used when an original model is compared with one or more other models. These two indices reflect the extent to which parameter estimates from the original sample would be validated in future samples and, obtaining smaller values of AIC and CAIC as the model’s adjustment progresses.
is an indication of the last model having a better fit than the original one. Although, these two indices are usually used in conjunction, the CAIC has been found more reliable than the AIC, because the former takes sample size into account whereas the latter takes only the degrees of freedom (Byrne, 2001). Therefore, in the present study in the face of discrepancies between these two values, I would favour results from the CAIC over the AIC indices.

Thirdly, the factor loadings were evaluated based on the squared multiple correlations. Ideally, factor loadings should reach a value of (.5), however when an item’s factor loading did not reach a value of (.5), I deleted it and compared the goodness of fit values before and after item deletion. When the model’s goodness of fit would not improve I included the deleted item in the model. In other words, an item was be deleted only when its deletion would substantially improve the goodness of fit of the model.

**Leader-member exchange (LMX)** presented a good fit thus no further examination was required. The one factor model parameters estimates showed desirable values c.r. > 1.96. Similar results were found for the goodness of fit indices, \( \chi^2/df=1.162 \), GFI=.99, AGFI=.97, CFI=.99 and RMSEA=.024. Because there was no need to compare the original LMX model with improved versions, the AIC and CAIC values are not reported. Regarding the factor loadings, only one of the seven items was under .5 (.413) which was still good and did not affect the overall model goodness of fit. Hence, the one factor LMX model was accepted.

**Empowerment** was tested as a four factor model including the 4 dimensions (total of 12 items) and the overall results were within the acceptable range. Firstly, empowerment parameter estimates c.r > 1.96. Secondly, the goodness of fit indices were also within the acceptable range, \( \chi^2/df =2.0 \), GFI=.95 and AGFI=.92, CFI=.98 and RMSEA=.06. The factor loadings were within an acceptable range and as with LMX, I did not have to compare values for AIC and CAIC. The model was accepted as it was and no modifications were required for its use in further analysis.

**Extraversion** was a one factor model with ten items, but unlike the above variables, its goodness of fit indices were outside of an acceptable range in the first test. For example \( \chi^2/df =4.0 \) and RMSEA=.10. Consequently, modification indices (MIs) suggested covariance between error terms (Byrne, 2001). This covariance is usually related to an overlap in item content, this is, when two items
are worded differently but they essentially ask the same question (Byrne, 2001). When these modifications were applied, the goodness of fit for the one factor model of extraversion improved to an acceptable range and no further adjustments (e.g. deleting items) were needed. The parameter estimates statistic was c.r. > 1.96. The goodness of fit indices were $\chi^2/df = 1.5$, GFI$=.97$, AGFI$=.94$, CFI$=.98$ and RMSEA$=.04$. AIC (97.00) and CAIC (231.62) values improved compared to the values in the previous model, AIC (181.48) and CAIC (274.32). I initially deleted item 9 which had a factor loading $= .22$, however this did not improve the goodness of fit, hence I included it in the model and no further adjustments were made.

**Emotional stability.** The initial goodness of fit indices were also out of the accepted range (e.g. $\chi^2/df = 6.34$ and RMSEA $= .14$). As with extraversion, I adjusted the error covariance based on the MIs and the new results were: $\chi^2/df = 1.62$, GFI$=.97$, AGFI$=.94$, CFI$=.99$, and RMSEA$=.05$; Furthermore, AIC went from 262.12 in the first model to 99.33 in the second model and CAIC value changed from 354.96 to 224.66, showing considerable improvement. In addition, as expected c.r. $> 1.96$. Regarding the factor loadings, as with extraversion, the deletion of items with low factor loadings did not improve the goodness of fit, thus all items were kept in the model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2.2  Fit Indices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variable</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: LMX = leader member exchange, EMP = empowerment, EXT = extraversion, EMST = emotional stability, OPEN = openness to experience, AC = affective commitment and OCB = citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO)
**Openness to experience** was a one factor model with an overall good fit. The fit indices were within the ideal range, $x^2/df = 1.66$, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94, CFI = .98 and RMSEA = .048. Although factors loading for item 2 (0.8), 3 (0.97), 6 (0.95) and 9 (0.73) were low, their deletion did not change the goodness of fit, thus I included them in the model and made no further adjustments.

**Affective commitment.** The one factor model’s fit indices results were mixed when AMOS was first run. For instance, it showed acceptable values for GFI and CFI (.94 and .93 respectively), but $x^2/df = 5.99$ which was above the expected range. Modification indices (MIs) for error covariance were followed (I included three error covariance) and the new results were satisfactorily improved. $x^2/df = 1.63$ (value below 2 is ideal), GFI = .99, AGFI = .96, CFI = .99 and RMSEA = .05. Additionally, AIC and CAIC values decreased by 38.05 and 24.12 respectively and c.r. >1.96, the parameters estimates were above 1.96 as expected. Factor loadings were strong for all items ranging between .52 and .71.

**Citizenship behaviour** confirmatory analysis was based on a two factor model. These two factors were citizenship behaviour directed at an individual (OCBI) and citizenship behaviours directed at the organisation (OCBO). As explained earlier in this chapter, the former had six items whilst the latter had eight items. I decided to test a two factor model because citizenship behaviours directed at individuals are different from those directed to the organisation in that their target is different; they may also provide us with valuable information regarding differences in work related issues among participant. For example, an individual with high scores in OCBO items and low in OCBI items could indicate for example that this individual has conflicts with his/her co-workers whilst on the other hand the individual is still engaged with the organisation. This in turn, would be useful information to further address potential staff issues which are of interest for an organisation aiming for high performance.

I applied confirmatory factor analysis to each of the constructs, OCBI and OCBO and they both showed a good fit. Indices for OCBI were: $x^2/df = .57$ (values below 2 are ideal), GFI = .99, AGFI = .99, CFI = 1.0 and RMSEA = .00. Indices for OCBO were: $x^2/df = 1.32$, GFI = .98, AGFI = .99, CFI = .99 and RMSEA = .03. Secondly, CFA was applied to the two factor model and the results where also within the acceptable range. The goodness of fit coefficients were: $x^2/df = 2.1$ (values up to 3.0 are accepted), GFI = .94, AGFI = .90, CFI = .94 and
RMSEA = .06 (values up to .08 are considered acceptable). In addition, parameter estimate was also within the accepted range c.r. >1.96. The factors loading for item 4 (0.8) and 6 (0.8) were low, however their deletion did not improve the goodness of fit but to the contrary it worsen it, thus I included the items in the model and made no further adjustments. In summary, a two factor model allowed the researcher to investigate both behaviours, targeted to individuals and to the organisation. Therefore, considering that the two factor model’s overall fit was good and presented values ranging within acceptable margins, I concluded that it was the appropriate model to use to further test our research hypothesis.
Chapter 3: Results

This chapter presents the findings of this research in terms of its statistical analysis, that is, the extent to which the hypotheses (see p. 29) for this theoretical model were supported. In the first section, I provide the descriptive statistics for all variables including means, standard deviations, skew and Cronbach’s alphas. Section two presents the correlations and regressions results and section three specifically examines the mediation effects.

3.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 3.1 shows the means, standard deviations, skew and Cronbach’s alpha coefficients across all variables in the theoretical model (Fig. 1.1, p.4). Overall, participants indicated moderate to high levels of citizenship behaviours and empowerment, however the mean value for empowerment impact (3.35) suggests that participants perceived that the extent to which they can affect the organisation’s structure, policies and general outcomes is only limited. Participants were characterized by medium levels of extraversion (3.71) and perceived themselves as being emotionally stable (4.35) and open to experience or willing to learn (4.21). Nevertheless, participants’ responses regarding the quality of the relationship they have with their immediate supervisor (3.24) indicated that this relationship could be substantially improved. Moreover, the mean value for affective commitment (3.23) is the lowest of all and is just over the mid point of the scale.

An indication of the symmetry of the distribution is provided by the skew values. When a distribution is normal the skew value is zero. Moreover, if the skew is positive then most of the cases are to the left of the distribution whereas the opposite occurs when the skew is negative (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). When the distributions amongst variables differ from normal, this is, when the level of skew is greater than SD error of skewness, variable transformation is recommended (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989).

Transformation’s purpose is to improve variable’s distribution and to produce skewness values as near to zero as possible (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). There are three different types of transformations to apply depending on the extent to which a variable’s distribution differs moderately (skew > .200 < .800),
substantially (skew > .800) or severely from normal. These three types are square root, log or inverse transformations respectively. Nevertheless, depending on the size of the sample, transformations may or may not make a realistic difference in the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989).

Table 3.1 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skew</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship B. Individual</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship B. Organisation</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment Meaning</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment Competence</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment Self-Determination</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment Impact</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader-Member Exchange</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to Experience</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All variables were measured on a 6 point response scale

To decide whether a skew was moderately, substantially or severely different from normal both visual and a numeric test was applied. In the present study, the standard error of skewness for all variables was (.145), thus the variables with a level of skew greater than (.145) were visually inspected to determine whether or not to proceed with transformations. Based on this observation it was decided that variables with a level of skew greater than (.145) would be transformed. Specifically, all distributions with skewness = .800 or below were initially treated with square root transformation whereas, a log transformation was applied to those variables with a skew >.800 < 1.24. I did not
find variables with a distribution severely (skew > 1.24) different from normal, hence no inverse transformation was applied. Nevertheless, when results before and after transformations were compared, there was no substantial difference in the correlations among any of the variables. For instance, except from empowerment impact the other three empowerment dimensions were substantially skewed, thus I applied log transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989) to each of those three dimensions (meaning, competence and self determination). However, the correlation between empowerment competence and affective commitment remained non significant (.03) whereas affective commitment remained significantly related to both empowerment self-determination and empowerment meaning p < 0.01(EMPS=.25 and .24, EMPM=.24 and .22, before and after transformation).

Similarly, emotional stability distribution was moderately different from normal, hence I applied square root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989) however, this did not change the correlations between emotional stability and citizenship behaviour which remained significant at p < 0.01(.23 and .22 before and after transformation respectively). Also, there was no substantial difference in the correlation between emotional stability and affective commitment after transformation (.14 and .13). The distribution of both organisational citizenship behaviour variables, individually focused or organisationally focused, were moderately different from normal, hence I applied square root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Nevertheless, once more I did not find changes in the correlation matrix after transformation. Therefore, in all cases I decided to use non-transformed variables for further analysis.

Regarding the reliability analysis, I used Cronbach’s alpha coefficient which measures a variable’s internal consistency. Although its value can range between 0 and 1, according to Nunnally (1978), a minimum value of (.70) is expected for reliable results. Table 3.1 shows overall reliability among variables with only empowerment self-determination being just below the (.70) recommended. Nevertheless, being empowerment self-determination a sub-construct of empowerment with only three items and having an acceptable goodness of fit for the confirmatory factor analysis test, I decided to make no adjustments to it.
3.2 Correlations

Pearson product-moment correlation looks at the linear relationship between two variables. Table 3.2 presents the correlations for this research model (fig.1.1, p. 4). Overall, affective commitment was related to the distal and proximal variables. For example, affective commitment related to empowerment as a general construct, having significant correlation values with three of the four empowerment sub-dimensions. Affective commitment was also related to extraversion and emotional stability. In addition, affective commitment was significantly related to one of the citizenship behaviour constructs (OCBI), nevertheless its strongest association was with leader-member exchange \( r = .42, p < 0.01 \).

Similarly, organisation citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO) were related to most of the predictor variables. For instance, leader-member exchange and emotional stability appeared associated with behaviours directed to the organisation (OCBO) but not to individuals (OCBI) whereas extraversion had a significant correlation with OCBI. In the present study, the association between the two citizenship behaviour constructs was \( r = .37, p < 0.01 \) and both OCBI and OCBO had the strongest association with empowerment meaning. The correlation coefficients were \( (r = .37, p < 0.01) \) and \( (r = .43, p < 0.01) \) for OCBI and OCBO respectively. I will next examine the extent to which correlations results supported the hypotheses of the theoretical model.
Table 3.2 Pearson product-moment correlation for all variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>OCBI</th>
<th>OCBO</th>
<th>EMPM</th>
<th>EMPC</th>
<th>EMPS</th>
<th>EMPI</th>
<th>LMX</th>
<th>EXT</th>
<th>EMST</th>
<th>OPEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Affective Commitment (AC)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB Individual (OCBI)</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>OCB Organization (OCBO)</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowerment Meaning (EMPM)</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>.28**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Empowerment Self Determination (EMPS)</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>Empowerment Impact (EMPI)</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Extraversion (EXT)</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability (EMST)</td>
<td>.14**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to Experience (OPEN)</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.12*</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample size N = 282  ** p < 0.01 (1-tailed)  * p < 0.05 (1-tailed)
3.2.1 Personality and empowerment

Hypothesis 1 predicted that emotional stability would be positively related to each of the four sub-dimensions of empowerment: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. As predicted, affective commitment was moderately associated (p < 0.01) with all sub-dimensions: empowerment meaning (r = .23), competence (r = .22), self-determination (r = .22) and impact (r = .20). Therefore, H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d were supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that extraversion would be positively related to empowerment meaning, empowerment competence, empowerment self-determination and empowerment impact. As detailed in Table 3.2, extraversion positively related to empowerment meaning (r = .15), competence (r = .15) and impact (r = .16) being p < 0.01, and to empowerment self-determination (r = .11) at the 0.05 level (p < 0.05). Hence, H2a, H2b, H2c and H2d were also supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that openness to experience would be positively associated with each of the four empowerment dimensions. Correlation results showed in Table 3.2 supported only three of the four predicted relationships. Openness to experience was positively related to empowerment meaning (r = .17, p < 0.01) and to empowerment competence (r = .20, p < 0.01). It was also related to empowerment impact (r = .12, p < 0.05), however its association with empowerment self-determination was not significant. Consequently, H3a, H3b and H3d were supported but there was no support for H3c.

3.2.2 Empowerment and organisational outcomes

Affective commitment was positively associated (p < 0.01) with empowerment meaning (r = .24), self-determination (r = .25) and impact (r = .36). However, as shown in Table 3.2 there was no significant association between affective commitment and empowerment competence. Thus, H4, H6 and H7 were supported but H5 was not.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that empowerment meaning would have a positive association with both citizenship behaviours, behaviours targeted to individuals and behaviours targeted to the organisation. The correlation coefficients presented in Table 3.2 are (r = .37, p < 0.01) and (r = .43, p < 0.01) for OCBI and OCBO respectively. Thus, H8a and H8b were supported.
Hypothesis 9 predicted that empowerment competence would be positively related to both OCBI and OCBO. As predicted OCBI ($r = .28$, $p < 0.01$) and OCBO ($r = .31$, $p < 0.01$) related to empowerment competence, therefore H9a and H9b were both supported.

Hypothesis 10 and 11 predicted that OCBI and OCBO would both be positively associated with empowerment self-determination and empowerment impact. Table 3.2 shows that self-determination correlations coefficients with OCBI ($r = .13$, $p < 0.05$) and OCBO ($r = .10$, $p < 0.05$) were significant. Similarly, empowerment impact was associated with OCBI ($r = .24$, $p < 0.01$) and OCBO ($r = .15$, $p < 0.01$). Consequently, H10a, H10b, H11a and H11b were supported.

3.2.3 Leader-member exchange and organisational outcomes

Hypothesis 12 posited that the quality of the relationship between a subordinate and his/her supervisor (LMX) would predict affective commitment, citizenship behaviour individual and organisation. This hypothesis was partially supported as LMX was significantly correlated with affective commitment ($r = .42$, $p < 0.01$) and OCBO ($r = .11$, $p < 0.05$) but it was not significantly related to OCBI ($r = .04$). Thus, H12a and H12c were supported whereas H12b was not.

3.2.4 Leader-member exchange and empowerment

Hypothesis 13a stated that perceptions of leader-member exchange would be positively related to empowerment self-determination whereas H13b predicted a positive relationship between LMX and empowerment impact. Based on the data showed on Table 3.2, we can confirm these predictions. The correlations for both hypotheses were statistically significant, H13a ($r = .27$, $p < 0.01$) and H13b ($r = .32$, $p < 0.01$). In sum, H13a and H13b were supported.

3.2.5 Personality and organisational outcomes

Hypothesis 17 predicted that extraversion would be positively related to a) affective commitment, b) organisational citizenship behaviour individual and c) organisational citizenship behaviour organisation. As predicted extraversion related to affective commitment ($r = .11$, $p < 0.05$) and to OCBI ($r = .17$, $p < 0.01$), however extraversion was not significantly related to OCBO ($r = .07$). Therefore, H17 was partially supported.
Hypothesis 18 stated that emotional stability would be positively associated with affective commitment and both citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO). The correlation coefficients were statistically significant for affective commitment \( r = 14, p < 0.01 \) and citizenship behaviour organisation \( r = .23, p < 0.01 \) but there was no significant relationship between emotional stability and citizenship behaviour individual \( r = .06 \). Thus, H18a and H18c were supported but no support was found for H18b.

Hypothesis 19 posited a positive association between openness to experience and both citizenship behaviours, OCBI and OCBO Table 3.2 shows that openness to experience correlated to citizenship behaviours targeted towards individuals \( r = .17, p < 0.01 \) and to citizenship behaviour targeted to the organisation \( r = .11, p = 0.05 \). Hence, as predicted, H19a and H19b were supported.

3.3 Regressions

Regression analysis was undertaken to examine the relative contribution of the distal and proximal variables in predicting affective commitment, OCBI and OCBO. In addition, the combined contribution that the three personality factors may have on the empowerment dimensions was also explored. To do this, I run regressions combining extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience as predictor variables for each of the four empowerment dimensions. The next step was to run a regression combining proximal and distal variables to determine their relative contribution to a) affective commitment, b) citizenship behaviour (individual) and c) citizenship behaviour (organisation).

Table 3.3 shows the regression equation results for extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience for each of the empowerment dimensions. As expected, emotional stability and openness to experience were both significant predictors of empowerment meaning and empowerment competence, whereas extraversion did not contribute significantly to these dimensions as I hypothesized. Moreover, emotional stability was also a significant predictor of empowerment self determination and empowerment impact with beta weight of .24 and .19 respectively. However, the contribution of extraversion and openness to experience to EMPS and EMPI was not significant which was unexpected considering that the correlations \( r \) values were statistically significant. In combination this set of personality variables accounted for 7% of the variance in
EMPM, 8% of the variance in EMPC, 6% of the variance in EMPS and 5% of the variance in EMPI.

Table 3.3 Regression of empowerment dimensions on personality variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>3.36**</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>3.11*</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>4.08**</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>3.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to Experience</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>2.89*</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>3.34**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>F</td>
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<td>6.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05.

Next, distal and proximal variables were simultaneously regressed to determine their significance in predicting affective commitment and the results are shown in Table 3.4. Confirming H4, H5, H7 and H12a, three dimensions of empowerment (meaning, competence and impact) and leader member exchange were all significant predictors of affective commitment but none of the personality variables displayed significant beta weights. The beta weights for the empowerment dimensions were EMPM (.23), EMPC (-.18), EMPI (.22) and LMX (.32). Although the r coefficients for empowerment self determination, extraversion and emotional stability were significant, surprisingly their relative contribution (beta value) was not. In combination the set of predictors explained 26% of the variance in affective commitment.
Table 3.4 Regression of affective commitment on all predictor variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leader member exchange</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>5.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to experience</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment meaning</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>3.77**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment competence</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-2.90*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment self determination</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment impact</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>3.69**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05  
Adjusted R Square .26  
F = 13.61**  
df = 8,273

Table 3.5 shows the results of the equation regression for all predictors with citizenship behaviours targeted to individuals (OCBI). Empowerment meaning and empowerment impact were the only two variables that significantly contributed to OCBI with beta values of .33 and .17 respectively. Surprisingly, empowerment competence and self determination beta values were not significant despite having a statistically significant \( r \) values (table 3.2). Extraversion and openness to experience had significant \( r \) values (table 3.2), however when they were regressed simultaneously with the other predictors their beta values (table 3.5) were not statistically significant. Contrary to H18b predictions, emotional stability’s relative contribution to OCBI was non significant. Nevertheless, this was somehow expected based on that its \( r \) value (table 3.2) was not significant either. Similarly, LMX did not have a significant association (table 3.2) with OCBI and the beta value shown in Table 3.5 was also non significant. Again, the personality variables did not figure, nor EMPS. In combination the set of predictors explained 16% of the variance in organisation citizenship behaviour targeted to individuals.
Table 3.5  Regression of OCBI on all predictor variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leader member exchange</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>1.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to experience</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment meaning</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>5.96**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment competence</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment self determination</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment impact</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>3.08*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05  
Adjusted R Square .16  
F = 27.16** df = 2,279

Finally, I run a regression of citizenship behaviours targeted to the organisation (OCBO) on all predictor variables. Once more, the purpose was to examine the relative contribution of these predictor variables to OCBO. As illustrated bellow on table 3.6, among the three personality factors emotional stability was the only one with a significant beta value (2.51, p = .05) and of the four empowerment dimensions only empowerment meaning remained as a strong predictor with a beta value of 7.27 (p = .01). The results related to the empowerment dimensions were somehow unexpected because the four dimensions showed to have a significant $r$ coefficient (see table 3.2). In addition, LMX and openness to experience had both a significant $r$ value however table 3.6 showed that neither of them had a statistically significant beta value. In combination the set of predictors explained 20% of the variance in citizenship behaviours directed to the organisation.
Table 3.6 Regression of OCBO on all predictor variables

<table>
<thead>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Extraversion</td>
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<td>-.37</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
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<td>2.51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to experience</td>
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<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment meaning</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>7.27**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment competence</td>
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<td>1.59</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowerment self determination</td>
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<td>-.71</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowerment impact</td>
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<td>.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05       Adjusted R Square .20      F = 35.74**   df = 2,279

3.4 Mediation effects

The last section of this chapter aims to explain the results for the mediation regression equations. Figure 3.1 illustrates the mediation model (Baron & Kenny, 1986) used in the present study which has been already discussed (Chapter 1, p. 24).

Figure 3.1 Path diagram of mediation effect

I have also outlined (on page 24), the four mediation conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) which must be met in order to conclude the existence of a mediation relationship between the predictor and criterion. To test whether or not these conditions are met there are three regression equations that must be run. First, the mediator variable (empowerment) is regressed onto the predictor variable (e.g. LMX). Secondly, the criterion variable (e.g. affective commitment) is regressed onto the predictor variable (LMX). Thirdly, the criterion variable
(affective commitment) is simultaneously regressed with the predictor (LMX) and the mediator (empowerment) variable.

Moreover, the mediation relationship could be full or partial. Full mediation is achieved when the predictor influences the criterion through the mediator; this is, when the predictor’s (LMX) beta value is significant in the second equation but not significant in equation three. If the predictor’s beta value is significant in equation two and also in equation three, partial mediation could be confirmed when the beta for the predictor is greater in equation two than in equation three. Once the existence of a mediation effect is confirmed, the Sobel test is applied to verify the significance of such mediation.

**Empowerment self determination**

*Hypothesis 14a* stated, that the positive association between LMX and affective commitment would be mediated by empowerment self determination. Table 3.7 shows the results of the three equation regressions. The first equation showed that empowerment self determination had a significant association with predictor LMX. The second equation (step 2) where the criterion variable (affective commitment) was regressed on leader-member exchange also presented a significant relationship between the predictor and the criterion. In the third step, affective commitment was regressed simultaneously on leader-member exchange and empowerment self determination. Results yielded significant relationships between affective commitment and both empowerment self determination (mediator) and leader member exchange (predictor). This indicated that the first three conditions for mediation stated by Baron and Kenny were met. Regarding the fourth condition, Beta values for LMX decreased from step 2 to step 3 which indicated that the contribution of the predictor variable to affective commitment, although still significant, decreased when the mediator (empowerment self determination) was present in the regression.
Table 3.7 Mediation effects of empowerment self determination (EMPS) between Leader-member exchange (LMX) and affective commitment (AC).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>EMPS</td>
<td>LMX</td>
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<td>4.647*</td>
<td>.072*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>7.735*</td>
<td>.176*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td>6.827*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>EMPS</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>2.633*</td>
<td>.196*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sobel test $z = 2.28$ p < .05

Based on these results empowerment self determination showed partial mediation effects between LMX and affective commitment. Furthermore, to establish whether or not the partial mediation was significant I run the Sobel test which showed significant mediation (table 3.7). Therefore, the results supported Hypothesis 14a.

Furthermore, H15a and H16a stated that the positive association between LMX and citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO respectively) would be mediated by empowerment self determination. In both cases, the first equation regression showed a significant relationship between the predictor (LMX) and the mediator (EMPS), thus the first mediation condition was met. Regarding empowerment mediation effect between LMX and OCBI when the criterion (OCBI) was regressed on LMX (predictor) the result yielded a statistically non significant relationship which was expected as the $r$ value (table 3.2) was also non significant. Hence, the second mediation condition was unmet and I concluded that empowerment self determination did not mediate the relationship between LMX and OCBI. Moreover, regarding mediation effect that EMPS may have between LMX and OCBO, the results of the second regression equation were also statistically non significant and this was surprising because LMX and OCBO were significantly correlated (see table 3.2). Consequently, the second mediation condition was not met, thus results shown that empowerment self determination did not mediate the relationship between LMX and OCBO. In summary, no support was found for Hypotheses 15a or 16a.
Empowerment impact

Hypothesis 14b stated that the positive association between LMX and affective commitment would be mediated by empowerment impact. Table 3.8 below illustrates the results of the three equation regressions. The first equation showed that empowerment impact had a significant positive association with the predictor LMX. The second equation where the criterion variable (affective commitment) was regressed on leader-member exchange also presents a significant relationship between the predictor and the criterion. In the third step, affective commitment was regressed simultaneously on leader-member exchange and empowerment impact.

Table 3.8 Mediation effects of empowerment impact (EMPI) between leader-member exchange (LMX) and affective commitment (AC).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>EMPI</td>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>5.591*</td>
<td>.100*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>7.735*</td>
<td>.176*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>6.150*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>EMPI</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>4.543*</td>
<td>.233*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sobel test $z = 3.53$ p < .05

Results yielded significant relationships between affective commitment and both empowerment impact (mediator) and leader member exchange (predictor). This indicated that the first three conditions for mediation postulated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were met. Regarding the fourth condition, Beta values for LMX decreased from step 2 (.42) to step 3 (.34) which indicated that the contribution of the predictor variable (LMX) on affective commitment (criterion), although still significant, decreased when the mediator (empowerment impact) was present in the regression. Based on these results, empowerment impact showed partial mediation effects between LMX and affective commitment. Furthermore, the Sobel test yielded a significant mediation effect (table 3.8). Hence, H14 b was supported.

Finally, hypothesis 15b and 16b stated that the positive association between LMX and citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO respectively), would...
be mediated by empowerment impact. In both cases, the first equation regression showed a significant relationship between the predictor (LMX) and the mediator (EMPI), thus the first mediation condition was met. Nevertheless, the second mediation regression equation would involve the criterion (OCBI or OCBO) to be regressed on the predictor (LMX), and as explained before (page 13) when OCBI and OCBO were regressed on LMX their beta values were non significant. Hence, the second condition of mediation was unmet in both cases and H15b and H16b were not supported.

**Summary**

This section has examined the correlations between LMX, personality (extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience), the four dimensions of empowerment and the criterion variables (affective commitment, citizenship behaviours targeted towards individuals and behaviours targeted towards organisations). Furthermore, this research has also investigated the extent to which empowerment would mediate the positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment, OCBI and OCBO. It was found that two of the empowerment dimensions (self determination and impact) would mediate the relationship between LMX and affective commitment; however empowerment appears to have no mediation effects between LMX and OCB. I will further discuss these results and the implications for future research in Chapter 4.
Chapter Four: Discussion

The purpose of this thesis was to explore a model of affective commitment and citizenship behaviours in a New Zealand context. Specifically, I examined the extent to which leader-member exchange (LMX), personality and empowerment were related to affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours in a sample of health professionals in the Waikato region. The strength of this research was two fold. First, it examined the relationship between extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience and employees’ psychological empowerment. Second, it provided with further understanding of empowerment dimensions and tested the mediation effects of empowerment between LMX and organisational outcomes such as affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours. Overall, the results supported previous studies regarding the positive association of LMX and empowerment, with affective commitment and citizenship behaviours.

The present chapter will be divided in four sections. The first section will discuss findings regarding (a) the relationship between affective commitment and the predictor variables (LMX, empowerment and personality factors), and the mediation effects that two of the empowerment dimensions (self determination and impact) have between LMX and affective commitment; (b) the relationship between citizenship behaviours and the predictor variables; (c) the positive association between three personality factors (extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience) and the four empowerment dimensions (meaning, competence, self determination and impact). Section two will cover the strengths and limitations of this research, whereas section three will discuss practical implications and future research. Finally, section four presents the conclusions drawn from the findings.

4.1 Relationships between criterion and predictor variables

The relationship between affective commitment and the predictor variables

The relationship between affective commitment and LMX, empowerment (four dimensions) and two of the three personality factors (extraversion and emotional stability) was expected to be significant and positive. In the present sample, LMX, extraversion, emotional stability and three dimensions of empowerment (meaning, self determination and impact) were significantly
correlated with affective commitment however the association of empowerment competence with affective commitment was not statistically significant.

As stated earlier, the competence dimension of empowerment refers to an individual’s perception of his/her own ability to perform a task successfully (Spreitzer et al., 1997). When an employee is provided with appropriate training by the organisation, employee’s perception of competence increases (Cunningham et al., 1996) as well as the employee’s affective commitment (Walton, 1985; Wayne et al., 1997). According to this rationale, and based on social exchange theory (Settoon et al., 1996), I speculated that organisations who facilitate empowerment competence would in turn promote feelings of reciprocity in their employees who were likely to return the ‘favour’ by committing to the organisation. This rationale was also supported by previous research evidence of the association between empowerment and affective commitment (Liu et al., 2007; McDermott et al., 1996). Nevertheless, findings in this study showed mixed results. On one hand, empowerment meaning, self determination and impact were related to empowerment competence and they were also positively related to affective commitment. In addition, empowerment meaning, self determination and impact were predictors of affective commitment, thus I expected empowerment competence to be also positively related to affective commitment. However, results showed that empowerment competence was not related to employees’ affective commitment.

On the other hand, when empowerment competence was entered into the regression equation it appeared to be a predictor of affective commitment. Therefore, these results seem to indicate that suppression effects may have occurred (Smith, Ager, & Williams, 1992), nevertheless further exploration would be required. Overall, this study provides evidence supporting the positive association between empowerment and affective commitment. It suggests that when employees are helped to reach their potential and when they are given authority to make decisions around their job, they tend to reciprocate with feelings of commitment towards the organisation. Nevertheless, future research should explore more in depth the relationship among the four dimensions of empowerment and affective commitment in order to provide further explanations regarding the predicting value of empowerment competence.
Leader-member exchange (LMX) refers to the quality of the relationship between a leader and his/her subordinate. As explained earlier, LMX should be based on trust, respect and partnership (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Results in the present study confirm previous evidence associating LMX and affective commitment. LMX has also proved to be a strong predictor of affective commitment, hence this research suggests that when employees are treated with respect and their relationship with their immediate supervisor is one of partnership, employees’ desire to stay in the organisation increases as they perceive that their expectations are met. In other words, relationships based on respect, trust and partnership, promote a sense of obligation and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) which in turn increases employees’ affective commitment to the organisation.

Also, as expected extraversion and emotional stability were positively related to affective commitment. As suggested by Erdheim et al. (2006), people low in emotional stability (high in neuroticism) tend to experience ‘negative affect’ which in turn would lead to low affective commitment, hence people high in emotional stability is expected to experience higher levels of affective commitment. Extraversion has also been associated to ‘positive affect’ and the latter relates with affective commitment (Erdheim et al., 2006), thus it is sensible to speculate that extraverts are likely to display affective commitment to the organisation. These results also build upon previous findings associating extraversion and emotional stability with affective commitment (Gelade et al., 2006).

Nevertheless, when emotional stability and extraversion were entered into the regression equation with other predictors their contribution was not significant, thus extraversion and emotional stability did not predict affective commitment. An explanation for this could be that although personality may relate to affective commitment, suggesting that individuals with high levels of extraversion and emotional stability are more likely to display affective commitment, when other factors such as empowerment and LMX are included, the contribution of such personality traits is not relevant.

In summary, the above results support previous evidence associating organisation empowerment practices and commitment (Liu et al., 2007; McDermott et al., 1996; Walton, 1985) and leader-member exchange and commitment (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Schriesheim et al., 2000). Moreover,
this research suggests that organisations should consider recruiting employees who present moderate to high levels of extraversion and emotional stability because they are more likely to display affective commitment compared to those employees with low levels of such personality factors.

**Mediated relationships**

As previously mentioned, there is evidence supporting a relationship between LMX and empowerment (Lee & Koh, 2001), and a study done by Epitropaki and Martin (2005) provided evidence supporting a positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment. Therefore I further hypothesised that the positive association between LMX and affective commitment was going to be mediated by empowerment self determination and empowerment impact. The results of this study found both mediations to be partial and significant.

This research also predicted that the positive relationship between LMX and both OCBI and OCBO would be mediated by empowerment self determination and empowerment impact. Because in the present sample LMX was not correlated with OCBI, which is a precondition for the mediation to occur, no test of the mediation effect of empowerment between LMX and OCBI was carried out. Furthermore, LMX was associated with OCBO but when LMX was entered into a regression with OCBO it was not significant. This could be explained by the fact that the association between LMX and OCBO was marginal (r=.11), hence when LMX was entered into a regression the result became marginally not significant. Therefore, the second condition for mediation to occur (Baron & Kenny, 1986) was not met in this study and consequently no support for empowerment mediation effects between LMX and OCBO was found.

**The relationship between citizenship behaviours and the predictor variables**

The present research predicted that LMX would have a positive relationship with OCBI and OCBO. As explained before, when the LMX relationship is of good quality, this is, it is based on respect, trust and partnership between employee and leader, employees feel a sense of reciprocity and obligation (Gouldner, 1960). I expected that this sense of obligation and reciprocity would lead employees to work beyond their work description and to go the extra mile. Citizenship behaviour targeted to the individual refers to those extra role activities that would directly affect work colleagues such as helping someone who has been absent or whose workload is high. Surprisingly, in the
present study LMX did not correlate with OCBI as expected. An explanation for this could be that although LMX may foster a sense of reciprocation on employees, this may only be directed to the leader in the LMX equation but it does not extend towards other co-workers. Another explanation could be that although this sense of reciprocation may actually be extended to work colleagues, in the present sample there may have been other factors-specific to each of those working relationships such as communication issues or peer rivalry- that may have prevented the employee from displaying OCBI.

On the other hand, citizenship behaviours targeted to the organisation (OCBO) refer to extra role activities such as attending meetings that are not mandatory but they are important for the organisation. In the present sample and as expected, LMX showed to be positively related with OCBO, however LMX did not predict OCBO when entered into a regression equation with the other predictors. These results suggest that although the quality of the relationship between employee and supervisor (LMX) may foster a sense of obligation and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) which eventually would lead employees to work beyond their work description, in the present sample there were other factors such as empowerment and emotional stability whose contribution to OCBO was more influential than LMX contribution.

The three personality factors, extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience were also predicted to be positively related with OCBI and OCBO. As expected, extraversion and openness to experience were both positively associated with OCBI, however emotional stability was not. Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo (2006) found emotional stability directly related to citizenship behaviour; nevertheless, their study treated OCB as one construct and did not differentiate between behaviour targeted towards individuals and behaviours targeted towards the organisation. In the present sample, emotional stability did relate with OCBO, thus overall, this research supported Sackett et al. findings. An alternative explanation could be that as with LMX results there were other factors affecting the relationship among co-workers which may have overridden the predictor power that emotional stability may have had on OCBI behaviours. In the present study, extraversion appeared to be a stronger contributor to OCBI over emotional stability and a reason for this could be that although both extraversion and emotional stability represent positive emotions...
(DeNeve & Cooper, 1998), extraversion also represents a person’s ability to socialize and get involved in groups which is of high importance in order to display OCBI.

Regarding the association between extraversion and OCBO, contrary to what I expected extraversion was not significantly related with OCBO. As mentioned before, although Sackett et al (2006) reported extraversion to relate to organisational citizenship behaviours, they did not specify whether extraversion would relate with both OCBs sub-constructs (OCBI and OCBO) or it would related to only one of them (e.g. OCBI). Another explanation for this result would be that proposed by Organ and Ryan (1995), who suggested that positive affectivity (extraversion) may predispose people to certain orientations and those orientations are likely to increase individuals’ perceptions of the affect of the work situation which in turn would indirectly contribute to OCB. In short, they suggested that personality has an indirect rather than direct effect on citizenship behaviours.

Openness to experience refers to the willingness and ability a person has to learn new things, and to accept new challenges. It also refers to a person’s ability to adapt to new situations and learn from experience (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Moreover, Guthrie, Coate and Schwoerer (1998), reported that people with high openness to experience are inclined to build developmental relationships inside the organisation and Ployhart, Lim and Chan (2001) stated that people with high openness to experience would motivate and inspire co-workers by creating a sense of team work and shared goals. Confirming the present study’s predictions, openness to experience was positively related with OCBO, thus this research suggests that employees who are high in openness to experience are more likely to engage in citizenship behaviours than those employees who are low in this personality factor.

Surprisingly, despite that all three personality factors examined in the present study were associated with citizenship behaviours (individual and /or organisation), none of them predicted OCBI and only emotional stability proved to be a significant predictor of OCBO. Specifically, when OCBI was regressed on all predictor variables, nor extraversion or emotional stability neither openness to experience showed a significant contribution to OCBI, and when OCBO was regressed on all predictors, emotional stability was the only personality variable
that showed to have a predictive value. This findings suggest that the predictive power of personality factors over citizenship behaviours is relative to situational factors such us empowerment and LMX.

Empowerment showed to be the most consistent predictor of citizenship behaviours among all predictor variables. As predicted in this study, all four dimensions of empowerment were positively associated with both OCBI and OCBO. Furthermore, empowerment meaning showed to be the strongest predictor of citizenship behaviour, predicting both behaviours targeted to individuals and behaviours targeted to the organisation, whereas empowerment impact was a strong predictor of OCBI. These findings support previous evidence for the positive association between empowerment and citizenship behaviours (Bogler & Somech, 2005; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), suggesting that when employees are trusted in the job they do, and they are given the opportunity to make changes that affect their work, they are motivated to work above and beyond their job description.

In summary, the above results suggest that when predicting citizenship behaviours, organisations should consider the influence that these personality factors and the quality of the relationship between supervisors and subordinates may have, however empowering individuals proved to be the most consistent and effective way to promote and increase organisational citizenship behaviours (individual and organisation).

The association between personality factors and empowerment dimensions

This study proposed that emotional stability, extraversion and openness to experience would have a positive association with each of the four dimensions of empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact). As explained in Chapter three, results have partially confirmed these hypotheses. For instance, emotional stability and extraversion were significantly and positively related to each of the four empowerment dimensions, however openness to experience was correlated with meaning, competence and impact but there was no significant correlation between openness to experience and empowerment self determination (EMPS).

Empowerment self determination refers to the degree of authority an employee has to make decisions around his/her job, thus I speculated that EMPS would be related to employee’s willingness to take up more responsibility, face
new challenges and be creative, which is the core of openness to experience. However, at least in this sample, openness to experience was not significantly associated with empowerment self determination and this could be explained by understanding that there may be organisational factors affecting this result. For example, organisation policies and managerial practices regarding task procedures could override or limit an individual’s ability and willingness to decide how to go about their job. This explanation underlies the notion that feelings of empowerment are specific to the work place (Spreitzer, 1995) rather than global as defined by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). In the present sample, openness to experience was found to be positively related to empowerment impact and to predict both empowerment meaning and empowerment competence. Nevertheless, as far as I am aware there are no previous studies linking openness to experience with empowerment dimensions, thus further exploration on this matter is required to explain this outcome.

Extraversion implies seeking out exciting new situations and challenging activities (Bauer et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1997) thus, I speculated that extraverts would be likely to take new responsibilities and embrace authority opportunities in terms of how to go about their job. Consequently, I predicted that extraversion would be positively related to empowerment. As expected, extraversion was positively associated with the four dimensions of empowerment but when entered into a regression equation with the other personality factors, extraversion’s contribution to empowerment was not significant and thus extraversion was not a predictor of empowerment. An explanation for this could be that the ability to embrace change and face challenges, and as well as the ability to learn new tasks (which are at the core of emotional stability and openness to experience respectively), may be stronger contributors to empowerment compared to the ability to socialize represented by extraversion.

Furthermore, it was expected that emotionally stable people would be more likely to successfully embrace empowerment (coping with changes, developing new skills, taking on further responsibilities) and as predicted, in the present study emotional stability was found to predict the four dimensions of empowerment.

In sum, this research expanded on Thomas and Velthouse (1990) findings regarding the effects that “individual interpretative styles” (pp. 668-669) may
have on employees’ perception of empowerment. Moreover, this study has also built upon previous evidence suggesting that individual differences may affect people’s tendency to feel motivated by empowerment (Ford et al., 1995). Specifically, this research suggests that emotional stability is the most consistent and strongest predictor of empowerment (predicting each of the four dimensions), followed by openness to experience, which is a strong predictor of both empowerment meaning and competence. Overall, the theoretical model proposed and tested in this study, has been supported by the findings. The present research model has also open new venues for further investigation and I hope that the results which at times may be perceived as challenging would be a source for constructive discussion.

4.2 Strengths and limitations

The present study had a number of strengths. For instance, it was done in New Zealand and with a New Zealand sample, thus it provides New Zealand organisations with current and valuable information regarding personnel motivation, employees’ affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours in the New Zealand context. Also, males and females were almost equally represented in this sample, thus, results can be generalized across gender. In addition, this research builds upon previous studies on personnel selection, training and job-redesign by exploring further the role that personality, LMX and empowerment might have in the design of managerial strategies aiming to increase organisational performance in the current economy. Moreover, by focusing on affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours targeted to both individuals and the organisation results provide managers, researchers and OD practitioners with specific information regarding the sources of both organisational commitment and citizenship behaviours. In addition these results would allow organisations to further understand what motivates their employees and the extent to which employees’ personality factors may influence their motivation. Previous to this study, evidence regarding the association between affective commitment and extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience was limited. Also, up to now results associating personality and OCBs were mixed, therefore this study has given another perspective on the relationship between three of the Big Five personality factors (extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience) and both affective commitment
and citizenship behaviours. Specifically, this study contributed to this body of knowledge by pointing out that extraversion and emotional stability are indeed related with affective commitment. Moreover, this research posited that extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience are associated with citizenship behaviours (OCBI and/or OCBO), and emotional stability is a strong predictor of OCBO, hence it provided evidence for the association between personality and both affective commitment and citizenship behaviours.

Furthermore, this research has investigated the relationship between citizenship behaviours and empowerment, providing with novel information regarding the extent to which citizenship behaviour targeted to individuals and citizenship behaviours targeted to the organisation can be enhanced through each of the four empowerment dimensions. Previous research suggested that empowerment would be partly determined by the different interpretations individuals make around causes of their task performance (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). However, as far as I know there was no evidence of previous research linking extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience with each of the four empowerment dimensions. Thus, the present study has contributed to empowerment literature by further investigating its association with extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience.

In addition, results of this research have also enriched LMX literature by explaining its relationship with empowerment and specifically by investigating the extent to which empowerment self determination and empowerment impact would mediate the relationship of LMX with affective commitment.

Regarding the limitations of the present research, it has to be noted that this study was of cross-sectional nature, thus the results cannot be interpreted as definitive causal relationships between variables. In addition, the data were all collected via a self-report questionnaire, thus common method variance may have influenced the responses. Common method variance is defined by Avolio, Yammarino and Bass (1991) as “the overlap in variance between two variables attributable to the type of measurement instrument used rather than due to a relationship between the underlying constructs” (p. 572). Therefore, one could argue that the relationships resulting from the present study may have been affected by the type of instrument used. Nevertheless, since this study investigated employees’ perceptions it required by nature the use of self-report measures.
Finally, the sample in this research was from the public health sector, therefore it might be arguable the degree to which results could be generalized to the private sector and/or other fields. However, as far as this study has supported previous evidence based on companies in diverse fields (Liu et al., 2007; Walton, 1985), it is likely that results are indeed generalizable across industries.

4.3 Practical implications and future research

Results of this research suggested that instituting programs that create individual’s belief in empowerment would most likely increase affective commitment and citizenship behaviours. It also confirmed that the relationship between manager and employee has a significant role in the success of this process. Therefore, fostering employees’ motivation would lead them to display affective commitment and to ‘go the extra mile’, however this would require changes in the way employees are managed. Employee empowerment can only be successful if the relationship between leader and subordinate is one of trust, respect and partnership. This study found that the more respected and trusted by his/her supervisor an employee feels, the more empowered he/she would feel. When supervisors trust and respect their employees, they are likely to allow their employees to make decisions on how to go about their job. They are also likely to consider employees’ ideas and take action upon them which would increase employees’ perception of self determination and impact. This in turn would reinforce the affective attachment that the employees display for the organisation. Therefore, Organisations have to provide procedures and policies that support empowered employees and train managers to be facilitators and help employees to reach their potential rather than to direct and micromanage.

Moreover, employees should be provided with training in order to develop new skills and enhance their competence, which will allow them to take on more responsibilities and perform effectively. Also organisations have to decide the extent to which they want empowered employees, who should be empowered if not all and how much. Re-assessing employees’ rewards is another task for managers, as empowered employees would work more and have greater responsibilities, managers should consider the extent to which it would be fair and feasible for employees to receive a salary increase or additional benefits that reflect those changes. In other words, do empowered employees deserve more pay? What additional benefits should they receive? Some employees may feel their job
is threatened - as a result of organisation’s empowerment strategies leading to job re-design - hence organisations will also have to consider employment assurances. Simply put, organisations have to manage employees’ fears by providing clear and honest feedback on what is expected to happen and how is going to be achieved. Unless organisation’s practices reflect clearly the organisation’s vision and goals, employees are unlikely to understand their mission and achieve the expected outcomes.

Regarding the association between personality, affective commitment and OCBs, this research suggests that organisations should consider recruiting employees who present moderate to high levels of extraversion and emotional stability because they are more likely to display affective commitment compared to those employees with low levels of such personality factors. Moreover, emotionally stable people are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviours compare to those with low levels of emotional stability, thus this research provides valuable information to be considered by organisations when selecting potential incumbents and when planning effective training programs. With this regard, the selection literature suggests that conscientiousness is the personality variable most strongly linked with performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997), thus this study’s findings are perhaps controversial and suggestions for future research will be discussed below. Nevertheless, although the correlations found in the present study are not high, results suggest that emotional stability and openness to experience are two additional personality factors that should be sought after by organisations embracing empowerment strategies.

Future research

As previously mentioned, this study was of cross-sectional nature, thus future research based on a longitudinal research design could be of immense value in order to confirm the impact that LMX, personality and empowerment may have on affective commitment and citizenship behaviours. As stated earlier, results regarding extraversion and emotional stability associations with affective commitment and citizenship behaviour might be controversial for researchers in the selection field. Nevertheless, there is evidence associating extraversion and emotional stability with high performers and with differential performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Burch & Anderson, 2007). In other words, extraversion
and emotional stability have been found to relate with high performance in managerial and sales roles (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Kroeck & Brown, 2004b). Consequently, further investigation of the relationship that extraversion and emotional stability have with affective commitment, citizenship behaviours and performance would be of high value. Also, examination of variables that may moderate the above relationships is highly recommended.

This research contributed to the area of empowerment and its association with affective commitment and citizenship behaviours. Specifically, it provided further understanding of the four empowerment sub-dimensions and the degree to which each of them would predict affective commitment and OCBs. Nevertheless, results regarding empowerment competence association with affective commitment suggested that suppression effects may have occurred (Smith et al., 1992), hence further research exploring this association is needed. Furthermore, as far as I know this is the first study providing evidence for the association between openness to experience and empowerment, hence further research in this area is recommended.

In regard to organisational citizenship behaviours, results of this study suggested that the two sub-constructs (OCBI and OCBO) are predicted by different variables and that there might be other factors affecting the association that each of the OCBs dimensions has with LMX, personality and empowerment. Therefore, deeper investigation needs to take place in order to explain the degree to which mediating and/or moderating factors may be present.

4.4 Conclusions

To sustain the economy in this changing world, organisations have to consider new strategies and policies which would include fostering employee empowerment, partnership, relationships based on trust, respect and obligation, work and rewards redesign. As organisations struggle to deliver the same competitive level of quality products and services with fewer resources, managers are challenged to find new ways to motivate employees to perform beyond expectations and to also retain those skills. The present study aimed to answer the question of ‘what and how’ to motivate employees and increase their levels of commitment and citizenship behaviours by examining the role that empowerment and leader-member exchange have on affective commitment and citizenship behaviour towards individuals and organisations. It further investigated the extent
to which individual differences might affect employees’ feelings of empowerment and their willingness to invest in the organisation.

Results provided evidence of empowerment as the most consistent predictor of affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours (individuals and organisation). Moreover, this research supported previous studies by finding positive associations between LMX and empowerment and LMX and OCB. More specifically, LMX and empowerment showed to be predictors of affective commitment, whereas empowerment meaning and empowerment impact predicted OCBI and empowerment meaning and emotional stability were strong predictors of OCBO.

This study found a positive association between personality, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours, and most importantly contributed with new evidence regarding the relationship between personality and empowerment. In summary, the findings of this study have implications for researchers and organisations. It provides valuable information on how to increase employee’s affective commitment and extra role behaviours by adjusting organisation’s structures and policies and fostering employees’ perception of empowerment.

*Workers respond best-and most creatively-not when they are tightly controlled by management, placed in narrowly defined jobs, and treated like an unwelcome necessity, but instead, when they are given broader responsibilities, encouraged to contribute, and helped to take satisfaction in their work* (Walton, 1985, p. 77)
References


Appendix A

Study Informative Letter & Employee Questionnaire Cover Letter

Motivation and Engagement

The Waikato DHB is supporting a Masters student from the University of Waikato to carry out research into factors relating to current staff members motivation and engagement.

The study examines work environment factors such as fairness, support and training together with personality factors such as extroversion and openness to new experiences which impact on motivation and engagement. This study will help the DHB to understand your perceptions regarding what motivates and engages you. The results will be divided into the occupational groups outlined in the questionnaire so the DHB can target any interventions arising from this and other studies currently underway.

The questionnaire will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete and all raw data is strictly confidential to the Masters student and the University of Waikato. Individuals can not be identified in any way and your input is voluntary.

The number of returned surveys will be critical to the success of the project as the return rate greatly enhances the validity of the findings.

Please complete the attached questionnaire and return it within the next 10 days using the stamped envelope provided.

If you have any queries please contact: Yanahina at yr17@waikato.ac.nz or phone 027 222 3653.

This research is being supervised by Michael O’Driscoll, Professor of Psychology, University of Waikato.
Appendix B

Employee Questionnaire

1. Are you male ☐ or female ☐?

2. How old are you? _________

3. Ethnicity:
   ☐ NZ European/Pakeha
   ☐ Other European
   ☐ Maori
   ☐ Pacific Island
   ☐ Asian
   ☐ Latin American
   ☐ Other _____________ (please specify)

4. How long have you been working for the organisation? ____ Years ____ Months

5. Occupational Group:
   ☐ Consultant / Moss
   ☐ Radiographer / Sonographer / Radiation Therapist
   ☐ Psychologist
   ☐ Occupational Therapist
   ☐ Physiotherapist
   ☐ Dietician
   ☐ Technicians (other than Lab or Pharmacy)
   ☐ Pharmacist / Pharmacy Technician
   ☐ Laboratory technologist / technician / assistant
   ☐ Phlebotomist
6. How long have you been in your current profession? ___ Years ___ Months

I. This section asks you to describe how much autonomy there is in your job.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please tick the box at the right that best indicates your response to each question below.</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Very Occasionally</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Extremely often</th>
<th>Always</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To what extent do you have freedom to decide how to organize your work?</td>
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<td>2. To what extent do you have control over what happens on your job?</td>
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<td>3. To what extent does your job allow you to make a lot of your own decisions?</td>
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<td>4. To what extent are you assisted in making your own decisions?</td>
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II. This section looks at how fair you think things are at Waikato DHB and how much support you feel you receive from your immediate supervisor.

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<tr>
<th>Please tick the box at the right that best indicates whether you agree/disagree with the following statements.</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My work schedule is fair</td>
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<td>2. I think that my level of pay is fair</td>
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<td>3. I consider my workload to be quite fair</td>
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<td>4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair</td>
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<td>5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair</td>
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<td>6. Job decisions are made by management in an unbiased manner</td>
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<td>7. Management makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made</td>
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<td>8. To make formal job decisions, management collects accurate and complete information</td>
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<td>9. Management clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
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<td>10. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees</td>
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<td>11. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by management.</td>
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<td>12. When decisions are made about my job, management treats me with kindness and consideration</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. When decisions are made about my job, management treats me with respect and dignity</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. When decisions are made about my job, management is sensitive to my personal needs</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. When decisions are made about my job, management deals with me in a truthful manner</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. When decisions are made about my job, management shows concern for my rights as an employee</td>
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<td>17. Concerning decisions about my job, management discusses the implications of the decisions with me</td>
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<td>18. Management offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. When making decisions about my job, management offers explanations that make sense to me</td>
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<td>20. Management explains very clearly any decision made about my job</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. My immediate supervisor helps me solve work-related problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. My immediate supervisor encourages me to develop new skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. My immediate supervisor keep informed about how employees think and feel about things</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. My immediate supervisor encourages employees to speak up when they disagree with a decision</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. My immediate supervisor always seems to be around checking on my work</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. My immediate supervisor tells me what shall be done and how it shall be done</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Please tick the box at the right that best indicates whether you agree/disagree with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

27. My immediate supervisor never gives me a chance to make important decisions on my own

28. My immediate supervisor leaves it up to me to decide how to go about doing my job

III. This section looks at the extent to which you think Waikato DHB provides you with training and development opportunities.

Please tick the box at the right that best indicates whether you agree/disagree with the following two statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. In the positions that I have held at Waikato DHB, I have often been given additional challenging assignments.

2. In the positions that I have held at Waikato DHB, I have often been assigned projects that I have enabled me to develop and strengthen new skills.

Please tick the box at the right that best indicates your response to each question below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Extremely often</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. Besides formal training and development opportunities, to what extent have management helped to develop your skills by providing you with challenging job assignments?

4. Regardless of Waikato DHB policy on training and development, to what extent have management made a substantial investment in you by providing formal training and development opportunities?
IV. This section looks at the extent to which at Waikato DHB you have a sense of belonging and you feel motivated by the work you do.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please tick the box at the right that best indicates whether you agree/disagree with the following statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.</td>
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<td>2. I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own.</td>
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<td>3. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation.</td>
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<td>4. I do not feel “emotionally attached to this organisation.”</td>
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<td>5. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</td>
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<td>6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.</td>
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<td>7. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.</td>
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<td>8. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided wanted to leave my organisation now.</td>
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<td>9. Right now staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.</td>
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<td>10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.</td>
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<td>11. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.</td>
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<td>12. One of the mayor reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice- another organisation may not match the overall benefits that I have here.</td>
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<td>13. I help others who have been absent.</td>
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<td>14. I help others who have heavy work loads.</td>
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<td>15. I take a personal interest in other employees.</td>
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<td>16. I take time to listen to my co-workers problems and worries.</td>
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<td>17. I go out of my way to help new employees even though it is not required</td>
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<td>18. I pass along information to my co-workers.</td>
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<td>19. I attend meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important</td>
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<td>20. To me attendance at work is above the norm.</td>
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<td>21. I give advance notice when unable to come to work.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Please tick the box at the right that best indicates whether you agree/disagree with the following statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22. I take extra work breaks.</td>
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<td>23. I spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations.</td>
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<td>24. I complain about insignificant things at work.</td>
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<td>25. I conserve and protect organisational property.</td>
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<td>26. I obey Waikato DHB rules and regulations even when no one is watching</td>
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<td>27. The work I do is very important to me</td>
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<td>28. My job activities are personally meaningful to me</td>
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<td>29. The work I do is meaningful to me</td>
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<td>30. I am confident about my ability to do my job</td>
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<td>31. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities</td>
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<td>32. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job</td>
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<td>33. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job</td>
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<td>34. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work</td>
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<td>35. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job</td>
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<td>36. My impact on what happens in my department is large</td>
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<td>37. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department</td>
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<tr>
<td>38. I have significant influence over what happens in my department</td>
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V. This section examines how you perceive your relationship with your boss is and the extent to which you intend to leave your job.

Please tick the box at the right that best indicates your response to each question below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Very Occasionally</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Extremely Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Do you usually know how satisfied your boss is with the job you do?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Thoughts about quitting this job cross my mind</td>
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7
3. How well does your boss understand your job problems and needs?

4. How well does your leader recognize your potential?

5. I have enough confidence in my boss that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.

6. Regardless of the amount of formal authority my boss has he/she would “bail me out” at his/her expense.

7. Regardless of the amount of formal authority my boss has he/she would use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work.

8. My relationship with my boss is extremely effective.

9. I plan to look for a new job within the next 12 months.

10. How likely is it that, over the next year, you will actively look for a new job outside of Waikato DHB.

VI. Finally, this section looks at personal factors that could be related to people’s work preferences. Please think of yourself in a general way, as you generally are in all aspects of your life. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Describe yourself with honesty as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future or as you think people expect you to be.

Please read each statement carefully and tick the box at the right that best indicates how accurately each statement describes you.

1. I am the life of the party

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please read each statement carefully and tick the box at the right that best indicates how accurately each statement describes you.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. I get stressed out easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have a rich vocabulary</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. I don’t talk a lot</td>
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<td>5. I am relaxed most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. I feel comfortable around people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I worry about things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I have a vivid imagination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I keep in the background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I seldom feel blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am not interested in abstract ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I start conversations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I am easily disturbed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I have excellent ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I have little to say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I get upset easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I do not have a good imagination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I talk to a lot of different people at parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I change my mood a lot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I am quick to understand things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I don’t like to draw attention to myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I have frequent mood swings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I use difficult words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I don’t mind being the centre of attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I get irritated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please read each statement carefully and tick the box at the right that best indicates how accurately each statement describes you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I spend time reflecting on things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I am quiet around strangers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I often feel blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I am full of ideas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY.
Please check to ensure that you have responded to each question, then post your complete questionnaire by Thursday 31st January 2008.