

**EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOMES: THE
MEDIATING ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT**

By

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**EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOMES: THE
MEDIATING ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT**

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for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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STATEMENT

The work contained in this thesis entitled “Empowering Leadership and Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment” has been carried out by me under the supervision of Professor Nachiketa Tripathi, Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India. This work has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree.

Guwahati
November, 2018

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the work contained in the thesis entitled “Empowering Leadership and Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment” by **Ms. Manaswita Bharadwaja** (Roll No. 126141012), a student in the Department of Humanities & Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy was carried out under my supervision. The results embodied in the thesis have not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree or diploma.

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As I sit down to write this acknowledgement and reflect on my journey towards completing this doctoral dissertation, I am experiencing mixed emotions. As delighted I am, by the realization that the past few years of dedicated work is winding up to a meaningful outcome, yet there is slight trepidation as I am about to leave my comfort zone and explore new horizons beyond my extended student life. However, such is the way of life and I welcome it with positive anticipation.

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Manaswita Bharadwaja

Empowering Leadership and Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment

Synopsis

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Key commercial and technological factors have resulted into increased customer orientation and decentralized organizational structures (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2013). Organizations can yield successful results in this scenario by empowering their employees to take action and work for the collective interests of the organization without being micro-managed (O'Toole & Lawler, 2006). Although the concept of employee empowerment has initiated extensive research interest, it still remains a term that is ambiguous and confusing (Spreitzer, 2008). Researchers are concerned that empowerment might be construed differently across organizations (Lincoln et al., 2002). Also, organizational stakeholders (management and employees) might use their own frame of reference to interpret empowerment and thus, have varying expectations from it. Moreover, the socio-cultural values of the context in which an organization operates might affect the perception of empowerment. Furthermore, the endeavours to investigate the links between empowerment and employee and organizational effectiveness have resulted into mixed and inconsistent findings (Spreitzer, 2008). Hence, it is important to build an in-depth understanding of empowerment in terms of its nature, the factors that influence it and the consequences associated with it. In doing so, one needs to take into consideration the context in which the empowerment practices are embedded into.

Based on the underlying thrust, two distinct but interrelated conceptualizations on empowerment at work have emerged in the academic

literature over the last three decades: the social-structural approach and the psychological approach (Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003; Menon, 2001; Liden & Arad, 1996; Spreitzer, 1995). The social-structural approach construes empowerment as sharing of power between managers and their employees (Menon, 2001) with the goal to facilitate transition of decision-making authority across the organizational chain of command (Liden & Arad, 1996). The focus of socio-structural approach is on those who do the empowering, not those who are being empowered. Hence, it includes empowering characteristics of systems and structures as well as the leaders who design and implement them (Spreitzer, 2008). Another distinct perspective of empowerment is the motivational approach to empowerment, i.e., psychological empowerment (PE). Spreitzer (1995), in line with the conceptualization put forward by Cogner and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990), defined PE as increased intrinsic motivation embodying a sense of control about one's work and an active orientation to one's work role. It is a form of intrinsic motivation manifested in four cognitions: meaning (value of work goal), competence (self-efficacy), self-determination (autonomy in initiation and continuation of work behaviours), and impact (influence on work outcomes) (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995). Empowering initiatives will have their intended effects on the employees to the extent that employees actually experience empowerment (Menon, 2001). Psychologically empowered employees both want to and are able to, shape their work role and context, thus capacitating them to utilize their abilities to improve their performance and quality of their own working life (Boudrias, Gaudreau & Laschinger, 2004).

To obtain a complete picture about empowerment at work, both perspectives should be integrated. We need to understand the mechanisms through which structural empowerment enables PE (Spreitzer, 2008). Empowering leadership (EL), an emerging leadership theory, has been demonstrated to encourage positive employee behaviours and attitudes (Arnold et al., 2007; Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Mohammed et al., 2013). Many scholars have contended that for benefits to materialize, such empowering managerial approaches should foster perceptions of

empowerment among employees (psychological state of empowerment) which, ultimately, culminate into positive workplace outcomes such as increased performance and positive job attitudes. Hence, although the core of this research is PE, the research made an attempt to explore the links between socio-structural empowerment in the form of empowering managerial practices and PE and their subsequent influence on employee and organizational outcomes.

Empowering leader behaviours such as promoting participative decision-making and goal-setting, leading by example, informing, mentoring and displaying personal concern for employees (Pearce & Sims, 2002) are expected to foster increased perceptions of autonomy, control, competence, connectedness and meaningfulness in the employees (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010). Despite this self-evident conceptual link between EL and empowerment, only recently attempts have been made to explore the relationship between EL and PE (Boudrias, Gaudreau , Savoie & Morrin, 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010; Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Fong & Snape, 2013). Although leadership has been identified as an important antecedent of PE, research pertaining exclusively to the study of EL as a prerequisite for PE has been very few (Maynard, Gilson & Mathieu, 2012; Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014; Chen et al., 2011). Also, the links between EL and PE have hardly been studied in the context of Indian settings. Cultural values like high power distance, uncertainty avoidance and dependence proneness might moderate how people perceive and react to socio-structural empowerment like empowering leader behaviours. In light of this background, it becomes imperative to study the links between EL and PE in Indian work context. Furthermore, EL was found to enhance feelings of PE to the extent that employees perceive empowerment as a significant element of their role identity. Research pertaining to the moderating role of empowerment role identity in the relationship between EL and PE is very sparse (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Hence, the current research explored the moderating role of this construct.

Health and well-being has become a crucial issue for policymakers today and consequently, besides profit maximization, firms have started to focus on enhancement of employees' well-being or happiness. Employee well-being can be holistically defined as the overall quality of an employee's experience and functioning at work, which includes physical, psychological and social dimensions (Warr, 1987). Employee well-being has consequential impact on an organization's performance and survival by affecting absenteeism, turnover, illness and health care costs and job performance (Spector, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Danna & Griffin, 1999). PE reflects a sense of control at work, which consequently has a direct effect on employee health and well-being. The notion of stress can be examined within the broader constructs of health and well-being (Danna & Griffin, 1999). A host of studies have demonstrated that absence of control at work in the form of job insecurity or low decision latitude may lead to health concerns such as exhaustion, depression, anxiety and cardiovascular diseases (Karasek, 1979; Kuper & Marmot, 1996). All four dimensions of PE are important for a person to identify with his/her job. Person-job fit is instrumental in improving both productivity and well-being (Edwards & Cooper, 1990). Employees having enhanced feelings of empowerment are expected to experience more intrinsic need fulfillment through work and consequently report increased levels of satisfaction with their job. Evidence indicates that job satisfaction is strongly and consistently related to well-being (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003). Hence, the current research made an attempt to explore the links between empowerment and employee well-being outcomes. Employee health and well-being was assessed in terms of perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction. Additionally, the role of personality and culture in the relationship between PE and perceived stress was also investigated.

In addition, the researcher made an attempt to examine the relationship of PE with an indirect measure of organizational effectiveness, organizational commitment. Although organizational commitment is considered to be an employee attitude, the desire to maintain organizational membership has been observed to have a positive relationship with the motivation to participate in behaviours

supportive to organizational goals (Angle & Perry, 1981). Empowering organizational practices like providing autonomy in decision-making and assigning responsibility to the employees would facilitate their perceptions of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Liden, Wayne & Sparrow, 2000). Employees are expected to appreciate such empowering experiences and reciprocate by feeling more deeply committed to the organization (Avolio et al., 2004; Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), according to the tenets of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Similarly, EL is expected to enhance employee health and well-being and organizational effectiveness. EL was construed as a form of structural empowerment where leaders/managers attempt to empower their employees by displaying empowering leader behaviours. Empowering leaders facilitate empowering work environments, where an individual is granted autonomy alongwith all necessary resources and is instilled with confidence on his skills and abilities. Such empowering work environments are expected to be instrumental in reducing work place stress (Laschinger et al., 2004; Laschinger & Havens, 1997). EL behaviours impact the psychological states of employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The characteristics of EL, emphasizing the value of the work, participative decision making, displaying confidence in employees, and eliminating bureaucratic constraints, would help employees to attain a positive state of mind with regard to both their work and personal lives. It can be argued that through its impact on the empowerment perceptions of employees, EL leads to positive psychological functioning and realization of full potential essential to achieve psychological well-being. Additionally, EL can be perceived as an autonomy-supporting type of leadership which provides followers opportunities to increase their job-related skill, learning and mastery experiences, thus increasing their perceptions of meaningfulness and personal competence. Leaders displaying personal concern for the needs and problems of the employees can facilitate the satisfaction of their need for relatedness. When employees are given opportunities to self-manage their work and be responsible for work outcomes, they are expected to experience intrinsic

motivation and display positive work attitudes like job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Considering these insights, the relationship of EL with the indicators of employee health and well-being and organizational effectiveness was assessed in this research.

PE can also be considered as a mediating mechanism via which contextual factors like leadership impact employees' attitudes and behaviour (Maynard, Gilson & Mathieu, 2012; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Spreitzer, Kizilos & Nason, 1997). Menon (2001) contended, EL would not lead to its expected effects unless employees actually experience PE. Empowered employees with enhanced perceptions of meaning and personal competence in their work, are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation and have active orientation towards their work (Spreitzer, 1995), and thereby expected to perform better. It is evident from the existing literature that PE is an important mediating mechanism linking EL with individual and team level outcomes. For the intended outcomes of EL to occur, the employees must experience PE. Nonetheless, there is scant research examining the mediating role of PE in the Indian work context characterized by its unique socio-cultural values, and the potential mediating role of PE in the relationship between EL and psychological health and well-being has hardly been explored. Hence, the current research made an attempt to fill this lacuna in empowerment literature.

Despite the positive ramifications of PE, one cannot discount the fact that cultural values might impact its effectiveness. Owing to the presence of socio-cultural values such as dependence proneness and high power distance, the current research explored the possibility that PE might not be as efficacious in Indian organizations as it is in the Western work context. Empowerment involves increasing the scope of employee responsibilities, and the dependence prone Indian employees, who are dependent on their authority for almost every aspect of their jobs, might not perceive it positively and consider the added responsibilities a burden. Similarly, researchers have suggested that cultural values may moderate how people experience social-structural empowerment (Spreitzer, 2008). Hence, it becomes an

imperative to explore the relationships among empowerment and its outcomes in the context of Indian organizations.

Previous research has shown that public and private organizations demonstrate significant differences with regard to their management practices and their contextual characteristics (Fottler, 1981; Rainey, 1982; Stupak & Moore, 1987). However, in PE literature there is a research void regarding comparative studies between private and public employees. Hence, the current research attempted to examine the differences in public and private sector organizations in terms of employees' perceptions of PE.

Therefore, from a pertinent review of literature on employee empowerment, its mechanisms and possible outcomes, the following research questions were framed and the present research attempted to answer them:

1. How does PE at work influence the health and well-being of employees (assessed in terms of perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction) in Indian organizations?
2. How does personality impact the relationship between PE at workplace and perceived stress?
3. What role does power distance play in the relationship between PE at workplace and perceived stress?
4. How does PE at work influence organizational effectiveness (assessed in terms of employees' organizational commitment) in Indian organizations?
5. How does EL impact the PE at work among employees in Indian organizations?
6. What role does empowerment role identity play in the relationship between EL and PE at workplace?
7. How does EL influence the health and well-being of employees (assessed in terms of perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction) in Indian organizations?
8. How does EL influence organizational effectiveness (assessed in terms of employees' organizational commitment) in Indian organizations?

9. Are the links between EL and employee and organizational outcomes mediated by PE?

In order to answer these research questions, three studies were carried out and hypotheses were formulated accordingly. Study 1 was an experimental study conducted to answer the first research question exploring the relationship between PE (PE) and perceived stress. In addition, Study 1 also explored the potential moderating role of personality variables and power distance in the relationship between PE and perceived stress. This experimental study was carried out on 120 employees from four banks in Guwahati, Assam, India (Male = 60, Female = 60). The average organizational tenure of the participants was 6.9 years (SD= 3.85). Their mean age was 32.70 years (SD=4.91). The study used experimental vignette methodology as it allows the researcher to formulate scenarios of the constructs being tested. Based on the conceptualization of PE and its dimensions by Spreitzer (1995) and Menon (2001), vignettes depicting scenarios of high PE and low PE were formulated. An experiment with 2 (high PE/low PE) × 2 (male/female) between-subjects, factorial design was employed. PE at work was manipulated by creating two work scenarios where employees experience either high PE or low PE. To see the moderating role of gender in the relationship between PE and stress, half of the participants chosen for the experiment were male and the other half were female. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. They were asked to read the scenario depicted in the vignette and imagine themselves (role-play technique) in the scenario. To induce stress, they were presented with a potentially stress-evoking workplace situation. Finally, they were asked to respond to items of relevant scales measuring stress (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983), generalized self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995), Big-5 dimensions of personality (John & Srivastava, 1999) and power distance (Dorfman & Howell, 1988).

Results of Study 1 revealed that PE mitigates the extent of perceived stress experienced by employees. Along with added responsibilities or role ambiguity that might come with empowerment, psychologically empowered employees also

experience self-determination, competence, and impact, which work together to increase the sense of control (Spreitzer, Kizilos & Nason, 1997). Since the negative effect of job demand decreases as perceived control increases, by having a sense of control over potential stressors, employees perceive less strain (Karasek, 1979; Spector, 1986). Further, emotional stability and agreeableness operated as boundary conditions which moderate the negative relationship between PE and stress; such that this relationship is stronger when emotional stability and agreeableness are higher rather than lower. A possible explanation can be that emotionally stable and agreeable individuals react to PE more positively and handle the stress that may emanate from added responsibility and ambiguity in an effective manner.

The results of Study 1 provided further directions to explore the efficacy of empowerment in Indian work context. Accordingly, a survey study, Study 2A, was carried out to explore and answer all the research questions except the two explicating the moderating role of personality and power distance in PE-perceived stress relationship, as these were already answered in Study 1. The participants of this study were middle-level executives (N = 431) from 12 organizations located in five cities of India (NCR, Kolkata, Bangalore, Hyderabad and Guwahati). Out of these 12 organizations, 6 were from public sector and 6 were from private sector. The average tenure of these middle-level executives in their present organization was 9.72 years (SD = 9.32). Their average age was 36.06 years (SD = 10.15). 65% of the participants were male employees and 35% were females. Data were collected through a set of questionnaires for measuring EL (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000), PE (Spreitzer, 1995), empowerment role identity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), perceived stress (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983), mental health (Goldberg, 1972), psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989), job satisfaction (Schanke, 1983) and organizational commitment (Wall & Cook, 1980; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Study 2A, besides confirming the negative link between PE and perceived stress, further established PE's positive association with employee mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Besides,

the results indicated that that EL was positively related to PE at workplace. Empowering leaders display enabling and supportive behaviours which increase employees' intrinsic motivation associated with cognitions of competence, self-determination, impact, and meaning (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). The results also demonstrated that EL is positively associated with employee well-being and organizational performance outcomes. Specifically, EL was found to mitigate the levels of perceived stress and positively impact the mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Additionally, the results revealed that along with having direct negative relationship with perceived stress and direct positive links with mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, EL also had significant indirect effect on these outcomes through PE. These results imply that PE is likely to facilitate the relationship between EL and employee outcomes. Finally, the results of Study 2A demonstrated that private sector employees were more psychologically empowered than public sector employees. Private sector employees scored higher in Impact and Autonomy as compared to public sector employees. These findings are consistent with previous literature indicating increased PE among private sector employees as compared to public sector employees, especially with regard to impact and autonomy (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012).

A qualitative study (Study 2B) was conducted to augment the results of the quantitative studies (Study 1 and Study 2A). It was carried out simultaneously using the interview method. These interviews were conducted with 30 (Male = 22, Females = 8; Public Sector = 17, Private Sector = 13) senior and top level managers who belonged to the 12 different organizations from which data for Study 2A was collected. The age range of the participants was between 40.92 years to 54.17 years. It was designed to explore the insights and opinions of the top management regarding the relationships between variables explicated in Study 1 and Study 2A.

The results of the qualitative study provided further evidence for the assertion that PE contributes to employee well-being and organizational effectiveness in Indian work context. The responses of the top bosses revealed that allowing employees to take decisions regarding their performance goals and work processes and providing feedback enhance the connection between actions and their consequences, which permit them to attain some degree of understanding of what they must do to achieve desired results and make them more motivated to perform the job and be satisfied with its various aspects. Autonomy to take decisions regarding work processes ensures that employees are able to maintain work-life balance and be happy. The results further validated the positive links between empowering leader behaviours and PE. Top executives identified certain leader behaviours which facilitate employee decision making. These leader behaviours correspond to the behaviours of an empowering leader. Additionally, the observations derived from the qualitative study reinforced the positive effect of EL on employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. The top executives emphasized the pivotal role of managers in promoting a collaborative work culture and a culture of well-being. Also, mentoring and coaching were identified as integral to employee development and job satisfaction. The mediating role of PE was further highlighted by observations from Study 2B. Finally, it appeared from the responses of top executives that private sector organizations grant more decision-making power to their employees as compared to public sector organizations, hence substantiating the difference in empowerment levels among employees belonging to private and public sector organizations.

Contribution and Implications

(1) Theoretical implications

This research work formulated and examined a conceptual model that assimilates EL theory with significant outcomes related to the health and well-being of employees. While most empowerment studies have mainly focused on job

performance and job attitudes (Ahearne et al., 2005; Srivastava et al., 2006; Joo, Park & Lim, 2016), only a few studies have concentrated on the impact of EL on psychological state of mind (Ahearne et al., 2005). Yet, there are strong theoretical underpinnings to expect EL would influence psychological health and well-being, a contention that has been supported empirically in this dissertation.

Another theoretical implication of this research work is expanding the literature on PE, especially in the context of Indian organizations, which are very different from western organizations due to their cultural characteristics. Explicating these links in the Indian work context contributes to both empowerment and well-being literatures.

The present research makes an attempt to synthesize empowerment from a macro and a micro perspective: empowerment as an autonomy-supporting managerial practice (i.e., EL) and empowerment as a facilitating psychological experience (i.e., PE). This research work attempted to explore this antecedent-consequent link between EL and PE and give a better understanding of the antecedent conditions involved in the process of PE. Moreover, the current research enriches both leadership and the empowerment literatures by explicating the mediating role of PE in the relationship between EL and employee outcomes like perceived stress, mental health and psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

By examining some personality variables, Study 1 of this research work provides information to answer the question: who can truly reap the benefits of PE? This study hopes to fill the lacuna in empowerment research that has existed till now regarding the role of personality in perception of empowerment and its outcomes.

(2) Methodological implications

It is worth mentioning that an offshoot of this research work is the development of two vignettes in order to manipulate the level of PE in Study 1. Vignettes are more realistic and less abstract than conventional survey questions and increase the internal validity by bringing in experimental control. Based on the conceptualization of PE and its dimensions by Spreitzer (1995) and Menon (2001), vignettes depicting scenarios of high PE and low PE were formulated.

It is important to note that the researcher is not aware of any research which has employed the qualitative method in order to explore the concept of empowerment and its correlates. Hence, Study 2B is a contribution to the limited number of such qualitative studies. Moreover, qualitative research methods help to explore a concept in-depth and to obtain a detailed description and views on the concerned topic.

Recent researches have indicated that contrary to the recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986), significant indirect effects can be detected even when initially no significant causal relationship between predictor and outcome was established. Hence, in addition to hierarchical regression analysis, the mediation analyses in Study 2A was also conducted by performing PROCESS Macro V 3.18 (Hayes, 2018) in SPSS (version 20.0) to measure the strength and direction of indirect effect.

(3) Practical implications

The findings of the current research indicate that PE based on experience of meaning and autonomy at work increases employee well-being and positive job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job design has been found to be a crucial factor for intrinsic motivation, positive workplace attitudes and enhanced work performance of employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Hence, crafting or redesigning autonomous and challenging jobs would foster employee engagement and psychological well-being.

The findings of the current research reiterate the efficacy of PE in predicting positive employee outcomes in a different cultural milieu than the West - the Indian work context. It provides justification for how PE overpowers the role of socio-cultural values like dependence proneness and high power distance to foster employee well-being outcomes. In doing so, the present study substantiates the positive effects of PE on employee health and well-being. Consequently, managers should foster a sense of empowerment by providing opportunities for challenging, meaningful tasks with varying difficulties, allowing employees to assume greater decision-making power and responsibility at work, providing feedback and training to develop their skills and enhance feelings of competence, and finally, allowing the employees to make an impact by involving them in strategic goal setting and making work outcomes visible and valuable. Structural empowerment (organizational policies and structures) would be more effective in yielding positive outcomes when the management is able to facilitate PE in the employees by creating a certain level of trust and a culture of positive error management where employees feel safe to take decisions and new responsibilities. Organizations need to formulate policies and create a culture which would empower the employees psychologically and give them a sense of personal control. This would have positive effects on the health and well-being of employees and the organization would reap the benefits of enhanced employee performance and positive employee attitudes. The findings further reveal that supportive and empowering leaders increase employees' perceptions of empowerment and well-being and foster positive job attitudes. Hence, managerial training needs to concentrate more on practicing a supportive and an EL style to boost employees' sense of PE and eventually their health and well-being.

The findings pertaining to the moderating role of personality in the PE-stress relationship suggest that, from an organizational perspective, dispositions of potential employees should be assessed and taken into account during the hiring

process to help create a workforce which exhibits more initiative and is self-driven to improve its own performance. Although dispositions are relatively stable, employees can be inducted to effective personality improvement programmes and motivation training to cultivate positive dimensions of personality.

Limitations

As with all research, this dissertation had to balance various considerations and thus is not without limitations.

1. Like most vignette studies, Study 1 does not measure the correspondence between the hypothetical behaviour and actual behaviour. Difficulties may arise when participants are asked to adopt a vignette perspective based on an unfamiliar situation. Since the nature of their job makes it unlikely that bank employees would have an opportunity to experience high PE at work, this study needs to be carried out in highly empowered contexts like autonomous/self-managed teams.
2. The limitations of self-reported measures exist in Study 1 and Study 2A. Respondents may interpret the meaning of each question differently and reply based on their own understanding of the question. Also, their responses might be affected by social-desirability bias.
3. Study 1 is based on a relatively small sample. Potential limits on generalizability of the results may exist and thus, should be viewed with caution.
4. Study 2A was based on cross-sectional survey data with potential common method bias. This can exaggerate the relationships among the variables, hence questioning their causality. However, the results of Harman's single-

factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) implied common method variance was unlikely to confound the interpretations of results.

5. In case of the qualitative study, one of the limitations is the generalization of findings from a few cases. The sample size of Study 2B, which consisted of top management executives, is quite small (N = 30) as it is not easy to get the top bosses to spare time for interviews, especially for academic purposes. Although the sample was representative of the organizations from which quantitative data for Study 2A was collected, it would be better to increase the sample size in order to increase the power of generalization. This issue is resolved to some extent by the fact that this study basically tried to substantiate the findings of Study 2A and both studies were conducted on the same conceptual framework and addressed similar research questions that emerged from the review of literature.

Direction for Future Research

1. Study 1 highlights that besides using strategies for empowering the employees, it is essential that organizations take into account individual dispositions of the employees while predicting desirable outcomes. Future research along this line might explore the moderating role of Big Five traits in buffering or boosting relationships between PE and a host of employee outcomes like work engagement, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour.
2. Future research can also look at individualized culture dimensions, other than power distance, like uncertainty avoidance and collectivism as potential moderators in the relationship between PE and its outcomes. Study 2A does not examine culture directly; hence substantial conclusions about the ramifications of cultural differences cannot be drawn. True cross-cultural studies are required to gain stronger insights on the efficacy of EL and PE.

3. Future research should yield a theoretically nuanced and empirically established understanding of EL by integrating studies on its antecedents and effectiveness. A comparative deficiency of empirical research on the structure and measurement of EL in a localized context hampers the expansion of EL theory in the Indian work context. The available research generally espouses the single measurement method of questionnaire, which makes it susceptible to error. To guarantee accuracy, EL should be measured from various perspectives by coalescing multiple techniques such as case study and in-depth interviews.
4. Although the current research examined EL as a dyadic construct, research findings imply that it can also be operationalized at the team level (e.g., Srivastava, Bartol & Locke, 2006). Future research might address multi-level issues in circumstances where there is a requirement for teams to be empowered and yield such positive psychological states.
5. A primary aim of study 2A was to examine the impact of EL on the PE of employees, and its potential mediating role regarding the outcomes. Since the results include cases of partial mediation, future research should explore the likelihood that there might be other mediating mechanisms at work.

In conclusion, this research work uniquely synthesized leadership theories, empowerment theories and well-being theories to further formulate and test a theory concerning the possible impact of EL and PE on employee health and well-being and organizational performance in the Indian work context characterized by its unique socio-cultural values. Overall, this dissertation provides important foundations that will hopefully inspire more future research on different conceptualizations of empowerment and psychologically healthy workplaces.

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Chapter 1

“Never tell people how to do things. Tell them what to do and they will surprise you with their ingenuity.” - George S. Patton Jr., US Army General during World War II.

Introduction

As a result of key commercial and technological changes that have taken place in the last few decades, organizations are getting flatter, work is becoming more complex, and reliance on teamwork is increasing. Organizations require the knowledge, ideas and energy of each and every employee to be successful (Spreitzer, 2008). They can attain this by empowering their employees to take action and work for the organizational interests without being micro-managed (O’Toole & Lawler, 2006). Employee empowerment has developed as a prominent idea in managerial rhetoric and has become the focus of academic research. Managerial and scholarly evidence indicates that empowerment practices have significant influence on many organizational contexts, including increased organisational efficiency and enriched work lives of employees (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000).

Although the concept of employee empowerment has initiated extensive research interest, it still remains a term that is ambiguous and confusing. Researchers are concerned that empowerment might be construed differently across organizations (Lincoln et al., 2002). Also, organizational stakeholders (management and employees) might use their own frame of reference to interpret empowerment and thus, have varying expectations from it. Moreover, the socio-cultural values of the context in which an organization operates might affect the perception of empowerment. Furthermore, the endeavours to investigate the links between empowerment and employee and organizational effectiveness have resulted into mixed and incoherent conclusions. Hence, it is important to build an in-depth understanding of empowerment in terms of its nature, the factors that influence it and the consequences associated with it. In doing so, one needs to take into consideration the context in which the empowerment practices are embedded into.

Employee Empowerment

The idea of empowerment has existed in the management literature since Kanter (1977) discussed it almost four decades ago in an ethnographic study of an industrial organization titled “Men and Women of the Corporation”. She proposed that perceived access to power and opportunity in the work environment is related to the behaviours and attitudes of employees in organizations. According to Menon (2001), although the term ‘empowerment’ has come into existence recently, the management practice of improving employee performance by granting them autonomy to make decisions has been existing in the management literature in the form of concepts such as job enrichment through vertical loading and managerial practices such as delegation. Gradually, these approaches have been extended under the broader term of employee empowerment to entail relocation of power, energising employees through leadership, increasing self-efficacy by mitigating powerlessness, and enhancing intrinsic task motivation (Menon, 2001).

Researchers have approached the issue of employee empowerment from different perspectives. Based on the underlying thrust, two distinct but interrelated conceptualizations on empowerment at work have emerged in the academic literature over the last three decades: the social-structural approach and the psychological approach (Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003; Menon, 2001; Liden & Arad, 1996; Spreitzer, 1995). Social-structural approach is macro in nature and emphasises the contextual factors that facilitate employee empowerment. Psychological approach is micro in nature and focuses on the psychological experience of empowerment at work.

Socio-structural Approach

Contingent on theories of social exchange and power, the social-structural approach construes empowerment as sharing of power between managers and their employees (Menon, 2001) with the goal to facilitate transition of decision-making authority across the organizational chain of command (Liden & Arad,

1996). Power is shared through delegating responsibility across the organizational hierarchy, from top management to frontline employees, and granting them the capacity to impact work outcomes. Power is construed as having access to opportunity, information, support, and resources (known as the power tools) within the organization (Kanter, 1977); formal authority to make decisions within the gambit of one's job or job role (Lawler, 1996); and ability to significantly influence organizational outcomes (Mintzberg, 1983).

Based on Kanter's (1977) seminal research on empowerment, the socio-structural perspective considers empowerment as an array of organizational structures, policies, processes, and practices which lead to a decentralised and flattened hierarchy, and enhanced participation of employees (Kanter, 1977). Top-down control systems can be transformed into self-managing systems by adopting high-involvement practices like participative decision-making, knowledge-based pay, open-flow of information, flat organizational structures, and training employees to build knowledge, skills and abilities (Spreitzer, 2008). These practices interact and reinforce among themselves to significantly influence empowerment at workplace (Lawler, 1996; MacDuffie, 1995). Similarly, high performance work systems, which comprise of practices like long-term job security, flexible scheduling, and multi-skilling along with employee involvement, is a much researched aspect in the socio-structural approach to empowerment.

The socio-structural approach is based on the sociological tradition of research, where the focus is on those who do the empowering, not those who are being empowered. Hence, it includes empowering characteristics of systems and structures and also the leaders who design and implement them (Spreitzer, 2008). Although this perspective associates managerial practices to performance, it is narrow in scope as it does not take into account the nature of empowerment experienced by the employees (Spreitzer, 2008). It gives an organizational-centric view on workplace empowerment and does not consider the psychological state of those being empowered (Menon, 2001). This aspect needs to be addressed as there are cases where employees feel disempowered even when they are provided with access to power tools and decision making authority, and contrarily, situations

where employees feel empowered despite the absence of empowering features in the work environment. The psychological approach to empowerment fills this gap by identifying the mechanisms and processes by which empowering structures and practices translate into employee empowerment and eventually organizational performance.

Psychological/motivational Approach

In the psychological/motivational approach, empowerment is construed as psychological enabling (Menon, 2001). Conger and Kanungo (1988), the pioneers of this approach, described empowerment as a motivational “process of enhancing self-efficacy among organisational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organisational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information” (p.474). Based on Bandura’s (1986) work on self-efficacy, they contended that socio-structural approach is incomplete as empowering organizational practices would lead to greater initiative and motivation in the employees only when such practices yield informational cues that increase the effort–performance expectancies of the employees or their perceptions of self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) extended this approach by describing empowerment as employees’ cognitions about empowering management practices, emphasizing the psychological experience of empowerment. They underlined the potential of empowering management practices to facilitate intrinsic motivation in employees rather than just enabling them and identified empowerment as “intrinsic task motivation”. They construed empowerment as “changes in cognitive variables (called task assessments), which determine motivation in workers” (p.667). Meaning, choice, competence, and impact were identified as employee task assessments (employee’s task-related cognitions related to his/her task role) which are associated with this intrinsic task motivation. *Meaning* is the value attached to work goal or purpose, based on the degree of alignment between work role demands and individual values and

standards (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). *Self-determination or choice* is the sense of autonomy in commencing and maintaining work activities (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). *Competence* or self-efficacy refers to the belief in one's capacity to carry out job-related tasks successfully (Bandura, 1989; Lawler, 1973). *Impact* is the extent to which an individual believes that he/she can impact activities and significant outcomes at work (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Ashforth, 1989). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) reported that these four facets/dimensions coalesce in an additive manner to create an aggregate construct of PE.

Drawing from Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) approach, Spreitzer (1995) defined PE as increased intrinsic motivation indicating a sense of control pertaining to one's work and an active outlook to one's work role that is manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Based on the facets hypothesized by Thomas and Velthouse (1990), she established a valid and reliable measure for what she termed as psychological empowerment (PE). Spreitzer (1995) views PE as a continuous variable i.e., individuals experience PE to a lesser or a greater extent, not that PE is present or absent.

Previously, organizational structures and practices were considered as indicators of empowerment. Currently, scholars consider organizational structures and practices to be contextual antecedents of PE and contend that the actual nature of empowerment can be inferred better by concentrating on the impact of empowering practices on the psychological state of employees (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Menon, 2001; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Spreitzer, 1995, 2008). Empowerment would lead to the expected gains only when the employees truly experience empowerment or achieve a psychological state of empowerment. Taking this into account, the focus of the current research is PE.

The psychological perspective to empowerment is restricted because it is individual-oriented (employee-oriented), as opposed to the social-structural perspective which is organization-oriented. To obtain a complete picture about empowerment at work, both perspectives should be integrated. We need to

understand the mechanisms through which structural empowerment enables PE (Spreitzer, 2008). Hence, although the core of this research is PE, the researcher also made an attempt to explore the links between socio-structural empowerment and PE.

The Indian Context

There have been radical changes in the business environment of India in the last few decades. Organizations require new skills to handle the uncertainties posed by the new environment. Indian industries have realized that competitive edge can be achieved only when a company is able to innovate, create and use the entrepreneurial energies of its people. This is possible only if the employees feel psychologically empowered. Researchers have concluded that empowerment has immense potential for Indian enterprises to achieve a competitive edge and hence, Indian organizations are in need of an empowered approach (Dwivedi, 1998; Bhatnagar, 2005). The scant amount of research which has exclusively examined the level of PE existing in Indian organizations has indicated mixed and inconclusive findings. Sparrow and Budhwar (1997) reported that among a cluster of HRM practices and policies, Indian managers attach the least value to empowerment. Therefore, the current research makes an attempt to examine PE and its outcomes in Indian organizations.

Cultural influences on Psychological Empowerment

Although empowerment research has attempted to establish the plausibility of the four dimensions of PE within non-Western cultures such as China, Israel, the Philippines, India (Spreitzer, 2008), only limited research has attempted to understand PE across cultural boundaries. The dimensions of PE can attain different meanings across different cultures (Spreitzer, 2008; Fock et al., 2011). In collectivistic cultures like India and China, where groups are prominent, there is a possibility that the impact dimension would be more of a group thing than an individual referent. In the same vein, autonomy may be manifested in a different form in high power distance cultures, where it may not be culturally

appropriate for employees at lower hierarchical levels to have a powerful voice in their work.

Moreover, cultural values can moderate the way employees experience structural empowerment. Employees from cultures characterized by high power distance or uncertainty avoidance, like those of India and China, might respond to an enabling climate with experience of stress and withdrawal (Seibert et al., 2004; Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004; Robert et al., 2000), which would have negative effect on their satisfaction and performance. Also, there is a possibility that culture would moderate the power of PE (Eylon & Au, 1999). In cultures high on power-distance, management might perceive self-determination and impact as threatening and might not take it in a positive sense. To explore these possibilities and verify the generalizability of these findings, further research on the cultural boundaries of empowerment needs to be carried out.

Dependence Proneness

Empirical studies have supported that PE, in the form of job enrichment (providing opportunities for challenging, meaningful tasks with varying difficulties in the job) and enlargement (increasing the scope of the job by giving more responsibilities in the job), benefits the organization in terms of effectiveness of the employees and also their attitudes. But this may not be the case when the concept of PE is evaluated in Indian work settings. Most of the studies on PE at work have so far overlooked the influence of the cultural context, a factor which has often put a question mark on the relevance of the Western research findings in the Indian society. The cultural context permeates the organizational boundaries in the form of socio-cultural values imbibed by the organizational members during the socialization process in the given society (Mishra & Gergen, 1993). Western and Indian investigators alike have identified high dependency proneness as a core Indian characteristic (Hitchcock & Minturn, 1963; Chattopadhyay, 1975; Pareek, 1968; Sinha, 1970) According to Sinha (1970), dependence proneness is correlated with religious ritualism, fatalism, superstition, anxiety, traditionalism, conformity, obedience, apathy, passivity,

etc. and is caused and reinforced by social support. This in turn results into excessive dependency that manifests in resistance to innovation, mobility and risk taking. Sinha (1970) has delineated three main factors that are likely to foster pervasive dependence proneness: impoverished conditions of living through ages which have not been satisfactorily alleviated; social context and socialization process where excessive dependency and risk avoidance are reinforced; and a policy framework where government takes care of the population by providing reliefs and subsidies instead of reinforcing efforts and initiative.

Researchers have identified a few core characteristics of dependence prone people: they ask for advice from others while decision-making; consider that competent people should help the weak ones; ask for help in solving complicated problems instead of trying on their own; avoid dissent; do things according to others; and rather follow the majority, even when they do not agree with them (Sinha, 1970; Sinha & Pandey, 1971; Sinha & Pandey, 1975). Such dependence prone behaviours can have a negative moderating effect on the positive relationship between PE at work and employee effectiveness and attitudes. Employees in Indian organizations display considerable dependency on their leaders (Chatopadhyaya, 1975; Pareek, 1968; Sinha, 1970). Empowerment involves increasing the scope of employee responsibilities, and the dependence prone Indian employees, who are dependent on their authority for almost every aspect of their jobs, might not perceive it positively and consider the added responsibilities a burden. When autonomy is too high, employees can feel that they have too much responsibility, owing to their dependence prone nature, and may actually prefer having a job where there is less autonomy and less responsibility. They may avoid taking any major decision for which they would be later answerable to others in the organization. When such excessive dependence proneness exists among the employees, empowering them would not lead to increased feelings of self-efficacy. As a result, empowerment would have no positive influence on their effectiveness at work or development of attitudes like job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This would totally defeat the purpose of PE. Numerous studies attest to the power of empowerment to improved employee performance

and effectiveness, but the picture may be completely different when we consider the unique characteristic of excessive dependency that persists among Indian employees. Thus, it is imperative to study PE and its outcomes in the context of Indian organizations.

Psychological Empowerment and Employee Outcomes

PE reflects an active orientation to work, and communicates the idea that employees want to and are able to shape their work role as well as the work context (Boudrias, Gaudreau, & Laschinger, 2004). It capacitates employees from all levels to utilize their skills and abilities to enhance quality of their own working life while contributing to organizational effectiveness (Chaturvedi, 2008). Numerous studies attest to the power of empowerment to benefit the organization in terms of both organizational effectiveness and employee attitudes. PE has been demonstrated to have positive effect on efficiency, performance and reduction in costs (Suzik, 1998; Fulford & Enz, 1995); job satisfaction (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Carless, 2004; Liden et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2004); job involvement, loyalty, improved customer service delivery, organizational commitment (Avolio, et al. 2004; Liden et al., 2000; Jha, 2010), and innovation (Spreitzer, 1995); and negatively related to inclination to turn over (Sparrowe, 1994; Koberg et al., 1999) and job-related strain (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). PE has been found to have positive association with managerial and employee effectiveness (Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer et al., 1997) and performance (Koberg, et al., 1999). Each of the four dimensions of PE has been found to be associated to different positive outcomes, which reinforces the fact that the gestalt thought of PE is crucial to attain the diverse range of positive outcomes. Although most studies have exhibited positive outcomes of PE, a few studies have found some not-so-positive and negative effects. The following sections outline the outcomes of PE in terms of employee well-being and performance.

Psychological Empowerment and Employee Well-being

Employee well-being can be holistically described as the total quality of an employee's experience and functioning at work, including physical, psychological, and social dimensions (Warr, 1987). Health has been defined by the World Health Organization in terms of three forms of well being: physical, mental, and social (WHO, 1946). Employee well-being has consequential impact on an organization's performance and survival by affecting absenteeism, turnover, related to illness and health care costs, and job performance (Spector, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Danna & Griffin, 1999). Furthermore, workplace experiences might affect aspects outside working life and go beyond financial implications. Organizational policies and programmes which promotes employee health can be perceived as a gesture that the organization values its employees and may contribute to its image as an organization that is concerned about the welfare of its employees, which would attract potential employees (DiNublie & Sherman, 1999).

PE reflects a sense of control at work, which consequently has a direct effect on employee health and well-being. The notion of stress can be examined within the broader constructs of health and well-being (Danna & Griffin, 1999). A host of studies have demonstrated that absence of control at work in the form of job insecurity or low decision latitude may lead to health concerns such as exhaustion, depression, anxiety, and cardiovascular diseases (Karasek, 1979; Kuper & Marmot, 1996). All four dimensions of PE are important for a person to identify with his/her job. Person-job fit is instrumental in improving both productivity and well-being (Edwards & Cooper, 1990). Employees having enhanced feelings of empowerment are more likely to experience intrinsic need fulfilment through work and consequently report increased levels of satisfaction with their job. Evidence indicates that job satisfaction is strongly and consistently related to well-being (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003). The following sections underline the outcomes of PE in terms of employee health and well-being.

Perceived Stress

Perceived stress is the degree to which an individual perceives (appraises) that the environmental demands exceed his ability to cope. Perceived stress is defined as “an outcome variable - measuring the experienced level of stress as a function of stressful events, coping processes and personality factors, etc” (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983, p. 386).

According to the job-strain model, job related strain stems from the cumulative impact of work demands and decision-making latitude (Karasek, 1979). The negative impact of job demand is maximal when decision latitude (choice) is minimal, and it diminishes as choice escalates (Karasek, 1979). Greater competence on the job is associated with less strain as those possessing requisite knowledge and skills will have improved ability to deal with job demands (Hochwalder & Brucefors, 2005). Universal learned helplessness, the opposite of opportunity to have impact, has been empirically established to reduce the ability to recognize opportunities, motivation, and positive affect (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978). Going by these arguments, it is likely that PE would decrease the level of perceived stress experienced by employees. Empirical studies involving measurement of PE have found negative links between cognitions about empowerment and job-related strain (Thomas & Tymon, 1994; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Further, all the four dimensions of PE have been found to be negatively associated with emotional exhaustion (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005), which is characterized by energy depletion and an absence of sensation because of enormous psychological demands (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

However, an important debate concerns the relationship between PE and perceived strain (Spreitzer, 2008). For some, empowerment involves expanding the breadth of employee responsibilities without an accompanying raise in rank or pay (Harley, Allen, & Sargent, 2007). Some literature reports that when autonomy is too high, there is a possibility that employees might experience a lack of direction or feel that they have an excess of responsibility, making them to

encounter role stress, specifically role ambiguity (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Eylon & Bamberger, 2000; Conner & Douglas, 2005). Also, empowerment escalates role conflict as employees experience elevated frustration due to conflicting expectations of numerous parties (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Employees who experience more meaning at work have a closer connection to their work and tend to be more personally invested in it (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). They are more likely to experience job related strain when things do not go as planned. Thus, a possibility exists that empowerment can cause elevated feelings of strain among employees.

This possibility becomes more plausible when evaluated in Indian work settings. Empowerment involves increasing the scope of employee responsibilities, and the dependence prone Indian employees, who are dependent on their authority for almost every aspect of their jobs, might not perceive it positively and consider the added responsibilities a burden. When autonomy is too high, owing to their dependence prone nature, employees might feel that they have too much responsibility and may actually experience strain. Consequently, there is a possibility that, instead of mitigating, PE at work might increase the level of perceived stress among employees in Indian work settings. Therefore, it is reasonable to explore the PE-perceived stress relationship in Indian work settings.

Considering the theoretical arguments and empirical evidence discussed here, further empirical work is required to understand the relationship between PE and perceived stress of employees. Also, the direct links between PE and perceived stress among employees have hardly been studied in the Indian settings. Therefore, the researcher has raised the following question in this regard:

Research question 1: *How does PE at work influence the perceived levels of stress among employees in Indian organizations?*

General Mental Health and Psychological Well-being

The focus of most of the previous studies on individual health and well-being in organizations is on factors associated with stress and strain (Elloy & Smith, 2003; Lu, 1999; Potter et al., 2002). In a similar vein, most of the existing research has explored the links between lack of PE and how it impairs health and well-being. Considering the constraints of a negatively oriented health model, future research should concentrate more on how PE can act as a resource which nurture and sustain positive health and prevent negative health. There is evidence highlighting the fact that PE can lead to positive health outcomes. For instance, positive health outcomes can emanate from leadership and work designs which involves and engage employees (Keyes, Hysom, & Lupo, 2001; Turner et al., 2002). Empowerment may be associated with positive health indicators, such as flourishing and thriving and act as a resource which buffers individuals to be resilient in the face of difficulty or threat (Spreitzer et al., 2005; Fredrickson et al., 2003). Taking these prospects into account, the present section discusses general mental health and psychological well-being as possible outcomes of PE.

Earlier definitions of mental health used to entail two aspects: the ability to carry out normal functions (positive mental health) and the absence of psychological distress (exclusion of negative mental health) (Jain & Sinha, 2005). But mental health is beyond absence of mental disorders and social dysfunction (WHO, 2018). According to the assumptions of positive psychology, mental health is not only about what is wrong in people, but also what is right in them, their positive attributes. Thus, along with facets like somatic symptoms, anxiety and insomnia, social dysfunction, severe depression, and other psychological symptomatology (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979; Goldberg & Williams, 1988), mental health should also encompass a state of affairs where an individual feels capable, confident and satisfied with his/her life in general.

PE can be considered as a crucial factor that buffers or protects against mental ill health (Spreitzer, 2008). Theoretically, it can be expected that the four dimensions of PE will have a positive effect on general mental health (Hochwalder

& Brucefors, 2005; Liu et al., 2015). As mentioned earlier, research has reported that lack of control leads to poorer mental health (depression and anxiety) (Spreitzer et al., 1997; Siegall & Gardner, 2000; Holman & Fernie, 2000). The opportunity to get involved in intrinsically satisfying job activities (meaning) is not only crucial for better adjustment and improved quality of life but also reduces anxiety by providing distraction from physical symptoms (Westaby et al., 2005). Competence leads to improved ability to deal with demands (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) and contributes to individual functioning and health (Gecas, 1989). Spreitzer et al. (1997) reported that meaning and competence were negatively correlated with depression, anxiety, and somatic symptoms. Absence of opportunity to have impact at work or universal learned helplessness has been found to be related to reduced motivation, depression, anxiety, frustration, and hostility (Martinko & Gardner, 1982). Furthermore, the power given by the organization contributes to the employees' sense of organizational support to protect their dignity when dealing with situations where they might feel belittled at workplace (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005). Similarly, studies have shown that perceived organizational support, a global belief an employee develops concerning the extent to which an organization values one's contributions and cares about one's well-being, has a positive effect on the employee's mood, satisfaction, well-being and psychological health (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Leather et al., 1998). Specifically, Jain and Sinha (2005) found out that appreciation of an employee's effort (recognizing the values, opinions, and ideas of the employee) is a positive predictor of his/her sense of accomplishment and contribution. Such sense of perceived organizational support captures the essence of competence and impact dimensions of PE and contributes to positive mental health.

Research exploring the structure of well-being has put forward two different views: subjective well-being (SWB) and psychological well-being (PWB). The SWB perspective encompasses the hedonic components of well-being, which include positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction (Diener, 1984). The emphasis is on happiness and satisfaction. The PWB perspective, in addition to the hedonic components of well-being (positive emotions and satisfaction with life in general), also encompasses the eudaimonic components of well-being, which are

focused on the fulfilment of one's potential and leading a meaningful life, and the extent to which an individual fully integrates this into his or her life (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). PWB is an outcome of personal endeavour and emphasizes on moving in a positive direction towards pursuing goals instead of being negative and involving in personal conflict (Brodsky, 1988).

Building on the relevant work on life span theories, clinical theories on personal growth, humanistic theories and Jahoda's (1958) criteria for positive mental health, Ryff (1989) proposed an integrated model of PWB which comprises six theoretically derived components. This model of PWB assumes that people endeavour to become fully functioning beings and realize their best potential. The underlying criteria of all these components are positive psychological functioning (Ryff & Singer 1998). The six distinct yet related dimensions of PWB comprises an extensive scope of well-being that encompasses positive assessment of oneself including one's past (self-acceptance), a sense of sustained personal growth (personal growth), view one's life as purposeful and meaningful (purpose in life), warm and satisfying relations with others, the capacity to competently manage one's life and surroundings (environmental mastery), and experience of self-determination (autonomy) (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Research has demonstrated that PWB seem to contribute more towards positive psychological functioning as compared to hedonic approaches like subjective well-being (Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005; Steger, Kashdan, & Oishi, 2008). Structural changes in the nature of work has resulted into long hours and increased job complexity, and in such a scenario PWB has been linked to both work and personal outcomes and has increasingly become the focus of management literature.

PE has been found to impact individual outcomes like health, satisfaction and loyalty (Zimmerman, 2000; Joo & Shim, 2010; Spreitzer, 1995). Since PE is considered to be a pre-requisite of a 'more humanized and moralized workplace', it can be assumed that PE and PWB are positively associated. Experience of empowerment at work has a direct effect on an employee's psychological state (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Empowering experiences like autonomy and competence lead to a positive state of the mind, consequently enhancing

employee's PWB. The dimensions of PE are expected to be associated with the dimensions of PWB. Specifically, experience of self-determination at workplace would lead to stronger perceptions of autonomy in one's life. Delegation and participation were linked with enhanced sense of well-being (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997; Offerman & Hellmann, 1996). Furthermore, when employees perceive that their values and beliefs are congruent with the requirements of their job (i.e., meaning), they would be more likely to experience a sense of purpose in life. Experience of meaningfulness and self-determination at work is crucial for employees' satisfaction and intrinsic motivation and concerned with their individualized and holistic interests at work and thus, pertinent to their positive psychological state (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Bandura, 1986; Cogner & Kanungo, 1988; Speitzer, 1995). Likewise, highly self-efficacious employees (i.e., competence) are likely to have greater goal expectations, expend more effort and perseverance in challenging circumstances, and experience an enhanced sense of personal growth. Perceptions of competence have been associated with increased motivation and performance in the workplace (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When employees perceive that they can influence or make a difference in significant outcomes (i.e., impact), they are likely to feel more involved, attain a sense of satisfaction with regard to their work and are more likely to develop a positive self-image or self-acceptance (Liden et al., 2000).

However, despite the possible positive links between employees' PE with their mental health and PWB, there is minimal direct research connecting PE to mental health and PWB. As indicated earlier, in Indian settings, the feelings of empowerment may not always lead to experience of positive emotions and well-being. Instead, employees in Indian organization might react to the responsibility and extra burden congruent with empowerment with distress and withdrawal. In the light of this background, the following research question can be put forth:

Research question 2: *How does PE at work influence the general mental health and psychological well being of employees in Indian organizations?*

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is typically defined as an emotional state which reflects the feelings/affective response one has towards his/her job or job situation (Spector, 1997). It is the degree to which an employee's needs are met at work (Locke, 1976). It is a multi-faceted construct which includes both extrinsic and intrinsic components of the job as well as social satisfaction (Schnake, 1983). Job satisfaction has been established as an indicator of job induced well-being (Wright & Bonett, 2007).

According to job characteristics model, critical psychological states, including experienced meaningfulness and knowledge of results, would impact satisfaction at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Thomas and Tymon (1994) proposed that since the different facets of PE produce workplace rewards which are intrinsic to the individual, it should be positively associated with job satisfaction. The links between individual empowerment dimensions and job satisfaction have varied empirical evidence. First, positive association has been demonstrated between meaning and job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Personal meaning has been considered as a significant prerequisite of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Perceived meaningfulness leads to increased commitment and convergence of energy (Kanter, 1983) and hence fulfilment of coveted work values, which in turn, leads to job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Regarding the self-determination dimension, studies show that personal control and autonomy are positively related to job satisfaction as they enhance one's sense of agency in terms of task accomplishment (Spector, 1986; Liden et al., 1994; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). There is a lack of consistent support concerning the impact-satisfaction and competence-satisfaction relationships. Theoretically, employees with enhanced perceptions of competence would be confident about their success at work and therefore, would be happier with various aspects of their job (Martinko & Gardner, 1982). Theoretically, when employees perceive that they are responsible for outcomes significant to the organization, they are likely to experience job satisfaction (Ashforth, 1989). Thomas and Tymon (1994) demonstrated positive

association between impact and satisfaction, but Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason (1997) did not find any support for this relationship. Instead, they accounted for a positive association between competence and job satisfaction only among subordinates, not among managers. Contrarily, Carless (2004) reported that competence had a negative impact on job satisfaction. Other studies have demonstrated insignificant relationship between the dimensions of PE and job satisfaction (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Some scholars have suggested that the interaction among the four dimensions of PE could partially explain the inconsistent and sometimes opposing results pertaining to the relationship of job satisfaction with impact and competence (Wang & Lee, 2009).

The findings pertaining to the link between PE and job satisfaction are mixed and inconclusive. Furthermore, the relationship between PE and job satisfaction might be different in Indian work settings characterized by dependence proneness and high power distance. In fact, Robert and his colleagues (2000) reported a negative relationship between PE and employee job satisfaction in India, which was attributed to the fact that Indians prefer a hierarchical structure over participative practices. In a similar vein, in high power distance cultures, empowering practices such as employee participation did not boost job satisfaction and job performance (Eylon & Au, 1999). To explore such inconsistent findings and to explore the possible role of culture, there is a need, at the empirical level, to examine the effects of PE and its individual dimensions on job satisfaction in a cultural context like India. In order to consolidate and construct a concrete body of research about the links between PE and job satisfaction, the researcher has raised the following research question:

Research question 3: *How does PE at work influence the level job satisfaction experienced by employees in Indian organizations?*

Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Effectiveness

PE has been associated with positive work performance, including employee effectiveness (Spreitzer et al. (1997); D’Innocenzo et al., 2016) and

employee productivity (Koberg, et al., 1999). But it is more complicated to examine the relationship between perception of empowerment and organizational effectiveness. This is because there is hardly any consensus on how organizational effectiveness should be measured (Cameron & Whetten, 1983). No single criterion or a set of criteria is pervasive and the outcome variables differ from study to study (Brews & Hunt, 1999). Financial performance is not a sufficient indicator of organizational effectiveness; it is more practical to use both subjective as well as objective measures.

In the current research, the researcher proposes to use an indirect measure of organizational effectiveness, organizational commitment (OC). Although OC is considered to be an employee attitude, the desire to maintain organizational membership has been observed to be to have a positive relationship with the motivation to participate in behaviours supportive to organizational goals (Angle & Perry, 1981). It is assumed that organizations with highly committed employees would have high participation as well as production. These organizations are likely to display comparatively lower levels of absenteeism, tardiness and voluntary turnover, and higher levels of operating efficiency and ability to adapt to contingencies. Organizations depend on committed employees to create and maintain competitive advantage and superior performance. OC has been demonstrated as a significant contributor to organizational performance in terms of various performance measures including financial success, quality, shrinkage, productivity, operating expenses and pre-tax profits (Steyrer, Schiffinger, & Lang, 2008; Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003; Kundu & Kumar, 2017).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment (OC) elucidates an affective state that defines the relationship of employees with the organization they work for and that which impacts their decision keep working for the organization (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001). Considering the conceptualization of OC as an affective state or an attitude, Cook and Wall (1980) have delineated identification (sense of pride for the organization

and internalization of organizational goals), loyalty (sense of emotional attachment and belongingness to the organization manifested as a strong desire to maintain membership with the organization) and involvement (willingness to invest personal effort on behalf of organization) as three main components of OC. Meyer and Allen's (1991) conceptualization of affective commitment (emotional attachment, sense of identification, and involvement with the organization and its goals) captures all these three components of OC.

Job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback intrinsically motivate employees and enable them to experience the critical psychological states of meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results, which are necessary for enhanced work motivation and OC (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Similarly, empowering organizational practices like providing autonomy in decision-making and assigning responsibility to the employees would facilitate their perceptions of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Liden et al., 2000). Employees are expected to appreciate such empowering experiences. Consequently, employees more likely to reciprocate by feeling deeply committed to the organization (Avolio et al., 2004; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), according to the tenets of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In addition to job characteristics and job performance, perceived organizational support and opportunities to be involved in the goal-setting and decision-making processes contribute to intrinsically-satisfying experiences for employees, which are expected to serve as antecedent to affective commitment (Steers, 1977; Mottaz, 1988).

Research has demonstrated that experience of empowerment is positively associated with OC (Avolio, et al. 2004; Liden et al., 2000; Harris et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2013) and inversely related to intentions to quit (Sparrowe, 1994; Koberg et al., 1999). Meaning dimension can be specifically linked to OC, as individual-organizational value congruency has been identified as crucial in inducing commitment (Liden et al., 2000). Despite evidence of positive links between these

two constructs, questions can be raised as to whether empowering workplace experiences would have positive impact on employee OC in the socio-cultural environment where Indian organizations operate. Attributing to socio-cultural characteristics like high power distance and dependence proneness, there is a possibility that employees would negatively perceive the autonomy, challenge, and responsibility that comes with empowerment. So, instead of reciprocating positively to empowerment attempts of the organization, they might react to them with stress and withdrawal (Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004; Robert et al., 2000). So, it is justifiable to explore the relationship in the Indian work context. In light of this background, the researcher has raised the following research question:

Research question 4: *How does PE at work influence the level organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations?*

Leadership and Psychological Empowerment

Along with socio-political support, perceived high-performance managerial practices and characteristics of the job, leadership has emerged to be an important prerequisite for fostering PE in workplace (Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). Spreitzer (2008) and Siegall and Gardner (2000) concluded that a supportive and trusting leader-subordinate relationship is a significant contextual antecedent of employee's PE. Leaders, by providing information about goals, enable employees to evaluate the value of their work and consequently increase their perceptions of meaning (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Also, by encouraging employees to participate more and by granting them autonomy, leaders can increase their feelings of impact and self-determination (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Finally, leaders can set examples for their employees, mentor and coach them, and provide them feedback about their work, which would serve as substantial sources of self-efficacy information that increase employees' feelings of competence (Bandura, 1999). Since leaders play a crucial role in shaping the work experience of employees, positive forms of leadership such as authentic leadership, participative leadership, transformational leadership, and empowering leadership are expected to enhance perceptions of PE

in employees (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). In this section the researcher makes an attempt to understand the links between EL and PE.

Empowering Leadership

Empowering leader behaviours have emerged as a prominent style which involves granting decision autonomy to employees (Bennis & Townsend, 1997). Known as *Super Leadership* in popular media, empowering leadership (EL) has been defined as the process of leading others to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 1980, 1991, 2001). EL highlights the significance of leaders actively encouraging and enabling followers to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 1987). Self-leadership, the behavioural and cognitive strategies that one uses to influence his/her own behaviour in a positive manner, forms the core of EL.

The evolution of EL can be traced back to the Ohio State leadership studies on consideration (Fleishman, 1953); work on participative leadership and supportive leadership (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Locke & Schweiger, 1979); and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Social cognitive theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1986) and participative goal-setting research (Erez & Arad, 1986) provide theoretical bases to this form of leadership. The fundamental tenet of SCT is triadic reciprocity, which posits that *individuals* impact their *environment* through their *behaviour*, and in turn, *both environment and behaviour together* influence the individual (Bandura, 1986). From a leadership perspective it can be implied that performance of the subordinates can be facilitated by encouraging them to use self-leadership strategies to manage behaviours and cognitive processes relevant to their work context. Observational learning through behavioural modelling is another significant proposition of SCT (Bandura, 1986). The EL perspective promotes the modelling of self-leadership behaviours by leaders and hence facilitates consequent adoption of these strategies by the subordinates (Manz & Sims, 2001; Pearce & Sims, 2002). The focus on developing self-leadership skills in subordinates is more in keeping with participative goal setting. Major findings regarding goal setting theory demonstrate that participatively-set goals lead to greater employee satisfaction and performance

(Erez & Arad, 1986). EL has roots in the shared leadership approach, where leadership is distributed across the organizational hierarchy, which enables employees at all levels to take initiative and make decisions (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Ford & Fottler, 1995). According to Amundsen and Martinsen (2014), “to empower is more about giving influence to than having influence over” (p.488). Thus, autonomy through power sharing is a key characteristic of EL. Deci & Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory (SDT) supports the justification for granting autonomy. Research on this model has demonstrated positive effects of autonomy-supportive managerial style on a range of employee outcomes, such as, performance appraisals, psychological adjustment on the job, and task motivation (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Arnold et al. (2000) have identified the following dimensions of EL:

- *Leading by example*: It includes behaviours that reflect the commitment of the leaders towards their own work and their team members’ work.
- *Participative decision making*: It involves leaders taking into consideration and using inputs of subordinates in making decisions.
- *Coaching*: It consists of a collection of behaviours through which team members become educated and self-reliant.
- *Informing*: Informing is circulation of company wide information such as mission and philosophy and other important information by the leaders to their subordinates.
- *Showing concern*: Showing concern refers to a set of behaviours which demonstrate a leader’s general regard for the well-being of subordinates.

EL is distinct from other approaches of leadership. Contrary to the directive and transactional leadership approaches, which include close supervision in accomplishing assigned goals and creation of reward contingencies resulting into calculative compliance respectively, EL approach encourages followers to create self-set goals and use self-leadership strategies (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Although EL shares similarities with

transformational leadership, these approaches are distinct from each other. EL emphasises on delegation of authority, information, and resources to employees. Transformational leadership, through the processes of internalization and identification, endeavours to transform the goals and ambitions of employees to those of the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Although they share common theoretical bases, EL and self-leadership are distinct concepts. Self-leadership comprises of an all-encompassing set of strategies underlying the behaviours, thoughts and feelings that one uses to wield influence over oneself (Manz & Sims, 2001). Self-leadership is what an individual does to lead himself/herself. The leader who develops each person into an effective self-leader is called an empowering leader or a super leader. The EL perspective comprises of behaviours intended to provide followers with the behavioural and cognitive skills necessary to exercise self-leadership (Manz & Sims, 2001; Pearce & Sims, 2002). These include displaying and encouraging self-leadership strategies, individual initiative, personal responsibility, self-problem solving, self-confidence and psychological ownership of work. Zhang and Bartol (2010) summed up the concept of EL very aptly, when they defined it as, “the process of implementing conditions that enable sharing power with an employee by delineating the significance of the employee’s job, providing greater decision-making autonomy, expressing confidence in the employee’s capabilities, and removing hindrances to performance.” (p.109)

Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment

Although EL and PE are analogous, they are elementally different from each other (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). EL can be considered as a form of structural empowerment in which managers provide autonomy and decision-making authority to employees. Contrarily, PE refers to the extent to which employees actually experience and internalize such empowering managerial initiatives.

Empowering leaders attempt to empower their employees by displaying empowering leader behaviours such as fostering participative decision-making, leading by example, informing and communicating, coaching, and showing concern for employees (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Such empowering behaviours are expected to foster increased perceptions of autonomy, control, competence, connectedness, and meaningfulness in the employees (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010). Despite this self-evident conceptual link between EL and empowerment, only recently attempts have been made to explore the relationship between EL and PE (Boudrias et al., 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010; Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Fong & Snape, 2013). Although leadership has been identified as an important antecedent of PE, research pertaining exclusively to the study of EL as a prerequisite for PE has been very few (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014; Chen et al., 2011). Also, the links between EL and PE have hardly been studied in the context of Indian settings. Cultural values like high power distance, uncertainty avoidance and dependence proneness might moderate how people perceive and react to socio-structural empowerment like empowering leader behaviours. The power of EL as an antecedent to PE needs to be explored further in light of Indian socio-cultural values. In light of this background, it becomes imperative to study the links between EL and PE in the Indian work context. Thus, the following research has been put forth:

Research question 5: *What is the relationship between EL and PE?*

Role of Empowerment Role Identity

EL is generally expected to positively impact PE. However, there is a possibility that employees might vary in the degree to which they accept empowerment and feel it, even in the presence of EL (Ahearne et al., 2005; Forrester, 2000). Zhang and Bartol (2010) drew on role identity theory (Stryker & Burke, 2000) to examine this possibility. This theory states that individuals form certain expectations about appropriate behaviour in various roles and internalize them as elements of self or role identities. Role identities are used as cognitive schematas to ascribe meaning to the self, interpret events and behavioural

options (Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Zhang and Bartol (2010) define empowerment role identity as “the extent to which an individual views him- or herself as a person who wants to be empowered in a particular job” (p. 111). Individuals judge some role-identities to be more salient than others and perform various roles according to their salience (McCall & Simmons, 1966; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Researchers have contended that employees vary in the degree to which they aspire for autonomy and control, and some employees are more likely to exhibit resistance to work related decision-making and participation (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997). This kind of resistance has a negative impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Maynard et al., 2007), reinforcing the notion that some employees perceive empowerment as incongruent with their aspirations and role perceptions. Such employees might see themselves as not ready to take on new responsibilities that come with empowerment (Forrester, 2000). Contrarily, an employee who perceives empowerment positively would consider it to be a fit to his role identity set and would hence experience increased PE in reaction to empowering leader behaviours (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

EL was found to enhance feelings of PE to the extent that employees perceive empowerment as a significant element of their role identity. Research pertaining to the moderating role of empowerment role identity in the relationship between EL and PE is very sparse (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). More empirical research needs to be carried out to further explore the moderating role of this construct. Therefore, the authors have raised the following question:

Research question 6: *What is the role of empowerment role identity in the relationship between EL and PE?*

Empowering Leadership and Employee Outcomes

Extensive research has explicated the role of leader behaviours for both individual and team performance (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Judge, Piccolo, & Flies, 2004). EL involves sharing power in order to enhance the motivation and involvement employees in their work (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997, 1999; Thomas &

Velthouse, 1990). Enabling leader behaviours like providing decision-autonomy and responsibility and identifying and eliminating conditions that cultivate powerlessness, prompt an enhanced motivational state among employees (van Dijke et al., 2012). Empirical studies have found positive association of EL with employee performance, organizational efficiency, and leader effectiveness (Ahearne et al., 2005; Arnold *et al.*, 2000; Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Raub & Robert, 2010; Vecchio et al., 2010; Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Kim & Yukl, 1995).

However, increasing evidence suggests that EL does not always lead to positive outcomes across varied organizational contexts and that all employees are not unanimously receptive to empowering initiatives (Humborstad & Kuvaas, 2013; Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims, 2013; Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2013; Ahearne et al., 2005; Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004; Robert et al., 2000). Such studies contend that some employees might regard the additional responsibilities and autonomy resulting from empowerment initiatives as burden and experience anxiety and withdrawal, which would consequently have detrimental effects on their attitudes and performance (Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004). Questions have been raised as to whether the efficacy of EL is valid in Asian cultures (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999), characterized by high power distance and uncertainty avoidance. Although, Fong and Snape (2013) and Zhang and Bartol (2010) demonstrated positive links between EL and employee performance in Chinese employees, more robust insights on the effectiveness of EL can be attained through comprehensive cross-cultural research (Felfe, Yan, & Six, 2008; Cheong et al., 2019). Future work on EL in other non-Western cultures like India can validate the generalizability of these findings. In the following sections, the authors discuss the outcomes of EL in terms of measures of employee well-being (perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction) and an indirect measure of employee effectiveness (organizational commitment).

Perceived Stress

Leadership has been long been argued as a significant factor in determining perceived stress levels of employees and coping (Bass, 1990; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Ryska, 2002). Positive forms of leadership like transformational leadership have been found to be negatively related to perceived stress and burnout (Bass, Numeroff, & Seltzer, 1989; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Empowering leaders facilitate empowering work environments, where an individual is provided with autonomy with all necessary resources and is instilled with confidence on his skills and abilities. Such empowering work environments are instrumental in reducing work place stress (Laschinger et al., 2004; Laschinger & Havens, 1997). EL behaviours such as providing feedback, coaching/support, communication/informing, encouraging participation and empowerment, showing concern/ consideration, displaying integrity were crucial in maintaining employee well-being in face of stressful events (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004). EL focuses on mentoring functions which are negatively associated to workplace strain (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

EL facilitates self-leadership among followers (Manz & Sims, 2001; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Self-leadership strategies of self-management (goal-setting, self-monitoring and self-reward), constructive thinking and deriving meaning and satisfaction from one's work serve as means of anticipatory coping (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997) which allows an individual to deal with potential issues before they become threatening (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). EL, by facilitating self-leadership can provide employees with resources that facilitate them to tackle existing stressors as well as avert future stressors from taking place (Unsworth & Mason, 2012).

Empowering leaders, by distributing power and exhibiting confidence in employees' ability to perform at work, offer the employees a sense of attachment to work and positively influence employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Engaged employees are characterized by energy, involvement and they perceive their work as challenging and stimulating as opposed to

stressful and taxing (Leiter & Maslach, 2009). Work engagement is a positive state of mind related to fulfilment and well-being at work and defined by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al. 2002). Vigour is related to mental resilience and persistence even in challenging circumstances. However, there is a dark side to work engagement. Employees with elevated levels of work engagement are set apart from the rest by intense absorption in work such that they are very personally invested and concerned with their work (Macey & Schneider, 2008). As a result, such employees will have fewer psychological resources available to attend to the commitments and responsibilities related to their family role. This might create work-family conflict (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Small & Riley, 1990). Also, engaged employees who devote all their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources to work are likely experience more distress if things do not go as planned.

The theoretical arguments and empirical evidence mentioned in this section makes it reasonable to explore the links between EL and perceived stress. Research examining the direct links between empowering style of leadership and perceived stress levels of employees is very sparse. Also, the Indian socio-cultural context might have a role to play in how EL behaviours would be perceived by the followers. So, there arises a need to explore this relationship in the context of Indian work settings. Thus, the researcher has put forward the following research question:

Research question 7: *How does EL influence the level of perceived stress experienced by employees in Indian organizations?*

General Mental Health and Psychological Well-being

Research has demonstrated that leadership influences employee mental health and psychological well-being. Specifically, positive supervisory behaviours such as providing more autonomy to the employees, communicating and providing information, and showing concern for employees and their well-being had significant effect on employee mental health (conceptualized as absence of psychiatric disturbance), over and above social support and stressful events

(Gilbreath & Benson, 2004). van Dierendonck et al. (2004) examined an analogous conceptualization of leader behaviours and found that high quality leadership behaviour was related to enhanced employee well-being, both job-related affective well-being (e.g., experiencing positive emotions) and context-free psychological well-being (e.g., absence of generalized psychosomatic complaints). Dimensions of transformational leadership have been found to be positively related to positive mental health characterized by a sense of achievement and accomplishment (Arnold et al., 2007).

EL behaviours impact the psychological states of employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Specifically, by following a participative style of leadership (Bass, 2000), leaders can positively affect psychological resources of employees. Achievement of personal goals has a significant role to play in subjective well-being of an individual (McGregor & Little, 1998; Brunstein, 1993). Empowering experiences at work can lead to a positive state of mind by providing employees autonomy to achieve personal goals which are congruent to organizational goals and clearing the path to goal accomplishment. Empowering leaders increases the intrinsic motivation of employees by displaying supportive behaviours and hence elevates positive affect among employees (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Furthermore, leader's empowering behaviours have been found to be positively associated with self-efficacy (Ahearne et al., 2005), optimism, hope (Segers, Prins, & Brouwers, 2009) and resilience (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) among employees. PsyCap, a psychological state characterized by self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience has been demonstrated as a positive resource for combating occupational stress (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009), depression (Liu et al., 2012) and burnout (Wang et al., 2012).

EL emphasizes on leaders-subordinate relationship whilst attending to individual psychological factors for motivation (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). PWB has been associated with four job characteristics: skill utilization, workload, job insecurity and autonomy (Witte, 1999). Empowering leader behaviours, through participatory decision making, can lead to increased autonomy and skill utilization among employees. Participative goal-setting facilitates the satisfaction

of higher psychological needs for autonomy and personal growth by elevating the experience of intrinsic motivation and a sense of control (Erez & Arad, 1986). Mentoring functions to make employees self-reliant and disseminating required information to the employees would help them in dealing with the work load more effectively. Displaying a general regard for employees' well-being would help them to combat job related insecurities and other problems they might face at work. The characteristics of EL, emphasizing the value of the work, participative decision making, displaying confidence in employees, and eliminating bureaucratic constraints, would help employees to attain a positive state of mind with regard to both their work and personal lives. It can be argued that through its impact on the empowerment perceptions of employees, EL leads to positive psychological functioning and realization of full potential essential to achieve psychological well-being. EL behaviours would positively influence eudaimonic well-being dimensions like sense of autonomy, concrete purpose in life and personal growth by enhancing the experience of PE of employees. In a similar vein, EL behaviours also lead to work engagement which energizes a person and engenders perceptions of well-being (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The theoretical arguments and empirical research discussed in this section make it plausible to investigate the relationship of EL with mental health and psychological well-being of employees. Research pertaining to the relationship between empowering leader behaviours and dimensions of psychological well-being including experience of positive emotions and realization of full potential is very sparse. The socio-cultural features of the Indian work context like dependence proneness and high power dimensions might impact the way employees perceive empowering leader behaviours. Consequently, such perceptions would affect employee outcomes with regard to their mental health and psychological well-being. Hence the researchers propose the following research question:

Research question 8: *How does EL influence the mental health and psychological well being of employees in Indian organizations?*

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

EL is characterized by leaders supporting and empowering the employees to perform through mentoring, granting decision autonomy, training, self-defined goal focus, emotional support and information-sharing (Arnold *et al.*, 2000). Self-determination theory proposes that satisfaction of employees' needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness is instrumental in their intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). EL can be perceived as an autonomy-supporting type of leadership, hence gratifying their psychological need for autonomy. Empowering leaders provide employees opportunities to improve their job-related skill, learning and mastery experiences by displaying employee development behaviours such as modelling, guiding and coaching, thus increasing their perceptions of personal competence. Leaders displaying personal concern for the needs and problems of the employees can facilitate the satisfaction of their need for relatedness. Employees are more likely to experience meaningfulness at work and feel confident to execute job activities on a self-managed basis. Opportunities to self-manage their work and be responsible for work outcomes are expected to intrinsically motivate employees, and positively impact work attitudes like job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Positive forms of leadership like transformational leadership have been found to have significant positive impact on job satisfaction of employees (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2004). Leadership behaviours like participative decision-making, individualized concern, and motivation enhances the job satisfaction experienced by employees (Bogler, 2001; Neimanich & Keller, 2007). Considering the supportive, motivational, and power sharing conceptualizations of EL, it is plausible to assume that EL would positively affect job satisfaction. In this respect, it was noted that leaders who facilitate employees' autonomous work motivation would contribute to their personal satisfaction (Stone, Deci, & Ryan, 2009). In addition, empowering leader behaviours contribute to employee self-leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015). And, behaviour-focused self-leadership strategies and training in thought strategies have been found to facilitate job satisfaction among employees (Neck & Manz, 1996). In fact, positive association has been

demonstrated between job satisfaction and EL (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Dewettinck & van Amejide, 2011; Vecchio et al., 2010).

A considerable amount of research has demonstrated that transformational leaders can motivate their followers to get more involved in their work and increase their level of organizational commitment (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). In the same vein, EL behaviours like expressing confidence in employees' capacity to successfully carry out their tasks, encouraging self-management at their own work and decision-making, are expected to make the employees more emotionally involved and personally accountable in work processes, hence making them more deeply and affectively committed to their organization (Chen et al., 2011; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). When employees receive support and ample prospects to express ideas at work, it can be expected that they would be more deeply committed to the organization (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009). According to the psychological contract theory, employees may consider leaders as representative of the organization and hence perceive treatment and support they receive from their leader to be a form of organizational support (Rousseau, 1998). Considering the norm of reciprocity and tenets of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), it can be assumed that employees would reciprocate to supportive empowering leader behaviours by exhibiting more commitment and loyalty to the organization (Kim & Beehr, 2018).

Only recently, research exploring the relationship of EL with job satisfaction and organizational commitment has started taking socio-cultural values into account (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Kim & Beehr, 2018). The congruity between managerial practices and cultural values is necessary for positive cognitive evaluations like job satisfaction to happen (Robert et al., 2000). Consequently, it becomes mandatory to explore the relationship between EL behaviours like autonomy and power sharing with job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the context of Indian work settings characterized by high power distance and dependence proneness. Considering the theoretical

arguments backed by empirical evidence and taking in account the fact that cultural characteristics such as dependence proneness, power distance and uncertainty might impact the efficacy of EL, the author has put forth the following questions:

Research question 9: *How does EL at work influence the level of job satisfaction experienced by employees in Indian organizations?*

Research question 10: *How does EL influence the organizational commitment of employees in Indian organizations?*

Psychological Empowerment as a Mediator in the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Employee Outcomes

PE can be considered as a mediating mechanism via which contextual elements such as leadership impact employee outcomes (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Spreitzer, 1995). Menon (2001) contended, EL would not lead to its expected effects unless employees actually experience PE. Empowered employees with enhanced perceptions of meaning and personal competence in their work, are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation and have active orientation with regard to their work role and work context (Spreitzer, 1995), and thereby expected to perform better. Existing literature implies that the links between leadership and performance outcomes are mediated by PE and intrinsic motivation both at individual and group levels (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Srivastava, et al., 2006). The links between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, and participative decision-making and organizational citizenship, both are mediated by PE (Avolio et al., 2004; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Chen *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, it is can be assumed that PE would mediate the relationship between EL and employee outcomes.

Some studies have demonstrated that PE plays an intervening role in the relationship between EL and employee outcomes such as creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015) and organizational citizenship behaviour (Auh et al., 2013). Research has demonstrated PE to be a significant mediator the relationship between EL and positive job attitudes such as job

satisfaction and organizational commitment (Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000; Fong & Snape, 2013).

It is evident from the existing literature that PE is an important mediating mechanism linking EL with work outcomes. For the intended outcomes of EL to occur, the employees must experience PE. Nonetheless, there is scant research examining the mediating role of PE in the Indian work context characterized by its unique socio-cultural values. Further studies are required to study this mediation and the mechanism involved in it. Also, with the exception of a couple of studies, the potential mediating role in the relationship between EL and psychological health and well-being has not been explored. In light of this background, the following research question was raised:

Research question 11: *Does PE mediate the relationship between empowering relationship and employee outcomes?*

An Integrated Model of Empowerment and Employee Outcomes

It can thus be concluded that given the turbulent business environment characterized by flatter organizational structures and complex nature of work, organizations can achieve a competitive edge by empowering their employees to take action and work for the organizational interests without being micro-managed. Structural empowerment is exercised in the form organizational structures, policies, processes and practices which lead to decentralized and flattened hierarchy and increased participation of employees. But, the expected benefits of structural empowerment initiatives on employee and organizational outcomes would be realized only when employees truly experience empowerment, i.e., psychological empowerment. Thus, the researchers have proposed a framework that encompasses both socio-structural and psychological approaches to empowerment. This framework consists of exploring the effect of empowering leadership, the main independent variable on four employee well-being outcomes (perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction) and one indirect measure of organizational effectiveness (organizational commitment), which are the main dependent variable. The focus

is on the psychological experience of empowerment at workplace, which has been conceptualized as a mediator through which EL will ultimately influence the employee outcomes. In analyzing PE as a mediator, the effect of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and impact of psychological empowerment on the employee outcomes, both has been taken into consideration. Empowerment role identity has been conceived as to moderate the link between EL and PE.

Management theories and practitioner alike have emphasized the power of workplace empowerment in yielding positive employee attitudes and performance (Liden et al., 2000). The current research makes an attempt to synthesize empowerment from a macro and a micro perspective: as an autonomy-supporting managerial practice (i.e., EL) and as a facilitating psychological experience (i.e., PE). Leaders play a significant role in shaping the work experience of employees and consequently, supportive forms of leadership such as transformational leadership have been demonstrated to enhance employees' perceptions of psychological empowerment (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011; Avolio et al., 2004). Empowering leadership, an enabling style of leadership, enhances the perceptions of empowerment at workplace, which subsequently has a positive effect on employee health and well-being and performance. However, it also depends on the readiness of the employees to welcome the empowerment. While a considerable amount of research had explored the effects of leadership and psychological empowerment separately, only recently the interconnectedness between these constructs and employee outcomes were studied empirically (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014; Chen et al., 2011). Furthermore, these linkages have mostly been examined in the Western context. They need to be studied in cultural contexts like India which are considerably different from that of the West and are characterized by socio-cultural values like high power distance, dependence proneness and uncertainty avoidance. Specifically, the researcher is interested in finding out whether empowering leader behaviours lead to positive employee outcomes through their influence on psychological empowerment in Indian organizations. Therefore, the researcher

suggests the need to conduct further empirical research using the framework presented in Figure 1.

Plan of the Thesis

The present dissertation has the following structure:

Chapter 1 deals with the meaning and importance of employee empowerment and its two primary approaches: socio-structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. Furthermore, it makes an attempt to link both the forms of empowerment (empowering leadership and psychological empowerment) and examine their impact on employee health and well-being and performance. Lastly, it tries to postulate the framework encompassing all these variables.

Chapter 2 reports the first study of the current research work.

Chapter 3 describes Study 2A and Study 2B of the present research.

Chapter 4 presents general discussion encompassing all the three studies.

Chapter 5 summarizes the major findings of the present research work, draws conclusions and implications, cites potential limitations and explores directions for future research.

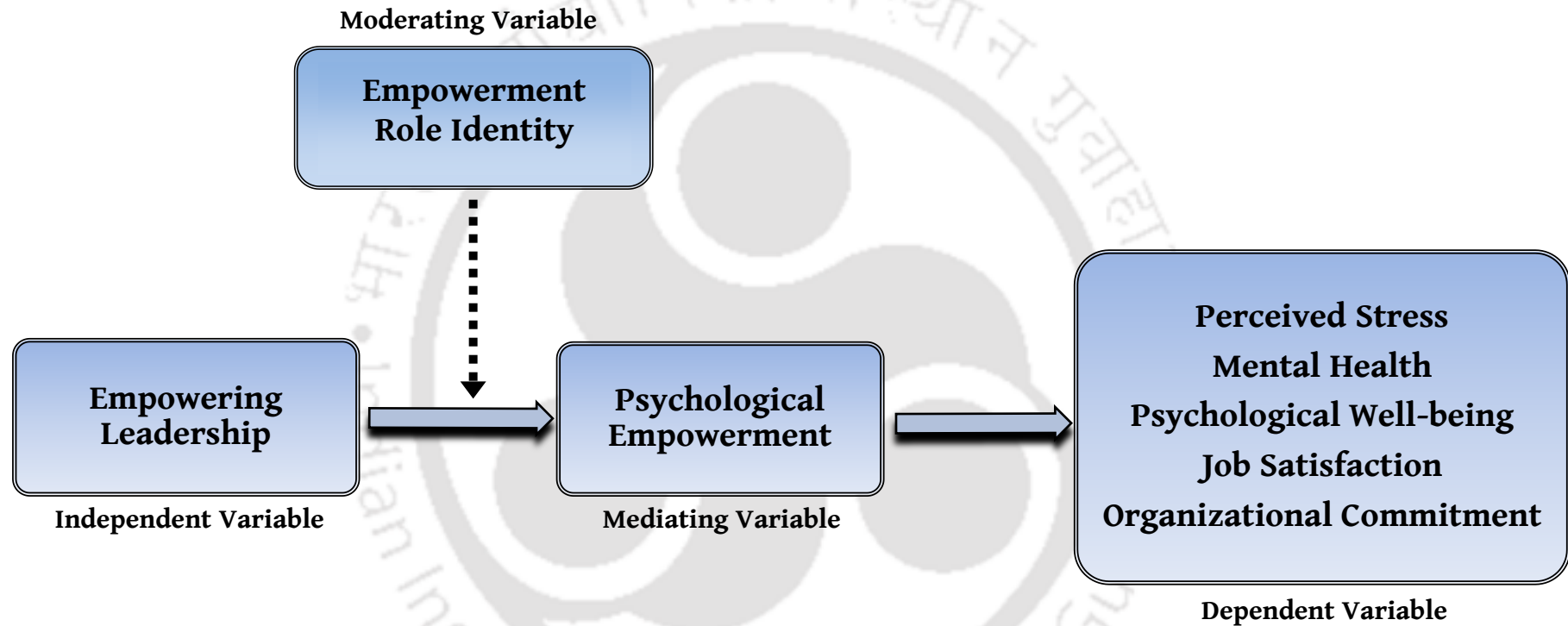


Figure 1: Conceptual framework
(broken line indicates moderating effect)

Chapter 2

The earlier chapter presented the review of literature in the area of employee empowerment and its outcomes and highlighted the lacuna in the literature that exists in this regard. The researcher postulated a conceptual framework integrating both micro and macro perspectives of empowerment at workplace, which encompasses both socio-structural empowerment (in the form of leadership) as well as psychological experience of empowerment, and their potential impact on employees' health and well-being and performance. The framework also attempts to establish psychological empowerment as a mediating mechanism through which socio-structural forms of empowerment like empowering leadership ultimately influence employee outcomes. Three studies were carried out to answer the research questions raised in Chapter 1. The current chapter describes how Study 1 was conducted and presents the findings.

As discussed in the earlier chapter, the focus of this research is psychological empowerment (PE) and Study 1 was conducted to examine the impact of PE on a crucial employee well-being outcome, perceived stress. Although inconsistencies regarding the relationship between PE and perceived stress exist in the literature, PE has mostly been found to have a negative effect on perceived stress (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011; Schermuly, Busch, & Graßman, 2017). The present research draws attention to a possibility that the negative links between PE and perceived stress may be arguable when evaluated in Indian work settings characterised by socio-cultural values like dependence proneness and high power distance. To explore this possibility, Study 1 was designed to examine the links between PE at work and perceived stress in the Indian milieu. Potential moderating effects of gender, personality (generalized self-efficacy and Big-5 traits) and power distance on this relationship were also investigated.

Study 1

Key commercial and technological factors have resulted into increased customer orientation and decentralized organizational structures (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015). To yield successful results in such a scenario, organizations need the input of every employee across the organizational hierarchy. Organizations can attain this by empowering their employees to take action and work for the collective interests of the organization without being micro-managed (O'Toole & Lawler, 2006). A distinct perspective of empowerment at work that has emerged as a key driver of many employee outcomes is the motivational approach to empowerment, i.e., psychological empowerment (PE). Spreitzer (1995), in line with the conceptualization put forward by Cogner and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990), defined PE as increased intrinsic motivation embodying a sense of control about one's work and an active orientation to one's work role. Empowerment as a form of intrinsic motivation is the focus of the current research.

Numerous studies attest to the power of empowerment to benefit the organization in terms of both organizational effectiveness and positive employee attitudes (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Maynard, Mathieu, Gilson, O'Boyle, & Cigularov, 2013; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). In a similar vein, most empirical studies involving measurement of PE have found negative links between cognitions about empowerment and job-related strain (Thomas & Tymon, 1994). But, this may not be the case when this relationship is evaluated in Indian work settings characterized by socio-cultural values like dependence proneness and high power distance. Further, dispositions have been assumed to play an important role in the empowerment research (Spreitzer, 2008). Personality can affect the way an individual reacts to PE. Personality variables have also been found to play a crucial role in the experience of perceived stress.

Given this backdrop, the first objective of this study was to examine the effect of PE on perceived stress in Indian work settings. This would address a research question raised in the previous chapter: *How does PE at work influence the*

perceived levels of stress among employees in Indian organizations? Furthermore, it aimed to explore the role of personality variables (generalized self-efficacy and the Big-5 personality traits) and power distance in the relationship between PE and perceived stress. Hence, this study raised the following two additional research questions and made an attempt to answer them:

Research question: *What role does personality play in the relationship between PE at workplace and perceived stress?*

Research question: *What role does power distance play in the relationship between PE at workplace and perceived stress?*

Additionally, since gender is considered an important factor in the experience and susceptibility to workplace stress, the role of gender in the relationship between PE and perceived stress was investigated.

Study 1 is a follow-up to the existing research on PE and perceived stress in the following ways. First, this study would contribute to the existing empowerment literature by testing the PE-perceived stress relationship along with the cultural dimension of power distance in a different milieu than the West—the Indian context. Second, although dispositions are considered to be fundamental in the experience of empowerment, hardly any research has been carried out to examine the role of personality in the relationship between PE at work and its outcomes (Spreitzer, 2008). By examining the moderating role of personality variables like generalized self-efficacy and Big 5 traits in this relationship, the current study made an attempt to fill this lacuna.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

Psychological Empowerment and Perceived Stress

Based on two motivational frameworks, the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and Bandura's (1986) research on self-efficacy, two distinct but interrelated conceptualizations on empowerment at work have emerged in the literature: the social-structural approach and the psychological approach (Menon, 2001; Spreitzer, 1995). The social-structural approach construes empowerment as granting of power and decision-making authority, while the motivational/psychological approach conceptualizes it as psychological enabling

(Menon, 2001). The current study focuses on the psychological experience of empowerment, which is a form of intrinsic motivation manifested in four cognitions: meaning (value of work goal), competence (self-efficacy), self-determination (autonomy in initiation and continuation of work behaviours), and impact (influence on work outcomes) (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995). Empowering initiatives will have their intended effects on the employees to the extent that employees actually experience empowerment (Menon, 2001). Psychologically empowered employees both want to and are able to, shape their work role and context, thus capacitating them to utilize their abilities to improve their performance and quality of their own working life (Boudrias, Gaudreau, & Laschinger, 2004).

Perceived stress is the degree to which an individual perceives (appraises) that the environmental demands exceed his ability to cope. Perceived stress is defined as “an outcome variable - measuring the experienced level of stress as a function of stressful events, coping processes and personality factors, etc” (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983, p. 386). It has been found to impact the physical and mental health of employees. Employee health influences performance and attitudinal outcomes like turnover intentions, organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment, engagement, job satisfaction, etc. Also, escalating costs associated with health care has made organizations increasingly interested in the health implications of work (Spreitzer, 2008).

The Job Demands- Resources theory proposes that strain is experienced when demands on the employees exceed their resources to deal with these demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources are job characteristics which decrease the impact of job demands. The relationship between job resources and positive outcomes like work engagement and satisfaction can be explained by a motivational mechanism (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Recent research has demonstrated that PE, a type of intrinsic task motivation, and its individual dimensions mediate the impact of job resources like task autonomy, skill utilization and social support on work engagement and employee well-being (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Quinones, Broeck,

& De Witte, 2013). Hence, like job resources, PE acts as a personal resource and protects employees from job demands and its corresponding impact by facilitating positive work related states such as work engagement (Spreitzer et al., 1997; Quinones, Broeck, & De Witte, 2013).

According to Karasek's (1979) job strain model, job related strain stems from the cumulative effects of work demands and decision-making latitude. The negative impact of job demand is maximal when decision latitude (choice) is minimal, and it diminishes as choice escalates (Karasek, 1979). The perception of choice at work or control over potential stressor can reduce strain (Sutton & Kahn, 1987). Greater competence on the job is associated with less strain as those possessing requisite knowledge and skills will have improved ability to deal with job demands (Hochwalder & Brucefors, 2005). Universal learned helplessness, the opposite of opportunity to have impact, has been empirically established to reduce the ability to recognize opportunities, motivation, and positive affect (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978). Going by these arguments, it is likely that PE would decrease the level of perceived stress experienced by employees. Empirical studies involving measurement of PE have found negative links between cognitions about empowerment and job-related strain (Thomas & Tymon, 1994; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011; Schermuly, Busch, & Graman, 2017; Livne & Rashkovits, 2018).

However, an important debate concerns the relationship between PE and perceived strain (Spreitzer, 2008). For some, empowerment involves expanding the breadth of employee responsibilities without an accompanying increase in rank or pay (Harley, Allen, & Sargent, 2007). Some literature reports that when perceived autonomy is too high, there is a possibility that employees might experience a lack of direction or feel that they have an excess of responsibility, making them to encounter role stress, specifically role ambiguity (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Eylon & Bamberger, 2000; Conner & Douglas, 2005). The tasks are going to be less clearly defined for an empowered employee, if he/she does not have a realistic idea of how to execute them. Also, empowerment escalates role conflict as employees experience elevated frustration due to conflicting

expectations of numerous parties (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Employees who experience more meaning at work, have a closer connection to their work and tend to be more personally invested in it (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). They are more likely to experience job related strain when things do not go as planned. Thus, a possibility exists that empowerment can cause elevated feelings of strain among employees. This possibility becomes more plausible when evaluated in Indian work settings. Western and Indian investigators alike have identified high dependency proneness as a core Indian characteristic (Minturn & Hitchcock, 1963; Chatopadhyaya, 1975; Sinha 1970). Dependence proneness is correlated with anxiety, traditionalism, conformity, obedience, apathy and passivity (Sinha, 1970). It is reinforced by social support and results into excessive dependency that manifests in resistance to innovation, mobility and risk taking. Employees in Indian organizations display considerable dependency on their leaders (Chatopadhyaya, 1975; Sinha, 1970). Empowerment involves increasing the scope of employee responsibilities, and the dependence prone Indian employees, who are dependent on their authority for almost every aspect of their jobs, might not perceive it positively and consider the added responsibilities a burden. When autonomy is too high, owing to their dependence prone nature, employees might feel that they have too much responsibility and may actually experience strain. Consequently, there is a possibility that, instead of mitigating, PE at work might increase the level of perceived stress among employees in Indian work settings. Therefore, it is reasonable to explore the links between PE and perceived stress in the context of Indian work settings. In consistent with previous findings which established the effectiveness of PE in mitigating job related strain, the following hypothesis was put forth:

***Hypothesis 1** - Employees high on PE will experience less perceived stress as compared to employees low on PE in Indian organizations.*

Moderating Effect of Personality

Employees might differ in the extent to which they react to PE and experience stress. It has been suggested that dispositions may moderate empowerment and its outcomes (Spreitzer, 2008). Personality variables have been found to play a role in the experience of and susceptibility to stress (Spreitzer,

2008; Calvo & Garcia, 2018). To assess this prospect, the researcher has drawn on individual differences in personality and has raised the following research question:

Research Question: *What role does personality play in the relationship between PE and perceived stress?*

In the current study, personality has been assessed in terms of generalized self-efficacy and the Big-5 personality traits, namely, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience.

Generalized self-efficacy, a core evaluation trait, is one's assessment of one's fundamental ability to cope, perform, and be successful (Judge & Bono, 2001). An employee confident about his inherent ability to successfully deal with environmental demands may feel more competent to perform his work activity and successfully deal with job demands. Also, highly self-efficacious individuals perceive stressful situations as challenging and adopt more effective stress-coping strategies than those with low self-efficacy (Cassidy et al., 2004).

Extraversion is associated with positive affect, increased social support, assertiveness, higher need for stimulation, high level of energy and work engagement (Bakker et al., 2006; Mostert & Rothman, 2006; Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2006). Extraverted individuals may perceive empowering conditions as more stimulating than stressful. Moreover, they tend to be optimistic and reappraise problems positively (Costa & McCrae, 1992). They use rational and problem-solving coping strategies and positive, social-support seeking reappraisal (Watson & Hubbard, 1996).

Conscientiousness is related to efficiency and self-discipline. Conscientious individuals can bring order in situations with ambiguity (Costa & McCrae, 1995) and are resilient in face of obstacles (Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993). Research has demonstrated that conscientiousness is associated with problem-solving

coping (Watson & Hubbard, 1996) and moderates the detrimental effect of role ambiguity on employee well-being (Miller, Griffin, & Hart, 1999).

Agreeable individuals have the inherent ability to form and maintain high quality relationships with others (Judge et al., 2008). High quality relationships within the organization improve the employee's access to information and resources and increase his perception of control. A modest relationship has been established between agreeableness and social support (Watson & Hubbard, 1996), which buffers the impact of occupational stress (LaRocco, House, & French, 1980). Agreeableness negatively correlates to emotional exhaustion and positively with personal accomplishment (Piedmont, 1993).

Emotionally stable individuals are secure, relaxed, confident and set realistic goals (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998). Emotional stability is positively related to stress tolerance and inversely related to experience of interpersonal stressors (Dijkstra et al., 2005). Emotionally stable individuals are able to cope with the pressures at work and personal domain effectively. Instead of reacting emotionally to stressful conditions, they use approaching coping strategies like problem solving and proactive behavior (Bakker et al., 2006). Emotional stability has been found to moderate the detrimental effect of daily hassles on physical and psychological health (Hills & Norvell, 1991; Cheng et al., 2017). Neuroticism, the opposite of emotional stability, is related to a host of negative outcomes. Neurotic individuals tend to set unrealistic goals for themselves, underestimate their performance and may not truly appreciate the meaning in their work (Eysneck, 1992). They find everyday situations threatening (Spreitzer, 2008) and report high levels of stress and maladjustment in every aspect (Hills & Norvell, 1991).

Those who are open to experience are more likely to accept the challenges and ambiguity that comes with autonomy. Openness to experience is unrelated to coping but individuals high in this dimension would use a flexible approach (Watson & Hubbard, 1996) and humour while dealing with stressful conditions (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

There is a possibility that the impact of PE on perceived stress would depend on how the employees with their particular personality characteristics interpret and react to PE and the stressors present at work. A host of studies have demonstrated the moderating potential of personality in the links between job resources/stressors and strain. For example, it has been reported that agreeableness, emotional stability and extraversion moderate the relationship between conflict experiences at work and occupational stress, with individuals low in these personality dimensions experiencing more strain as compared those who are high in these dimensions (Dijkstra et al., 2005). Similarly, personality dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability moderated the relationship between autonomy inducing style of management and job strain (Benoliel & Somech, 2010). In light of these arguments, it is reasonable to argue that personality variables will interact with PE to influence perceived stress levels of employees. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

Hypothesis 2a – *Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on self-efficacy will experience less stress than those who are low on self-efficacy.*

Hypothesis 2b – *Extraversion moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on extraversion will experience less stress than those who are low on extraversion.*

Hypothesis 2c – *Conscientiousness moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on conscientiousness will experience less stress than those who are low on conscientiousness.*

Hypothesis 2d – *Agreeableness moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on agreeableness will experience less stress than those who are low on agreeableness.*

Hypothesis 2e – *Emotional stability moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on emotional stability will experience less stress than those who are low on emotional stability.*

Hypothesis 2f – *Openness to experience moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on openness to experience will experience less stress than those who are low on openness to experience.*

Moderating Effect of Power Distance

Several scholars have implied that cultural values may moderate the perception and effectiveness of empowerment (Spreitzer, 2008; Seibert, Wang, & Courtwright, 2011). Power distance, a cultural dimension, is defined as “the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 2001; p. 45). Also, the potential role of power distance in the experience of and outcomes of empowerment has been discussed in the literature review presented in Chapter 1. Considering such assumptions the researcher has raised the following research question:

Research question: *What role does power distance play in the relationship between PE and perceived stress?*

In a high power distance culture like India, employees may react less positively to PE because of its emphasis on power-sharing organizational structures and practices (Spreitzer, 2008). Employees high on self-determination and impact may be perceived as threatening by their bosses (Eylon & Au, 1999). Also, it may not be culturally appropriate for employees at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy to have any say in their work. In such contexts, employees may react to the perception of empowerment with feelings of stress and withdrawal (Seibert, Wang, & Courtwright, 2011). Fock et al. (2013) have reported that the positive effects of PE become somewhat weaker in high power distance cultures. Unfortunately, very limited research measuring PE and cultural values exists to make reliable comparisons (Spreitzer, 2008). Moreover, within country cultural variations at the individual level have also been noted (Triandis, 1995). Thus, we make an attempt to explore the moderating effect of individualized power distance in the relationship between PE and job-related strain. Based on these arguments, it was proposed:

Hypothesis 3 – *Power Distance moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, so that individuals high on power distance will experience more stress than those who are low on power distance.*

Moderating Role of Gender in the Psychological Empowerment-Perceived Stress Relationship

Prevailing constructs of PE may be oriented toward a masculine interpretation of empowerment (emphasis on mastery, control) rather than a feminine one (emphasis on connectedness, cooperation) (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995). The concept of power in empowerment can be interpreted varyingly across genders. It has been argued that men are more predisposed than women to define (and express) power as a form of control (Lips, 1985). Despite these conceptual assumptions, gender has been found to have no bearing on PE across many studies (Spreitzer, 2008; Kim & George, 2005; Finegan & Lashinger, 2001). However, gender might play a role in how employees react to PE. We surmise that males are more likely than females to welcome empowerment because of the way empowerment and gender roles (expectations regarding gender-appropriate attitudes and behaviours) are traditionally defined and understood within the larger organizational and societal context. This is more plausible in a masculine socio-cultural context like India (Hofstede, 2001), where the gender roles are distinctive and males are supposed to be more assertive than females (Hofstede, 2001).

Such role expectations will impact an employee's reaction to PE and also how an empowered employee is perceived by others. Females with higher authority, even when their competence exceeds or matches that of their male colleagues, are perceived extra critically by her bosses, peers and subordinates (Nair, 2011). Such work place incivility has been reported to be associated with psychological distress among female employees (Lim, Cordina, & Magley, 2008). Women are still expected to play a more prevalent role in family care (Nair, 2011). Working women, especially working mothers, have to face more multi-role responsibilities and increased imbalance in their work-home interface as compared to their male counterparts. As a result, the extra responsibilities that come with empowerment are likely to exert more pressure on the female employees. Furthermore, gender differences exist in the experience of and susceptibility to stress. Women experience more stress because of stressors

unique to working females, including sexual harassment, sexual inequality, and lower chances of career advancement (Steert et al., 2007). Women are more likely to report the physical symptoms associated with stress and use emotional-focused coping strategies as compared to men (Killien & Brown, 1987). On the basis of these arguments, it has been hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4 - *Gender moderates the relationship between PE and perceived stress, with males experiencing less stress than females in similar empowering conditions.*

All the hypotheses with regard to different variables have been presented in Figure 2.1.



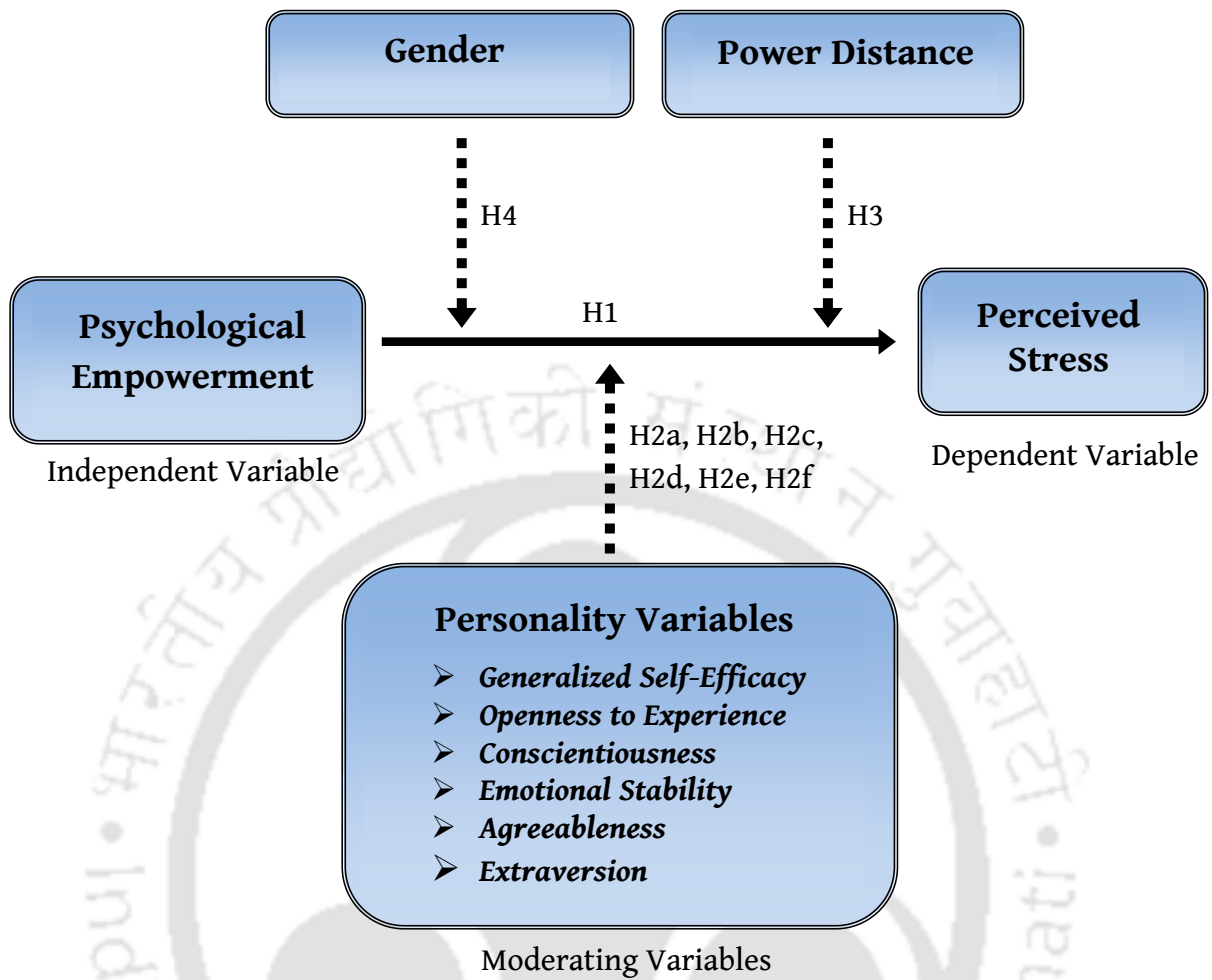


Figure 2.1: Proposed relationships among variables for Study 1 (broken lines indicate moderating effects)

Method

Participants

An experimental study was carried out on 120 employees from four banks in Guwahati, Assam, India (Male = 60, Female = 60). Out of these four banks, three belonged to public sector and one was from private sector. The average organizational tenure of the participants was 6.9 years (SD= 3.85) and it ranged from 2 years to 23 years. Their mean age was 32.70 years (SD=4.91).

Procedure

This current study has used experimental vignette methodology as it allows the researcher to formulate scenarios of the constructs being tested. It provides greater control over the manipulation of independent variables while gathering evidence regarding causation, thereby increasing both internal and external validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Based on the conceptualization of PE and its dimensions by Spreitzer (1995) and Menon (2001), vignettes depicting scenarios of high PE and low PE were formulated. Earlier research has demonstrated that perception of empowerment at workplace can be successfully manipulated through vignettes (Matthews, Diaz, & Cole, 2003). In addition, colleagues familiar with the concept of PE verified the efficacy of these vignettes in eliciting perceptions of empowerment.

An experiment with 2 (high psychological empowerment/low psychological empowerment) × 2 (male/female) between-subjects, factorial design was employed. There were 4 experimental conditions; each participant was exposed to one experimental condition. Two question booklets, each representing one of the two conditions (High PE or Low PE) were prepared.

Experimental Manipulation

PE at work was manipulated by creating two work scenarios where employees experience either high PE or low PE (refer to Appendix A). To see the moderating role of gender in the relationship between PE and stress, half of the participants chosen for the experiment were male and the other half were female. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. They were asked to read the scenario depicted in the vignette and imagine themselves (role-play technique) in the scenario. To induce stress, they were presented with a potentially stress-evoking workplace situation (refer to Appendix A). Finally, they were asked to respond to items of relevant scales measuring stress, generalized self-efficacy, Big-5 dimensions of personality and power distance.

Dependent Measures

All the items of the following measures have been presented in Appendix A.

Perceived stress: Perceived Stress was measured by using Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein's (1983) 10-item Perceived Stress Scale. Sample items are: "In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?"; "In the last month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?". Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). The Cronbach's alpha (α) of the scale is 0.91.

Generalized self-efficacy: Generalized self-efficacy was measured by using the English version of 10-item Generalized Self-efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). Sample items are: "I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough"; "I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events". Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 5(exactly true). The Cronbach's alpha (α) of the scale is 0.90.

Big-5 Personality traits: The Big-5 Personality traits were measured by using the 44- item Big-5 Inventory developed by John and Srivastava (1999). Sample items are: “I describe myself as someone who is talkative” (Extraversion); I describe myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well” (Emotional Stability); “I describe myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them”(Conscientiousness); “I describe myself as someone who likes to reflect, play with interests” (Openness to Experience); “I describe myself as someone who has a forgiving nature” (Agreeableness). Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alphas (α) of the five dimensions ranged from 0.64 to 0.91.

Power distance: For Power Distance, we used the 5-item Power Distance Scale developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988). Sample items are: “Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates”; “Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees”. Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha (α) of the scale is 0.85.

Control variables

It was assumed that age and organizational tenure can influence the constructs included in the study. To rule out the potential confounding effects of age and organizational tenure, we randomly assigned the participants to the high and low PE conditions and attempted to restrict the age and organizational tenure within a comparable range. *t* tests revealed that there were no significant differences in terms of age [$t(118)=0.48$] and organizational tenure [$t(118)=0.26$] among employees assigned to high and low PE conditions. Furthermore, age and organizational tenure were statistically controlled for in hierarchical multiple regression analyses.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities (coefficient alphas), and correlations among all of the variables are presented in Table 2.1. The reliability coefficients are acceptable.

Check on Experimental Manipulations

After reading the scenario presented to them, participants were asked to respond to the 12 items of Spreitzer's (1995) Psychological Empowerment Scale. These manipulation check items were included to know if the levels of PE were manipulated successfully in the vignettes i.e., how precisely the respondents could understand the two levels of PE. Results of 2 (levels of PE: high/low) \times 2 (gender: male/female) ANOVA support that the manipulation was successful. Respondents in the high PE condition displayed a mean of 5.41 ($SD=0.84$), while respondents in the low PE condition had a mean of 2.37 ($SD=0.75$). The two means were significantly different, $F(1, 116) = 426.098, p < .01$. The results are depicted in Table 2.2.

Hypotheses testing

For testing the first hypothesis about the relationship between PE and perceived stress, a 2 (levels of PE: high/low) \times 2 (gender: male/female) ANOVA was computed. Significant difference [$F(1, 116) = 117.75, p < .01$] exists between the stress levels of participants in the high and low PE conditions with a very large effect size (Cohen's $d = -2.41$). Respondents in the high PE condition displayed a mean stress score of 2.26 ($SD=0.69$), while respondents in the low PE condition had a mean of 3.71 ($SD=0.47$). The results are presented in Table 2.3. Participants assigned to the high PE condition reported significantly lower level stress than participants assigned to the low PE condition. Thus, in consistent to our

Hypothesis 1, PE reduces perceived stress among employees in Indian organizations. Hypothesis 1 is supported.

To test Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, 2d, 2e, 2f and Hypothesis 3 hierarchical regression analysis was performed. The analysis of the proposed relationships in all hypotheses has been done by controlling for age and organizational tenure. These hypotheses target to test the moderating role of personality (self-efficacy and the Big Five Personality traits) and power distance in the relationship between PE and perceived stress. The mean-centering of the personality variables and power distance has been done to avoid multi-collinearity effect with their product terms in the moderation regression (Aiken & West, 1991). Each moderator was included in separate models. To further validate the results, the researcher has computed bootstrap confidence interval to test the significance of the interaction effect by using PROCESS SPSS macro created by Preacher and Hayes (2008).

Step 4 in Table 2.4 shows that the 'PE × emotional stability' interaction term was negatively related with perceived stress ($b = -0.34, p < .01$). The incremental change of R^2 in step 4 is significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .01$). The results from the bootstrapping procedures verified the significance of the interaction term ($b = -0.34, 95\% \text{ BCa CI } [-.51, -.17]$). Figure 2.2 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional stability. The direction of the interaction effects of emotional stability suggested that the relationship between PE and stress would be more negative for employees who are high on emotional stability. Thus, individuals high on emotional stability will experience less stress as compared to those who are low on emotional stability. Hypothesis 2e was supported. It is evident from Step 3 in Table 2.4 that emotional stability also had a significant main effect on perceived stress. A dilemma might arise regarding the role of emotional stability a moderator or an antecedent to stress. The current study has conceptualized personality as a moderator in the PE- stress link based on theory and existing empirical evidence. Research examining the role of emotional stability in stress has highlighted its moderating potential instead of its predictive role in the experience of stress, when both emotional stability as well as its interaction term

with the antecedent variable had significant effect on perceived stress (Dijkstra, van Dierendonck, Evers & De Dreu, 2005; Benoliel & Somech, 2010).

Step 4 in Table 2.5 shows that the 'PE × agreeableness' interaction term was negatively related with perceived stress ($b = -0.59$, $p < .01$). The incremental change of R^2 in step 4 was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$). The results from the bootstrapping procedures verified the significance of the interaction term ($b = -0.59$, 95% BCa CI [-.94, -.23]). Figure 2.3 illustrates the moderating effect of agreeableness. The direction of the interaction effects of agreeableness suggested that the relationship between PE and perceived stress would be more negative for employees who are high in agreeableness. Thus, individuals high on agreeableness will experience less stress as compared to those who are low on agreeableness. Therefore, Hypothesis 2d was supported.

As depicted in Tables 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, 2.9 and 2.10 the interaction terms 'PE × generalized self-efficacy', 'PE × extraversion', 'PE × openness to experience', 'PE × conscientiousness' and 'PE × power distance' were not significantly related to perceived stress. Thus, generalized self-efficacy, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness and power distance did not moderate the relationship between PE and perceived stress. Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, 2f and Hypothesis 3 were not supported.

Results of the hierarchical regression analyses indicated that PE had a significant negative effect on perceived stress ($b = -1.46$, $p < .01$) thus validating the negative link between PE and perceived stress.

ANOVA results (presented in Table 2.3) indicated that main effect of gender and interaction effect of gender and levels of PE on perceived stress were not significant. These findings suggest that gender does not moderate the relationship between PE and perceived stress. Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Discussion

The current study tested the relationship between PE and perceived stress and explores the moderating role of personality and power distance in this relationship. The results demonstrated that PE was negatively related to perceived stress. This was in line with previous research which has found negative links between cognitions about empowerment and job-related strain (Thomas & Tymon, 1994; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011).

Along with added responsibilities or role ambiguity that might come with empowerment, psychologically empowered employees also experience self-determination, competence, and impact, which work together to increase the sense of control (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Since the negative effect of job demand decreases as perceived control increases, by having a sense of control over potential stressors, employees perceive less strain (Karasek, 1979; Spector, 1986). The incremental effect of PE overpowers the dependency that may be present among the employees. Moreover, because they are dependence-prone, Indians are highly oriented towards others. As a result, they are highly receptive to others expectations, sensitive to situational cues and alert to new opportunities (Sinha, 2014). Thus, when their superiors and organizational structure/policies expect them to be empowered and provide them opportunities for empowerment, it is probable that they will make up their own mind, respond to the new opportunities, start taking initiative, and accept the autonomy and responsibility positively.

There is also a possibility that dependence proneness may not be as pervasive as it used to be among Indian employees. Previously infrastructural weakness and government policy framework were such that they perpetuated dependency among people (Sinha, 2014). But, with opening up of the markets and revolutionary development in technology, especially Internet and mobile connectivity, new opportunities opened up, which were not so dependent on governmental control or infrastructural support (Sinha, 2014). Consequently,

there has been a gradual shift in the Indian mindset from dependence proneness towards initiative and innovation.

During theory development the researcher had explored the possibility that dependence proneness might affect how people perceive and react to empowerment. Empowerment involves increasing the scope of employee responsibilities, and the dependence prone Indian employees, who are dependent on their authority for almost every aspect of their jobs, might not perceive it positively and consider the added responsibilities a burden. But contrary to this surmise, the incremental effect of PE, the others-orientation of Indian employees and the possibility that dependence proneness may not be as pervasive as before among Indian employees, further validated the efficacy of PE in mitigating perceived stress in Indian work context too.

Similarly, power distance, a cultural value, was expected to impact the relationship between PE and perceived stress. We explored the moderating effect of power distance and found that power distance does not moderate the relationship between PE and perceived stress. Hence, suggesting that PE would not mitigate the perceived stress levels in a high power distance culture is an oversimplification. Scholars argue that employees in high power distance cultures are more deferential and more likely to show loyalty to their leaders (Fock et al., 2013). But, in return, even leaders are expected to encourage and support their subordinates. In the present study, it was specified in both the vignettes that the employee is in good terms with his/her supervisor. It is possible that, this cordial supervisor-subordinate relationship would make the employees trust their supervisor and respond to the demands of PE in a positive manner.

Moreover, in the present sample of bank employees, the mean score for power distance was only 1.97, indicating moderate power distance rather than the high power distance postulated in the literature. It is possible that these bank employees are more educated and exposed to the western culture and their ethos than the average Indians and hence have lower power distance and possibly less dependency-proneness than the average Indian. As a result, the impact of such

socio-cultural characteristics does not reflect in the way they perceive and react to empowerment.

Nonetheless, there still exists a possibility that PE will increase the perceived stress of employees in Indian work context, especially in set-ups where complete empowerment is provided to the employees, for example in autonomous/self-managed teams. The participants of this study were middle-level managers from banks, where the typical model of operation is to centralize specialized services like treasury, foreign exchange, and lending, and assign routine, procedural tasks to majority of the employees. In such a set-up it is unlikely that the employees would experience empowerment in the truest sense. This may hinder their ability to place themselves in a highly empowered situation and experience the consequent stress it might generate.

Among personality variables, emotional stability and agreeableness operate as boundary conditions which moderate the negative relationship between PE and stress, such that this relationship is stronger when emotional stability and agreeableness are higher rather than lower. A possible explanation can be that emotionally stable and agreeable individuals react to PE more positively and handle the stress than may emanate from added responsibility and ambiguity in an effective manner.

Results indicated that gender did not moderate the relationship between PE and perceived stress. A possible explanation can be that the traditional gender roles are being redefined and women are breaking all stereotypes related to working females. As a result, the bias against women at workplace is getting mitigated. Also, most of the organizations have mechanisms in place to address issues related to gender inequality and sexual harassment. According to recent findings, affirmative action by the State and the organizations has significantly contributed towards diminishing the gender differences at work place in terms of workplace justice perceptions and perceived stress (Tripathi & Ghosh, 2018).

Conclusion

The findings of the current study suggested that the negative link between cognitions of empowerment and perceived stress holds true even in a different cultural milieu different than the West - the Indian work context. It provides justification for how PE overpowers the role of socio-cultural values like dependence proneness and high power distance to mitigate the stress experienced by employees. In doing so, the present study substantiates the positive effects of PE on employee health and well-being. The results of Study 1 provided further directions to explore the efficacy of empowerment in Indian work context. Accordingly, a survey study, Study 2A, was carried out to explore and answer the rest of the research questions raised in Chapter 1.

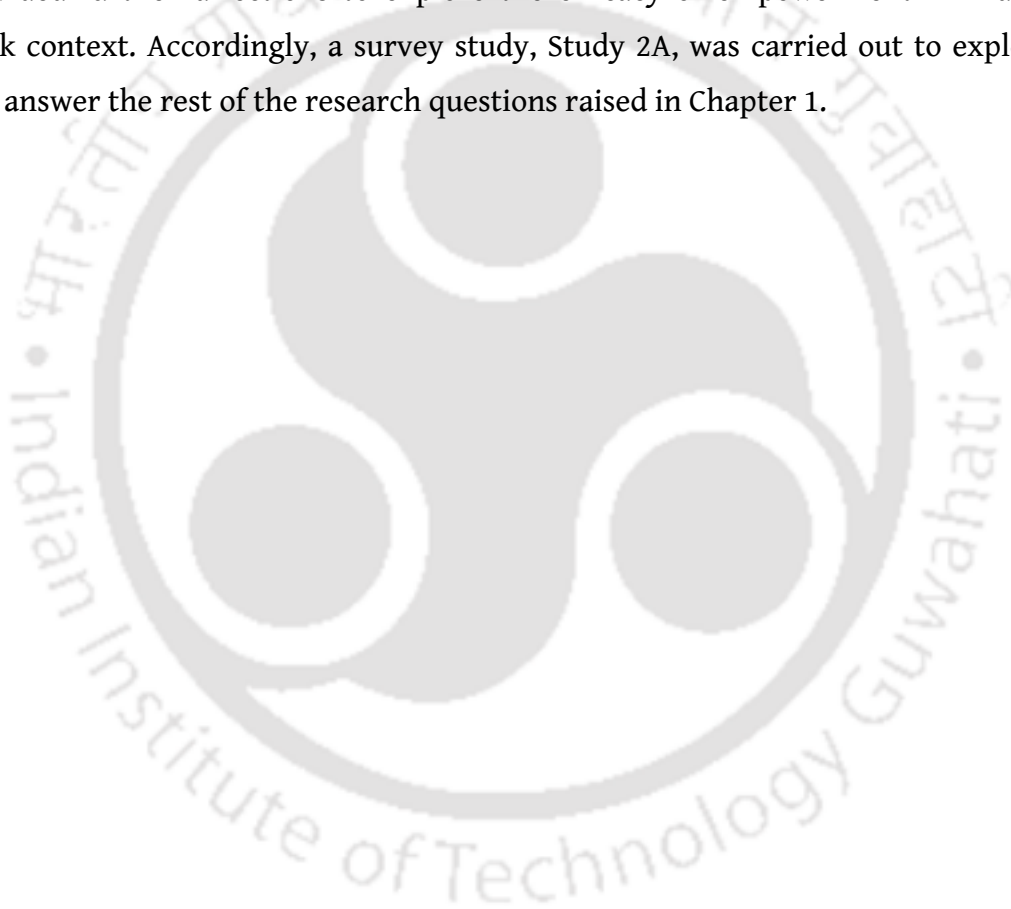


Table 2.1: Means, standard deviations and inter-correlations among study variables (N=120)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Perceived Stress	(.91)									
2.GSE	-.46**	(.90)								
3. Extraversion	-.45**	.23*	(.89)							
4.Agreeableness	-.19*	-.14	.39**	(.81)						
5.Conscientiousness	-.30**	.86**	.16	-.05	(.90)					
6.Emotional Stability	-.56**	.34**	.49**	.60**	.34**	(.91)				
7.Openness	-.39**	.32**	.42**	.14	.28**	.21*	(.64)			
8.Power Distance	.14	-.13	-.11	-.19*	-.11	-.19*	.02	(.85)		
9.Age	-.03	.07	.03	.24**	.12	.13	.04	-.06	-	
10.Tenure	.00	-.03	.05	.16	-.01	.05	-.01	-.00	.87**	-
Mean	2.98	3.50	2.78	3.95	3.82	2.98	3.13	1.97	32.70	6.83
SD	.93	.90	.87	.56	.78	.95	.36	.69	4.91	3.86

Notes: N=120. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket.
Level of Psychological Empowerment: 0 = Low PE (50%) 1 = High PE (50%)

Table 2.2: ANOVA SUMMARY A × B (Score on items of Psychological Empowerment) (N=120)

Design: (Psychological Empowerment: Low Psychological Empowerment/High Psychological Empowerment × Gender: Male/Female)

Source	SS	<i>df</i>	MS	F	F Sig
A (psychological empowerment)	276.033	1	276.033	426.098	.000
B (gender)	.028	1	.028	.043	.836
A × B	.490	1	.490	.756	.386
Error	75.147	116	.648		
Total	2173.000	120			

Table 2.3: ANOVA SUMMARY AXB (Perceived Stress) (N=120)

Design: (Psychological Empowerment: Low Psychological Empowerment/High Psychological Empowerment × Gender: Male/Female)

Source	SS	df	MS	F	F Sig
A (psychological empowerment)	62.930	1	62.930	177.750	.000
B (gender)	.271	1	.271	.765	.384
A × B	.217	1	.217	.612	.436
Error	41.068	116	41.068		
Total	1174.310	120			

Table 2.4:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Emotional Stability as a moderator (N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.01	-.02
Tenure	.03	.04	.01	.02
PE		-1.46**	-1.29**	-1.30**
EmoStab			-.42**	-.23**
PE X EmoStab				-.34**
R ²	.00	.61	.78	.81
ΔR^2		.61**	.16**	.03**
F	.22	61.02**	99.93**	94.05**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; EmoStab, Emotional Stability. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 2.5:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Agreeableness as a moderator
(N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.02	-.03
Tenure	.03	.04	.03	.04
PE		-1.46**	-1.47**	-1.47**
Agree			-.36**	-.07
PE X Agree				-0.59**
R ²	.00	.61	.66	.69
ΔR ²		.61**	.04**	.03**
F	.22	61.02**	54.76**	49.64**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; Agree, Agreeableness. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 2.6:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: GSE as a moderator (N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.02	-.02
Tenure	.03	.04	.01	.01
PE		-1.46**	-1.33**	-1.32**
GSE			-.28**	-.24**
PE X GSE				-0.07
R^2	.00	.61	.68	.68
ΔR^2		.61	.07	.00
F	.22	61.02**	60.41**	48.17**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; GSE, Generalized Self-Efficacy. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 2.7:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Extraversion as a moderator
(N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.04	-.04
Tenure	.03	.04	.04	.04
PE		-1.46**	-1.34**	-1.34**
Extra			-.32**	-.32**
PE X Extra				-0.00
R^2	.00	.61	.70	.70
ΔR^2		.608	.09	.00
F	.22	61.02**	66.72**	52.91**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; Extra, Extraversion; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 2.8:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Conscientiousness as a moderator (N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.02	-.02
Tenure	.03	.04	.02	.01
PE		-1.46**	-1.41**	-1.41**
Con			-.25**	-.14
PE X Con				-.24
R ²	.00	.61	.66	.66
ΔR ²		.61	.04	.01
F	.22	61.02**	44.79**	37.76**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; Con, Conscientiousness. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 2.9:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Openness as a moderator
(N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.03	-.03
Tenure	.03	.04	.03	.03
PE		-1.46**	-1.40**	-1.40**
Open			-.47**	-.45**
PE X Open				-0.04
R ²	.00	.61	.64	.64
ΔR ²		.608	.03	.00
F	.22	61.02**	51.66**	40.97**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; Open, Openness. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 2.10:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Power Distance as a moderator (N=120)

	Perceived Stress			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	-.02	-.04	-.03	-.03
Tenure	.03	.04	.03	.03
PE		-1.46**	-1.45**	-1.45**
PD			.11	.01
PE X PD				.220
R ²	.00	.61	.62	.63
ΔR ²		.61	.01	.01
F	.22	61.02**	46.64**	38.03**

Notes: N=120, Bootstrap sample: 10000; PE, Psychological Empowerment; PD, Power Distance. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

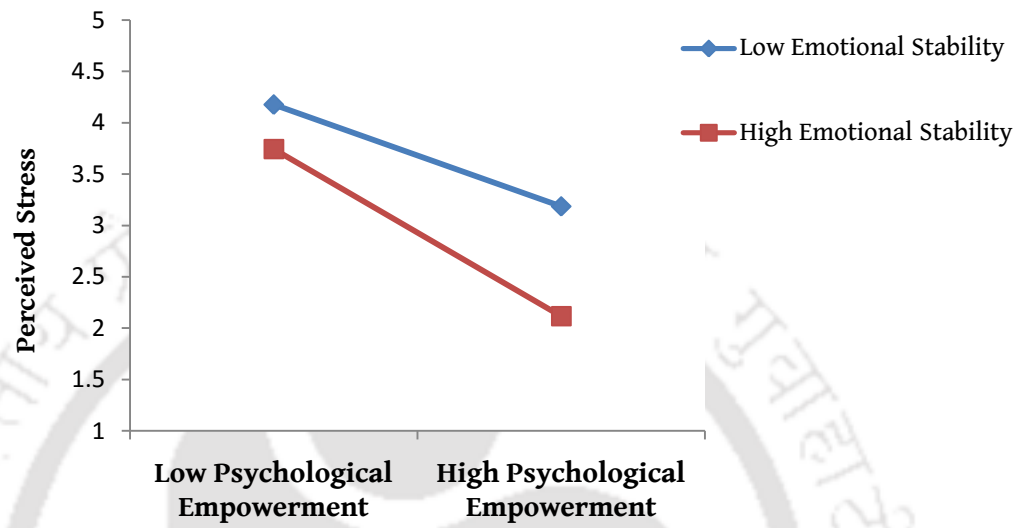


Figure 2.2: Interaction effect of Emotional Stability

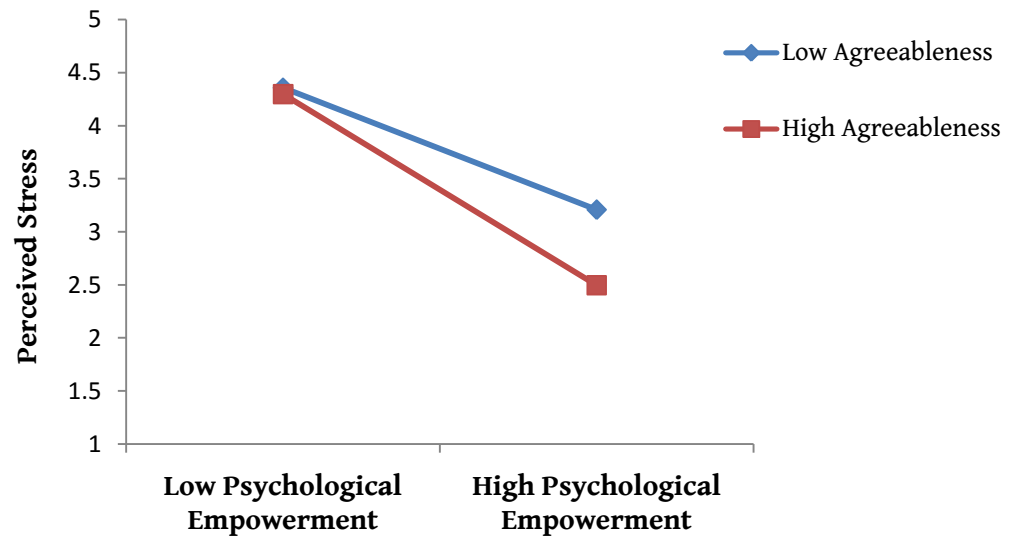


Figure 2.3: Interaction effect of Agreeableness

Chapter 3

In the previous chapter, Study 1 was reported, which aimed at answering the research question regarding the relationship between psychological empowerment (PE) at work and perceived stress, especially in Indian work settings. Further the potential moderating roles of personality variables, power distance and gender in this relationship were also examined. The answers obtained from Study 1, further prompted the researcher to explore the role of PE in employee well-being and performance and examine whether socio-structural empowerment in the form of empowering leadership (EL) leads to positive employee outcomes through their influence on PE in Indian organizations. Therefore, Study 2 was carried out to answer the remaining research questions. Additionally, the differences among employees belonging to private sector and public sector organizations with regard to their experience of PE were also examined. This chapter comprises of two studies. Study 2A is quantitative in nature while Study 2B is a qualitative study, which is an augmentation of Study 2A.

Study 2A

As discussed in the literature review presented in Chapter 1, the emerging literature on employee empowerment assumes that empowerment practices have significant influence on many organizational contexts, including increased organisational efficiency and enriched work lives of employees. By enabling their employees to take action and work for the organizational interests without being micro-managed, organizations can extract the knowledge, idea, and energy of each and every employee across the organizational hierarchy. Employee empowerment and its positive effects on employee attitudes and behaviour have led to many organizations employing it as a managerial tool.

Over the last three decades, two distinct but interrelated conceptualizations on empowerment at work have emerged in the academic

literature: the social-structural approach and the psychological approach (Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003; Menon, 2001; Liden & Arad, 1996; Spreitzer, 1995).

Social-structural approach is macro in nature and emphasises the contextual conditions that enable empowerment at work. It construes empowerment as an array of organizational structures, policies, processes and practices which enable sharing of power between managers and their employees (Menon, 2001) with the goal to facilitate transition of decision-making authority across the organizational chain of command (Liden & Arad, 1996). The focus of socio-structural approach is on those who do the empowering, not those who are being empowered. Hence, it includes empowering characteristics of systems and structures and also the leaders who design and implement them (Spreitzer, 2008). But, it only gives an organizational-centric view on workplace empowerment and does not consider the psychological state of those being empowered (Menon, 2001; Spreitzer, 2008). Employees might feel disempowered even when they are provided with access to power tools and decision making authority, and contrarily, employees may feel empowered despite the absence of empowering features in the work environment.

Psychological approach to empowerment is relatively micro in nature and highlights the psychological experience of empowerment at work. Previously, organizational structures and practices were considered as indicators of empowerment. Currently, scholars consider organizational structures and practices to be contextual antecedents of psychological empowerment (PE) and contend that the actual nature of empowerment can be inferred by concentrating on the impact of empowering practices on the psychological state of employees (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Menon, 2001; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Spreitzer, 1995, 2008). Empowerment would lead to the expected gains only when the employees truly experience empowerment or achieve a psychological state of empowerment. Taking this into account, the focus of the current research is PE. But nevertheless, the psychological perspective to empowerment is limited in itself because it is individual oriented, as opposed to the social-structural perspective which is organization oriented.

To obtain a complete picture about empowerment at work, both perspectives should be integrated. We need to understand the mechanisms through which structural empowerment enables PE (Spreitzer, 2008). Hence, although the core of this research is PE, the researcher also made an attempt to explore the links between socio-structural empowerment and PE by examining how empowering leadership (EL), an enabling style of leadership, enhances the perceptions of empowerment at workplace, which consequently has a positive impact on employee health and well-being and performance. PE can be considered as a mediating mechanism via which contextual elements such as leadership impact employee outcomes (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Spreitzer, 1995). Menon (2001) contended, EL would not lead to its expected effects unless employees actually experience PE. Accordingly, the current research has conceived PE as a mediator through which EL would influence employee outcomes. However, the efficacy of delegation management practices in enhancing the perceptions of empowerment at workplace also depends on the readiness of the employees to welcome empowerment in their jobs and experience it (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Consequently, empowerment role identity has been conceived as to moderate the relationship between EL and PE.

Employee well-being, which consists of both physical and psychological dimensions, has consequential impact on the performance as well as the survival of organizations by affecting absenteeism, turnover (Spector, 1997), costs related to illness and health care (Danna & Griffin, 1999) and job performance (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Furthermore, gains in employee health and well-being go beyond financial profits since they can be perceived as a sign that employees are valued by the company (DiNublie & Sherman, 1999). Considering these implications of employee health and well-being in mind, it is necessary to identify the factors which promote employee health and well-being. Similarly, organizational commitment has been demonstrated as a significant contributor to organizational effectiveness in terms of various performance measures including financial success, quality, shrinkage, productivity, operating expenses and pre-tax profits (Steyrer, Schiffinger, & Lang, 2008; Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003; Kundu & Kumar, 2017). Accordingly, the current research examines how enabling

leader behaviours influence PE, and the impact of both on four employee well-being outcomes (perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction) one indirect measure of organizational performance (organizational commitment).

Although empowerment as an enabling management tool has gained immense popularity, it still remains a term that is ambiguous and confusing. Researchers are concerned that empowerment might be construed differently across organisations (Lincoln et al., 2002). More importantly, the socio-cultural values of the context in which an organization operates might affect the perception of empowerment and its consequent impact. As a result, the endeavours to investigate the links between empowerment and employee and organizational effectiveness across cultures might result into mixed and inconsistent findings. The meaning of PE may vary across cultural boundaries. Moreover, cultural values may moderate the way people experience structural empowerment. Also, there is a possibility that culture moderates the power of PE (Eylon & Au, 1999). Hence, it is important to take into consideration the socio-cultural context in which the empowerment practices are embedded into. Consequently, the linkages between the various constructs of this study need to be studied in cultural contexts like India which is characterized by socio-cultural values like high power distance, dependence proneness and uncertainty avoidance. Specifically, the researcher is interested in finding out whether empowering leader behaviours lead to positive employee outcomes through their influence on PE in Indian organizations.

A detailed literature review concerning these variables has been presented in Chapter 1. From the literature review, the following research questions have emerged:

Research question 1: *How does PE at work influence the perceived levels of stress among employees in Indian organizations?*

Research question 2: *How does PE at work influence the general health and psychological well being of employees in Indian organizations?*

Research question 3: How does PE at work influence the level of job satisfaction experienced by employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 4: How does PE at work influence the level of organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 5: How does EL impact the PE at work among employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 6: What role does empowerment role identity play in the relationship between EL and PE at workplace?

Research question 7: How does EL influence the perceived levels of stress among employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 8: How does EL influence the general health and psychological well being of employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 9: How does EL influence the level job satisfaction experienced by employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 10: How does EL influence the level of organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations?

Research question 11: Are the links between EL and employee well-being outcomes mediated by PE?

The present study aims to answer these questions. It is worth mentioning that the research question regarding the relationship between PE and perceived stress was examined in Study 1, along with gender, personality variables and power distance as moderators. Along with validating the negative relationship between PE and perceived stress in Indian work context and establishing the role of personality in this relationship, Study 1 also served another purpose. In most researches, before embarking on a larger project it is considered prudent to test the basic research questions and hypotheses on a smaller sample and then proceed further. Hence, after having found the answer to a basic research question through an experimental study, the researcher conducted Study 2A on a larger sample to answer the research questions.

Effect of Empowering Leadership on Employee Well-being and Organizational Effectiveness

Extensive research has explicated the role of leader behaviours for behavioural and attitudinal outcomes of employees (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Judge, Piccolo, & Flies, 2004). Empowering Leadership (EL) involves sharing power in order to enhance motivation and investment of employees in their work (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997, 1999). Empirical studies have found positive association of EL with employee performance, organizational efficiency and leader effectiveness (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Raub & Robert, 2010; Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010; Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2005; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2018).

However, increasing evidence suggests that EL does not always lead to positive outcomes across varied organizational contexts and that employees are not unanimously amenable to empowering initiatives (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Such studies contend that some employees might regard the additional responsibilities and autonomy resulting from empowerment initiatives as burden and experience anxiety and withdrawal, which would consequently have detrimental effects on their attitudes and performance (Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004). The efficacy of EL needs to be explored in cultures like India, characterized by high power distance, dependence proneness and uncertainty avoidance.

Employee well-being has been assessed in terms of four outcomes: perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction. Organizational effectiveness has been assessed in terms of an indirect measure: organizational commitment.

Empowering Leadership and Perceived Stress

Leadership has been established as a crucial factor in determining perceived stress levels of employees and their coping mechanisms (Bass, 1990; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Ryska, 2002). Positive forms of leadership like

transformational leadership have been found to be negatively related to perceived stress and burnout (Bass, Numeroff, & Seltzer, 1989; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

Empowering leaders facilitate empowering work environments, where an individual is provided with autonomy with all necessary resources and is instilled with confidence on his skills and abilities. Such empowering work environments would be instrumental in reducing work place stress (Laschinger et al., 2004; Laschinger & Havens, 1997). Behaviours such as providing feedback and support, communication/informing, encouraging participation and empowerment, showing concern/ consideration, and displaying integrity, which form the core of EL, have been found to be crucial in maintaining employee well-being in face of stressful events (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). EL facilitates self-leadership among followers (Manz & Sims, 2001; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Self-leadership strategies of self-management (goal-setting, self-monitoring and self-reward), constructive thinking, and deriving meaning and satisfaction from one's work serve as means of anticipatory coping (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997) which allows an individual to deal with potential issues before they become threatening (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Empowering leader behaviours have a positive impact on employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Engaged employees are characterized by energy, involvement and they perceive their work as challenging as against stressful and demanding (Leiter & Maslach, 2009). So, it can be assumed that EL, by providing employees with resources that facilitate them to tackle existing stressors as well as avert future stressors from taking place, would mitigate their stress levels (Unsworth & Mason, 2012).

But at the same time, EL can have the opposite effect too. EL has been demonstrated to positively influence employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Engaged employees who devote all their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources to work are likely to experience more distress if things do not go as planned (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). In such situations EL would enhance perceived stress, instead of mitigating it. Such employees will have fewer psychological resources available to attend to the

commitments and responsibilities related to their family role, which might create work-family conflict (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Small & Riley, 1990). Also, as discussed before, the Indian socio-cultural context might play a role in how employees perceive empowering initiatives and react to it. Nonetheless, based on theoretical arguments and previous findings, it is more likely that EL would reduce the levels of perceived stress experienced by employees in Indian organizations. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 1 - *EL is negatively related to perceived stress among employees in Indian organizations.*

Empowering Leadership and General Mental Health and Psychological Well-being

It has been suggested that EL behaviours would impact the psychological states of employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Positive supervisory behaviours such as providing more autonomy to the employees, communicating and providing information, and showing concern for employees and their well-being have been established as having significant effect on employee mental health in terms of both absence of psychiatric disturbance (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004) as well as positive mental health characterized by a sense of achievement and accomplishment (Arnold et al., 2007). Specifically, by following a participative style of leadership, providing autonomy to the employees and clearing the path to accomplishment of their personal goals which are congruent to organizational goals, a leader can positively affect the psychological resources and subjective well-being of employees (Bass, 2000; McGregor & Little, 1998; Brunstein, 1993). Empowering leader increases the intrinsic motivation of employees by displaying supportive behaviours and hence elevates positive affect among employees (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Furthermore, leader's empowering behaviours have been found to be positively associated with self-efficacy (Ahearne et al., 2005), optimism, hope (Segers et al., 2009) and resilience (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007), which in turn act as positive resources for combating occupational stress (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009), depression (Liu et al., 2012) and burnout (Wang et al., 2012).

Job characteristics such as skill utilization, workload, job insecurity and autonomy have been linked to psychological well-being (Witte, 1999). Empowering leader behaviours, through participatory decision making, can lead to increased autonomy and skill utilization among employees as well as elevate the experience of intrinsic motivation and a sense of control, thus facilitating the satisfaction of higher psychological needs for autonomy and personal growth (Erez & Arad, 1986). Mentoring functions to make employees self-reliant and disseminating required information to the employees would help them in dealing with the work load more effectively. Displaying a general regard for employees' well-being would help them to combat job related insecurities and other problems they might face at work. Furthermore, the behavioural elements of EL, emphasizing the value of the work, participative decision making, displaying confidence in employees, and eliminating bureaucratic constraints, would help employees to attain a positive state of mind with regard to their work and life in general. It can be argued that through its impact on the empowerment perceptions of employees, EL leads to positive psychological functioning and realization of full potential essential to achieve psychological well-being. In a similar vein, EL behaviours also lead to work engagement which energizes a person and engenders positive feelings of well-being (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In light of the assumptions and empirical evidence presented in this section, the following hypotheses have been put forward:

Hypothesis 2 -EL is positively related to general health among employees in Indian organizations.

Hypothesis 3 -EL is positively related to psychological well-being among employees in Indian organizations.

Empowering Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Positive forms of leadership like transformational leadership have been found to have significant positive impact on job satisfaction of employees (Walumbwa et al., 2004). Leadership behaviours like participative decision-making, individualized concern, and motivation enhances the job satisfaction experienced by employees (Bogler, 2001; Neimanich & Keller, 2007). Considering

the supportive, motivational, and power sharing conceptualizations of EL, it is plausible to assume that EL would positively affect job satisfaction. In this respect, it was noted that leaders who facilitate employees' autonomous work motivation would contribute to their personal satisfaction (Stone, Deci, & Ryan, 2009). Furthermore, EL contributes to behaviour-focused self-leadership and training in thought strategies, which have been demonstrated to boost both job satisfaction (Neck & Manz, 1996) and performance (Neck et al., 1999). Some studies have reported positive association between job satisfaction and EL (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Dewettinck & van Amejide, 2011; Vecchio et al., 2010). In light of this background, the following hypothesis has been framed:

Hypothesis 4: *EL is positively related to job satisfaction among employees in Indian organizations.*

Empowering Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Positive supervisory behaviours have been found to facilitate organizational commitment among employees across organizational and cultural contexts (Bono & Judge, 2003; Dumdum et al., 2002; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). Research has suggested that transformational leaders can motivate their followers to get more involved in their work and increase their level of organizational commitment (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). In the same vein, EL behaviours like expressing confidence in employees' capacity to successfully carry out their tasks, encouraging self-management at their own work and decision-making, are expected to make the employees more emotionally involved and personally accountable in work processes, hence making them more deeply and affectively committed to their organization (Chen et al., 2011; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). When employees receive support and ample prospects to express ideas at work, it can be expected that they would be more deeply committed to the organization (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009). According to the psychological contract theory, employees may consider leaders as representative of the organization and hence perceive treatment and support they receive from their leader to be a form of organizational support (Rousseau, 1998). Considering the norm of reciprocity and tenets of social exchange theory

(Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), it can be assumed that employees would reciprocate to supportive empowering leader behaviours by exhibiting more commitment and loyalty to the organization (Kim & Beehr, 2018). Considering the theoretical arguments backed by empirical evidence, it was hypothesized that:

***Hypothesis 5:** EL is positively related to organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations.*

Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment

Empowering leader behaviours have emerged as a prominent style of leadership which involves providing increased autonomy to employees (Bennis & Townsend, 1997). EL emphasizes the significance of leaders actively encouraging and enabling followers to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 1987). Self-leadership, the behavioural and cognitive strategies that one uses to influence his/her own behaviour in a positive manner, forms the core of EL. Empowering leader behaviours such as promoting participative decision-making and goal-setting, leading by example, informing, mentoring and displaying personal concern for employees (Pearce & Sims, 2002) are expected to foster increased perceptions of autonomy, control, competence, connectedness and meaningfulness in the employees (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010).

Empowering leaders provide information about goals, which permits employees to estimate the value of their work and consequently increase the meaningfulness (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Also, by encouraging employees to participate more and by granting them autonomy, empowering leaders can increase their feelings of impact and self-determination (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Finally, empowering leaders can act as role-models to their employees and provide them with feedback and coaching, which serve as substantial sources of self-efficacy information that increase employees' feelings of competence (Bandura, 1997). Empirical studies have validated the self-evident conceptual link between EL and empowerment (Boudrias et al., 2009; Raub &

Robert, 2010; Albrecht & Andretta, 2010; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Fong & Snape, 2013; Pigeon, Montani, & Boudrias, 2017). Therefore, it is plausible to contend that EL would impact the perceptions of PE in employees. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been framed:

Hypothesis 6: *EL is positively related to PE at work place.*

Moderating role of Empowerment Role Identity in Empowering Leadership-Psychological Empowerment Relationship

EL is generally expected to positively impact PE. However, there is a possibility that employees might vary in the degree to which they accept empowerment and feel it, even in the presence of EL (Ahearne et al., 2005; Forrester, 2000). Zhang and Bartol (2010) drew on role identity theory (Stryker & Burke, 2000) to examine this possibility and defined empowerment role identity as “the extent to which an individual views him- or herself as a person who wants to be empowered in a particular job” (p. 111). Researchers have contended that employees vary in the degree to which they aspire for autonomy and control, and some employees are more likely to exhibit resistance to work related decision-making and participation (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997). Contrarily, an employee who perceives empowerment positively would consider it to be a fit to his role identity set and would hence experience increased PE in reaction to empowering leader behaviours (Stryker & Burke, 2000). EL was found to enhance feelings of PE to the extent that employees perceive empowerment as a significant element of their role identity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Accordingly, the researcher has proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: *ERI moderates the relationship between EL and PE at work place, such that this relationship is stronger when ERI is higher rather than lower.*

Effect of Psychological Empowerment on Employee Well-being and Organizational Effectiveness

PE capacitates employees from all levels to utilize their skills and abilities to enhance not only the effectiveness of the organization they work for, but also

the quality of their own working life (Chaturvedi, 2008). Numerous studies attest to the power of empowerment to benefit the organization in terms of both employee performance and employee attitudes (Suzik, 1998; Aryee & Chen, 2006; Carless, 2004; Koberg, Boss, & Senjem, 1999; Liden et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2004; Sparrowe, 1994; Fulford & Enz, 1995; Avolio, et al. 2004; Jha, 2010; Sparrowe, 1994; Koberg et al., 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Maynard et al., 2014).

Although most studies have exhibited positive outcomes of PE, a few studies have found some not-so-positive and negative effects regarding empowerment (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Also, as discussed before, socio-cultural context might play a role in the experience of PE and its outcomes. Hence, the current research makes an attempt to examine PE and its outcomes in terms of employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

Psychological Empowerment and Perceived Stress

Perceived stress is the degree to which an individual perceives (appraises) that the environmental demands exceed his ability to cope. The relationship between PE and perceived stress has already been tested in Study 1. The current study makes an attempt to further validate the negative links between PE and perceived stress established in Study 1. The theoretical arguments and empirical evidence regarding this relationship has already been discussed in Study 1. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was put forth:

Hypothesis 8: *PE at work is negatively related to perceived stress among employees in Indian organizations.*

Psychological Empowerment and General Mental Health and Psychological well-being

PE can be considered as a crucial factor that buffers or protects against mental ill health (Spreitzer, 2008). Theoretically, it can be expected that the four dimensions of PE will have a positive impact on general mental health

(Hochwalder & Brucefors, 2005; Liu et al., 2015). As mentioned earlier lack of control at work has been associated with a range of health problems including depression and anxiety. Research has reported that lack of control leads to poorer mental health (Spreitzer et al., 1997; Siegall & Gardner, 2000; Holman & Fernie, 2000). Similarly, meaning is considered as an important protective factor against ill health (Antonovsky, 1987). The opportunity to get involved in intrinsically satisfying job activities (meaning) is not only crucial for better adjustment and improved quality of life but also reduces anxiety by providing distraction from physical symptoms (Westaby, Versenyi, & Hausmann, 2005). Competence leads to improved ability to deal with demands (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) and contributes to individual functioning and health (Gecas, 1989). Absence of opportunity to have impact at work or universal learned helplessness has been found to be related to reduced motivation, depression, anxiety, frustration, and hostility (Martinko & Gardner, 1982). Furthermore, with respect to dealing with customer misbehaviour and other instances where employees might feel belittled at workplace, the power granted by the organization contributes to their sense of organizational support and belief in their entitlement to deal with such situations with dignity and self-respect (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005).

There is evidence highlighting the fact that PE can lead to positive health outcomes. Empowerment may be associated with positive health indicators, such as flourishing and thriving and act as a resource which buffers individuals to be resilient in challenging circumstances (Spreitzer et al., 2005; Fredrickson et al., 2003). Perceived organizational support, a global belief formed by employees regarding the extent to which an organization value their contributions and takes care of their well-being, has a positive impact on the employee's mood, satisfaction, well-being and psychological health (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Leather et al., 1998). Specifically, Jain and Sinha (2005) found out that appreciation of an employee's effort (recognizing the values, opinions, and ideas of the employee) is a positive predictor of his/her sense of accomplishment and contribution. Such sense of perceived organizational support captures the essence of competence and impact dimensions of PE and contributes to positive mental health.

PWB is an outcome of personal endeavour which moves towards pursuing goals (Waterman, 1993) instead of being negative and involved in personal conflict (Brodsky, 1988). Since PE is considered to be a pre-requisite of a 'more humanized and moralized workplace', it can be assumed that PE and PWB are positively associated.

Experience of empowerment at work has a direct effect on an employee's psychological state (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Empowering experiences like autonomy and competence lead to a positive state of the mind, consequently enhancing employee's PWB. The dimensions of PE are expected to be associated with the dimensions of PWB. Specifically, experience of self-determination at workplace would lead to stronger perceptions of autonomy in one's life. Delegation and participation were linked with enhanced sense of well-being (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997; Offerman & Hellmann, 1996). Furthermore, when employees perceive that their values and beliefs are congruent with the requirements of their job (i.e., meaning), they would be more likely to experience a sense of purpose in life. Experience of meaningfulness and self-determination at work is crucial for employees' satisfaction and intrinsic motivation and concerned with their individualized and holistic interests at work and thus, pertinent to their positive psychological state (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Bandura, 1986; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Speitzer, 1995). Likewise, highly self-efficacious employees (i.e., competence) are likely to have greater goal expectations, expend more effort and perseverance in challenging circumstances, and experience an enhanced sense of personal growth. Perceptions of competence have been associated with increased motivation and performance in the workplace (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When employees perceive that they can influence or make a difference in significant outcomes (i.e., impact), they are likely to feel more involved, attain a sense of satisfaction with regard to their work and are more likely to develop a positive self-image or self-acceptance (Liden et al., 2000). In light of this background, the following hypotheses were framed:

Hypothesis 9: *PE at work is positively related to mental health among employees in Indian organizations.*

Hypothesis 10: *PE at work is positively related to psychological well being among employees in Indian organizations.*

Psychological Empowerment and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is typically defined as an emotional state which reflects the feelings/affective response one has towards his/her job or job situation (Spector, 1997). It is a multi-faceted construct which includes both extrinsic and intrinsic components of the job as well as social satisfaction (Schnake, 1983). The job characteristics model postulates that critical psychological states like experienced meaningfulness and knowledge of results would impact satisfaction at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Also, since the different facets of PE produce workplace rewards which are intrinsic to the individual, it should be positively associated with job satisfaction (Thomas & Tymon, 1994).

The links between individual empowerment dimensions and job satisfaction have varied empirical evidence. First, positive association has been demonstrated between meaning and job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Personal meaning has been considered as a significant prerequisite of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Perceived meaningfulness leads to increased commitment and convergence of energy (Kanter, 1983) and hence fulfilment of coveted work values, which in turn, leads to job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Regarding the self-determination dimension, studies show that personal control and autonomy are positively related to job satisfaction as they enhance one's sense of agency in terms of task accomplishment (Spector, 1986; Liden et al., 1994; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). There is a lack of consistent support concerning the impact-satisfaction and competence-satisfaction relationships. Theoretically, employees with enhanced perceptions of competence would be confident about their success at work and therefore, would be happier with various aspects of their job (Martinko & Gardner, 1982). Theoretically, when employees perceive that they are responsible for outcomes significant to the organization, they are likely to experience job satisfaction (Ashforth, 1989). Thomas and Tymon (1994) demonstrated positive

association between impact and satisfaction, but Spreitzer et al. (1997) did not find any support for this relationship. Instead, Spreitzer et al. (1997) accounted for a positive association between competence and job satisfaction only among subordinates, not among managers. Contrarily, Carless (2004) reported that competence had a negative impact on job satisfaction. Other studies have demonstrated insignificant relationship between the dimensions of PE and job satisfaction (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Some scholars have suggested that the interaction among the four dimensions of PE could partially explain the inconsistent and sometimes opposing results pertaining to the relationship of job satisfaction with impact and competence (Wang & Lee, 2009).

Moreover, the relationship between PE and job satisfaction might be different in Indian work settings characterized by dependence proneness and high power distance. In fact, Robert et al. (2000) reported a negative relationship between PE and employee job satisfaction in India, which was attributed to the fact that Indians prefer a hierarchical structure over participative practices. In a similar vein, in high power distance cultures, empowering practices (e.g., employee participation) did not boost job satisfaction and job performance (Eylon & Au, 1999). Therefore, it is reasonable to consider the possibility that the positive links between PE and job satisfaction might not hold true in the context of Indian work settings. Nonetheless, consistent with previous findings which established the effectiveness of PE in enhancing employees' work related satisfaction, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

Hypothesis 11: *PE at work is positively related to job satisfaction among employees in Indian organizations.*

Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment elucidates an affective state that defines the relationship of employees with the organization they work for and that which impacts their decision to keep working for the organization (Allen & Griffeth, 2001). Job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, task significance,

autonomy and feedback intrinsically motivate employees and enable them to experience the critical psychological states of meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results, which are necessary for enhanced work motivation and organizational commitment (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Similarly, empowering organizational practices like providing autonomy in decision-making and assigning responsibility to the employees would facilitate their perceptions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (Liden et al., 2000). Employees are expected to appreciate such empowering experiences. Consequently, employees more likely to reciprocate by feeling deeply committed to the organization (Avolio et al., 2004; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), according to the tenets of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Perceived organizational support and opportunities to participate in the goal-setting and decision-making processes contribute to intrinsically-satisfying experiences for employees, which are expected to serve as antecedent to affective commitment (Steers, 1977; Mottaz, 1988).

Research has demonstrated that experience of empowerment is positively associated with organizational commitment (Avolio, et al. 2004; Liden et al., 2000; Harris et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2013) and inversely related to intentions to quit (Sparrowe, 1994; Koberg et al., 1999). Meaning dimension can be specifically linked to organizational commitment as individual-organizational value congruency has been identified as crucial in inducing commitment. (Liden et al., 2000). Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

Hypothesis 12: *PE at work is positively related to organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations.*

Psychological Empowerment as a Mediator in the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Employee Outcomes

PE can be considered as a mediating mechanism via which contextual elements such as leadership impact individual and organizational outcomes (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Spreitzer, 1995). Existing literature implies

that the links between leadership and performance outcomes are mediated by PE and intrinsic motivation both at individual and group levels (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Srivastava et al., 2006). The links between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, and participative decision-making and organizational citizenship, both are mediated by PE (Avolio *et al.*, 2004; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Chen et al., 2007). Therefore, it can be assumed that PE would mediate the relationship between EL and employee outcomes. Research has demonstrated PE to be a significant mediator the relationship between EL and positive job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Konczak et al., 2000; Fong & Snape, 2013). The mediating role of PE has also been demonstrated in the relationship between positive forms of supervisory behaviours and employees' psychological health (Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016). Such findings imply that PE is likely to enable the relationship between EL and employee outcomes such as perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Accordingly, the following hypotheses have been proposed:

Hypothesis 13: *PE at work mediates the relationship between EL and perceived stress.*

Hypothesis 14: *PE at work mediates the relationship between EL and general mental health.*

Hypothesis 15: *PE at work mediates the relationship between EL and psychological well-being.*

Hypothesis 16: *PE at work mediates the relationship between EL and job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 17: *PE at work mediates the relationship between EL and organizational commitment.*

Psychological Empowerment in Public versus Private Sector

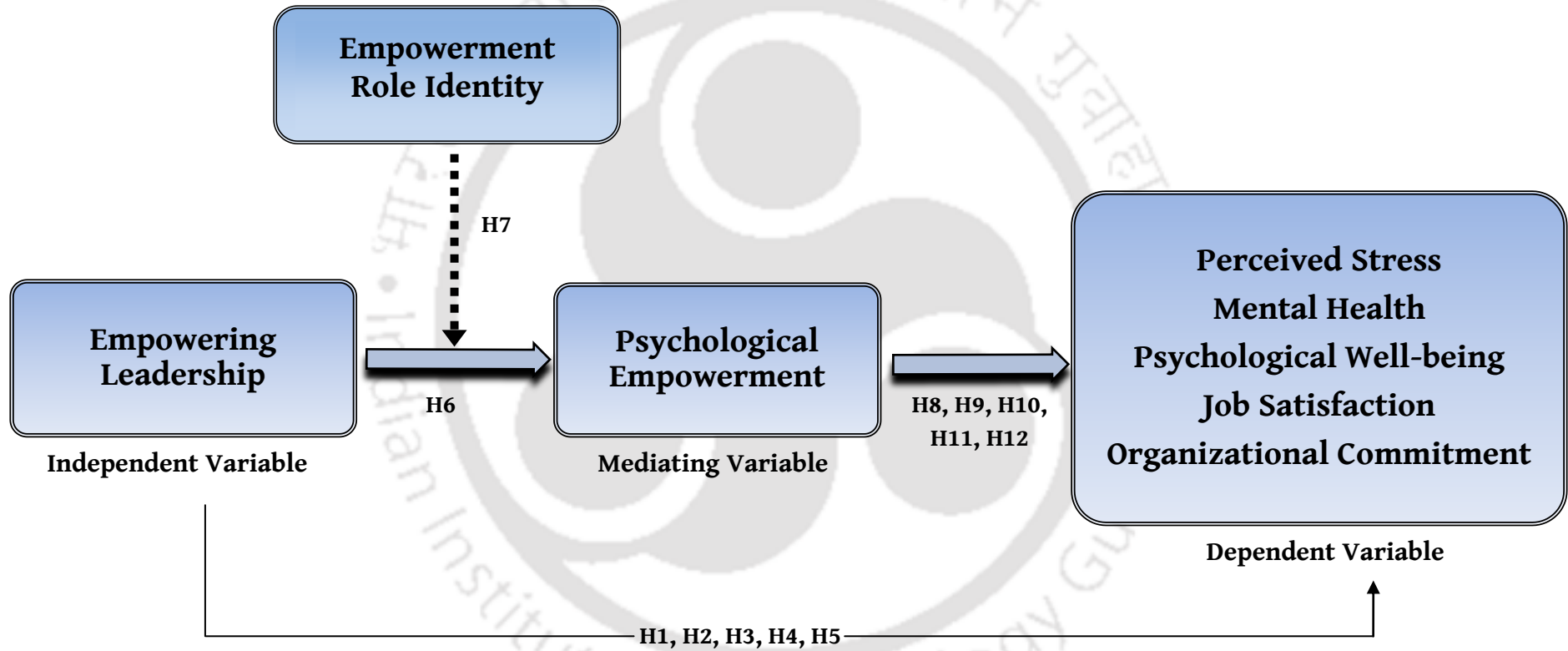
Previous literature has delineated the aspects on which public and private sector organisations differ in terms of employee motivation and other job-related attitudes (Posner & Schmidt, 1996; Rainey & Bozeman, 2000; Wright, 2001; Taylor, 2005; Bellou, 2007; Buelens & van den Broeck, 2007; Markovits, Davis, & Dick,

2007). Both individual differences and contextual factors are responsible for the attitudinal differences between public and private organisations (Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1999).

The major difference between private and public sectors pertains to the ownership. Entrepreneurs or shareholders are the owners of private organisations, whereas public organisations are owned by the State (Boyne, 2002). Public organisations are described as extremely bureaucratic with rigid rules and regulations, strongly formalised processes and means of communication, and hierarchical control (Perry & Porter 1982; Rainey, 1983; Robertson & Seneviratne, 1995). The amount of flexibility and autonomy is restricted by legal mandates within public organisations, hence restraining them from doing anything outside the formalized structure and processes (Nutt & Backoff, 1993). Consequently, managers belonging to public sector organizations demonstrate less control over structures and resources than those belonging to private organizations (Knott, 1993). Moreover, Snyder and Osland (1996) stressed that private sector employees consider power as a more important reason for being employed in their recent job. Thus, it is argued that public organisations should allow greater discretion and responsibility not only to managers but among their front-line employees as well (Robertson & Seneviratne 1995). Contrarily, private sector organisations are impelled by market preferences and surviving in a competitive market demands flexibility and responsiveness in process as well as in outcomes (Kurland & Egan, 1999). Furthermore, private sector organisations have explicit goals regarding efficiency and profitability unlike the ambiguous and inconsistent goals of public organizations (Rainey & Bozeman, 2000). Consequently, managers and employees working for private organizations experience higher levels of autonomy and freedom at work. Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 18: *PE is higher among employees belonging to private sector than public sector.*

All the hypotheses with regard to different variables have been presented in Figure 3.1.



**Figure 3.1: Proposed relationships among variables for Study 2A
(broken line indicates moderating effect)**

Method

Research Setting and Participants

The participants of this study were middle-level executives (N = 431) from 12 organizations located in five cities of India (NCR, Kolkata, Bangalore, Hyderabad and Guwahati). Out of these 12 organizations, 6 were from public sector (one each in research and education, engineering consulting, R&D and manufacturing, catering and tourism, oil and gas, and transportation industry) and 6 were from private sector (three in IT services and consulting industry, one each in design and engineering R&D, transportation and hospitality industry). These middle-level executive had worked in their present organization on an average of 9.72 years (SD = 9.32) and it ranged from 1 year to 35 years. Their average age was 36.06 years (SD = 10.15). 65% of the participants were male employees while only 35% were females. Distribution of participants according to organizations (N = 431) is presented in Table 3.1.

In order to collect the data, the organizations were first identified from various websites. Then request letters were written to the HR heads seeking their permission to collect data from their respective organizations by following the standard procedure of maintaining confidentiality. Self-report measures were used to gather the data. The data was collected by administering a set of questionnaires mostly during office hours. The questionnaires were in English and were adapted to suit the target population through minor modifications in the language. At each organization, participants belonging to various departments were approached randomly. A total of 545 questionnaires were distributed. Out of the 450 responses received, 431 responses were retained and the rest were discarded as they had significant portions which were left blank. Responses with missing values were identified and the missing data for a given item was imputed by the median of all known values of that item. The final 431 usable employee responses amount to a response rate 79 %.

Measures

The following self-report measures were used to obtain data on the variables included in this study. For all the measures, cross-cultural issues were taken care of. All the items of these specific measures have been presented in Appendix B.

Empowering Leadership

EL was measured using the 15-item version of the EL Questionnaire (ELQ) developed by Arnold, Arad, Rhoades and Drasgow (2000). The reliability of a 15-item version of this scale was found to be quite satisfactory in samples across countries, including India (Robert et al., 2000). The ELQ originally comprises of 5 dimensions (3 items per dimension): *Leading by example, Participative decision making, Coaching, Informing and Showing concern*. Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Exploratory factor analysis of all the items of this scale was carried out using principal component method with varimax rotation. Only those items with loadings of .40 and above were considered for the factors (Table 3.2). In the rotated factor solution, each of the items has a significant loading in only one factor, except for item 9 which cross-loaded on two factors. Authors have suggested that if the difference between the loading of primary factor (one with the higher loading) and the loading of the alternative factor (one with the lower loading) is .20 or higher, the item should be retained as a significant loading of the primary factor (Howard, 2016; Hinkin, 1998). Taking this aspect into consideration the researcher retained item 9. Factor analysis yielded the following 2 factors:

Factor 1 consisted of 12 items which indicated leadership behaviours like participative decision making, coaching, informing and showing concern. Thus, it was labelled as Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL).

Factor 2 consisted of 3 items which indicated leadership behaviours that reflect the leader's commitment to his or her own work and to the work of his/her team members. Thus, it was labelled as Leading by Example (LE_EL).

The coefficient of alpha and other psychometric properties of these dimensions along with their inter-correlations are depicted in Table 3.3. The coefficient alpha value (α) of the whole scale is .90. Coefficient alpha values for factor 1 and factor 2 were .92 and .84 respectively.

Psychological Empowerment

PE was measured using Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale. This scale measures the psychological aspects of empowerment as manifested in four dimensions of 3 items each: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. The reliability of this scale has been found to be quite satisfactory across different contexts/industries and cultures, including India (Spreitzer, 2008). Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Exploratory factor analysis of all the items of this scale was carried out using principal component method with varimax rotation. Only those items with loadings of .40 and above were considered for the factors. In the rotated factor solution, 9 of the items have a significant loading in only one factor; but items 2, 3 and 8 cross-loaded on two factors. Since, the difference between loading of the primary factor (one with the higher loading) and loading of the alternative factor (one with the lower loading) is less than .20 for all three items, they were deleted from the analysis, leaving 9 items in the analysis. The rotated factor matrix for the 9 items has been depicted in Table 3.4. Factor analysis for the reduced set of 9 items, after deleting cross-loaded items, yielded the following 3 factors:

Factor 1 consisted of 4 items which indicated perceptions of autonomy and a belief that one can influence work outcomes. Thus, it was labelled as Impact and Autonomy (IA_PE).

Factor 2 consisted of 2 items which indicated that employees find their job and work activities meaningful. Thus, it was labelled as Meaning (ME_PE).

Factor 3 consisted of 3 items which indicated feelings of self-efficacy or a person's belief in his/her capability to successfully perform work activities. Thus, it was labelled as Competence (COM_PE).

The coefficient of alpha and other psychometric properties of these dimensions along with their inter-correlations are depicted in Table 3.5. The coefficient alpha value (α) of the whole scale is .82. Coefficient alpha values for factor 1, factor 2 and factor 3 were .86, .74 and .70 respectively.

Empowerment Role Identity

Empowerment role identity was assessed using a four-item scale adapted by Zhang and Bartol (2010) from Callero's (1985) donor role identity measure and Farmer, Tierney, and Kung-Mcintyre's (2003) creative role identity measure. Zhang and Bartol (2010) had used this scale to examine empowerment role identity as a moderator between EL and PE in a previous study and reported a Cronbach's alpha of .77. Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The coefficient of alpha (α) for the present sample was .70.

Perceived Stress

Perceived Stress was measured by using Cohen, Kamarck, and Mermelstein's (1983) 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS). It measures the extent to which an individual appraises daily life situations as stressful. The 10 items of this scale were formulated to capture the extent to which respondents find their lives unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloaded. Some of them were direct queries regarding existing levels of experienced stress. Researchers have reported satisfactory reliability estimates across diverse contexts with respect to the 10-item version of this scale. According to Cohen et al. (1983), the PSS measures

general stress and thus, it is fairly free of content that is specific to any context or culture. Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). The coefficient of alpha (α) for the present sample was .76.

General Mental Health

General Mental health was measured through the 12-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg, 1972). It is a measure of psychological/mental health (lack of psychological distress). Scores obtained can provide insights regarding various sources of employee distress, and the potential predisposing factors. Previous research has shown the validity of the questionnaire to be high (Goldberg *et al.* 1997). In addition to being a general measure of psychiatric well-being, GHQ-12 is also extensively used as a screening instrument for common mental disorders. Reliability coefficients have ranged from 0.78 to 0.95 in various studies. The psychometric properties of this scale have been found to be satisfactory across various countries (Werneke, Goldberg, Yalcin, & Üstün, 2000) and populations (Costa *et. al*, 2006). Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Exploratory factor analysis of all the items of this scale was carried out using principal component method with varimax rotation. Only those items with loadings of .40 and above were considered for the factors (Table 3.6). In the rotated factor solution each of the items has a significant loading in only one factor; there were no cross-loadings. The factor structure was very similar to that reported in an Indian study using the GHQ-12 (Jain & Sinha, 2005). The study had reported two factors: Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution and Botheration-Free Existence. Similarly, factor analysis in the current sample yielded the following 2 factors:

Factor 1 consisted of 6 items which reflect a state of existence where mental health may result from a relatively laid-back attitude towards acting on the environment. Thus, in accordance with the study by Jain and Sinha (2005), it was labelled as Botheration-Free Existence (BFE_MH).

Factor 2 consisted of 6 items which reflect a state of existence characterized by a sense of accomplishment and contribution, active attempts of respondents to influence the environment. Thus, in accordance with the study by Jain and Sinha (2005,) it was labelled as Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution (AC_MH).

The coefficient of alpha and other psychometric properties of these dimensions along with their inter-correlations are depicted in Table 3.7. The coefficient alpha value (α) of the whole scale is .85. Coefficient alpha values for factor 1 and factor 2 were .84 and .80 respectively.

Psychological Well-being

Psychological well-being (PWB) was measured with the 42 item version of Ryff's (1989) Psychological Well-being Scales. The inventory has six dimensions (7 items in each dimension): autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance, which represent six areas of PWB. The multidimensional structure of PWB has been tested and validated on numerous samples of English-speaking adults aged 25 and older, across countries. The 84-item (14 items in each dimension) and 54-item (9 items in each dimension) versions of this inventory are recommended for their psychometric properties, but number of items posed a serious concern in carrying out the present study. In a personal correspondence, Dr. Ryff recommended the researcher to use a 42-item version of the inventory as it seems to have achieved the balance between concerns about scale length and goals of adequate depth of measurement. The 42-item version of the inventory has also been used in MIDUS 2, which established it to be psychometrically sound across cross-cultural samples. Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Exploratory factor analysis of all the items of this scale was carried out using principal component method with varimax rotation. Only those items with loadings of .40 and above were considered for the factors. In the first rotation, 4 items were deleted as they didn't have a significant loading in any of the factors. In the rotated factor matrix with 38 items, two items cross-

loaded into more than one factor and two items significantly loaded into a factor whose reliability was not in the acceptable range. Hence, all the four 4 items were deleted from the analysis. In total 8 items were deleted from the analysis. The final rotated factor matrix with 34 items has been depicted in Table 3.8. Factor analysis for the reduced set of 34 items yielded the following 8 factors:

Factor 1 consisted of 8 items related to the ability to form close relationships with others and perceptions of self-growth and self-acceptance. Hence, it was labelled as Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard (CEI_PWB).

Factor 2 consisted of 7 items which reflected mastery over daily hassles and immediate surroundings and presence of warm, personal relationships. Thus, it was labelled as Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships (WSR_PWB).

Factor 3 consisted of 4 items related to satisfaction with one's achievements and self-contentment with life events. Thus, it was labelled as Satisfied with Life Achievements (SWL_PWB).

Factor 4 consisted of 3 items which reflected a sense of purpose and direction with an orientation towards the future. Hence it was labelled as Purpose in Life (PL_PWB).

Factor 5 comprised of 3 items which reflected an acceptance of change and openness to new experiences. Thus, it was labelled as Openness to New Experiences (OE_PWB).

Factor 6 consisted of 3 items which reflected self-determination and internal regulation of thought and behaviour. Thus, it was labelled as Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions (AUTO_PWB).

Factor 7 consisted of 3 items reflecting evaluation of self by personal standards. Hence, it was labelled as Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards (SE_PWB).

Factor 8 consisted of 3 items which primarily reflected an ability to manage responsibilities and situational demands. Thus, it was labelled as Competence in Managing Environmental Demands (CE_PWB).

The coefficient of alpha and other psychometric properties of these dimensions along with their inter-correlations are depicted in Table 3.9. The coefficient alpha value (α) of the whole scale is .88. Coefficient alpha values for factor 1, factor 2, factor 3, factor 4, factor 5, factor 6, factor 7 and factor 8 were .87, .80, .73, .74, .63, .62, .60 and .60 respectively.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by Schancke's (1983) 11 item scale, which assessed three satisfaction dimensions: social satisfaction (employee likes working with his supervisors and co-workers at the workplace), extrinsic satisfaction (satisfaction with culture, climate of the workplace, pay, etc.) and intrinsic satisfaction (employee likes the kind of work he is doing). These dimensions include both cognitive and affective responses of employees regarding their work environment. Extrinsic satisfaction was measured using three items and intrinsic satisfaction and social satisfaction were measured by 4 items each. Tripathi and Tripathi (2001) found similar factors of job satisfaction in Indian work settings. Also, Biswas (2011) found the Cronbach's alpha for this scale to be .90 in a study assessing job satisfaction among Indian managers. Responses to the items of this scale were obtained on a 7-point scale (ranging from 1 = very satisfied to 7 = very dissatisfied) indicating the amount of the respondent's satisfaction. Exploratory factor analysis of all the items of this scale was carried out using principal component method with varimax rotation. Only those items with loadings of .40 and above were considered for the factors. In the rotated factor solution, 7 of the items have a significant loading in only one factor; but items 4, 6, 8 and 10 cross-loaded on two factors. Authors have suggested that if the difference between the loading primary factor (one with the higher loading) and the loading of the alternative factor (one with the lower loading) is .20 or higher, the item should be retained as a significant loading of the primary factor (Howard, 2016; Hinkin,

1998). Taking this aspect into consideration the researcher retained item 4. Since, the difference between loading of the primary factor and loading of the alternative factor is less than .20 for items 6, 8 and 10, they were deleted from the analysis, leaving 8 items in the analysis. The rotated factor matrix has been depicted in Table 3.10. Factor analysis for the reduced set of 8 items, after deleting cross-loaded items, yielded the following 2 factors:

Factor 1 comprised of 5 items which indicated satisfaction derived from the activities of the job itself as well satisfaction derived from the friendliness of colleagues and the respect received from them. Thus, it was labelled as Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction (SI_JS).

Factor 2 comprised of 3 items which reflects satisfaction experienced from external factors of the job, such as pay, fringe benefits and job security. Thus, it was labelled as Extrinsic Satisfaction (EX_JS).

The coefficient of alpha and other psychometric properties of these dimensions along with their inter-correlations are depicted in Table 3.11. The coefficient alpha value (α) of the whole scale is .85. Coefficient alpha values for factor 1 and factor 2 were .85 and .70 respectively.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was assessed using the 6 positive items from Cook and Wall's (1980) 9-item scale and 6 items measuring affective commitment from Meyer and Allen's (1997) 18-item scale. Hence, in total 12 items were used to measure organizational commitment. Cook and Wall's (1980) scale consists of three dimensions: organizational identity, involvement, and loyalty, which are also captured by the items of affective commitment to some extent. Responses to all these items were obtained on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Exploratory factor analysis of all the items together was carried out using principal component method with varimax rotation. Only those items with loadings of .40 and above were considered for the factors. In the

rotated factor solution, 11 of the items have a significant loading in only one factor; only Item 1 cross-loaded on two factors. Since, the difference between loading of the primary factor (one with the higher loading) and loading of the alternative factor (one with the lower loading) is less than .20 for Item 1, it was deleted from the analysis, leaving 11 items in the analysis. The rotated factor matrix for 11 items has been depicted in Table 3.12. Factor analysis for the reduced set of 11 items, after deleting the cross-loaded item, yielded the following 3 factors:

Factor 1 consisted of 5 items which indicated internalization of the organizational goals and values, attachment of personal meaning to the organization and psychological involvement with one's job roles and activities. Thus, it was labelled as Involvement with Identification (ID_OC).

Factor 2 comprised of 3 items which denoted a sense of belonging and emotional attachment to the organization. Thus, it was labelled as Emotional Attachment with the Organization (EA_OC).

Factor 3 comprised of 3 items which denoted affection and loyalty for the organization manifested as a 'wish to stay'. Thus, it was labelled as Loyalty (LOL_OC).

The coefficient of alpha and other psychometric properties of these dimensions along with their inter-correlations are depicted in Table 3.13. The coefficient alpha value (α) of the whole scale is .84. Coefficient alpha values for factor 1 factor 2 and factor 3 were .80, .87 and .60 respectively.

Control Variables

Based on previous research it was assumed that type of the organization (private vs public), age, gender and tenure in the present organization are likely to influence the constructs included in the study (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). These variables were statistically controlled for in hierarchical multiple regression

analyses. Age and organizational tenure were measured in years. Gender and type of the organization were measured as dichotomous variables. Gender was coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. Type of organization was coded as 1 for public sector organizations and 2 for private sector organizations.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities (coefficient alphas), and correlations among all of the variables are presented in Table 3.14. The reliability coefficients are within the acceptable range.

As shown in Table 3.14, EL was positively correlated with PE ($r = .40, p < .001$), general mental health ($r = .32, p < .001$), psychological well-being ($r = .23, p < .001$), job satisfaction ($r = .48, p < .001$) and organizational commitment ($r = .40, p < .001$) and negatively correlated with perceived stress ($r = -.23, p < .001$). Moreover, PE was positively correlated with mental health ($r = .29, p < .001$), psychological well-being ($r = .31, p < .001$), job satisfaction ($r = .45, p < .001$) and organizational commitment ($r = .42, p < .001$) and negatively correlated with perceived stress ($r = -.25, p < .001$). These results are consistent with and provide initial support for our hypotheses.

Common Method Variance

Harman's single-factor test was conducted to deal with common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). EFA of all the items with an un-rotated principal component analysis yielded 30 distinctive factors with Eigen values greater than 1, explaining 70% of the total variance. The first factor accounted for only 18.38% of the total variance, thus precluding the possibility of common method variance to some extent (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Hypotheses Testing and Results

A series of hierarchical regression analyses was performed to test all the hypotheses. The analysis of the proposed relationships in all hypotheses was done by controlling for age, gender, organizational tenure and organization type.

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to test hypotheses related to the relationship between EL and each of the employee outcomes (perceived stress, general mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and also hypotheses pertaining to the mediating role of PE in these linkages. For each of the employee outcomes, the control variables were entered first in the model, followed by the independent variable EL, and finally, the mediator PE was entered to test the mediation effect. Similarly, to test hypotheses regarding the relationship between PE and each of the employee outcomes, the control variables were entered first in the model, followed by PE.

In order to test hypotheses regarding the mediating role of PE in the relationship between EL and the employee outcomes, the necessary conditions for mediation prescribed by Baron and Kenny (1986) were examined. Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed three conditions which must be met to establish a significant mediation effect: (1) the predictor (independent variable) must have a significant impact on the mediator, (2) the predictor must significantly impact the criterion (dependent variable), and (3) the mediator must have a significant impact on the criterion variable and the significant impact of predictor on criterion must either become insignificant (full mediation) or become less significant (partial mediation) when the criterion is regressed on both predictor and mediator variables in the third condition. But, recent researches have indicated few limitations of the mediation analysis approach tested by researchers in line with Baron and Kenny's recommendations. Significant indirect effect (relationship between predictor and criterion variable via mediator variable) has been noticed even in the absence of significant causal relationship between predictor and outcome variables. Besides, opposing indirect effects (suppression) can conceal a direct effect and can provide the impression of a partial or full

mediation. Hence, to comment on the actual mediation effect, it is prudent to look into the strength and direction of the indirect effect rather than full or partial mediation (Preacher & Kelly, 2011; Hayes, 2013). Hence, in addition to hierarchical regression analysis, the mediation analysis was also conducted using PROCESS Macro V 3.18 (Hayes, 2018) in SPSS (version 20.0) to measure the strength and direction of indirect effect. The macro gives bootstrapping tests of the estimated indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). When resultant bias corrected confidence interval (present study is based on bootstrap sample = 10000) does not include the value of zero, it reveals that there is a difference in the change of coefficients for the test of mediation. This statistical method is not dependent on the assumption of data normality (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002), or does not suffer from a high Type I error rate as the number of inferential tests are reduced.

To examine the hypothesis related to the role of empowerment role identity as a moderator in the relationship between EL and PE, hierarchical regression analysis was used. Hierarchical regression allows a researcher to enter variables in order of their causal priority and hence is considered an effective tool for testing interaction effects (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 1983). The mean-centering of the interaction variables was done to reduce multi-collinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). To further validate the results, bootstrap confidence interval was computed to test the significance of the interaction effect by using PROCESS Macro V 3.18 (Hayes, 2018).

Relationship between Empowering Leadership and outcomes

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test hypotheses related to the relationship between EL and each of the employee outcomes (perceived stress, general mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment). The control variables were entered first in the model, followed by EL. In addition, each dimension of the dependent variables was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL) and Leading by Example (LE_EL), in two separate models for each dimension of EL. The dimensions of EL

were not entered together in the same model as the correlation between them was found to be moderately high. The control variables were entered first, followed by the dimension of EL.

It is evident from *Step2^b* of Table 3.15 that EL had a negative effect on Perceived Stress (PSS) experienced by the employees ($b = -.13$, $\beta = -.23$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Furthermore, PSS was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL) and Leading by Example (LE_EL), in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.20, PD_EL was negatively related to perceived stress ($b = -.11$, $\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.21, LE_EL was negatively related to perceived stress ($b = -.09$, $\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$).

It is evident from *Step2^b* of Table 3.16 that EL had a positive effect on general mental health of the employees ($b = .30$, $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Furthermore, Botheration Free Existence (BFE_MH) dimension of general mental health was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.22, PD_EL was positively related to BFE_MH ($b = .18$, $\beta = .15$, $p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.23, LE_EL was positively related to BFE_MH ($b = .17$, $\beta = .17$, $p < .01$).

Similarly, Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution (AC_MH) dimension of general mental health was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.24, PD_EL was positively related to AC_MH ($b = .34$, $\beta = .38$, $p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.25, LE_EL was positively related to AC_MH ($b = .25$, $\beta = .36$, $p < .01$).

It is evident from *Step2^b* of Table 3.17 that EL had a positive effect on psychological well-being (PWB) of the employees ($b = .16, \beta = .23, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Furthermore, Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard (CEI_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.26, PD_EL was positively related to CEI_PWB ($b = .20, \beta = .29, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.27, LE_EL was positively related to CEI_PWB ($b = .15, \beta = .27, p < .01$).

Similarly, Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships (WSR_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.28, PD_EL was positively related to WSR_PWB ($b = .17, \beta = .15, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.29, LE_EL was positively related to WSR_PWB ($b = .12, \beta = .14, p < .01$).

Satisfied with Life Achievements (SWL_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.30, PD_EL was positively related to SWL_PWB ($b = .14, \beta = .12, p < .05$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.31, LE_EL was positively related to SWL_PWB ($b = .11, \beta = .11, p < .05$).

Purpose in Life (PL_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.32, PD_EL was positively related to PL_PWB ($b = .17, \beta = .18, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.33, LE_EL was positively related to PL_PWB ($b = .15, \beta = .21, p < .01$).

Openness to New Experiences (OE_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each

dimension of EL. As shown in Step *Step2^b* of Table 3.34, no significant relationship was found between PD_EL and OE_PWB ($b = .01, \beta = .01, p = .91$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.35, no significant relationship was found between LE_EL and OE_PWB ($b = .00, \beta = .00, p = .99$).

Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions (AUTO_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in Step *Step2^b* of Table 3.36, PD_EL was positively related to AUTO_PWB ($b = .16, \beta = .16, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.37, LE_EL was positively related to AUTO_PWB ($b = .09, \beta = .12, p < .05$).

Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards (SE_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.38, no significant relationship was found between PD_EL and SE_PWB ($b = .03, \beta = .02, p = .65$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.39, no significant relationship was found between LE_EL and SE_PWB ($b = .02, \beta = .04, p = .47$).

Competence in Managing Environmental Demands (CE_PWB) dimension of PWB was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.40, PD_EL was positively related to CE_PWB ($b = .20, \beta = .22, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.41, LE_EL was positively related to CE_PWB ($b = .12, \beta = .17, p < .01$).

It is evident from *Step2^b* of Table 3.18 that EL had a positive effect on job satisfaction of the employees ($b = .41, \beta = .48, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Furthermore, Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction (SI_JS) dimension of job satisfaction was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.42, PD_EL

was positively related to SI_JS ($b = .37, \beta = .41, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.43, LE_EL was positively related to SI_JS ($b = .31, \beta = .43, p < .01$).

Similarly, Extrinsic Satisfaction (EX_JS) dimension of job satisfaction was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step Step2^b* of Table 3.44, PD_EL was positively related to EX_JS ($b = .36, \beta = .35, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.45, LE_EL was positively related to EX_JS ($b = .26, \beta = .32, p < .01$).

It is evident from *Step2^b* of Table 3.19 that EL had a positive effect on organizational commitment of the employees ($b = .35, \beta = .39, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Furthermore, Involvement with Identification (ID_OCOM) dimension of organizational commitment was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step2^b* of Table 3.46, PD_EL was positively related to ID_OCOM ($b = .32, \beta = .38, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.47, LE_EL was positively related to ID_OCOM ($b = .23, \beta = .34, p < .01$).

Similarly, Emotional Attachment (EA_OCOM) dimension of organizational commitment was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and Leading LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step Step2^b* of Table 3.48, PD_EL was positively related to ID_OCOM ($b = .35, \beta = .29, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step2^b* of Table 3.49, LE_EL was positively related to ID_OCOM ($b = .19, \beta = .16, p < .01$).

Loyalty (LOL_OCOM) dimension of organizational commitment was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, PD_EL and LE_EL, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step Step2^b* of Table 3.50, PD_EL was

positively related to LOL_OCOM ($b = .33, \beta = .29, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step 2^b* of Table 3.51, LE_EL was positively related to LOL_OCOM ($b = .30, \beta = .33, p < .01$).

Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test hypotheses related to the relationship between EL and PE. The control variables were entered first in the model, followed by EL. In addition, each dimension of PE was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example, in two separate models for each dimension of EL. The dimensions of EL were not entered together in the same model as the correlation between them was found to be moderately high. The control variables were entered first, followed by the dimension of EL.

It is evident from *Step 2^a* in Tables 3.15, 3.16, 3.17, 3.18 and 3.19 that EL was positively related to PE ($b = .32, \beta = .41, p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Furthermore, Impact and Autonomy dimension of PE was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL) and Leading by Example (LE_EL), in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step 2^{ai}* of Tables 3.20, 3.22, 3.24, 3.26, 3.28, 3.30, 3.32, 3.34, 3.36, 3.38, 3.40, 3.42, 3.44, 3.46, 3.48 and 3.50, PD_EL was positively related to Impact and Autonomy ($b = .40, \beta = .33, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step 2^{ai}* of Tables 3.21, 3.23, 3.25, 3.27, 3.29, 3.31, 3.33, 3.35, 3.37, 3.39 and 3.51, LE_EL was positively related to Impact and Autonomy ($b = .31, \beta = .32, p < .01$).

Similarly, Meaning dimension of PE was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL) and Leading by Example (LE_EL), in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step 2^{ai}* of Tables 3.20, 3.22, 3.24, 3.26, 3.28,

3.30, 3.32, 3.34, 3.36, 3.38, 3.40, 3.42, 3.44, 3.46, 3.48 and 3.50, PD_EL was positively related to Meaning ($b = .36, \beta = .37, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step 2nd* of Tables 3.21, 3.23, 3.25, 3.27, 3.29, 3.31, 3.33, 3.35, 3.37, 3.39 and 3.51, LE_EL was positively related to Meaning ($b = .23, \beta = .29, p < .01$).

Similarly, Competence dimension of PE was regressed on the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL) and Leading by Example (LE_EL), in two separate models for each dimension of EL. As shown in *Step 2nd* of Tables 3.20, 3.22, 3.24, 3.26, 3.28, 3.30, 3.32, 3.34, 3.36, 3.38, 3.40, 3.42, 3.44, 3.46, 3.48 and 3.50, PD_EL was positively related to Competence ($b = .13, \beta = .22, p < .01$). As depicted in *Step 2nd* of Tables 3.21, 3.23, 3.25, 3.27, 3.29, 3.31, 3.33, 3.35, 3.37, 3.39 and 3.51, of Table, LE_EL was positively related to Competence ($b = .07, \beta = .14, p < .01$).

Moderating role of Empowerment Role Identity in Empowering Leadership-Psychological Empowerment Relationship

Hierarchical regression analysis was performed to test the hypothesis concerning the moderating role of empowerment role identity (ERI) in the relationship between EL and PE. EL and ERI was mean centred prior to computing their interaction term, to avoid multi-collinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). The control variables were entered first, followed by the independent variable EL, next the moderator variable ERI was entered and finally the interaction term of EL and ERI was entered. To further validate the results, we have computed bootstrap confidence interval to test the significance of the interaction effect by using PROCESS SPSS macro created by Preacher and Hayes (2008).

Step 4 in Table 3.52 shows that the 'EL × ERI' interaction term is not significant ($b = .01, \beta = .12, p = .62$) implying that ERI did not moderate the relationship between EL and PE. The results from the bootstrapping procedures verify the insignificance of the interaction term ($b = .01, 95\% \text{ BCa CI } [-.04, .06]$). Hence, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

Relationship between Psychological Empowerment and Outcomes

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test hypotheses related to the relationship between PE and each of the employee outcomes (perceived stress, general mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment). For each of the employee outcomes, the control variables were entered first in the model, followed by PE. Similarly, for each dimension of the outcome variables, the control variables were entered first, followed by the three dimensions of PE, namely Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence.

It is evident from *Step 2* in Table 3.53 that PE is negatively related to perceived stress ($b = -.15, \beta = -.23, p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Furthermore, perceived stress was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.58, only Competence was positively related to perceived stress ($b = -.13, \beta = -.15, p < .01$). Neither Impact and Autonomy ($b = -.03, \beta = -.07, p = .17$) nor Meaning ($b = -.05, \beta = -.09, p = .10$) had any significant effect on perceived stress.

It is evident from *Step 2* in Table 3.54 that PE is positively related to mental health ($b = .33, \beta = .28, p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Furthermore, Botheration Free Existence dimension of general mental health was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.59, Meaning ($b = .15, \beta = .12, p < .05$) and Competence ($b = .22, \beta = .11, p < .01$) were positively related to Botheration Free Existence. Impact and Autonomy ($b = .02, \beta = .02, p = .68$) did not have any significant effect on Botheration Free Existence.

Likewise, Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of general mental health was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.60, all the dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .09, \beta = .12, p < .05$), Meaning ($b = .21, \beta = .23, p < .01$) and Competence ($b = .31, \beta = .21, p < .01$), were positively related to Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution.

It is evident from *Step 2* in Table 3.55 that PE is positively related to psychological well-being (PWB) ($b = .26, \beta = .30, p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 10 was supported.

Furthermore, Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.61, all the dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .06, \beta = .10, p < .05$), Meaning ($b = .15, \beta = .21, p < .01$) and Competence ($b = .28, \beta = .24, p < .01$), were positively related to Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard.

Likewise, Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.62, only Competence was positively related to Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships ($b = .28, \beta = .15, p < .01$). Neither Impact and Autonomy ($b = .04, \beta = .04, p = .48$) nor Meaning ($b = .10, \beta = .09, p = .12$) had any significant effect on Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships.

Similarly, Satisfied with Life Achievements dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.63, only Competence was positively related to Satisfied with Life Achievements ($b = .34, \beta = .17, p < .01$).

Neither Impact and Autonomy ($b = .01, \beta = .01, p = .79$) nor Meaning ($b = .06, \beta = .05, p = .38$) had any significant effect on Satisfied with Life Achievements.

Furthermore, Purpose in Life dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.64, Meaning ($b = .21, \beta = .22, p < .01$) and Competence ($b = .22, \beta = .14, p < .01$) were positively related to Purpose in Life. Impact and Autonomy ($b = .06, \beta = .09, p = .11$) did not have any significant effect on Purpose in Life.

Similarly, Openness to New Experiences dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.65, both Impact and Autonomy ($b = .22, \beta = .20, p < .01$) and Competence ($b = .38, \beta = .18, p < .01$) were positively related to Openness to New Experiences. Meaning ($b = .13, \beta = .09, p = .09$) did not have any significant effect on Openness to New Experiences.

Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.66, all the dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .09, \beta = .11, p < .05$), Meaning ($b = .18, \beta = .18, p < .01$) and Competence ($b = .59, \beta = .37, p < .01$), were positively related to Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions.

Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.67, none of the dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .02, \beta = .02, p = .73$), Meaning ($b = .06, \beta = .04, p = .43$) and Competence ($b = .00, \beta = .00, p = .99$), had any significant effect on Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards.

Competence in Managing Environmental Demands dimension of PWB was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.68, all the dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .12, \beta = .16, p < .01$), Meaning ($b = .13, \beta = .14, p < .01$) and Competence ($b = .29, \beta = .20, p < .01$), were positively related to Competence in Managing Environmental Demands.

It is evident from *Step 2* in Table 3.56 that PE is positively related to job satisfaction ($b = .47, \beta = .43, p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 11 was supported.

Furthermore, Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.69, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .18, \beta = .24, p < .01$) and Meaning ($b = .22, \beta = .24, p < .01$) were positively related to Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction. Competence ($b = .02, \beta = .01, p = .79$) did not have any significant effect on Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction.

Likewise, Extrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.70, only Impact and Autonomy was positively related to Extrinsic Satisfaction ($b = .28, \beta = .33, p < .01$). Neither Meaning ($b = .09, \beta = .08, p = .11$) nor Competence ($b = .04, \beta = .03, p = .60$) had any significant effect on Extrinsic Satisfaction.

It is evident from *Step 2* in Table 3.57 that PE is positively related to organizational commitment ($b = .49, \beta = .42, p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 12 was supported.

Furthermore, Involvement with Identification dimension of organizational commitment was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.71, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .14, \beta = .19, p < .01$) and Meaning ($b = .35, \beta = .39, p < .01$)

were positively related to Involvement with Identification. Competence ($b = .07, \beta = .05, p = .24$) did not have any significant effect on Involvement with Identification.

Likewise, Emotional Attachment dimension of organizational commitment was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.72, only Meaning was positively related to Emotional Attachment ($b = .45, \beta = .29, p < .01$). Neither Impact and Autonomy ($b = .01, \beta = .01, p = .91$) nor Competence ($b = .12, \beta = .05, p = .35$) had any significant effect on Emotional Attachment.

Similarly, Loyalty dimension of organizational commitment was regressed on the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, in a single model. As shown in *Step 4* of Table 3.73, Impact and Autonomy ($b = .11, \beta = .10, p < .05$) and Meaning ($b = .27, \beta = .23, p < .01$) were positively related to Loyalty. Competence ($b = .10, \beta = .05, p = .28$) did not have any significant effect on Loyalty.

Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment in the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Employee Outcomes

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test the mediating effect of PE. For each of the employee outcomes, the control variables were entered first in the model, followed by the independent variable EL, and finally, the mediator PE was entered.

Furthermore, to assess the mediating effect of each dimension of PE on the relationship between each dimension of EL and each dimension of the dependent variables, the control variables were entered first, followed by the Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL) dimension of EL, and finally, all the three dimensions of PE (Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence) as parallel mediators. Again, for each

dimension of the dependent variables the control variables were entered first, followed by the Leading by Example (LE_EL) dimension of EL, and finally, all the three dimensions of PE (Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence) were entered as parallel mediators. The dimensions of EL were not entered together in the same model as the correlation between them was found to be moderately high.

The dimensions of PE were treated as parallel mediators to know if any of these dimensions drive the mediation more than the others, or if all three contributed to it. Parallel mediation is useful in testing each of the mediators, while accounting for the shared variance in them (Hayes, 2013). In parallel mediation the mediators can correlate but cannot casually influence each other (Hayes, 2013). However, mediators that are too highly correlated may create multi-collinearity, which affects the estimation of their partial relationships with the outcome variables (Hayes, 2013). Since, all the three dimensions of PE were measured using the same questionnaire, there were no theoretical grounds to assume that one dimension would lead to another. Also, the inter-correlations among the three dimensions were moderately low. Hence, the researcher opted for parallel mediation.

In addition to hierarchical regression analysis, the mediation analysis was also carried out by executing PROCESS Macro V 3.18 (Hayes 2018) in SPSS (version 20.0) to measure the strength and direction of indirect effect. Sobel tests were also performed to test the mediating criteria and significance of indirect effects.

It is evident from Table 3.15 that PE mediated the relationship between EL and perceived stress. EL had a significant negative indirect effect on perceived stress through PE ($b_{ab} = -.03$, 95% BCa CI $[-.06, -.02]$, $z = -2.93$, $p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 13 was supported. Fig 3.2 depicts the simple mediation model depicting PE as a mediator in EL-perceived stress relationship.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 3.20, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant negative indirect effect on perceived stress through Competence

dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = -.02$, 95% BCa CI $[-.03, -.01]$, $z = -2.42$, $p < .01$). Similarly, as shown in Table 3.21, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant negative indirect effect on perceived stress through Competence dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = -.02$, 95% BCa CI $[-.02, -.01]$, $z = -2.09$, $p < .01$).

It is evident from Table 3.16 that PE mediated the relationship between EL and general mental health. EL had a significant positive indirect effect on general mental health through PE ($b_{ab} = .07$, 95% BCa CI $[.03, .11]$, $z = 3.41$, $p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 14 was supported. Fig 3.3 depicts the simple mediation model depicting PE as a mediator in EL-general mental health relationship.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 3.22, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Botheration-free Existence dimension of general mental health through Competence dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI $[.01, .06]$, $z = 1.73$, $p < .05$). Similarly, as depicted in Table 3.23, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Botheration-free Existence dimension of general mental health through Competence dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI $[.01, .03]$, $z = 1.73$, $p < .05$).

As shown in Table 3.24, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of general mental health through Competence ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI $[.01, .07]$, $z = 3.10$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .05$, 95% BCa CI $[.02, .09]$, $z = 2.91$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.25, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of mental health through Competence ($b_{ab} = .02$, 95% BCa CI $[.01, .05]$, $z = 2.46$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI $[.01, .06]$, $z = 3.07$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE.

It is evident from Table 3.17 that PE mediated the relationship between EL and psychological well-being (PWB). EL had a significant positive indirect effect on PWB through PE, ($b_{ab} = .07$, 95% BCa CI $[.04, .09]$, $z = 4.25$, $p < .01$). Hence,

Hypothesis 15 was supported. Fig 3.4 depicts the simple mediation model depicting PE as a mediator in EL-PWB Stress relationship.

As shown in Table 3.26, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Capacity for Empathy & Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .06], $z = 3.30$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .07], $z = 2.96$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.27, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Capacity for Empathy & Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .02$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .04], $z = 2.52$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .05], $z = 2.99$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE.

As depicted in Table 3.28 PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Well-Adjusted with Surroundings & Interpersonal Relationships dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .07], $z = 2.34$, $p < .05$) dimension of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.29, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Well-Adjusted with Surroundings & Interpersonal Relationships dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .02$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .04], $z = 2.02$, $p < .05$) dimensions of PE.

As shown in Table 3.30, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Satisfied with Life Achievements dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .08], $z = 2.51$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.31, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Satisfied with Life Achievements dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .02$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .05], $z = 2.11$, $p < .05$) dimension of PE.

As shown in Table 3.32, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Purpose in Life dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.03, .06], $z = 2.31$, $p < .05$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .07$, 95% BCa CI [.03, .11], $z = 3.43$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.33, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Purpose in

Life dimension of PWB through Competence ($b_{ab} = .02$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .03], $z = 1.99$, $p < .05$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .07], $z = 3.18$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE.

As evident from Table 3.34, PD_EL dimension of EL had significant positive indirect effect on Openness to New Experiences dimension of PWB through Impact and Autonomy dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = .09$, 95% BCa CI [.03, .15], $z = 3.09$, $p < .01$), as well as through Competence dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = .05$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .09], $z = 2.64$, $p < .01$). Similarly, as evident from Table 3.35, LE_EL dimension of EL had significant negative indirect effect on Openness to New Experiences dimension of PWB through Impact and Autonomy dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = .07$, 95% BCa CI [.03, .12], $z = 3.12$, $p < .01$), as well as through Competence dimension of PE ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .05], $z = 2.15$, $p < .01$).

As shown in Table 3.36, PD_EL dimension of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Autonomy in Opinions dimension of PWB through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .08], $z = 2.22$, $p < .05$), Meaning ($b_{ab} = .06$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .08], $z = 2.84$, $p < .01$) and Competence ($b_{ab} = .08$, 95% BCa CI [.10, .13], $z = 3.84$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.37, LE_EL dimension of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Autonomy in Opinions dimension of PWB through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .05], $z = 2.18$, $p < .05$), Meaning ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .07], $z = 2.84$, $p < .01$) and Competence ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .07], $z = 2.72$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE.

As evident from Table 3.38, none of the dimensions of PE mediated the relationship between PD_EL dimension of EL and Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards dimension of PWB. As evident from Table 3.39, none of the dimensions of PE mediated the relationship between LE_EL dimension of EL and Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards dimension of PWB.

As shown in Table 3.40, PD_EL dimension of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Competence in managing Environmental Demands dimension of PWB through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .08], $z = 2.49$, $p < .05$).

.05), Meaning ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .08], $z = 2.69$, $p < .01$) and Competence ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .06], $z = 2.96$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.41, LE_EL dimension of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Competence in managing Environmental Demands dimension of PWB through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .05], $z = 2.53$, $p < .01$), Meaning ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .05], $z = 2.32$, $p < .05$) and Competence ($b_{ab} = .02$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .04], $z = 2.35$, $p < .05$) dimensions of PE.

It is evident from Table 3.18 that PE mediated the relationship between EL and job satisfaction. EL had a significant positive indirect effect on job satisfaction through PE, $b_{ab} = .10$, 95% BCa CI [.06, .14], $z = 5.20$, $p < .01$. Hence, Hypothesis 16 was supported. Fig 3.5 depicts the simple mediation model depicting PE as a mediator in EL-job satisfaction relationship.

As shown in Table 3.42, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .05$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .09], $z = 3.19$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .05$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .10], $z = 2.94$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.43, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .07], $z = 2.90$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .07], $z = 3.09$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE.

As shown in Table 3.44, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Extrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .09$, 95% BCa CI [.05, .14], $z = 4.45$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.45, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Extrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .07$, 95% BCa CI [.04, .11], $z = 4.32$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE.

It is evident from Table 3.19 that PE mediated the relationship between EL and organizational commitment. EL had a significant positive indirect effect on organizational commitment through PE, $b_{ab} = .12$, 95% BCa CI [.07, .17], $z = 5.41$, $p < .01$. Hence, Hypothesis 17 was supported. Fig 3.6 depicts the simple mediation model depicting PE as a mediator in EL- organizational commitment relationship.

As shown in Table 3.46, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Identification with Involvement dimension of organizational commitment through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .04$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .08], $z = 2.94$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .11$, 95% BCa CI [.06, .16], $z = 5.41$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.47, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Identification with Involvement dimension of organizational commitment through Impact and Autonomy ($b_{ab} = .03$, 95% BCa CI [.01, .06], $z = 2.85$, $p < .01$), as well as through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .07$, 95% BCa CI [.04, .11], $z = 4.82$, $p < .01$) dimensions of PE.

As shown in Table 3.48, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Emotional Attachment dimension of organizational commitment through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .14$, 95% BCa CI [.07, .23], $z = 3.98$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.49, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Emotional Attachment dimension of organizational commitment through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .10$, 95% BCa CI [.04, .16], $z = 3.89$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE.

As shown in Table 3.50, PD_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Loyalty dimension of organizational commitment through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .08$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .14], $z = 3.13$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE. Similarly, as shown in Table 3.51, LE_EL dimension of EL had a significant positive indirect effect on Loyalty dimension of organizational commitment through Meaning ($b_{ab} = .05$, 95% BCa CI [.02, .09], $z = 3.05$, $p < .01$) dimension of PE.

Psychological Empowerment in Public versus Private Sector

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to examine if there are significant differences in the way public and private sector employees experience PE. The results are presented in Table 3.74. These results indicated that significant difference exist in the PE experienced by private and public sector employees ($F = 3.32, p < .05$). Private sector employees (Mean = 5.90, SD = .87) were more psychologically empowered than public sector employees (Mean = 5.50, SD = .84). Therefore, Hypothesis 18 was supported. Furthermore, the analysis showed that there is a significant difference on the Impact and Autonomy dimension of PE ($F = 8.06, p < .01$). Private sector employees (Mean = 5.42, SD = 1.30) scored higher in Impact and Autonomy as compared to public sector employees (Mean = 4.90, SD = 1.37). No differences were found among public and private sector employees with regard to meaning and competence dimensions of PE.

Discussion

The current study strived to develop and test a conceptual model focusing on EL, PE and employee well-being and performance. Specifically, it explored whether socio-structural empowerment in the form of empowering leader behaviours would lead to employee outcomes like well-being and organizational effectiveness through their influence on PE in Indian organizations. Since, the socio-cultural values of the context in which an organization operates might affect the meaning and perception of empowerment and its consequent impact, the researcher was interested in finding out whether empowering leader behaviours lead to positive employee outcomes through their influence on PE in Indian organizations characterized by socio-cultural values like high power distance, dependence proneness and uncertainty avoidance.

Effect of Empowering Leadership on Employee Well-being and Organizational Effectiveness

The results demonstrated that EL was negatively related to the levels of perceived stress experienced by employees in Indian organizations, which is consistent with previous research implicating that positive forms of leadership are instrumental in reducing work place stress (Bass, Numeroff, & Seltzer, 1989; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Further exploration of this relationship was done by examining the relationship of the two dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example, with perceived stress. The results revealed that both the dimensions were negatively related to perceived stress. Empowering leader behaviours such as providing feedback and support, informing, encouraging participation and empowerment, showing consideration, and displaying integrity have been found to be crucial in mitigating the negative effects of stressful events (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). It was assumed that socio cultural values like power distance, uncertainty avoidance and dependence proneness prevalent in the Indian society might impact the way employees react to empowering leader behaviours. EL emphasises on collaborative decision making and participation, which when combined with workplace stressors might be overwhelming for employees in Indian organizations and consequently, they would experience more stress. As a result, the typically positive effects of EL on employee outcomes might not occur. But contrary to such assumptions, the current study validated the already established negative links between EL and stress. A possible explanation is that EL facilitates self-leadership among employees by 'leading them to lead themselves' and hence make them more confident and adept in decision making. Also, self leadership strategies such as self-management, constructive thinking, and deriving meaning from the task are instrumental in eliciting anticipatory coping that makes it possible for an employee to deal with potential problems before they become threatening (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Moreover, the mentoring function associated with EL would further remove any hesitation or inhibition that employees might have in participating in decision making.

It was observed from the results that EL was positively related to the general mental health of employees in Indian organizations. This further validates the role of positive supervisory behaviours such as providing autonomy to the employees, communicating information and showing concern in reducing the negative effect of psychological distress as well as in promoting positive general health characterized by a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction. Empowering leaders intrinsically motivate employees by displaying supportive behaviours and hence elevate positive affect among employees (Srivastava et al., 2006). Further exploration of this relationship was done by examining the links between Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL, with Botheration-Free Existence dimension of general mental health. The results reveal that both the dimensions of EL were positively related to Botheration-Free Existence, which is characterized by a laid-back outlook towards life (Jain & Sinha, 2005). Empowering leader behaviours such as informing and support instil trust in the leader as well in the organization (Bobbio, Bellan, & Manganelli, 2012) and trust has been established as a significant predictor of Botheration-Free Existence (Jain & Sinha, 2005). Also, trust in the leader and the organization demonstrated a negative impact on job burnout. Similarly, both the dimensions of EL had positive impact on Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of general mental health. Empowering leaders, by displaying supporting behaviours, mentoring and coaching, equipping employees with all the necessary resources and showing concern for their well-being, reinforce the employees' sense of perceived organizational support or belief regarding the extent to which the organization values their contribution and is concerned about them (Bobbio, Bellan, & Manganelli, 2012). Perceived organizational support has been demonstrated to have positive impact on employees' general mental health in terms of positive mood and reduced strain (Leather et al., 1998). A study by Jain and Sinha (2005) indicated that Perceived organizational support is a significant predictor of Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of general mental health.

Results indicated that EL was positively related to psychological well-being of employees in Indian organizations. Empowering leaders can facilitate a positive

state of mind towards their work and life by providing employees autonomy to achieve personal goals which are congruent to organizational goals and by clearing the path to goal accomplishment. And a positive state of mind is instrumental in increasing employees' psychological well-being. Also, EL is positively associated with self-efficacy (Ahearne et al., 2005), optimism, hope (Segers, Prins, & Brouwers, 2009) and resilience (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007), which constitute the core factors of psychological capital or PsyCap. EL has been found to be a significant predictor of PsyCap (Avey, 2014), which was demonstrated to have a positive relationship with psychological well-being in previous literature (Avey et al., 2010; Culbertson, Fullagar, & Mills, 2010). Thus, EL would increase employees' PWB by enhancing their psychological resources such as PsyCap. Moreover, results of the current study demonstrated that both the dimensions of EL were positively related to the following dimensions of PWB: Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard, Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships, Satisfied with Life Achievements, Purpose in Life, Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions, and Competence in managing Environmental Demands. Empowering leader behaviours like participatory decision making and participative goal-setting process would intrinsically motivate the employees and instil in them a sense of control, hence leading to increased skill utilization as well as satisfaction of higher psychological needs for autonomy and personal growth. Mentoring functions and communicating necessary information to the employees would make self-reliant in effectively dealing not only with the work load but also with demands outside the work domain. Displaying confidence in the employees and exhibiting concern for their well-being and would assist them to combat insecurities at work and also make them more competent in handling problems they might come across in their personal life. Also, leaders displaying personal concern for the needs and problems of the employees can facilitate the satisfaction of their need for relatedness, which would reflect in their other interpersonal relationships as well. Empowering leaders boost the meaningfulness of work by emphasizing the value of work, engaging them in participative goal-setting process and removing the constraints they might face in the path to goal accomplishment (Park, Kim, Yun & Joo, 2017). Deriving meaning is a fundamental motive and it is associated with a

wide range benefits, from an increased will to live to effectively cope in face of distressing life-events (Frankl, 1963; Britt et al., 2001). The opportunity to engage in intrinsically satisfying and meaningful work is instrumental in effective life-adjustment in terms of surroundings as well as interpersonal relationships and leads to increased quality of life (Westaby et al., 2005). Meaningful life is synonymous with a sense of purpose defined by goals, intentions, and a sense of direction (Ryff, 1989).

The results further demonstrated that EL was positively related to job satisfaction among employees in Indian organizations. This is in congruence with previous findings which have reported the positive role that EL has in enhancing job satisfaction (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Dewettinck & van Amejide, 2011; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000; Vecchio et al., 2010; Fong & Snape, 2013). Furthermore, the dimensions of EL were found to be positively related to both the dimensions of job satisfaction: Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction and Extrinsic Satisfaction. Empowering leader behaviours such as mentoring, providing autonomy, training, self-defined goal focus, appreciation of effort, emotional support, promoting positive relations among work group members and information-sharing would lead to satisfaction of employees' need for autonomy, relatedness and competence, which in turn would foster intrinsic motivation in the employees. Such autonomous motivation would enhance their satisfaction related to the inherent characteristics of the job and derived from social-acceptance at work place (Stone, Deci, & Ryan, 2009). Moreover, giving recognition to employees in the form of appreciation of effort, promotions and monetary benefits, ensuring that they have favourable working conditions and displaying supportive behaviours are likely to have positive impact on extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. Although the researcher had doubts regarding the positive role of EL in predicting job satisfaction in Indian work settings, these findings validate the efficacy of EL in high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance cultures like India. In high power-distance cultures, leaders are also expected to take care of the employees by displaying enabling behaviours like showing concern and support in exchange for loyalty and obedience. Hence, it is

possible that power distance would in fact enhance the effect of EL on job satisfaction (Mcfarlin & Coget, 2013).

With regard to the relationship between EL and organizational commitment, results indicated that EL was positively related to organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations, which is consistent with the previously established positive links between EL and organizational commitment (Chen et al., 2011). Further exploration of this relationship revealed that both the dimensions of EL were positively correlated to the dimensions of organizational commitment: Involvement with Identification, Emotional Attachment with the Organization and Loyalty. Positive supervisory behaviours such as expressing confidence in employees' ability to accomplish its task successfully, allowing them to make decision their own and self-manage their are expected to intrinsically motivate employees and make them feel more emotionally involved and personally accountable in work processes (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Tjosvold & Sun, 2006). Employees perceive their leaders as representing the organization. According to the norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), individual employees are likely to perceive leader's supportive behaviours as a form of organizational support and reciprocate by demonstrating higher levels of commitment and loyalty (Kim & Beehr, 2018).

Effect of Empowering Leadership on Psychological Empowerment

Results demonstrated that EL was positively related to PE at workplace. This finding reinforces the antecedent role of positive forms of leadership in creating empowering work environments. Particularly, EL behaviours are intended to empower subordinates (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Arnold *et al.*, 2000) and hence, are likely to have stronger association with PE (Fong & Snape, 2013). Further exploration of this relationship revealed that both the dimensions of EL, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example, were positively related to all the three dimensions of PE: Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence. Empowering

leaders display enabling and supportive behaviours which increase employees' intrinsic motivation associated with cognitions of competence, self-determination, impact and meaning (Bowen & Lawler, 1992). Empowering leaders provide information about goals and engage the employees in participative goal-setting, which allow employees to estimate the value of their work, form personal goals congruent to the organizational goals and consequently increase the meaningfulness (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Also, by encouraging employees to participate more and by granting them autonomy, empowering leaders can increase their feelings of impact and self-determination (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Finally, empowering leaders provide employees with feedback and coaching and remove the constraints they might face in the path to goal accomplishment, which serve as substantial sources of self-efficacy information that increase employees' feelings of competence (Bandura, 1997). It is possible that Indian socio-cultural values of high power distance, uncertainty avoidance and dependence proneness might impact how people perceive and react to socio-structural empowerment like EL, and consequently, instead of empowering, the demands of working autonomously might be more overwhelming and exhausting for employees. But, as evident from the results, EL enhanced employees' experience of PE in Indian work context as well.

Moderating role of Empowerment Role Identity in Empowering Leadership-Psychological Empowerment Relationship

The current study explored the possibility that employees might differ in the extent to which they welcome empowerment and feel it, even in the presence of EL. It was expected that employees who perceive empowerment as consistent with their desires and role perceptions and want to be empowered at their jobs are likely to experience more empowerment in the presence of EL. As evident from the results, empowerment role identity did not moderate the relationship between EL and PE. A possible explanation can be that Indians are highly oriented towards others (Sinha, 2014). As a result, they are highly receptive to others expectations, sensitive to situational cues and alert to new opportunities (Sinha, 2014). Thus, when their superiors provide them opportunities for empowerment,

it is likely that they will make up their own mind, respond to the new opportunities, start taking initiative and accept the autonomy and responsibility positively, irrespective of whether they prefer such empowerment or not.

Effect of Psychological Empowerment on Employee Well-being and Organizational Effectiveness

Results demonstrated that PE was negatively related to the levels of perceived stress experienced by employees in Indian organizations. This is consistent with the findings of Study 1 of this research. Further exploration of this relationship yielded that all the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, were negatively related to perceived stress.

It was observed from the results that PE was positively related to mental health of employees in Indian organizations. Theoretically, it can be expected that all the four cognitions associated with PE would have a positive impact on mental health (Hochwalder & Brucefors, 2005; Liu et al., 2015). Further exploration of this relationship yielded that all the three dimensions of PE, Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence, were positively related to the Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of mental health. With regard to the Botheration-Free Existence dimension of mental health, only Meaning and Competence were found to be significant predictors. The opportunity to engage in intrinsically satisfying opportunities for employment (meaning) would contribute to adjustment and quality of life (Westaby et al., 2005). Also, it reduces anxiety by providing distraction from physical symptoms and protects against ill health. Similarly, competence leads to improved ability to deal with job demands and positively influence individual functioning and physical and psychological health (Gecas, 1989; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Job autonomy and opportunity to have impact at work would enhance an employee's intrinsic motivation and consequently leads to active attempts of respondents to impact the environment. Hence, by reducing the negative effects of job demands and enhancing intrinsic job motivation, PE would enable employees to experience a sense of fulfilment on doing or contributing something valuable (or a sense of accomplishment and

contribution). This, in turn, would lead to a positive state of mind where an individual feels capable, confident and satisfied with his/her life in general. Impact and autonomy did not have any significant effect on Botheration-free Existence dimension of general mental health. It may be due to the fact that, botheration-free existence is characterized by a somewhat laid-back attitude towards life and relatively less efforts to act on the surroundings.

Results demonstrated that PE was positively related to the psychological well-being of employees in Indian organizations. Further exploration of this relationship revealed that dimensions of PE were related to the dimensions of PWB. Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence were positively related to Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard. Competence significantly predicted Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships and Satisfied with Life Achievements dimensions of psychological well-being. Meaning and Competence were positively related to Purpose in Life. Impact and Autonomy and Competence were positively related to Openness to New Experiences. Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence were positively related to Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions. Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence were positively related to Competence in Managing Environmental Demands. When employees perceive that they can influence or make a difference in significant outcomes (i.e., impact), they are likely to feel more involved, attain a sense of satisfaction with regard to their work and are more likely to develop a positive self-image or self-acceptance (Liden et al., 2000). When employees perceive that their values and beliefs are congruent with the requirements of their job (i.e., meaning), they would be more likely to experience a sense of purpose in life (Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016). Employees who experience self-determination at work are more likely to perceive a strong sense of autonomy in their lives (Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016). Employees who feel confident about their knowledge, skills and abilities are expected to have more expectations from goals; hence, they are likely to put in extra effort and persistence in challenging situations at work as well as at domains outside work, and thus feel more competent in managing environmental demands and a stronger sense of personal growth. Sense of autonomy and opportunity to influence outcomes would

intrinsically motivate the employees and instil in them a sense of control, hence leading to increased skill utilization as well as satisfaction of higher psychological needs for autonomy and personal growth. Employees would feel more involved and therefore gain a sense of satisfaction with their jobs and life in general and experience psychological well being.

Results indicated that PE was positively related to job satisfaction among employees in Indian organizations. This gave support to previous findings that implicated positive association between PE and job satisfaction (e.g., Seibert et al., 2004). Since the different facets of PE produce workplace rewards which are intrinsic to the individual, it would be positively associated with job satisfaction (Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Further exploration of this relationship revealed that the dimensions of PE were positively related to the dimensions of job satisfaction. Specifically, Impact and Autonomy and Meaning had positive effects on Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction and only Impact and Autonomy predicted Extrinsic Satisfaction. Competence did not predict any of the dimensions of job satisfaction. Perceived meaningfulness would increase job involvement and convergence of energy (Kanter, 1983) and hence accomplishment of coveted work values, which in turn, would lead to job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Knowledge of results and the ability to influence outcomes would also impact satisfaction at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Similarly, higher levels of personal control and autonomy would increase job satisfaction by enhancing an employee's sense of agency in terms of task accomplishment (Spector, 1986; Liden et al., 1994; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Also, employees who feel a sense of autonomy at work are more likely to find the work intrinsically-rewarding (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) and are less likely to experience a sense of alienation (Seligman, 1975) or be withdrawn (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978). Intuitively, competence should have been a significant predictor of job satisfaction. But, no significant association was found between competence and job satisfaction dimensions. One possible explanation can be that employees who are very adept at their jobs might start finding them monotonous in absence of challenging tasks. As a result, competence would not lead satisfaction. The participants of the present study responded positively to PE, implying that EL is generalizable to the Indian context.

Results demonstrated that PE was positively related to organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations. This is congruent with previous findings which demonstrated that feelings of empowerment are positively related to organizational commitment (e.g., Raub & Robert, 2013) and inversely related to propensity to turn over (Sparrowe, 1994; Koberg et al., 1999). Employees are expected to appreciate empowering organizational experiences/practices which facilitate their feelings of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrow, 2000). Consequently, according to social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) they are more likely to reciprocate by feeling more deeply committed to the organization (Avolio et al., 2004; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Further exploration of this relationship revealed that Meaning was a significant predictor of all the three dimensions of organizational commitment: Involvement with Identification, Emotional Attachment and Loyalty. Individual-organizational value congruency has been established as crucial in inducing commitment (Liden et al., 2000), as it is likely to facilitate the feeling that the organization considers best interest of employees when making formulating goals and making decisions. Hence, employee would reciprocate by feeling more involved, deeply attached and loyal to the organization. Similarly, Impact and Autonomy significantly predicted Involvement with Identification and Loyalty. The degree to which employees get opportunities to participate in goal setting and decision-making processes would reflect in employees' perceptions about decision latitude and responsibility and the ability to impact relevant outcomes. Employees are likely to perceive this as a form of organizational support and reciprocate by developing a sense of emotional attachment towards the organization and continue working for it. Moreover, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback are those intrinsically motivating characteristics of a job which facilitate the experience of three critical psychological states: meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). These three psychological states have been found to be crucial for elevated levels of work motivation and organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994).

Mediating effect of Psychological Empowerment in the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Employee Outcomes

Results demonstrated that EL had a significant positive impact on employees' PE and also had a negative impact on employees' perceived stress. Additionally, PE was found to be negatively associated with perceived stress. Most importantly, EL had a significant negative indirect effect on perceived stress through PE implying that PE partially mediated the negative relationship between EL and perceived stress. These findings imply that EL would further diminish employees' perceived stress by increasing their PE. EL behaviours such as promoting autonomy, increasing meaningfulness, encouraging participative decision-making, enabling goal accomplishment and displaying confidence in employees would enhance employees' perceptions of autonomy, meaning, competence and impact, which in turn would mitigate their job related strain. This is aligned with previous literature which reported that the negative effect of empowering leader behaviours on strain and burnout is mediated by perceptions of person-job fit with regard to different areas of work life such as values (coherence between expectations of the organization and the employees), rewards (congruence between employees' efforts and recognition they receive for it, workload (congruence between workload and the available time and resources) and control (role clarity with regard to expectations, responsibilities, autonomy and efficiency) (Greco, Laschinger, & Wong, 2006). The Job Demands- Resources theory proposes that strain is experienced when demands on the employees exceed their resources to deal with these demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Like job resources, PE acts as a personal resource and protects employees from job demands and its corresponding impact by facilitating positive work related states such as work engagement (Spreitzer et al., 1997; Quinones, Broeck, & De Witte, 2013). The finding clarified the inevitable role of PE with regard to EL and its outcomes. Further exploration revealed that Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration dimension of EL had a significant negative indirect effect on perceived stress through Competence dimension of PE. Similarly, Leading by Example dimension of EL had a significant negative indirect effect on perceived stress through Competence dimension of PE. Competence at

work is related to less strain as those possessing requisite knowledge and skills will have improved ability to deal with job demands (Hochwalder & Brucefors, 2005).

Results demonstrated that EL had a significant positive impact on employees' PE and also had a positive impact on employees' general mental health. Additionally, PE was found to be positively associated with general mental health. Most importantly, EL had a significant positive indirect effect on general mental health through PE implying that PE partially mediated the positive relationship between EL and mental health. These findings imply that EL would further enhance employees' mental health by increasing their PE. EL behaviours shape employees' experience of intrinsic motivation with respect to their cognitions of competence, self-determination, impact and meaning (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Arnold et al., 2000, Spreitzer, 1995), which in turn protects against mental ill health (Spreitzer, 2008) and enable employees to experience a positive state of mind where an individual feels capable, confident and satisfied with his/her life in general (Park, Kim, Yoon, & Joo, 2017). Further exploration revealed that both Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Botheration-free Existence dimension of mental health through Competence dimension of PE. Similarly, both Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution dimension of mental health through Competence and Meaning. The opportunity to engage in intrinsically satisfying opportunities for employment would contribute to adjustment and quality of life (Westaby et al., 2005). Also, it reduces anxiety by providing distraction from physical symptoms and protects against ill health. Similarly, competence leads to improved ability to deal with job demands and positively influence individual functioning and psychological health (Gecas, 1989; Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Results demonstrated that EL had a significant positive impact on employees' PE and also had a positive impact on employees' psychological well-

being. Additionally, PE was found to be positively associated with psychological well-being. Most importantly, EL had a significant positive indirect effect on psychological well-being through PE implying that PE partially mediated the positive relationship between EL and psychological well-being. These findings imply that EL would further enhance employees' psychological well-being by increasing their PE. This finding was aligned with previous literature which reported the mediating role of PE in the relationship between EL and psychological well-being (Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016). Further exploration revealed that, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard dimension of psychological well-being through Competence as and Meaning dimensions of PE. Similarly, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Well-Adjusted with Surroundings & Interpersonal Relationships dimension of psychological well-being through Competence. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Satisfied with Life Achievements dimension of psychological well-being through Competence. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Purpose in Life dimension of psychological well-being through Competence as well as through Meaning. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Openness to New Experiences dimension of psychological well-being through Impact and Autonomy and Competence dimensions of PE. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Autonomy in Opinions dimension of psychological well-being through Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence dimensions of PE. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Competence in managing Environmental

Demands dimension of psychological well-being through Impact and Autonomy, Meaning and Competence dimensions of PE.

Results demonstrated that EL had a significant positive impact on employees' PE and also had a positive impact on employees' job satisfaction. Additionally, PE was found to be positively related to job satisfaction. Most importantly, EL had a significant positive indirect effect on job satisfaction through PE implying that PE partially mediated the positive relationship between EL and job satisfaction. These findings imply that EL would further enhance employees' job satisfaction by increasing their PE. This is in line with previous research which has reported the mediating role of PE in the positive relationship between EL and job satisfaction (e.g., Fong & Snape, 2013). EL fosters motivation and efficacy among employees, and encourages their involvement in the work processes. Consequently, employees would feel more confident and have positive experiences and emotions about their work (Kim & Beehr, 2018). Further exploration revealed that Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction through Impact and Autonomy as well as through Meaning dimensions of PE. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Extrinsic Satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction through Impact and Autonomy dimension of PE. Previous research has established that knowledge of results and the ability to influence outcomes would also impact satisfaction at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Similarly, higher levels of personal control and autonomy would increase job satisfaction by enhancing an employee's sense of agency in terms of task accomplishment (Spector, 1986; Liden et al., 1994; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Perceived meaningfulness would facilitate accomplishment of coveted work values, hence increasing job satisfaction (Locke, 1976).

Results demonstrated that EL had a significant positive impact on employees' PE and also had a positive impact on employees' organizational

commitment. Additionally, PE was found to be positively related to organizational commitment. Most importantly, EL had a significant positive indirect effect on organizational commitment through PE implying that PE partially mediated the positive relationship between EL and organizational commitment. These findings imply that EL would further enhance employees' organizational commitment by increasing their PE. This is congruent with previous studies which have reported the mediating role of PE in the positive relationship between EL and organizational commitment (e.g., Chen et al., 2011). Further probing revealed that Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Identification with Involvement dimension of organizational commitment through Impact and Autonomy as well as through Meaning dimensions of PE. Similarly, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Emotional Attachment dimension of organizational commitment through Meaning. Furthermore, Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration and Leading by Example dimensions of EL had significant positive indirect effects on Loyalty dimension of organizational commitment through Meaning. Meaning was found to be a significant mediator between all the dimensions EL and PE. Previous literature has specifically meaning to organizational commitment as individual-organizational value congruency has been identified as crucial in inducing commitment. (Liden et al., 2000). Also, involving the employees in goal setting and decision-making enhances their perceptions about decision latitude and responsibility and the ability to impact relevant outcomes. Employees are likely to perceive it as a form of organizational support and reciprocate by feeling more emotionally attached to organization.

Differences in Psychological Empowerment in Public versus Private Sector

Results demonstrated that private sector employees were more psychologically empowered than public sector employees. Private sector employees scored higher in Impact and Autonomy as compared to public sector

employees. These findings are consistent with previous literature indicating increased PE among private sector employees as compared to public sector employees, especially with regard to impact and autonomy (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Most of the public sector organizations sampled in this study were bureaucratic and were characterized by formalized processes and hierarchical control. In such a scenario, the perceptions of empowerment would be definitely low as compared to the private organisations sampled in the study, which are impelled by market preferences and have to keep up with the demands of flexibility and responsiveness in process as well as in outcomes (Kurland & Egan, 1999).

Conclusion

The present study explored the role of PE in employee well being and performance and examined whether EL would lead to well-being and performance outcomes through their influence on PE in Indian organizations. The findings of this study suggested that empowering leader behaviours and its dimensions enhanced positive employee outcomes such as general mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment and mitigated negative outcomes like perceived stress, both directly as well as indirectly through its effect on PE. PE and its dimensions emerged as significant predictors of well-being and performance outcomes and mediated the relationship between EL and these outcomes. The efficacy of EL and PE in predicting positive employee outcomes was validated in the Indian work context. To explore these relationships further and substantiate the findings of the present quantitative study, a qualitative study was conducted. The qualitative study, Study 2B, has been discussed in the next section of this chapter.

Study 2B (Qualitative Study)

The findings of the previous two quantitative studies (Study 1 and Study 2A) reported in Chapters 2 and 3 have answered most of the research questions raised in Chapter 1. To further explore the concept of empowerment, its mechanisms and its outcomes in Indian work context, a qualitative study using interview method was carried out. The objectives behind using a qualitative study are to explore a concept in-depth, derive detailed explanations and descriptions and obtain inner experiences of the participants with regard to the concerned topic (Creswell, 2007; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The psychological experience of empowerment is an intrapersonal construct (Zimmerman, 1995) and in-depth understanding of felt experiences can be best obtained from a qualitative investigation.

The results reported in Study 2A demonstrated that psychological empowerment had positive impact on employee well-being (perceived stress, general mental health, psychological well-being and job satisfaction) and performance (organizational commitment) in Indian organizations. Moreover, socio-structural empowerment in the form of empowering leadership facilitated these positive employee outcomes directly as well indirectly through its influence on psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment emerged as a significant intervening variable which mediated the positive impact of empowering leadership on employee well-being and performance.

The current qualitative study was conducted to augment the results of the quantitative study (Study 2A) reported in Chapter 3. Researchers are concerned that different organisational actors (management and employees) might interpret empowerment from their own frame of reference and thus, have varying expectations from it (Spreitzer, 2008). Therefore, the interviews were conducted with senior/top managers of the organizations from which quantitative data (responses from middle-level managers) was collected for Study 2A. The present study made an attempt to gain insights and opinions of the top management regarding the relationships between empowering leadership, psychological

empowerment and employee outcomes. It was designed to explore answers to the following questions from the top management's point of view:

1. Whether the organization enables employees to take decisions at work which can have impact on outcomes?
2. Whether employees feel equipped and motivated to take decisions and are actively involved in the decision-making process?
3. Whether employees find purpose in their work?
4. Whether the employees are qualified and well-trained for their jobs?
5. Whether leaders allow employees to take responsibility and decisions?
6. What is the role of leadership in an employee's feeling of being equipped to take decisions that have implications on outcomes?
7. Whether the employees experience stress?
8. Whether employees are healthy and experience well-being?
9. Whether the employees are satisfied with various aspects of their jobs and are committed to the organization?

It should be noted here that using terms such as 'empowerment' and 'psychological empowerment' was deliberately avoided. Instead terms such as 'enabling employees to take decisions at work' and 'feeling motivated to take decisions' were used. Using direct terms might provide clues which suggest or imply responses, which in turn, might alter the validity of responses obtained by inhibiting the participants from using their own expressions and language to express their thoughts, experiences and sentiments. Also, the respondents might not be familiar with these terms. Hence, it was more prudent to use synonymous terms which the respondents were familiar with as well as which captured the essence of the constructs under study.

Method

Participants

The sample of the present qualitative study comprised of 30 (Male = 22, Females = 8; Public Sector = 17, Private Sector = 13) senior and top level managers including Executive Directors, Associate Directors, General Managers, Deputy General Managers, Chief Personnel Officers, etc. who belonged to the 12 different organizations from which data for Study 2A was collected. The age range of the participants was between 40.92 years to 54.17 years. Average tenure of in the present organization was 15.12 years. Most of the participants had some strategic decision making power and the number of people reporting to them directly or indirectly ranged from 10 to 2, 000. These top executives were highly qualified and skilled; they had educational qualifications ranging from engineering degrees from premier institutes to PhD degrees. Some of them had qualified prestigious and competitive examinations like the Civil Services exam held by Union Public Service Commission of India. Most of them had reached their present positions after serving at different places in different capacities.

Procedure

Data was collected by employing semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The interviews were conducted on the basis of an interview schedule prepared to explore answers to the questions raised in the previous section of this study (augmentations of those stated in Study 2A). The interview schedule has been presented in Appendix C. The interview schedule comprised of 13 items. The first three items were general questions related to the background information of individual respondents, such as their qualifications, work experience, organizational role and duties and the number of people working under them as well as information about their individual organizations, such as functions, departments, reporting lines and total number of employees. The next four items, item 4 to item 7, attempted to explore whether employee empowerment exists in the organization and also whether the employees actually experienced

empowerment in the form of sense of autonomy and impact, meaning and competence. Item 8 had two parts to it, the first part examined whether leaders/managers enable employees to take responsibility and decisions and the second part focused on the role of leadership on employees' perceptions of empowerment. The last few items, item 9 to item 13, dealt with employee well-being outcomes and their commitment towards the organization.

For conducting the interview, prior permission was obtained from the participants through telephonic conversations and e-mails. Appointments were taken based on their convenience and availability. The interviewer visited them at the appointed time and conducted the interview using an audio-recording device. The average time taken for each interview was 45-60 minutes. Since, the interviews were conducted across five metropolitan cities across India; it took nearly 4 months, from May 2017 to September, 2017 to complete the 30 interviews. All the 30 interviews were compiled and the transcript for each interview was typed out separately in word processor. Each interview transcript consisted of textual notes of the interviewee's responses and interviewer's observations related to the interview.

Data Analysis

The transcripts of all the 30 interviews were prepared and then entered in a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software, known as QDA Miner Lite (free version). Created by Provalis Research, it is an easy-to-use software tool for analysing textual data such as interview transcripts, open-ended responses, documents and field notes. This program performs various functions, including content analysis and examining and coding of qualitative data sets. It is available free under public domain license. All the transcripts in plain text were imported and stored together in a single file project format in the analytical software. The transcripts were read and re-read to become familiar with and gain a deeper understanding of each interview and identify recurring patterns and categories for coding. The software assisted in this iterative process by searching for the most frequently used words and phrases in the data and providing intuitive codes.

Salient analytical patterns, that might be relevant to answering the research questions, were identified from the passages of the transcripts and coded into 'categories'. Further probing of the 'categories', to understand their meaning and implications, led the researcher to identify many 'sub-categories' under each category. The researcher recorded the various passages that belonged to a certain category by 'marking' those sections in the transcripts stored as a single file in the analytical software. These marked texts were compared to identify the similarities and differences among them. This process helped in bringing out the common as well as the different characteristics within a category and provided inferences about the meaning of that particular category. The categories were also compared and contrasted so that interrelated categories could be identified and could be combined into more descriptive and over-arching themes. The themes were reviewed for their relevance in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set. The themes described patterns in the data which were relevant to the research questions. Each theme was named and defined. Wherever necessary, appropriate verbatim quotes were incorporated to highlight the salient themes.

Results and Discussion

Several themes emerged from the thematic analysis of senior and top managers' responses to the interview questions. The identified themes and their respective narratives and verbatims have been discussed in this section.

The first theme emerged from the managers' responses to the question: whether their respective organizations allow employees to take decisions which are relevant to their respective job roles and can have impact on the outcomes. It was found out that 23 participants out of 30 replied that the practice of allowing employees to take decisions relevant to their job roles and having impact on departmental or group outcomes is prevalent in their organization. A recurring pattern that was evident in all these 20 responses was the managers' emphasis on the ***positive role of employee empowerment on individual performance and organizational efficiency***. Most of the managers believed that involving employees in the decision-making process within the gambit of their work roles not only

empowered them to *perform better and contribute more effectively to the organization*, but also saved the company's time and money, in *increased productivity and reduced outsourcing*.

13 out of these 23 participants belonged to private sector organizations and they emphasised that focusing on *end-to-end ownership, responsibility, accountability and recognition would encourage employee innovation*. The managers stated that the practice of encouraging employees to get involved in the *decision-making process within teams would lead to improved communication among the teams, greater ability to capitalize on opportunities and better solutions to problems*. The response of one of the managers highlights the positive impact of empowerment on innovation, "... follows a decentralized model to encourage innovation at the grassroots level. The greatest reward for an innovator is the opportunity to execute the idea, so it is ensured that the employees can feel free to take initiative and decisions...". But, all the managers unequivocally agreed that *strategic decisions are taken only by the senior and top management*. Although employees are given a free-hand in taking decisions, they are bound by the organisational guidelines, within the gambit of larger organizational goals. In private organizations, decision making is enabled at every level, but the *decisions are mostly operational in nature*. But saying that, all employees are free to put forth their views and ideas and in lot of cases top management considers their inputs while formulating strategic decisions.

The scenario in public sector organizations seemed to be a bit more complex. As most of the public sector organizations in India are bureaucratic by nature, the *decision-making power is based on hierarchy and is dictated by onerous rules and regulations* (Perry & Porter 1982; Rainey, 1983; Robertson & Seneviratne, 1995). Consequently, most of the managers reported that employees have less decision-making authority as compared to their counterparts in private organizations. Further, they opined that *high levels of formalization* may make it difficult for public sector managers to grant their employees enough discretion and flexibility to engage in innovative behaviour (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2011). Hence, in case of public sector organizations, managers reported that decision-making power is

restricted to managerial level employees only and the level of flexibility and autonomy is limited by “legal mandates”. Most of them reported that the delegation of authority was dictated by a pre-defined “*schedule of power*”, which stated the extent of decision-making power delegated to the employees according to their position in the organizational hierarchy. The front-line employees hardly have any discretion or autonomy in making decisions. Among the public sector organizations, 10 managers reported that although officers and non-executives are encouraged to *take decisions within their own work domains, they have to do it within the limits set by the organization and after taking their leaders into confidence*. They enjoy some liberty in the way they work, but they cannot completely deviate from the limits set by the organization. One of the respondents reported that her organization has a “dynamic performance management system”, in which employees set their goals at the beginning of the year and they are reviewed and approved by their superiors and respective departmental heads. Hence, they are involved in setting their own performance goals. When departmental targets are set, the inputs of the officers might be taken, but again the departmental head would have the final say. Finally, it would depend on the leader whether he or she wants to give that liberty to the subordinates or not. Thus, empowerment is more of an individual practice than an organizational policy in these organizations. The remaining 7 respondents were of the opinion that their organizations hardly allow any power to the employees to make work decisions and decision making at work, including routine jobs, is dictated by a range of rigid rules and strongly formalised processes and procedures. Nonetheless, they were of the opinion that such rigidity of the hierarchy can be resolved with informal dialogue and mutual trust between leader and subordinates. In absence of formal systems of empowerment at the top level, managers should try to empower subordinates at an informal level. Despite the disparity in the level of empowerment present in their respective organizations, public sector managers, like their counterparts in private organizations, believed that *involving employees in the decision-making process would lead to better performance in terms of employee productivity and positive work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction*. This is highlighted in the response of one of the participants who stated that, “...it is high time that reforms are implemented to grant more autonomy to employees in public

enterprises...would lead to increased efficiency, involvement and commitment of individual workers, which would reflect in overall organizational performance..”.

The next theme was derived from the managers’ responses to the question: whether employees in their respective organizations feel equipped and motivated to take decisions and are actually actively involved in the decision-making process. 20 out of the 30 respondents replied that most employees in their organizations actively take part in the decision making process as and when the organizational structure allows them to do so. The remaining 10 respondents, all of whom belonged to public organizations, stated that employees are hesitant to take decisions pertaining to their work. Further probing revealed interesting patterns. A recurring, prominent pattern was the managers’ assumption that ***perceptions regarding the ability to impact work processes and outcomes are pivotal in determining whether employees actually feel equipped and motivated to take decisions*** and yield results in terms of increased “productivity, commitment and satisfaction”. They argued that some employees might feel burdened and lost by the amount of extra responsibility and roles that would come with the authority to make decisions. Most of the managers reported that employees take initiatives only when they are *ready to take on the responsibility that comes with the power*, which depends on “*individual differences in personality*” and *socio-cultural values*. A person *with low self-efficacy* would not feel equipped to take decisions even when the organizational structure provides discretionary powers. Similarly, in *Indian society, where “deference towards leaders is very high” and people are prone to avoid risks*, empowering initiatives by the organization may not be perceived positively. This is more prevalent in public sector organizations where the presence of “external vigilance” instils a sense of fear among employees that they might get suspended or terminated or their promotion may be delayed, if they display “risk-taking behaviour”. The participants opined that organizations need to develop a “*culture free from the fear of failure*” by making it clear to the employees that any new initiative has a risk of failure, and success entails collaboration and trust among the stakeholders. Also, when employees have *access to all the resources necessary to take decisions*, they are more likely to believe that they have real *discretionary power or autonomy*. Furthermore, when employees are

uncertain about their roles and role expectations, they are less likely to take the risks involved in decision making. *Creating clear roles motivates the employees* who want to lead. Most of the participants remarked that their respective organizations gives employees the firm footing they want by clearly *spelling out their jobs and job expectations*, providing access to necessary resources and promoting a culture where employees felt safe to take risks. Some managers were of the opinion that the greatest *motivation behind taking an initiative and innovate is the opportunity to implement these decisions*. Additionally, some managers stated that employees will believe that they have some control over outcomes only when they are *left alone to accomplish results over a period of time* and observe the *impact of their performance on outcomes*. Some managers proposed that organizations should promote “*participative goal-setting*” and make work outcomes visible and valuable through “*robust performance management systems*” and by providing “*constructive feedback*” and recognition for their work. *Extrinsic rewards* such as “*merit-based career progression*” also push employees to take initiatives. Finally, most of the managers agreed that *leadership* plays a prominent role in employees’ sense of autonomy and ability to influence work outcomes, which in turn, are reflected in active involvement in the decision-making process. Leaders instil confidence and motivate employees to take risks, communicate trust, take responsibility for employees’ decisions, provide them support and resources to implement these decisions, and hence create an “*atmosphere where employees feel confident and safe to take decisions*”.

It is evident from the above results that along with decision-making authority, several other factors contribute to an employee’s belief that he/she can influence work processes and impact outcomes relevant to his/her role in the organization. Such “*enabling perceptions*” would ensure that “*employees will take decisions by themselves when they are given an opportunity to do so*”. This was more prevalent in private sector organizations as compared to public sector organizations.

The next question was regarding experience of a sense of purpose or meaning in work. 25 out of the 30 participants responded that most of the

employees of their respective organizations found their work purposeful and derived meaning out of it. This is reflected in the fact that *employees “go out of their way to do their jobs”*. The participants cited many instances where employees have gone out of their way to do their job, worked in extreme conditions for the sake of their duty and worked *beyond their call of duty* in emergency situations. A General Manager identified low attrition rate as another indicator, “Employees want to know their work means something, and if they don’t, they’ll look for purpose elsewhere. But meaningful work breeds loyalty. When employees feel a sense of purpose, they’re happier, love their jobs and want to stick around”.

A prominent pattern that was visible across all the responses pertained to the ***role of purpose at work in driving employees to get involved with and develop an active orientation to their work***. Most of the respondents were of the opinion that *finding purpose/meaning in one’s job facilitates job engagement*, wherein an employee “accepts the values and objectives of the organization”, and are motivated to get involved with their jobs. Such *job involvement* would propel them to “actively pursue the organizational goals” and “*implement new ideas and initiatives*” at work. The top executives believed that their employees are involved and connected to their work and the fact that the “employees are driven to perform” indicates that they are passionate about what they are doing. This is highlighted in one of the participant’s response, “.....they are immersed in what they are doing.....have dedication and passion towards their work...engaged in their work...deliver better results”. The respondents also stated that finding purpose in one’s job is a personal experience. They cited examples wherein they had felt connected to their work when their “*personal goals and aspirations*” were *congruent with those of the organization*. Some of them suggested that meaning is derived when an employee experiences a *sense of achievement* in his/her job. The top executives felt that managers and immediate supervisors can enhance employees’ sense of purpose by involving them in the *goal-setting process*, especially while formulating their performance goals, and “*making their contribution to the organization visible to them*”.

The five respondents, who replied that their employees lacked a sense of purpose at work, belonged to public sector organizations. The bureaucratic structure and rigid rules and regulations may play deterrents in employees' experience of meaning at work.

The next item of the interview schedule was intended to find out whether employees feel confident about their qualifications, skills and abilities to perform their jobs. 28 out of the 30 respondents believed that employees of their respective organizations would feel confident to carry out their job activities successfully.

A common assumption that was present in the responses of some of the participants pertained to the **relationship between experience of personal competence and job involvement**. According to these top executives of private organizations, feelings of competence among their employees are reflected in their "*high levels of involvement with the job*". They suggested that confidence in one's ability to do his/her job would facilitate an employee to *take initiatives, to be proactive and to put in extra effort at work*. This is highlighted in the response of a senior manager, "...when an employee believes in his ability to carry out a particular work activity, his participation at work increases...gives more time and energy...and is not hesitant to take decisions...the feeling of confidence gives him wings to fly..".

It was found from the responses of the top executives that in all these organizations employees were provided ample opportunities to learn new skills and upgrade existing skills. Hence, another theme regarding the **role of organization in facilitating feelings of competence** was formulated. Participants pointed out that a *well-laid out eligibility criteria and rigorous and intense recruitment process* followed by an organization ensure that all the employees are well-qualified for their respective jobs. Regarding skills and knowledge, the top executives were of the opinion that top management should ensure that "*competency development of the employees is a continuous process*". Almost all the managers reported that *robust training and development programmes* for employees

at all levels ensure that employees' skills (functional, behavioural, managerial, soft-skills) are constantly brushed upon and upgraded through training at regular intervals. Effective and structured system for *identification of training needs* exist in most of the organizations. In most cases, the immediate supervisors and departmental heads identify the training needs of employees. In some organizations, employees can "decide for themselves the kind of training they need and want". Accordingly, training programs are arranged. Hence, "training programs are tailored to individual needs, and the courses that employees choose depend on their skills, experience and areas of interest". *Core training programs* to impart foundational skills and knowledge to the employees, including courses on organizational culture, core values, ethics, leadership behaviours and business acumen, are conducted in almost all the private organizations. Behavioural training sessions are compulsory for all employees in some of the organizations. Additionally, few top executives reported that their organizations provide *career development and learning opportunities* to their employees. Efficient "*performance management system*" exists in some of the organizations, which monitors performance of individual employee and accordingly focuses on his/her "strengths, progress and career possibilities". Three managers reported that their organizations have *e-portals*, which offer "online courses, virtual classrooms and other key learning resources". Managers from private organizations emphasised that enormous value is placed on *workplace mentoring* in their organizations, which provides their employees the opportunity to learn from leaders and colleagues with similar industry, technical and functional expertise.

The eighth question was related to the style of leadership adopted by the participants in enabling employees to take initiative as and when required. All the participants replied that they allowed their subordinates and team members to take decisions within the gambit of their work roles and larger organizational goals. Some prominent categories regarding ***leader behaviours which facilitate employee decision making*** emerged from the analysis. The top executives reported that they encouraged *participative decision-making* where inputs of everyone in the team or unit or department are taken into consideration while making a decision. They encourage employees to solve problems collectively, space to question the

leader's decisions, and come up with better ideas. They believed that work becomes easier and efficient when powers are distributed and more creative solutions are reached when divergent opinions are taken into consideration. Most of the participants emphasised on *creating a favourable environment for employees to take decisions*. Sometimes, people are hesitant to make decisions because they fear that their decision might not yield successful results and thus avoid the risks involved with such responsibility. The managers stated that they try to remove such hesitations by encouraging employees to make decisions and the risks associated with it. They take responsibility for the decisions made by the employees and back them up. Communicating faith to the subordinates regarding their ability implement new initiatives would further contribute to creating an atmosphere where employees feel safe to take decisions. Some managers emphasised on *mentoring and guiding the employees* through "constant communication". Managers should follow-up the decisions taken by his subordinates. Employees should be able to approach leaders if they face any hiccups at work. Leaders should help them to "tide over any crisis" they might come across while taking any new initiative. Most of the managers felt that as leaders, their primary role is to help employees to carry out their decisions through a logical end by *equipping them with the required resources, information, "tools and knowledge" and provide support* whenever necessary. Most of them reported that they are *concerned about their subordinates*, try to give inputs to each employee personally, enquire about their well-being and "help them out if they face any difficulty". Finally, some of the top executives stated that they try to "develop their juniors by putting them forward to take decisions" and giving them the "space, time and opportunity to figure out themselves as performers, as young leaders". One participant said that, "Everybody is a leader at their own level". Such statements reflect that these managers are likely to *foster self-leadership* among their subordinates.

The next question focused on the average levels of job-related stress faced by employees. The responses of the participants regarding the stress levels experienced by employees were mixed, but almost all of them agreed that an employee would experience strain at some point or the other. The *sources of stress*

may vary depending on the type of organization and its functions. In private sector organizations, average workload can be high, especially when there is a project to be delivered. The deadlines during those times can become very stringent. Along with it, employees have to meet sales target and get business for the organization. The stress levels can get spiked because of the sales target and “winning business is a different kind of challenge altogether”. People in services division are likely to experience more stress, as they have to be in constant contact with the customers. Nonetheless, management ensures that “targets are set logically, within the limits of employees’ capacity and capabilities”. Targets can be challenging at times, depending on the circumstance and nature of work, but typically they are not impossible to achieve. In public sector organizations, employees mostly experience strain from complying with bureaucratic systems and too many formal rules and procedures. As one respondent mentioned, “Lot of time spent in documenting and attending meetings”. The diverse nature of functions that government employees are required perform is another source of stress. Otherwise, in most of the public set-ups, the levels of stress experienced by employees range from low to moderate. Owing to large employee strength in public organizations, the work gets divided and the workload is relatively less. Additionally, the managers opined that experience of stress depends on individual differences; some people perceive stressful situations as challenging and adopt more effective stress-coping strategies. An overarching theme was formulated by combining these categories which dealt with the possible sources of stress among employees in Indian organization. This theme was labelled as **potential work-place stressors**.

Another common pattern that emerged from the responses of the top management was their emphasis on **organizational and managerial attempts to help employees effectively deal with workplace stress**. Most of the respondents from private organizations stated that *employee stress management* is an essential part of their organizational policies. *Stress management training programmes and workshops* are held from time to time to help employees deal with stressful situations more efficiently. These are mostly conducted by psychologists and motivational speakers. One of the respondents reported that they have “*resiliency training courses* which teach employees strategies to deal with change, manage the

integration of their work and life, and manage their time better”. Some participants also talked about workshops to develop *mindfulness at work and promote healthful eating and exercise*. *Hobby clubs* are encouraged and most of these corporate set-ups have *gym and indoor sports facilities*. On the other hand, most of the public organizations do not have “structured policies or programmes” for stress management. Most of the respondents stated that at the most they have stress management workshops which are organized by the respective departments. But, employees can always approach their superiors and colleagues for help during crisis situations. Thus, as one of the respondents puts it, “*counselling happens at an informal level*” in public sector organizations. Managers from both public and private sector believed that when employees are given a clear picture of what is expected of them and what they should do to perform optimally, they would be able to form a road map and work efficiently, consequently would not experience the stress emanating from work pressures and deadlines.

The next question of the interview schedule emphasised on well-being of employees and their effective functioning. It was evident from the top management’s responses that *gauging employee well-being is a complex thing*. Most of them were of the opinion that *individuals vary* regarding how they operate their personal and professional lives and experience physical and mental well-being. But, *employee well-being and performance go hand and hand*. Employees, who are mentally and physically healthy, *miss less work, solve problems more effectively and are more adapt to change, they also save money of the organization in terms of healthcare costs and turnover*.

Considering these links, most of the managers replied that organization must *promote a “culture of well-being”* and ensure that their employees are “happy”. Hence, an overarching theme regarding the ***organizational factors contributing to a culture of well-being*** was formulated. Among themselves, the respondents identified some key areas where employees must need to thrive to experience overall well-being: *pursuing meaningful goals, healthy social relationships, financial security, and physical health*. 26 respondents out of the 30 respondents emphasised

the role of managers/leaders in fostering employee well-being and ensure that employees function effectively in various areas of their life. Providing a supportive and safe environment with a “focus on the whole person” (where managers display personal care and concern about professional as well as personal problems of employees) was identified as instrumental in employee wellness. By recognizing milestones like work anniversaries, birthdays and achievement of sales targets, the organization can show that it takes care of its employees. Feedback was delineated as a crucial part of supportive environment. By providing positive, constructive feedback customized to each employee, leaders can recognize the employee’s effort while suggesting necessary adjustments that would lead to better performance and results. Employees who are able to maintain work-life balance would be happier and satisfied with their lives. Managers from private sector organizations stated that employees in their organizations are allowed the flexibility to work from home and other job sites as well as work custom hours (flexi-timings). Employee self-service systems such as remote schedule management and bio-metric timekeeping are used to provide greater flexibility to the employees. A few managers cited that the amount of discretion employees have to decide “what they do and how they do it” would also impact their physical (cardiovascular diseases) and mental health (stress, anxiety, depression). The management should avoid such ill-effects by creating roles that allow more “fluidity and autonomy” and “discouraging micromanagement”. A Deputy General Manager suggested that proving autonomy and feedback to the employees enhances the connection between actions and their consequences, which permits them to attain some degree of understanding of what they must do to achieve desired results. Such sense of control would increase the meaningfulness of their work and enhance their sense of accomplishment, motivation and effort. In addition, practices such as fair system of rewards and compensation, compensations for extra time, performance-based incentives and recognition of employees’ efforts in terms of monetary benefits ensure that employees remain satisfied and experience wellness. The respondents pointed out the role of social support in buffering the effects of workplace strain that can compromise both mental and physical health. Organizational practices such as fostering internal competition and transactional workplace approaches weaken social ties among employees and reduce social support that produce healthier workplaces.

The organizations should be careful not to foster such practices. Instead the management should encourage “*shared connections that help build a sense of common identity and strengthen social bonds*”. Most of the organizations encourage interaction within work and outside work through hobby clubs, cultural events, office parties, sports centers and events, etc., which provide opportunities to employees to know each other and form social relationships. In public organizations, *good workings hours* ensure that employees are able to spend quality time with their family and friends. Most of the corporate organizations are trying to incorporate physical activity in the workplace in form of guided yoga classes, on-site fitness centers and stress management seminars. *Workshops on mindfulness practices* such as meditation and breathing are held from time to time to help employees to be more focused and increase their efficiency. Finally, all the organizations had *structured policies for medical benefits* (medical insurance which covers inpatient and outpatient treatment of employees and their dependents, disability benefits, accident related coverage, health management programs) and *social security* (retirement benefits, superannuation plans).

The 12th question explored whether the employees are satisfied with various aspects of their jobs. Most of the senior managers felt that the employees are quite satisfied with their work and the compensation and recognition they receive for it. The satisfaction of the employees *reflects in their performance and low attrition rates*. In *internal surveys* are conducted by some of the private organizations from time to time; employees mostly give positive feedback about their work and workplace. The respondents delineated some ***key organizational practices with regard to employee job satisfaction***. The top executives identified *financial security, job security, medical facilities, positive work environment, challenging work and autonomy to carry out their work activities* as the key aspects of job satisfaction. *Fair system of rewards and compensation and merit-based career progression* ensure that employees are happy with the financial aspects. Organizations can provide a *sense of security through “honest communication and transparency about the company’s health and long time viability”*. In most of the organizations, the overall *atmosphere within the workplace is friendly and positive* and employees are satisfied with regard to their social relationships. *Working conditions*

are good for public sector employees. The offices, especially those within the corporate set-ups, are *designed ergonomically*, and *workplace safety* is a priority issue. The *work culture is quite collaborative* in most of the private organizations and provides *ample opportunities for learning and career growth*. Most of the private organizations ensure that work is structured and flows are optimised. In most of the organizations, there is a *scope for the employees to discuss their problems with their superiors*. Employees are duly recognized for their efforts and merit. Also, *mentoring and coaching* are integral to employee development in most of the departments with managerial and technical functions. As one respondent highlighted, “...each employee is assigned a more experienced person who helps them to manage their careers and grow professionally through career coaching and guidance...”. Finally, some of the top executives emphasized that management allows *employees to take decisions regarding their performance goals and work processes*, which makes them “more motivated to perform the job and be satisfied with its various aspects”.

The last question of the interview schedule was intended to explore employees' organizational commitment. Most of the respondents stated that *low attrition rates* indicate that their employees identify with and are committed to the organization. Also, employees are *emotionally attached to the organization* - they display a lot of *pride while talking about their organization, consider themselves to be a part of the organization (sense of belongingness) and respect the organizational values*. Moreover, commitment is reflected in the fact that *employees have gone out of their way to do their jobs, “worked in extreme conditions for the sake of their duty and worked beyond their call of duty in emergency situations”*. Committed employees are more likely to *positively refer the company and adopt its vision and goals* both professionally and personally. When employees *come up with ideas, constantly brimming with energy and motivation*, it is evident they must be having some sort of identification with the organization to display such behaviour. Thus an overarching theme regarding **indicators of organizational commitment** was formulated.

Among themselves, the top executives identified some **key factors which contribute to organizational commitment**. Most of the respondents considered *decision making power* that employees have regarding their own work as crucial to their commitment towards the organization. This is highlighted in the response of a senior project manager, “...decision making power motivates the employees and increases their sense of identification with organizational goals and ideals...”. Most of the managers reported that the *goals of the organization are communicated* regularly and management allows each department or team to form their own goals based on these organizational goals. This facilitates the *goals to be aligned with each other*. As one Group General Manager stated, “... the mission, vision, strategic goals are communicated on a regular basis...”. Also, management should ensure that employees have a clear idea about the *corporate identity*. Employees “feel at home” when they know “*what the organization stands for*” (*mission and vision*) and “*what is important to the organization*” (*standards/values*). This is highlighted in the response of a senior manager, “...the mission, vision, core values are communicated and discussed regularly, so that employees imbibe them over time...”. Through personal meetings and company-wide events the management attempts to *create shared experiences among employees*, which in turn reinforce an employee’s “*sense of belonging and fitting in*”. Finally, organization can increase commitment of their employees by encouraging the *management to show their dedication and commitment to their employees*. When management shows continued interest and authentic appreciation, employees are more likely to feel that they fit in the organization.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to develop a deeper understanding of the concept of empowerment, its mechanisms and its outcomes in Indian work context. It attempted to understand the role empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in predicting employee well-being and commitment. Various categories and themes emerged after the thematic analysis of the senior and top management’s responses to the questions asked in the interview. In this

section the researcher has attempted to augment the findings of the quantitative study with the themes and categories derived from the present study.

It was observed that the theme which emerged from the responses to the third question emphasised on the positive role of employee empowerment on individual performance and organizational efficiency. Most of the managers believed that involving employees in the decision-making process within the gambit of their work roles not only enabled them to perform better and contribute more effectively to the organization, but also saved the company's time and money, in terms of increased productivity and reduced outsourcing. The managers stated that the practice of encouraging employees to get involved in the decision-making process within teams would lead to improved communication among the teams, greater ability to capitalize on opportunities and better solutions to problems. They emphasised that enabling organizational practices like end-to-end ownership, responsibility, accountability and recognition would encourage employee innovation. Some of them were of the opinion that it would also lead to positive work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Also, it was observed that managers who reported prevalence of autonomy granting organizational practices believed that their employees experience relatively less job-related strain and enhanced levels of well-being, job satisfaction and commitment. Hence, it appears that granting of decision making authority might be linked to positive employee outcomes. These observations further substantiate the positive relationship between empowerment and positive employee outcomes.

The next theme which was derived from the responses to the fourth question highlighted that perceptions regarding the ability to impact work processes and outcomes are pivotal in determining whether employees actually feel motivated to take decisions. These perceptions regarding the ability to impact work processes and outcomes can be interpreted as sense of autonomy and impact dimensions of psychological empowerment. The top executives identified several factors which would enhance the employees' sense of autonomy and impact and motivate the employees to take decisions. Similarly, the next theme which

emerged from the responses to the fifth question delineated that finding purpose at work is instrumental in driving employees to get involved with and develop an active orientation to their work. The respondents stated that finding purpose in one's job is a personal experience and an employee experiences it when his/her personal goals and values are congruent with those of the organization. Most of the respondents were of the opinion that finding purpose/meaning in one's job facilitates job engagement wherein employees are motivated to get involved with their jobs. Such job involvement would propel them to actively pursue the organizational goals and implement new ideas and initiatives at work. The managers identified several factors which would enhance the employees' sense of meaning and drive them to take initiatives at work. The next theme that emerged from the responses pertained to the positive relationship between experience of personal competence and job involvement. According to the respondents feelings of competence are reflected in their high levels of involvement with the job. They suggested that confidence in one's ability to do his/her job and increased participation would facilitate an employee to take initiatives, to be proactive and to put in extra effort at work. It is evident from the above themes and categories that respondents identified sense of autonomy, competence, impact and meaning as essential elements of an individual's motivation to take initiatives at work.

The role of positive leadership in facilitating employee decision-making was also evident in this study. It was observed that leader behaviour such as participative decision-making, where inputs of everyone in the team or unit or department are taken into consideration while making a decision, employees are encouraged to solve problems collectively, and are allowed to question leader's decisions, and come up with better ideas, makes the work easier and efficient. Also, more creative solutions are reached when divergent opinions are taken into consideration. Leaders creating a favourable environment for employees to take decisions, by removing their hesitation arising out of failures and risk associated with decision-making, taking responsibility for the decisions made by the employees and communicating faith to the subordinates regarding their ability implement new initiatives, would further contribute to creating an atmosphere where employees feel safe to take decisions. Similarly, leadership behaviours such

as mentoring and guiding the employees, following-up their decisions, removing obstacles they might come across while taking any new initiative and assisting them to carry out their decisions through a logical end by equipping them with the required resources, were identified as instrumental in employees' motivation to take initiative. The participants also reported that they display personal concern about progress and well-being of their employees and try to foster self-leadership in their juniors. These observations suggest that empowering leader behaviours play a pivotal role in facilitating psychological empowerment among employees.

From the themes which emerged from the responses to the last four questions, it was observed that experience of meaning, impact and autonomy were negatively associated with perceived stress, and positively associated with health and well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. According to the top executives, the amount of discretion employees have to decide what they do and how they do it would impact their physical (cardiovascular diseases) and mental health (stress, anxiety, depression). They suggested that providing autonomy and feedback to the employees enhances the connection between actions and their consequences, which permits them to attain some degree of understanding of what they must do to achieve desired results. By providing positive, constructive feedback customized to each employee, leaders can recognize the employee's effort while suggesting necessary adjustments that would lead to better performance and results. By allowing the employees the flexibility to work from home and other job sites as well as work custom hours (flexi-timings), organizations can ensure that employees are able to maintain work-life balance and be happy. In public sector organizations, complying with bureaucratic systems and too many formal rules and procedures was reported to be a key stressor. Some respondents emphasized that allowing employees to take decisions regarding their performance goals and work processes, would make them more motivated to perform the job and be satisfied with its various aspects. Pursuing meaningful goals was identified as one of the key criteria to experience well-being. When employees' personal goals are aligned with those of the organizations, they would experience a sense of meaning and be more

emotionally attached with the organization. Also, decision making power that employees have regarding their own work is crucial to their commitment towards the organization. Decision making power motivates the employees and increases their sense of identification with organizational goals and ideals. From these observations, it can be assumed that dimensions of psychological empowerment are positively related to employee well-being outcomes and commitment.

Finally, it appeared from the responses of top executives that private sector organizations grant more decision-making power to their employees as compared to public sector organizations. Most of the public sector organizations in India are bureaucratic by nature and the decision-making power is dictated by hierarchy and pre-defined schedule of power. High levels of formalization do not allow managers to grant their employees enough discretion and flexibility and decision-making power is restricted to managerial level employees only. The front-line employees hardly have any discretion or autonomy in making decisions. Empowerment is more of an individual practice than an organizational policy in public organizations. Besides, all the 10 respondents, who stated that employees in their organizations are hesitant to take initiatives and are reluctant to get involved in the decision-making process even when they are enabled by the organization, belonged to public sector organizations. Hence, it can be assumed that there are differences between public and private organizations in terms of psychological empowerment of employees.

The present study substantiated the findings of Study 2A and provided some useful insights about empowerment and its mechanisms. Positive relationship was found between the themes of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, validating that positive links exist between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment. Also, psychological empowerment was found to be positively associated with employee well-being, providing qualitative evidence to quantitative findings. Furthermore, the current study threw light on various factors involved in the experience of empowerment and organizational practices used to foster empowerment in Indian organizations.

It also provided insights regarding the various ways organizations can foster employee health and well-being.



**Table 3.1: Distribution of Sample (N = 431)
(Ownership and Organization wise)**

Ownership	Organization	N
Public	Organization 1	43
	Organization 2	30
	Organization 3	32
	Organization 4	41
	Organization 5	39
	Organization 6	40
		225
Private	Organization 7	46
	Organization 8	33
	Organization 9	33
	Organization 10	33
	Organization 11	30
	Organization 12	31
		206
Total	12 Organizations	431

Table 3.2: Factor Loadings of Empowering Leadership Measure (N=431)

Item No.	Item	Factor*	
		1	2
13	My supervisor takes the time to discuss work group members' concerns patiently.	.81	.23
12	My supervisor shows concern for work group members' well-being.	.80	.25
15	My supervisor helps develop good relations among work group members.	.79	.31
7	My supervisor uses my work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect us.	.77	.21
14	My supervisor shows concern for work group members' success.	.76	.29
8	My supervisor gives all work group members a chance to voice their opinions.	.73	.26
11	My supervisor explains his/her decisions and actions to my work group.	.73	.26
6	My supervisor listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions.	.69	.25
9	My supervisor explains company goals.	.64	.43
10	My supervisor explains rules and expectations to my work group.	.61	.26
1	My supervisor sets high standards for performance by his/her own behavior.	.16	.85
3	My supervisor leads by example.	.36	.83
2	My supervisor works as hard as anyone in my work group.	.37	.76
Eigen values		5.68	2.79
Percentage of Variance		43.68	21.49
Cumulative Percentage of Variance		43.68	65.15

*Factor 1= Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration, Factor 2 = Leading by Example.

Table 3.3: Inter-correlations and Psychometric properties of Empowering Leadership Dimensions (N = 431)

Dimensions	1	2
1. Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration	(.93)	
2. Leading by Example	.65**	(.83)
Mean	5.53	5.36
SD	1.11	1.41

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket.

Table 3.4: Factor Loadings of Psychological Empowerment Measure (N=431)

Item No.	Item	Factor*		
		1	2	3
6	I've a great deal of control over what happens in my dept	.88	.04	.06
11	I've significant influence over what happens in my dept	.86	.11	.16
4	My impact on what happens in my dept is large	.78	.26	.11
7	I can decide on my own how to do about doing my own work	.72	.11	.32
1	I am confident about my ability to do my job	.09	.78	.08
12	I'm self assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	.03	.74	.35
9	I've mastered the skills necessary for my job	.26	.72	.03
5	My job activities are personally meaningful to me	.29	.06	.85
10	The work I do is meaningful to me	.12	.27	.84
Eigen values		2.81	1.85	1.69
Percentage of Variance		31.18	20.58	18.81
Cumulative Percentage of Variance		31.18	51.74	70.57

*Factor 1= Impact and Autonomy, Factor 2 = Meaning, Factor 3 = Competence

Table 3.5: Inter-correlations and Psychometric properties of Psychological Empowerment Dimensions (N = 431)

Dimensions	1	2	3
1. Impact and Autonomy	(.86)		
2. Meaning	.40**	(.74)	
3. Competence	.36**	.39**	(.70)
Mean	5.14	5.94	6.24
SD	1.34	1.08	.68

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket

Table 3.6: Factor Loadings of General Mental Health Measure (N=431)

Item No.	Item	Factor*	
		1	2
12	Have you recently been feeling unhappy and depressed?	.79	.22
5	Have you recently been losing confidence in you?	.78	.11
9	Have you recently felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	.76	.21
1	Have you recently felt constantly under strain?	.73	.09
3	Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?	.70	.15
10	Have you recently been thinking yourself as a worthless person?	.65	.10
7	Have you recently felt capable of making decisions about things?	.06	.82
6	Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you are doing?	.08	.74
2	Have you recently felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	.07	.69
8	Have you recently been able to face up to your problems?	.16	.68
11	Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy all things considered?	.25	.61
4	Have you recently been able to enjoy normal day to day activities?	.35	.55
Eigen values		3.45	2.99
Percentage of Variance		28.78	24.92
Cumulative Percentage of Variance		28.78	53.70

*Factor 1 = Botheration-Free Existence, Factor 2 = Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution

Table 3.7: Inter-correlations and Psychometric properties of General Mental Health Dimensions (N = 431)

Dimensions	1	2
1. Botheration-Free Existence	(.84)	
2. Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution	.42**	(.80)
Mean	5.46	4.93
SD	0.98	1.39

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket.

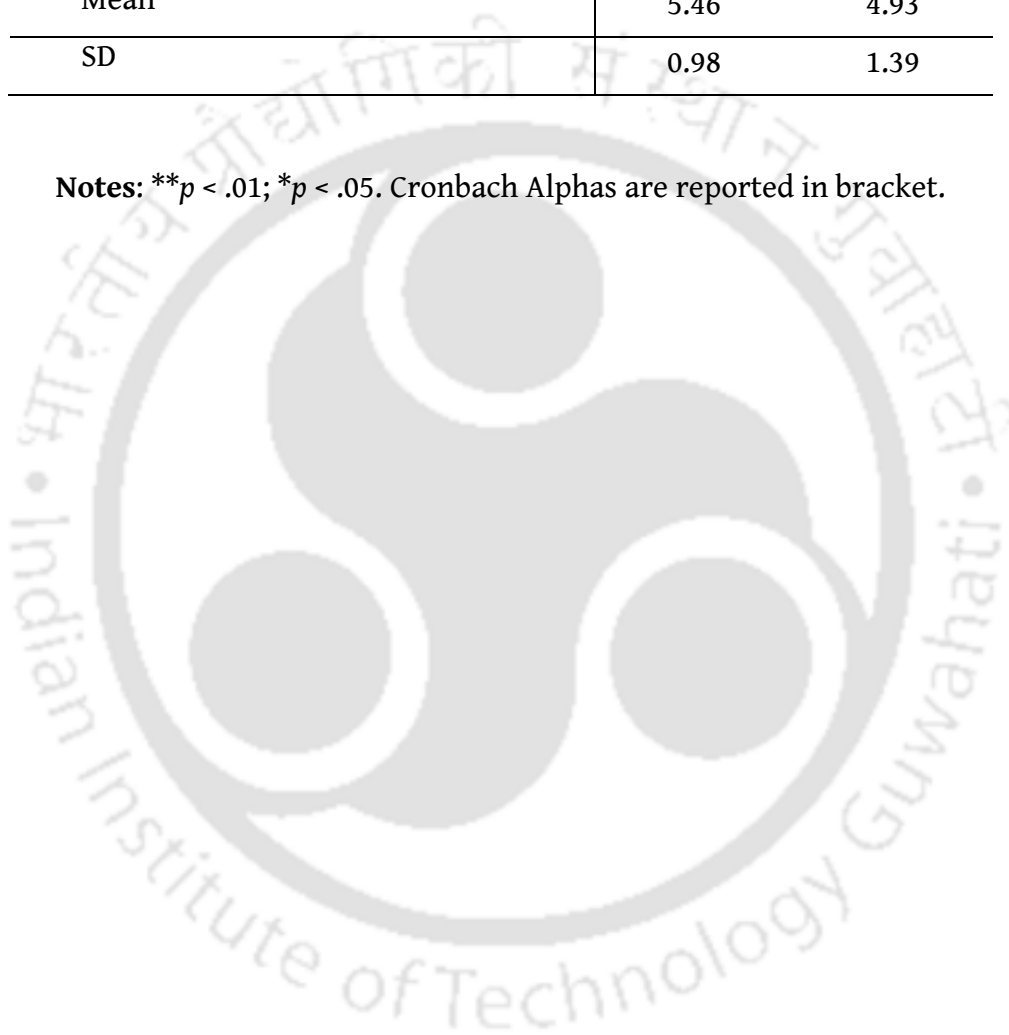


Table 3.8: Factor Loadings of Psychological Well-Being Measure (N=431)

Item No.	Item	Factor*							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
22	Most people see me as loving and affectionate.	.71	.16	-.04	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.07	.01
20	For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	.66	.07	-.11	.14	.32	.03	.17	-.14
18	I have the sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time.	.64	.18	.04	.26	.08	.10	.23	.03
26	People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.	.58	.05	.22	.03	-.09	.12	-.16	.13
39	I like most aspects of my personality.	.52	.30	.01	.11	-.11	.10	.08	.29
25	I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends.	.49	-.05	.23	.12	.30	.08	-.14	.08
42	When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am.	.45	.03	.13	.36	-.15	.09	-.11	.16
28	I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.	.42	.01	.19	.10	.18	.08	-.02	.32
10	I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me	.10	.66	.13	.02	.23	-.01	.02	.08
9	The demands of everyday life often get me down	.02	.64	-.04	.08	.08	.03	.30	.04
13	I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me.	.17	.60	.28	-.01	.14	.02	.23	.25
24	I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns.	.20	.54	.30	-.04	.08	.13	-.06	.12
31	My daily activities often seem trivial and unimportant to me.	.06	.53	.30	.35	.04	.02	-.01	-.31
27	I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.	.12	.53	.30	.09	.28	.08	-.11	.07
23	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.	.34	.46	.34	.09	.32	-.03	-.01	.01

Item No.	Item	Factor*							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
38	I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.	-.02	.12	.71	-.03	-.02	.03	.10	.06
40	In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.	.14	.18	.65	.20	.26	-.19	.14	.13
41	My attitude about myself is probably not as positive as most people feel about themselves.	.21	.40	.62	.14	.10	-.01	.07	.02
17	When I think about it, I haven't really improved much as a person over the years.	.13	.28	.46	-.05	.27	.18	.12	-.16
33	I enjoy making plans for the future and working to make them a reality.	.07	.01	-.07	.83	.10	-.03	-.03	.08
34	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.	.16	.03	.07	.79	.06	.18	.05	.06
30	I have a sense of direction and purpose in life.	.28	.14	.13	.60	-.07	.13	.01	.29
19	I do not enjoy being in new situations that require me to change my old familiar ways of doing things	-.06	.26	.03	.02	.71	-.07	-.01	.24
15	I am not interested in activities that will expand my horizons.	.07	.21	.13	.01	.69	.29	.02	-.02
21	I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.	.14	.17	.21	.01	.60	.02	.18	-.19
1	I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.	.12	.15	-.06	.01	.05	.76	.06	-.01
5	I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	.11	.11	-.13	.16	.19	.66	-.13	.30
2	My decisions are not usually influenced by what everyone else is doing.	.09	-.19	.23	.16	-.01	.65	.13	.12
4	I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.	-.04	-.05	.01	.05	.04	-.12	.83	.09
3	I tend to worry about what other people think of me.	.01	.19	.13	-.05	-.05	.29	.64	.05
6	It's difficult for me to voice my own opinions on controversial matters.	-.02	.21	.34	-.02	.18	.04	.52	.01
8	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	.05	.12	.00	.15	-.02	.15	.08	.65

Item No.	Item	Factor*							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
11	I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	.40	.03	.07	.12	.18	.10	.08	.52
36	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	.35	.17	.13	.348	-.16	.01	.06	.46
Number of items		8	7	4	3	3	3	3	3
Eigen values		3.36	3.11	2.62	2.37	2.18	1.86	1.82	1.72
Percentage of Variance		9.89	9.13	7.71	6.99	6.41	5.47	5.34	5.05
Cumulative Percentage of Variance		9.89	19.02	26.73	33.73	40.14	45.62	50.96	56.02

*Factor 1: Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard, Factor 2: Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships, Factor 3: Satisfied with Life Achievements, Factor 4: Purpose in Life, Factor 5: Openness to New Experiences, Factor 6: Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions, Factor 7: Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards, Factor 8: Competence in managing Environmental Demands.

Table 3.9: Inter-correlations and Psychometric properties of Psychological Well-being Dimensions (N = 431)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard	(.77)							
2. Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships	.44**	(.80)						
3. Satisfied with Life Achievements	.36**	.65**	(.73)					
4. Purpose in Life	.47*	.27**	.20**	(.74)				
5. Openness to New Experiences	.24**	.52**	.42**	.10*	(.63)			
6. Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions	.32**	.18**	.10*	.28**	.18**	(.62)		
7. Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards	.07	.30**	.32**	.07	.23**	.11*	(.60)	
8. Competence in managing Environmental Demands	.56**	.34**	.26**	.48**	.11*	.33**	.15**	(.60)
Mean	5.82	4.84	4.40	5.81	4.81	5.56	3.94	5.60
SD	.77	1.25	1.39	1.04	1.48	1.10	1.41	.98

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket.

Table 3.10: Factor Loadings of Job Satisfaction Measure (N=431)

Item No.	Item	Factor*	
		1	2
2	How satisfied are you with the friendliness of the people you work with?	.82	.07
9	How satisfied are you with the way you are treated by the people you work with?	.81	.20
5	How satisfied are you with the respect you receive from the people you work with?	.79	.24
3	How satisfied are you with the amount of freedom you have on your job?	.77	.25
4	How satisfied are you with the chances you have to learn new things?	.62	.37
1	How satisfied are you with the fringe benefits you receive?	.11	.84
7	How satisfied are you with the amount of pay you get?	.20	.83
11	How satisfied are you with the amount of job security you have?	.28	.57
Eigen values		3.05	2.02
Percentage of Variance		38.13	25.24
Cumulative Percentage of Variance		38.13	63.37

*Factor 1 = Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction, Factor 2 = Extrinsic Satisfaction

Table 3.11: Inter-correlations and Psychometric properties of Job Satisfaction Dimensions (N = 431)

Dimensions	1	2
1. Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction	(.85)	
2. Extrinsic Satisfaction	.51**	(.74)
Mean	5.51	5.21
SD	1.01	1.13

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket.

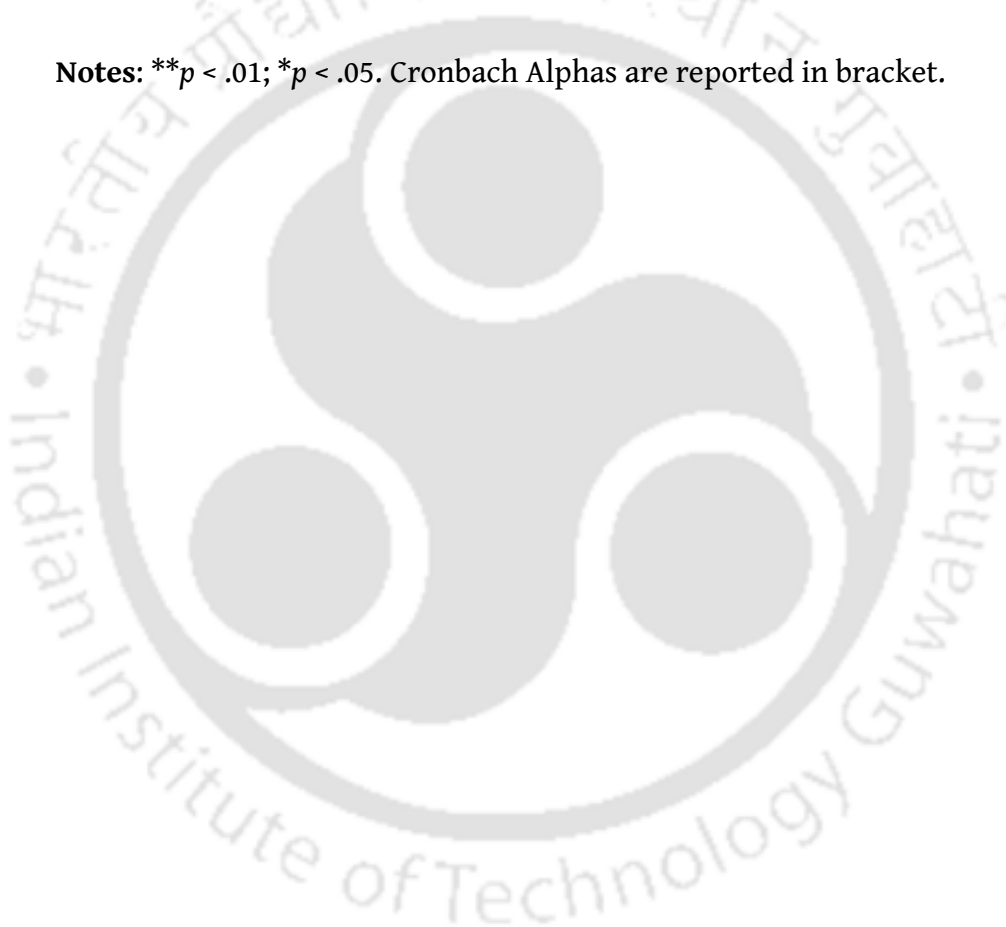


Table 3.12: Factor Loadings of Organizational Commitment Measure (N=431)

Item No.	Item	Factor*		
		1	2	3
4	In my work I like to feel I am making some effort, not just for myself but for the organization as well.	.79	.16	.11
6	To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organization would please me.	.74	.12	-.18
3	I feel myself to be a part of the organization.	.66	.24	.35
12	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.62	.26	.26
8	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	.60	.27	.37
11	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	.18	.86	.12
10	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	.23	.86	.06
9	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.	.28	.82	.01
5	The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.	.03	.26	.70
2	Even if the firm was not doing well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.	.09	-.19	.69
7	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.505	.285	.583
Eigen values		2.79	2.59	1.73
Percentage of Variance		25.33	23.57	15.72
Cumulative Percentage of Variance		25.33	48.89	64.62

*Factor 1 = Involvement with identification, Factor 2= Emotional attachment with the organization, Factor 3 = Loyalty

Table 3.13: Inter-correlations and Psychometric properties of Organizational Commitment Dimensions (N = 431)

Dimensions	1	2	3
1. Involvement with Identification	(.80)		
2. Emotional Attachment	.53**	(.87)	
3. Loyalty	.53**	.31**	(.60)
Mean	5.78	5.06	4.88
SD	.95	1.70	1.28

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach Alphas are reported in bracket.

Table 3.14: Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities of study variables (N=431)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Type	-											
2. Age	-.54**	-										
3. Gender	.05	-.19**	-									
4. Tenure	-.58**	.78**	-.12**	-								
5. EL	-.09	.09	-.00	.07	(.90)							
6. PE	.09	.07	.01	.00	.40**	(.82)						
7. MH	-.00	.08	-.09*	-.02	.32**	.29**	(.85)					
8. JS	.00	.13**	-.01	.02	.48**	.45**	.46**	(.85)				
9. PWB	.04	.06	.01	-.04	.23**	.31**	.64**	.38**	(.88)			
10. OCOM	-.12*	.18**	-.05	.11*	.40**	.42**	.49**	.59**	.49**	(.84)		
11. ERI	.06	.06	-.04	-.01	.18**	.28**	.10*	.14**	.13**	.09	(.70)	
12. PSS	-.09	-.06	.14**	.08	-.23**	-.25**	-.68**	-.38**	-.49**	-.38**	-.15**	(.76)
Mean	1.48	36.06	1.35	9.72	5.49	5.68	5.19	5.40	5.15	5.34	5.85	2.65
SD	.50	10.15	.47	9.72	1.10	.85	1.00	.93	.74	.99	.91	.58

Notes: N=431. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Cronbach's Alphas are reported in bracket. EL, Empowering Leadership; PE, Psychological Empowerment; MH, Mental Health; PWB, Psychological Well-being; OCOM, Organizational Commitment; ERI, Empowerment Role Identity; PSS, Perceived Stress.

Table 3.15: Mediating Effect of PE in EL-PSS relationship (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	PE		PSS		
	Step 1 ^a	Step 2 ^a	Step 1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b
Type	.29**	.34**	-.12	-.14*	-.11
Age	.02**	.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**
Gender	.06	.05	.14*	.14*	.15**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.02**	.02**	.02**
EL		.32**		-.13**	-.10**
PE					-.11**
R ²	.03	.19	.07	.12	.14
ΔR ²		.17**		.05**	.02**
F	3.51**	20.84**	7.75**	11.72**	11.57**

Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 1000 samples

Value of indirect effect	-.03
Sobel (z)	-2.93**
SE	.01
Lower CI ^x	-.06
Higher CI ^y	-.02

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership (EL)

Mediating Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress (PSS)

^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.16: Mediating Effect of PE in EL-MH relationship (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	PE		MH		
	Step 1 ^a	Step 2 ^a	Step 1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b
Type	.29**	.34**	.01	.06	-.02
Age	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02*
Gender	.06	.05	-.17	-.16	-.19
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.02**	-.02**	-.02*
EL		.32**		.30**	.22**
PE					.22**
R ²	.03	.19	.03	.13	.16
ΔR ²		.17**		.10**	.03**
F	3.51**	20.84**	3.45**	12.46**	12.96**

Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 1000 samples

Value of indirect effect	.07
Sobel (z)	3.41**
SE	.02
Lower CI ^x	.03
Higher CI ^y	.11

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership (EL)

Mediating Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: General Mental Health (MH)

^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.17: Mediating Effect of PE in EL-PWB relationship (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	PE		PWB		
	Step 1 ^a	Step 2 ^a	Step 1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b
Type	.29**	.34**	.09	.12	.05
Age	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02*
Gender	.06	.05	.05	.05	.04
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.01*
EL		.32**		.16**	.08*
PE					.21**
R ²	.03	.19	.03	.08	.13
ΔR ²		.17**		.05**	.05**
F	3.51**	20.84**	2.94*	7.20**	10.16**

Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 1000 samples

Value of indirect effect	.07
Sobel (z)	4.25**
SE	.02
Lower CI ^x	.04
Higher CI ^y	.09

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership (EL)

Mediating Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Psychological Well-being (PWB)

^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.18: Mediating Effect of PE in EL-JS relationship (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	PE		JS		
	Step 1 ^a	Step 2 ^a	Step 1 ^b	Step 2 ^b	Step 3 ^b
Type	.29**	.34**	.12	.18	.08
Age	.02**	.02**	.03**	.02**	.02**
Gender	.06	.05	.05	.04	.03
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
EL		.32**		.41**	.31**
PE					.31**
R ²	.03	.19	.04	.26	.32
ΔR ²		.17**		.23**	.06**
F	3.51**	20.84**	3.90**	29.95**	33.85**

Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 1000 samples

Value of indirect effect	.10
Sobel (z)	5.20**
SE	.02
Lower CI ^x	.06
Higher CI ^y	.14

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership (EL)

Mediating Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (JS)

^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.19: Mediating Effect of PE in EL-OCOM relationship (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	PE		OCOM		
	Step 1 ^a	Step 2 ^a	Step 1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b
Type	.29**	.34**	-.09	-.04	-.16
Age	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02**	.01*
Gender	.06	.05	-.03	-.04	-.05
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
EL		.32**		.35**	.24**
PE					.36**
R ²	.03	.19	.04	.19	.26
ΔR ²		.17**		.15**	.08**
F	3.51**	20.84**	4.2**	19.53**	25.41**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 1000 samples</i>					
Value of indirect effect		.12			
Sobel (z)		5.41**			
SE		.02			
Lower CI ^x		.07			
Higher CI ^y		.17			

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership (EL)

Mediating Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment (OCOM)

^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.20: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and PSS (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		PSS				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.12	-.13*	-.10	-.10	-.11
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.14*	.14*	.14**	.15**	.15**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	.02**	.02**	.02**	.01**	.02**
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		-.11**	-.09**	-.08**	-.08**
IA_PE									-.05*	-.03	-.02
ME_PE										-.05	-.03
COM_PE											-.13**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.07	.11	.12	.13	.14
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.05**	.01*	.01	.02**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	7.74**	11.02**	10.03**	9.04**	9.12**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	-.01	-.01	-.02								
Sobel (z)	-.75	-.87	-2.42*								
SE	.001	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.02	-.03	-.03								
Higher CI ^y	.01	.01	-.01								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Perceived Stress (PSS); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients reported).

Table 3.21: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and PSS (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		PSS				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.12	-.16*	-.13	-.13*	-.14*
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.12*	.14**	.14**	.16**	.15**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02**	.02**
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		-.09*	-.07**	-.07**	-.07**
IA_PE									-.05*	-.03	-.01
ME_PE										-.06*	-.03
COM_PE											-.13**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.07	.11	.12	.13	.15
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.04**	.01*	.01*	.02**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	7.75**	10.64**	9.81**	9.05**	9.29**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 1000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	-.00	-.00	-.02								
Sobel (z)	-.61	-1.07	-2.09**								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.01	-.02	-.02								
Higher CI ^y	.01	.01	-.01								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Perceived Stress (PSS); *Lower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.22: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and BFE_MH (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		BFE_MH				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.15	.15	.14	.17	.17
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03*	.03*	.02*	.01*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	-.33*	-.33*	-.33*	-.37*	-.35*
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.02	-.02	-.02
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.18**	.18**	.14*	.14*
IA_PE									.02	.03	.05
ME_PE										.15*	.11
COM_PE											.21*
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.03	.05	.05	.06	.07
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.02**	.00	.01*	.01*
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	3.51**	4.81**	4.02**	4.09**	4.07**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.02	.02	.03								
Sobel (z)	.82	1.48	1.73*								
SE	.02	.03	.02								
Lower CI ^x	-.06	-.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.02	.09	.06								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Botheration-free Existence (BFE_MH);
^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.23: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and BFE_MH (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		BFE_MH				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.15	.22	.21	.23	.24
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	-.33*	-.34*	-.34*	-.37**	-.36**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.17**	.17**	.15**	.15**
IA_PE									-.01	-.04	-.06
ME_PE										.15*	.11
COM_PE											.22*
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.03	.06	.06	.07	.08
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.03**	.00	.01*	.01*
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	3.51**	5.51**	4.59**	4.67**	4.66**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	-.02	.03	.04								
Sobel (z)	-1.05	1.20	1.63*								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.05	-.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.01	.06	.03								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Botheration-free Existence (BFE_MH); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients reported).

Table 3.24: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and AC_MH (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		AC_MH				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.12	-.10	-.18	-.16	-.15
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02**	.02**	.01*	.02*	.01*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.06	-.04
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**	-.02**
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.34**	.28**	.23**	.23**
IA_PE									.14**	.08*	.05
ME_PE										.20**	.14**
COM_PE											.29**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.02	.17	.20	.23	.26
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.15**	.03**	.03**	.03**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	2.45*	17.07**	17.25**	18.10**	18.86**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.02	.05	.04								
Sobel (z)	1.21	2.91**	3.10**								
SE	.01	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.01	.02	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.09	.07								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution (AC_MH); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.25: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and AC_MH (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		AC_MH				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.12	.00	-.10	-.08	-.07
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02**	.02*	.01	.01*	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.06	-.04
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.02**	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.25**	.21**	.18**	.18**
IA_PE									.15**	.07*	.02
ME_PE										.22**	.16**
COM_PE											.32**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.02	.15	.18	.23	.28
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.13**	.03**	.05**	.04**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	2.45*	15.07**	15.95**	17.95**	19.21**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.01	.04	.02								
Sobel (z)	1.00	3.07**	2.46**								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.01	.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.03	.06	.05								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Sense of Accomplishment and Contribution (AC_MH); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients reported)

Table 3.26: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and CEI_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		CEI_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.03	.02	-.02	-.01	-.01
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01*	.01	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.11	.11	.10	.07	.08
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.20**	.15**	.11**	.11**
IA_PE									.12**	.07*	.04
ME_PE										.17**	.12**
COM_PE											.27**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.01	.09	.13	.17	.22
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.08**	.04**	.04**	.05**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	1.54	9.25**	10.85**	12.66**	14.71**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.02	.04	.04							
Sobel (z)		1.25	2.96**	3.30**							
SE		.01	.01	.01							
Lower CI ^x		-.01	.02	.02							
Higher CI ^y		.04	.07	.06							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Capacity for Empathy & Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard (CEI_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients reported).

Table 3.27: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and CEI_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		CEI_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.03	.09	.00	.01	.03
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.11	.10	.10	.06	.08
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.15**	.11**	.09**	.09**
IA_PE									.12**	.07*	.03
ME_PE										.18**	.13**
COM_PE											.28**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.01	.09	.13	.17	.22
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.07**	.04**	.05**	.05**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	1.54	8.01**	10.12**	12.62**	15.00**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.01	.03	.02								
Sobel (z)	1.09	2.99**	2.52**								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.01	.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.03	.05	.04								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Capacity for Empathy & Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard (CEI_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.28: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and WSR_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		WSR_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.04	.05	.05	.06	.071
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03**	.03**	.03**	.03**	.03**
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.06	.05	.05	.03	.03
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01*	-.03*	-.03*	-.03*	-.02*
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.17**	.16**	.12*	.13*
IA_PE									.00	.03	.06
ME_PE										.11	.07
COM_PE											.27**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.02	.04	.04	.05	.07
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.02**	.00	.01	.02**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	2.14**	3.66**	3.04**	3.06**	3.70**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.02	.02	.04							
Sobel (z)		1.10	.97	2.34*							
SE		.02	.02	.02							
Lower CI ^x		.07	-.02	.01							
Higher CI ^y		.02	.07	.07							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Well-Adjusted with Surroundings & Interpersonal Relationships (WSR_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.29: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and WSR_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		WSR_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.04	.09	.08	.11	.11
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.03**	.03**	.03**	.03**	.03**
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.06	.05	.05	.02	.04
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.12**	.12**	.10*	.10*
IA_PE									.00	-.03	-.06
ME_PE										.13*	.08
COM_PE											.29**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.02	.04	.04	.05	.07
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.02**	.00	.01*	.02**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	2.14	3.31**	2.76**	2.97**	3.72**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	-.01	.01	.02								
Sobel (z)	-1.16	1.12	2.02*								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.05	-.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.01	.04								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Well-Adjusted with Surroundings & Interpersonal Relationships (WSR_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.30: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and SWL_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		SWL_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.19	.20	.15	.17	.18
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03*	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.14	.13	.13	.10	.13
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.02	-.02	-.02
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.14*	.12	.09	.09
IA_PE									.07	.04	.000
ME_PE										.10	.04
COM_PE											.34**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.02	.03	.04	.04	.06
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.01*	.00	.00	.02
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	2.01	2.80*	2.58*	2.49*	3.42**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.00	.01	.04								
Sobel (z)	.00	.52	2.51**								
SE	.02	.03	.02								
Lower CI ^x	-.04	-.03	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.06	.08								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Satisfied with Life Achievements (SWL_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.31: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and SWL_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		SWL_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.19	.25	.19	.20	.22
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.03*	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.14	.13	.13	.10	.13
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.11*	.09	.08	.08
IA_PE									.07	.04	.00
ME_PE										.11	.04
COM_PE											.34**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.02	.03	.03	.04	.06
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.01*	.00	.01	.02**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	2.01	2.68*	2.52*	2.50*	3.50**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.00	.01	.02								
Sobel (z)	.08	.58	2.11*								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.03	-.02	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.03	.04	.05								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Satisfied with Life Achievements (SWL_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.32: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and PL_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		PL_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.01	.00	-.09	-.06	-.05
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02*	.02*	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.14	.13	.13	.07	.09
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.17**	.11*	.05	.05
IA_PE									.15**	.08*	.06
ME_PE										.24**	.20**
COM_PE											.21**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.01	.05	.08	.12	.14
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.03**	.03**	.05**	.02**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	1.38	4.01**	5.91**	8.40**	8.41**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.02	.07	.03								
Sobel (z)	1.34	3.43**	2.31*								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.01	.03	.03								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.11	.06								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Purpose in Life (PL_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.33: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and PL_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		PL_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.01	-.06	-.04	-.02	-.01
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02*	.02	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.14	.13	.13	.08	.09
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.15**	.11**	.08*	.08*
IA_PE									.15**	.07	.05
ME_PE										.23**	.19**
COM_PE											.22**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.01	.05	.08	.13	.15
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.04**	.03**	.05**	.02**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	1.38	4.86**	6.49**	8.96**	8.98**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.01	.04	.02								
Sobel (z)	1.04	3.18**	1.99*								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.01	.02	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.04	.07	.03								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Purpose in Life (PL_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.34: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and OE_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		OE_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.12	-.12	-.05	-.02	-.01
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.05	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	-.14	-.15	-.15	-.19	-.17
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.02
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.01	.03	.01	.02
IA_PE									.11	.17**	.21**
ME_PE										.20**	.14
COM_PE											.38**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.01	.01	.02	.04	.06
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.00	.01	.02**	.03**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	1.07	.86	1.34	2.18*	3.33**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.09	.04	.05							
Sobel (z)		3.09**	1.69	2.64**							
SE		.03	.03	.02							
Lower CI ^x		.03	-.01	.01							
Higher CI ^y		.15	.10	.09							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Openness to New Experiences (OE_PWB);
^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized coefficients are reported).

Table 3.35: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and OE_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		OE_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.12	-.11	-.04	-.01	.00
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	-.14	-.14	-.15	-.19	-.16
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.00	.03	.01	.01
IA_PE									.11**	.18**	.22**
ME_PE										.20**	.13
COM_PE											.38**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.01	.01	.02	.02	.06
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.00	.01*	.02**	.02**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	1.07	.85	1.35	2.18*	3.33**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.07	.02	.03								
Sobel (z)	3.12**	1.58	2.15**								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.03	-.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.12	.07	.05								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Openness to New Experiences (OE_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.36: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and AUTO_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		AUTO_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.02	-.01	-.04	-.01	-.02
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.05	.05	.05	.01	.03
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.16**	.14**	.08	.07
IA_PE									.04	.04**	.10*
ME_PE										.27	.17**
COM_PE											.59**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.00	.03	.03	.08	.19
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.03**	.00	.05**	.10**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	.32	2.58*	2.32*	5.48**	12.19**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.04	.06	.08								
Sobel (z)	2.22*	2.84**	3.84**								
SE	.02	.02	.02								
Lower CI ^x	.01	.02	.10								
Higher CI ^y	.08	.08	.13								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Autonomy in Opinions (Auto_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized coefficients reported).

Table 3.37: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and AUTO_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		AUTO_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.02
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.05	.05	.05	-.01	.02
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.09*	.07	.04	.04
IA_PE									.06	.04	.10*
ME_PE										.28*	.17**
COM_PE											.60**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.00	.02	.02	.08	.18
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.01**	.00	.06**	.10**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	.32	1.41	1.50	5.23**	12.10**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.03	.04	.04								
Sobel (z)	2.18*	2.84**	2.72**								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.01	.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.07	.08								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Autonomy in Opinions (Auto_PWB); *Lower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.38: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and SE_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		SE_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.70**	.69**	.66**	.67**	.68**
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03*	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	-.09	-.09	-.09	-.11	-.11
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.03	.06	.07	.07
IA_PE									.06	.03	.03
ME_PE										.08	.08
COM_PE											.01
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.05	.05	.05	.05	.05
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.00	.00	.00	.00
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	5.4**	4.36**	3.80**	3.42**	2.98**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.01	.03	.00							
Sobel (z)		.53	.99	.04							
SE		.02	.03	.01							
Lower CI ^x		-.03	-.02	-.03							
Higher CI ^y		.05	.08	.03							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards (SE_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Table 3.39: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and SE_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		SE_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.70**	.71**	.69**	.69**	.69**
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	-.09	-.09	-.09	-.10	-.10
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.02	.03	.02	.02
IA_PE									.03	.02	.02
ME_PE										.05	.05
COM_PE											.00
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.05	.05	.05	.05	.05
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.00	.00	.00	.00
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	5.4**	4.36**	3.80**	3.42**	2.98**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.01	.03	.00								
Sobel (z)	.53	.99	.04								
SE	.02	.03	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.03	-.02	-.03								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.08	.03								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards (SE_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.40: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and CE_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		CE_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.12	.13	.02	.04	.05
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02**	.02**	.02*	.02**	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.01	.00	.00	-.04	-.02
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.20**	.12**	.09*	.08
IA_PE									.18**	.13**	.10**
ME_PE										.16**	.11*
COM_PE											.29**
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.03	.08	.13	.15	.18
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.05**	.05**	.03**	.03**
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	3.13*	7.21**	10.58**	10.91**	11.90**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.04	.04	.04							
Sobel (z)		2.49*	2.69*	2.96**							
SE		.02	.02	.01							
Lower CI ^x		.01	.01	.01							
Higher CI ^y		.08	.08	.06							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing & Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Competence in managing Environmental Demands (CE_PWB); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.41: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and CE_PWB (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		CE_PWB				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.12	.17	.03	.05	.06
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02**	.02**	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.01	.00	.00	-.04	-.021
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.12**	.06	.04	.04
IA_PE									.20**	.14**	.11**
ME_PE										.17**	.12*
COM_PE											.29**
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.03	.06	.12	.15	.18
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.03**	.06**	.03**	.03**
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	3.13*	5.20**	9.57**	10.46**	11.60**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.03	.03	.02								
Sobel (z)	2.53**	2.32*	2.35*								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.01	.01	.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.05	.04								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Competence in managing Environmental Demands (CE_PWB); *Lower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.42: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and SI_JS (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		SI_JS				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.13	.16	.05	.07	.07
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02*	.01*	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.07	-.07
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.37**	.30**	.27**	.27**
IA_PE									.17**	.13**	.14**
ME_PE										.15**	.15**
COM_PE											.04
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.02	.18	.23	.25	.25
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.17**	.05**	.02**	.00
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	2.16	19.68**	21.46**	20.21**	17.68**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.05	.05	.01							
Sobel (z)		3.19**	2.94**	.51							
SE		.02	.02	.01							
Lower CI ^x		.02	.02	-.04							
Higher CI ^y		.09	.10	.02							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction (SI_JS); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized coefficients are reported).

Table 3.43: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and SI_JS (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		SI_JS				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.13	.28	.15	.17	.17
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02*	.01*	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.08	-.07
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.31**	.26**	.24**	.24**
IA_PE									.17**	.12**	.12**
ME_PE										.17**	.17**
COM_PE											.01
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.02	.18	.23	.25	.27
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.17**	.05**	.02**	.00
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	2.16	21.39**	22.07**	23.35**	19.51**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.04	.04	.00								
Sobel (z)	2.90**	3.09**	.14								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.01	.01	-.02								
Higher CI ^y	.07	.07	.01								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction (SI_JS); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.44: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and EX_JS (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		EX_JS				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.08	.10	-.05	-.04	-.04
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.04**	.04**	.03**	.03**	.03**
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.17	.16	.16	.16	.16
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.36**	.26**	.26**	.26**
IA_PE									.24**	.24**	.23**
ME_PE										.02	.02
COM_PE											.03
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.08	.21	.28	.28	.28
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.13**	.07**	.00	.00
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	9.49**	22.18**	27.04**	23.15**	22.20**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.09	.01	.01							
Sobel (z)		4.45**	.30	.31							
SE		.02	.02	.01							
Lower CI ^x		.05	-.03	-.01							
Higher CI ^y		.14	.04	.02							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Extrinsic Satisfaction (EX_JS); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.45: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and EX_JS (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		EX_JS				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.08	.20	.01	.02	.02
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.04**	.04**	.03**	.03**	.03**
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.17	.17	.16	.15	.16
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.26**	.18**	.18**	.18**
IA_PE									.26**	.24**	.23**
ME_PE										.05	.04
COM_PE											.05
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.08	.18	.26	.26	.26
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.10**	.08**	.00	.00
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	9.49**	10.19**	25.07**	21.62**	18.95**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.07	.01	.00								
Sobel (z)	4.32**	.81	.57								
SE	.02	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.04	-.01	-.01								
Higher CI ^y	.11	.03	.02								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Extrinsic Satisfaction (EX_JS); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 3.46: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and ID_OCOM (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		ID_OCOM				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	.00	.00	-.11	-.07	-.06
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02*	.02*	.01	.01*	.01*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.08	.07	.07	.00	.00
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	.00
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.32**	.24**	.17**	.16**
IA_PE									.21**	.12**	.11**
ME_PE										.31**	.30**
COM_PE											.06
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.03	.17	.25	.34	.34
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.14**	.17**	.09**	.00
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	3.20**	17.75**	23.04**	31.22**	27.46**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.04	.11	.001								
Sobel (z)	2.94**	5.41**	.98								
SE	.01	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.01	.06	-.02								
Higher CI ^y	.08	.16	.03								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Identification with Involvement (Id_OCOM);^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.47: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and ID_OCOM (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		ID_OCOM				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	.00	-.01	-.05	-.01	-.01
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02**	.02*	.01	.01*	.01
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.08	.07	.07	.01	.00
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	.00	.00
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.23**	.16**	.12**	.12**
IA_PE									.22**	.12**	.11**
ME_PE										.33**	.32**
COM_PE											.08
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.03	.14	.23	.33	.33
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.11**	.08**	.11**	.00
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	3.20**	13.88**	20.50**	30.53**	26.96**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.03	.07	.01								
Sobel (z)	2.85**	4.82**	1.11								
SE	.01	.01	.01								
Lower CI ^x	.01	.04	-.01								
Higher CI ^y	.06	.11	.02								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable** Identification with Involvement (Id_OCOM); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported)

Table 3.48: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and EA_OCOM (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		EA_OCOM				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.16	-.14	-.20	-.14	-.14
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	.07	.06	.06	.05	.02
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.35**	.31**	.21**	.21**
IA_PE									.09	.03	.04
ME_PE										.41**	.40**
COM_PE											.10
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.02	.07	.07	.12	.13
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.05**	.00	.05**	.00
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	1.70	6.15**	5.46**	8.48**	7.50**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
		IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE							
Value of indirect effect		.02	.14	.01							
Sobel (z)		.64	3.98**	.78							
SE		.03	.04	.02							
Lower CI ^x		-.07	.07	-.02							
Higher CI ^y		.04	.23	.05							

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Emotional Attachment (EA_OCOM); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized coefficients are reported).

Table 3.49: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and EA_OCOM (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		EA_OCOM				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.16	-.07	-.175	-.12	-.11
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	.07	.06	.06	.04	.03
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.19**	.15*	.09	.09
IA_PE									.13*	.01	.02
ME_PE										.45**	.43**
COM_PE											.12
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.02	.04	.05	.11	.11
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.02**	.01*	.06**	.00
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	1.70	3.46**	3.55**	7.61**	6.77**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.01	.10	.01								
Sobel (z)	.45	3.89**	.86								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.03	.04	-.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.16	.03								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Emotional Attachment (EA_OCOM); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.50: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between PD_EL and LOL_OCOM (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		LOL_OCOM				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.61**	.63**	.01	.04	.04	.05	-.16	-.14	-.23	-.19	-.19
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02**	.02**	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24*	-.02*	-.02*	-.30**	-.31**	-.31**	-.36**	-.36**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.01
PD_EL		.40**		.36**		.13**		.33**	.27**	.21**	.21**
IA_PE									.14**	.07	.06
ME_PE										.23**	.21**
COM_PE											.09
R ²	.05	.16	.01	.15	.01	.06	.05	.03	.15	.18	.18
ΔR ²		.11**		.14**		.04**		.08**	.02**	.03**	.00
F	5.14**	15.67**	1.30	14.64**	1.31	5.24**	5.39**	12.55**	12.22**	12.87**	11.37**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.03	.08	.01								
Sobel (z)	1.24	3.13**	.91								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.02	.02	-.02								
Higher CI ^y	.07	.14	.04								

Independent Variable: Participative Decision-making with Informing and Individualized Consideration (PD_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable:** Loyalty (LOL_OCOM); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.51: Mediating effect of PE dimensions in the relationship between LE_EL and LOL_OCOM (N=431, Bootstrap sample: 10000)

	IA_PE		ME_PE		COM_PE		LOL_OCOM				
	Step 1 ^{a1}	Step 2 ^{a1}	Step 1 ^{a2}	Step 2 ^{a2}	Step 1 ^{a3}	Step 2 ^{a3}	Step1 ^b	Step2 ^b	Step3 ^b	Step4 ^b	Step5 ^b
Type	.60**	.75**	.01	.12	.04	.08	-.16	-.01	-.11	-.08	-.08
Age	.03**	.03**	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02**	.02*	.01*	.02*	.01*
Gender	.02	.01	.25*	.24**	-.02*	-.02*	-.30**	-.31**	-.31**	-.37**	-.36**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
LE_EL		.31**		.23**		.07**		.30**	.26**	.23**	.24**
IA_PE									.13**	.05	.04
ME_PE										.24**	.23**
COM_PE											.11
R ²	.05	.15	.01	.09	.01	.03	.05	.16	.17	.20	.21
ΔR ²		.10**		.08**		.02*		.11**	.02**	.03**	.00
F	5.15**	22.74**	1.31	8.92**	1.31	2.81*	5.39**	15.73**	14.67**	15.36**	13.4**
<i>Sobel Test of Indirect Effect and bias corrected interval based on 10000 samples</i>											
	IA_PE	ME_PE	COM_PE								
Value of indirect effect	.01	.05	.01								
Sobel (z)	.79	3.05**	1.07								
SE	.02	.02	.01								
Lower CI ^x	-.02	.02	-.01								
Higher CI ^y	.05	.09	.03								

Independent Variable: Leading by Example (LE_EL); **Mediating Variables:** Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE); **Dependent Variable** Loyalty (LOL_OCOM); ^xLower 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; ^yhigher 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Table 3.52:
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Empowerment Role Identity as a moderator (N=431)

	PE			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.29**	.34**	.30**	.29*
Age	.02**	.02**	.01*	.01
Gender	.06	.05	.05	.06
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00
EL		.32**	.29**	.22
ERI			.18**	.12
EL×ERI				.01
R ²	.03	.19	.23	.23
ΔR ²		.17**	.04**	.00
F	3.51**	20.84**	21.41**	18.35**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership (EL)

Moderating Variable: Empowerment Role Identity (ERI)

Dependent Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.53: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between PE and PSS (N=431)

	PSS	
	Step 1	Step 2
Type	-.12	-.08
Age	-.02**	-.02**
Gender	.14*	.15**
Tenure	.02**	.02**
PE		-.15**
R ²	.07**	.12**
ΔR ²		.05**
F	7.75**	11.30**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress (PSS)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.54: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between PE and MH (N=431)

	MH	
	Step 1	Step 2
Type	.01	-.08
Age	.02**	.02*
Gender	-.17	-.19
Tenure	-.02**	-.02*
PE		.33**
R ²	.03**	.11**
ΔR ²		.08**
F	3.46**	10.36**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: General Mental Health (MH)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.55: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between PE and PWB (N=431)

	PWB	
	Step 1	Step 2
Type	.09	.02
Age	.02**	.01*
Gender	.05	.04
Tenure	-.02*	-.01*
PE		.26**
R ²	.03*	.11**
ΔR ²		.09**
F	2.94*	10.74**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Psychological Well-being (PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.56: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between PE and JS (N=431)

	JS	
	Step 1	Step 2
Type	.17	-.02
Age	.03**	.02**
Gender	.05	.02
Tenure	-.02*	-.01*
PE		.47**
R ²	.04**	.22**
ΔR ²		.18**
F	3.90**	23.43**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (JS)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.57: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between PE and OCOM (N=431)

	OCOM	
	Step 1	Step 2
Type	-.09	-.23*
Age	.02**	.01
Gender	-.03	-.06
Tenure	-.01	-.01
PE		.49**
R ²	.04**	.21**
ΔR ²		.17**
F	4.16**	22.38**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variable: Psychological Empowerment (PE)
 Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment (OCOM)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.58: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and PSS (N=431)

	PSS			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.12	-.08	-.09	-.09
Age	-.02	-.02	-.02**	-.02**
Gender	.14	.14	.16**	.15**
Tenure	.02	.02	.02**	.02**
IA_PE		-.07	-.05*	-.03
ME_PE			-.07**	-.05
COM_PE				-.13**
R ²	.07	.09	.11	.13
ΔR ²		.03**	.01**	.02**
F	7.74**	2.72**	2.61**	2.62**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress (PSS)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.59: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and BFE_MH (N=431)

	BFE_MH			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.15	.10	.14	.15
Age	.03*	.02*	.03*	.02*
Gender	-.33*	-.34*	-.38**	-.37*
Tenure	-.02*	-.02	-.02	-.02
IA_PE		.07	.00	.02
ME_PE			.19**	.15*
COM_PE				.22*
R ²	.03	.04	.05	.06
ΔR ²		.00	.02**	.01*
F	3.51**	3.19**	3.95**	3.98**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Botheration Free Existence (BFE_MH)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.60: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and AC_MH (N=431)

	AC_MH			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.12	-.25*	-.19	-.19
Age	.02**	.01	.02*	.01
Gender	-.00	-.01	-.06	-.04
Tenure	-.02**	-.02*	-.02**	-.02*
IA_PE		.22**	.12**	.09*
ME_PE			.26**	.21**
COM_PE				.31**
R ²	.02	.11	.17	.20
ΔR ²		.09**	.07**	.04**
F	2.46*	10.09**	14.07**	15.91**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Sense of Accomplishment and Achievement (AC_MH)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.61: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and CEI_PWB (N=431)

	CEI_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.03	-.07	-.03	-.02
Age	.01	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.11	.11	.06	.07
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
IA_PE		.16**	.09**	.06*
ME_PE			.20**	.15**
COM_PE				.28**
R ²	.01	.09	.15	.20
ΔR ²		.08**	.06**	.05**
F	1.54	8.33**	12.54**	14.91**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Capacity for Empathy and Intimacy with Positive Self-Regard (CEI_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.62: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and WSR_PWB (N=431)

	WSR_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.04	.01	.04	.05
Age	.03**	.03**	.03**	.03**
Gender	.06	.06	.02	.04
Tenure	-.01*	-.03*	-.03*	-.02*
IA_PE		.05	.00	.04
ME_PE			.15*	.10
COM_PE				.28**
R ²	.02	.02	.05	.06
ΔR ²		.00	.01*	.02**
F	2.14	1.96	2.64*	3.48**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Well-Adjusted with Surroundings and Interpersonal Relationships (WSR_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.63: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and SWL_PWB (N=431)

	SWL_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.19	.13	.15	.16
Age	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.14	.13	.10	.13
Tenure	-.02*	-.02	-.02	-.02
IA_PE		.10*	.05	.01
ME_PE			.12	.06
COM_PE				.34**
R ²	.02	.03	.04	.06
ΔR ²		.01*	.01*	.02**
F	2.01	2.39*	2.55*	3.65**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Satisfied with Life Achievements (SWL_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.64: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and PL_PWB (N=431)

	PL_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.01	-.11	-.06	-.05
Age	.02*	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.14	.13	.07	.09
Tenure	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.01
IA_PE		.18**	.09*	.06
ME_PE			.25**	.21**
COM_PE				.22**
R ²	.01	.07	.12	.14
ΔR ²	.01	.05**	.05**	.02**
F	1.38	5.96**	9.60**	9.46**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Purpose in Life (PL_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.65: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and OE_PWB (N=431)

	OE_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.12	-.06	-.02	-.01
Age	.01	.02	.02	.01
Gender	-.14	-.15	-.19	-.17
Tenure	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.02
IA_PE		.10	.17**	.22**
ME_PE			.20**	.13
COM_PE				.38**
R ²	.01	.02	.04	.06
ΔR^2		.01	.02**	.02**
F	1.07	1.54	2.55*	3.80**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Openness to New Experiences (OE)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.66: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and AUTO_PWB (N=431)

	AUTO_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.02	-.05	-.01	-.01
Age	.01	.00	.00	.00
Gender	.05	.06	.01	.02
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
IA_PE		.08*	.09*	.09*
ME_PE			.30**	.18**
COM_PE				.59**
R ²	.00	.01	.07	.16
ΔR^2		.01*	.06**	.10**
F	.32	1.13*	5.96**	13.63**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Autonomy in Opinions and Decisions (AUTO_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.67: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and SE_PWB (N=431)

	SE_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.70**	.67**	.68**	.69**
Age	.03*	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	-.09	-.09	-.10	-.11
Tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00
IA_PE		.04	.02	.02
ME_PE			.06	.06
COM_PE				.00
R ²	.05	.05	.05	.05
ΔR ²		.00	.00	.00
F	5.40**	4.44**	3.81**	3.26**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Self-Evaluation based on Personal Standards (SE_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.68: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and CE_PWB (N=431)

	CE_PWB			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.12	-.01	.03	.03
Age	.02**	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	.01	.00	-.04	-.02
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	.00
IA_PE		.22**	.15**	.12**
ME_PE			.18**	.13**
COM_PE				.29**
R ²	.03*	.11	.15	.18
ΔR ²		.09**	.03**	.03**
F	3.13*	10.80**	11.99**	13.03**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Competence in managing Environmental Demands (CE_PWB)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.69: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and SI_JS (N=431)

	SI_JS			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.13	.02	.03	.02
Age	.02*	.01	.01	.01
Gender	-.03	-.03	-.08	-.09
Tenure	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
IA_PE		.26**	.18**	.18**
ME_PE			.22**	.22**
COM_PE				.02
R ²	.02	.13	.18	.18
ΔR ²		.12**	.04**	.00
F	2.16	13.21**	15.35**	13.14

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Social-Intrinsic Satisfaction (SI_JS)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.70: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and EX_JS (N=431)

	EX_JS			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.08	-.11	-.09	-.09
Age	.04*	.03*	.03*	.03*
Gender	.17	.17	.15	.15
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
IA_PE		.32**	.29**	.28**
ME_PE			.09	.09
COM_PE				.04
R ²	.08	.22	.22	.22
ΔR ²		.14**	.01	.00
F	9.49**	23.65**	20.39**	17.48**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction (EX_JS)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.71: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and ID_OCOM (N=431)

	ID_OCOM			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	.00	-.17	-.09	-.09
Age	.02**	.01	.01	.01
Gender	.08	.08	-.01	-.01
Tenure	-.01	-.00	-.00	-.00
IA_PE		.28**	.15**	.14**
ME_PE			.36**	.35**
COM_PE				.07
R ²	.02	.17	.31	.31
ΔR ²		.15**	.13**	.00
F	3.20**	18.12**	31.71**	27.41**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Involvement with Identification (ID_OCOM)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.72: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and EA_OCOM (N=431)

	EA_OCOM			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.16	-.27	-.17	-.17
Age	.02	.02	.02	.02
Gender	.07	.07	-.05	-.04
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
IA_PE		.18**	.01	.01
ME_PE			.47**	.45**
COM_PE				.12
R ²	.02	.04	.11	.11
ΔR ²		.02**	.07**	.00
F	1.70	3.06*	8.47**	7.38**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Emotional Attachment (EA_OCOM)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.73: Summary of hierarchical regression analysis: Relationship between dimensions of PE and LOL_OCOM (N=431)

	LOL_OCOM			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Type	-.16	-.29*	-.23	-.23
Age	.03**	.02*	.02*	.02*
Gender	-.30**	-.31**	-.37**	-.37**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
IA_PE		.22**	.11*	.11*
ME_PE			.29**	.27**
COM_PE				.10
R ²	.05	.10	.15	.15
ΔR ²		.05**	.05**	.00
F	5.39**	9.32**	12.17**	10.60**

(Unstandardized co-efficients are reported).

Independent Variables: Impact with Autonomy (IA_PE), Meaning (ME_PE), Competence (COM_PE)

Dependent Variable: Loyalty (LOL_OCOM)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 3.74: Means, standard deviations and F value by sector for psychological empowerment and its dimensions (Total N=431, Public N= 225, Private N= 206)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Public sector</i>	<i>Private sector</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p value</i>
Psychological empowerment	5.50 (.84)	5.90 (.87)	3.32*	.05
Impact and Autonomy	4.90 (1.37)	5.42 (1.30)	8.06**	.00
Meaning	5.90 (1.06)	5.95 (1.10)	.06	.80
Competence	6.15 (.62)	6.25 (.67)	.10	.76

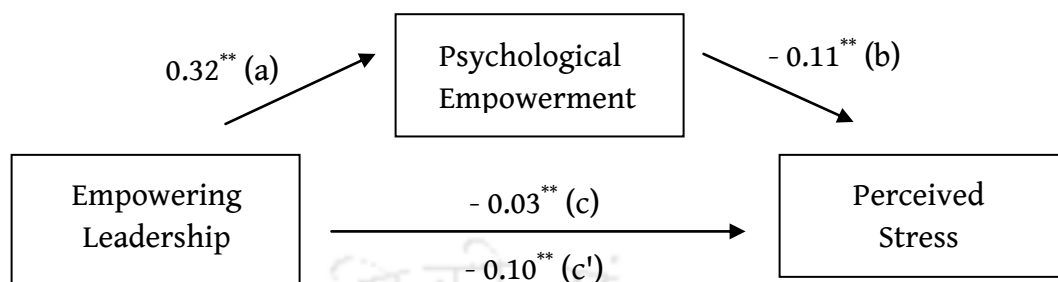


Fig 3.2: Simple mediation model depicting Psychological Empowerment as a mediator in Empowering Leadership-Perceived Stress relationship

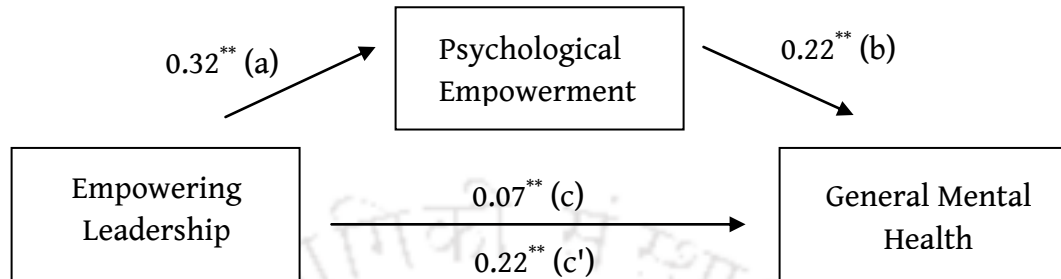


Fig 3.3: Simple mediation model depicting Psychological Empowerment as a mediator in Empowering Leadership-General Mental Health relationship

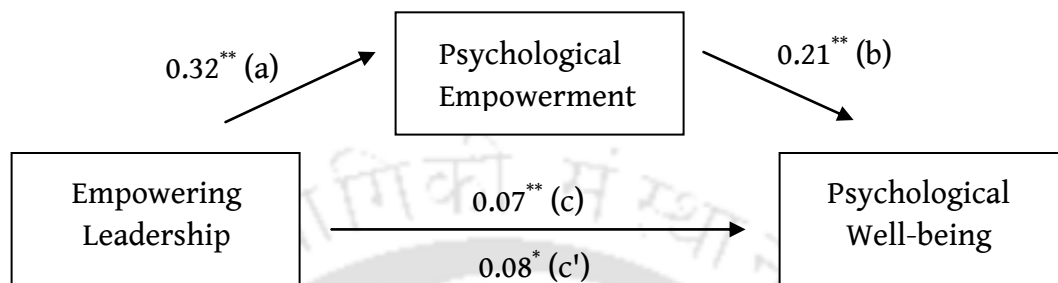


Fig 3.4: Simple mediation model depicting Psychological Empowerment as a mediator in Empowering Leadership-Psychological Well-being relationship

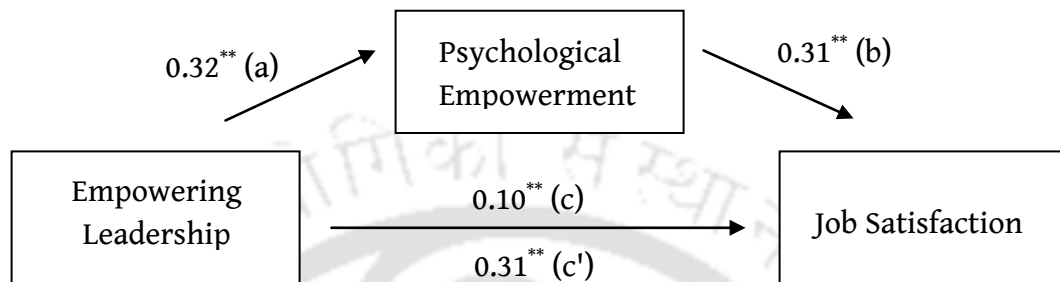


Fig 3.5: Simple mediation model depicting Psychological Empowerment as a mediator in Empowering Leadership-Job Satisfaction relationship

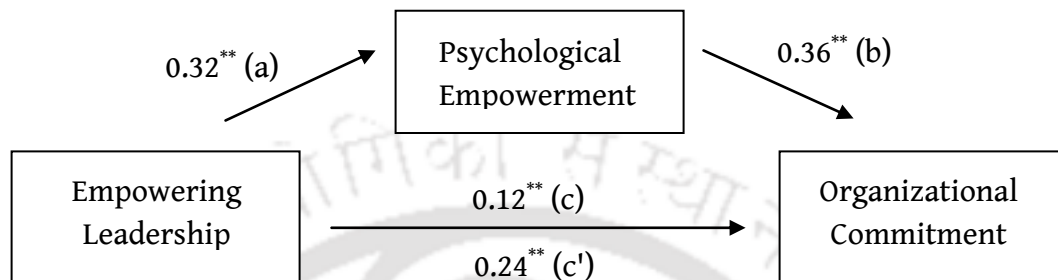


Fig 3.6: Simple mediation model depicting Psychological Empowerment as a mediator in Empowering Leadership–Organizational Commitment relationship

Chapter 4

General discussion

The earlier two chapters, i.e., Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, have reported the results of three studies (Study 1, Study 2A and Study 2B) which were designed and conducted to answer the research questions raised in Chapter 1. This chapter will present an amalgamated general discussion of the results of these three studies.

As reported in Chapter 1, from the review of literature on employee empowerment, its mechanisms and possible outcomes, the following research questions were framed: (1) how does psychological empowerment (PE) at work influence the perceived levels of stress among employees in Indian organizations? (2) how does PE at work influence the general health and psychological well being of employees in Indian organizations? (3) how does PE at work influence the level job satisfaction experienced by employees in Indian organizations? (4) how does PE at work influence the level of organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations? (5) how does empowering leadership (EL) impact the PE at work among employees in Indian organizations? (6) what role does empowerment role identity play in the relationship between EL and PE at workplace? (7) how does EL influence the perceived levels of stress among employees in Indian organizations? (8) how does EL influence the general health and psychological well being of employees in Indian organizations? (9) how does EL influence the level job satisfaction experienced by employees in Indian organizations? (10) how does EL influence the level of organizational commitment among employees in Indian organizations? (11) are the links between EL and employee well-being outcomes mediated by PE? (12) are there differences in the amount of PE experienced by employees belonging to public and private sector organizations? Accordingly, hypotheses were framed in reference to these research questions.

Study 1 was an experimental study conducted to answer the first research question exploring the relationship between PE and perceived stress. In addition, Study 1 also explored the potential moderating role of personality variables and power distance in the relationship between PE and perceived stress. Hence the

following two additional questions were raised and answered in Study 1 - (1) how does personality impact the relationship between PE at workplace and perceived stress?, and (2) what role does power distance play in the relationship between PE at workplace and perceived stress? The results of Study 1 provided further directions to explore the efficacy of empowerment in Indian work context. Accordingly, Study 2A was carried out to explore and answer the research questions raised in Chapter 1. To augment the results of this quantitative study, Study 2B, which is a qualitative study was carried out simultaneously using the interview method. These interviews were conducted with senior and top managers of the organizations from which data was collected for Study 2A. Therefore, the results of this study would provide the opinions and perceptions of the top management regarding empowerment, its mechanisms and its impact on employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

One of the main objectives of this research was to examine the efficacy of PE in Indian work settings. Across all three studies it was evident that PE positively impacts employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. Study 1 made it clear that PE mitigates the extent of perceived stress experienced by employees. Further, emotional stability and agreeableness operated as boundary conditions which moderate the negative relationship between PE and stress; such that this relationship is stronger when emotional stability and agreeableness are higher rather than lower. A possible explanation can be that emotionally stable and agreeable individuals react to PE more positively and handle the stress that may emanate from added responsibility and ambiguity in an effective manner. The role of personality was further highlighted in Study 2B, where senior and top managers opined that experience of stress depends on individual differences. Although personality factors such as emotional stability and agreeableness moderated the strength of the PE-perceived stress relationship, the relationship nonetheless remained negative across all participants. Along with added responsibilities or role ambiguity that might come with empowerment, psychologically empowered employees also experience self-determination, competence, and impact, which work together to increase the sense of control (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). The negative effect of job demand decreases as

perceived control increases and consequently, employees would perceive less strain when they have a sense of control over potential stressors (Karasek, 1979; Spector, 1986). Study 2A, besides confirming the negative link between PE and perceived stress, further established its positive association with employee mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The opportunity to engage in intrinsically satisfying opportunities for employment, feelings of efficacy, job autonomy and opportunity to have impact at work would contribute to adjustment and quality of life (Westaby et al., 2005), enhanced intrinsic motivation and improved ability to deal with job demands, hence positively influencing individual functioning and physical and psychological health (Gecas, 1989; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). When employees believe that they have the autonomy and competence required to make a difference in organizational outcomes (impact) that are personally meaningful, they are more likely to be intrinsically motivated, experience a sense of control and put in extra effort and persistence in challenging situations at work as well as at domains outside work. The enhanced levels of intrinsic motivation, skill utilization and involvement would contribute to experience of positive self-image or self-acceptance, feelings of competence in managing environmental demands and a stronger sense of purpose as well as satisfaction of higher psychological needs for autonomy and personal growth. Similarly, perceived meaningfulness, knowledge of results and the ability to influence outcomes and higher levels of personal control and autonomy would increase job involvement, convergence of energy (Kanter, 1983) and a sense of agency in terms of task accomplishment, hence leading to accomplishment of coveted work values and intrinsic rewards from work (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Consequently, employees are likely to gain a sense of satisfaction with their jobs and life in general and experience psychological well being. Also, according to social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, employees are expected to reciprocate to empowering organizational experiences which facilitate their feelings of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrow, 2000) by feeling more deeply committed to the organization (Avolio et al. 2004; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

The observations from the qualitative study (Study 2B) provided further evidence for the assertion that PE contributes to employee well-being and organizational effectiveness in Indian work context. The responses of the top bosses revealed that allowing employees to take decisions regarding their performance goals and work processes and providing feedback enhance the connection between actions and their consequences, which permit them to attain some degree of understanding of what they must do to achieve desired results and make them more motivated to perform the job and be satisfied with its various aspects. Autonomy to take decisions regarding work processes ensures that employees are able to maintain work-life balance and remain happy. When employees' personal goals are aligned with those of the organizations, they would experience well-being and be more emotionally attached with the organization. Decision making power motivates the employees and increases their sense of identification with organizational goals and ideals.

The pandemic philosophy of empowerment and its positive ramifications have resulted into organizations across cultural boundaries utilizing it as a managerial tool, without taking into account the potential impact of culture (Shipper & Manz, 1992; Randolph & Sashkin, 2002). Since PE is "felt" empowerment, it is possible that it would be a more universal reaction rather than culturally-specific. Nonetheless, one cannot discount the fact that cultural values might impact the effectiveness of PE. Owing to the presence of socio-cultural values such as dependence proneness and high power distance, the current research explored the possibility that PE might not be as efficacious in Indian organizations as it is in the Western work context. Empowerment involves increasing the scope of employee responsibilities, and the dependence prone Indian employees, who are dependent on their authority for almost every aspect of their jobs, might not perceive it positively and consider the added responsibilities a burden. But, as indicated by the findings of Study 2A and Study 2B, the incremental effect of PE, the others-orientation of Indian employees and the possibility that dependence proneness may not be as pervasive as before among Indian employees, established the efficacy of PE in employee well-being and organizational effectiveness in Indian work context. Similarly, power

distance, a cultural value, was expected to impact the relationship between PE and perceived stress. Employees high on self-determination and impact may be perceived as threatening by their bosses (Eylon & Au, 1999). Also, it may not be culturally appropriate for employees at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy to have any say in their work. The moderating effect of power distance was explored in Study 2A and results indicated that power distance does not moderate the relationship between PE and perceived stress. The positive links of PE with employee mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as demonstrated in Study 2B, further reinforced the assertion that PE contributes to employee well-being and organizational effectiveness in Indian work context. Scholars argue that employees in high power distance cultures are more deferential and more likely to show loyalty to their leaders (Fock et al., 2013). But, in return, even leaders are expected to encourage and support their subordinates. It is possible that, this cordial supervisor-subordinate relationship would make the employees trust their supervisor and respond to the demands of PE in a positive manner. Also, it is possible that the employees from whom the data for Study 2A and 2B were collected are more educated and exposed to the western culture and its ethos than the average Indians and hence have lower power distance and possibly less dependency-proneness than the average Indian. For example, a bank job is considered to be a privileged profession in the Indian society, and this combined with higher education may generate smaller power distance values. Likewise, with opening up of the markets and revolutionary development in technology, new opportunities have opened up, which are not so dependent on governmental control or infrastructural support (Sinha, 2014) and as a result, there has been a gradual shift in the Indian mindset from dependence proneness towards initiative and innovation. As a result, the impact of such socio-cultural characteristics does not reflect in the way they perceive and react to empowerment.

Previous research has established that components of social-structural empowerment are related to PE- and that both in turn are related to positive employee outcomes (Spreitzer, 2008). The present research attempted to examine the role of socio-structural empowerment in fostering feelings of PE. Socio-

structural empowerment includes empowering characteristics of systems and structures as well as the leaders who design and implement them (Spreitzer, 2008). Positive forms of leadership can be considered as integral elements of socio-structural empowerment. Along with perceived high-performance managerial practices, socio-political support and work characteristics, supportive leadership has emerged to be an important prerequisite for fostering PE in workplace (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011; Spreitzer, 2008). Particularly, EL behaviours are intended at empowering the employees (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Arnold *et al.*, 2000) and hence, are likely to have stronger association with PE (Fong & Snape, 2013). Hence, in Study 2A of the current research, EL was construed as a form of structural empowerment where leaders/managers attempt to empower their employees by exhibiting empowering leader behaviours such as facilitating participative decision-making, leading by example, sharing information, coaching, and showing personal concern about employees' well-being (Pearce & Sims, 2002). The results indicated that that EL was positively related to PE at workplace. Empowering leaders display enabling and supportive behaviours which increase employees' intrinsic motivation associated with cognitions of competence, self-determination, impact and meaning (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Leadership behaviours such as providing information about goals and engaging the employees in participative goal-setting allow employees to estimate the value of their work and form personal goals congruent to the organizational goals, hence enhancing the meaningfulness of work (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Also, by encouraging employees to participate more and decide how to carry out his or her job, and helping them to understand the importance of their contribution to overall organizational effectiveness, empowering leaders increase their feelings of impact and self-determination (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Finally, these leaders mentor their subordinates, provide them feedback, express confidence in their competence and remove the constraints they might face in the path to goal accomplishment, which serve as substantial sources of self-efficacy information that would increase employees' perceptions of competence (Bandura, 1997).

The observations from the qualitative study (Study 2B) further validated the positive links between empowering leader behaviours and PE. Top executives identified leader behaviours which facilitate employee decision making. These leader behaviours correspond to the behaviours of an empowering leader. Participative decision-making, where inputs of everyone in the team or unit or department are taken into consideration while making a decision and employees are encouraged to solve problems collectively, question the leader's decisions and come up with better ideas; creating a favourable environment for employees to take decisions by taking responsibility for the decisions made by the employees and communicating faith to the subordinates regarding their ability implement new initiatives; mentoring and guiding the employees; following-up their decisions; helping them to carry out their decisions through a logical end by equipping them with the required resources, information, tools and knowledge and provide support whenever necessary; and expressing personal concern for their well-being, were delineated as prominent leader behaviours which are instrumental in motivating employees to feel equipped to take decisions and actually participate in the decision-making process.

Study 2A also attempted to explore the impact of EL on employee well-being and organizational performance. It appears that empowering systems and structures, including empowering leader behaviours have positive outcomes for employees as well as for organizations. The results indicated that EL is positively associated with employee well-being and organizational performance outcomes. Specifically, EL was found to mitigate the levels of perceived stress and positively impact the mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. EL is instrumental in facilitating empowering work environments, where an individual is provided with autonomy with all necessary resources and is instilled with confidence on his skills and abilities. EL behaviours such as providing feedback and support, mentoring, informing, encouraging participation and empowerment, showing concern for the well-being of the subordinates and displaying integrity are crucial in maintaining employee well-being in face of stressful events (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004). Furthermore, by distributing power and exhibiting

confidence in employees' ability to perform at work, empowering leaders positively influence employee engagement. Work engagement is a positive state of mind related to fulfilment and well-being at work defined by energy, involvement and vigour, which in turn are positively associated with mental resilience and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Empowering leader behaviours also reinforce the employees' sense of perceived organizational support, which has been demonstrated to have positive impact on employees' mental health in terms of positive mood and reduced strain (Leather et al., 1998). Empowering leaders intrinsically motivate employees by displaying supportive behaviours and hence elevate positive affect among employees (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). They enhance the meaningfulness of work by emphasizing the value of work, by providing employees autonomy (participatory decision making) to achieve personal goals which are congruent to organizational goals (participative goal-setting process) and by clearing the path to goal accomplishment. The opportunity to engage in intrinsically satisfying and meaningful work is instrumental in effective life-adjustment in terms of surroundings as well as interpersonal relationships and leads to increased quality of life (Westaby, Versenyi, & Hausmann, 2005). Meaningful life is synonymous with a sense of purpose defined by goals, intentions, and a sense of direction (Ryff, 1989). Such autonomy-supportive leader behaviours would also lead to satisfaction of higher psychological needs for autonomy and personal growth. EL increases employees' PWB by enhancing their psychological resources such as PsyCap (self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience). Displaying confidence in the employees, exhibiting concern for their well-being and communicating necessary information would make employees self-reliant in effectively dealing not only with the work load and work-related insecurities but also with demands outside the work domain. Furthermore, mentoring, providing autonomy, training, self-defined goal focus, appreciation of effort, emotional support, promoting positive relations among work group members and information-sharing would lead to satisfaction of employees' need for autonomy, relatedness and competence, which in turn would foster intrinsic motivation in the employees. Such autonomous motivation would enhance their satisfaction related to the inherent characteristics of the job and derived from social-acceptance at work place (Stone,

Deci, & Ryan, 2009). Moreover, giving recognition to employees in the form of appreciation of effort, promotions and monetary benefits, ensuring that they have favourable working conditions and displaying supportive behaviours are likely to have positive impact on extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. Finally, according to the norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), individual employees are likely to perceive leader's supportive behaviours as a form of organizational support and reciprocate by demonstrating higher levels of commitment and loyalty (Kim & Beehr, 2018).

The observations derived from the qualitative study, Study 2B, reinforced the positive effect of EL on employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. The top executives emphasised the pivotal role of managers in promoting a collaborative work culture and a culture of well-being. Also, mentoring and coaching were identified as integral to employee development and job satisfaction. Leaders can facilitate a supportive climate conducive for employee wellness not only by creating a favourable environment for employees to take decisions but also by providing positive, constructive feedback customized to each employee in order to recognize the employee's effort while suggesting necessary adjustments for better performance and results. Displaying personal care and concern about professional as well as personal problems of employees was revealed as a crucial managerial behaviour for employee health and well-being.

PE (or employee's cognitive state regarding empowerment) has been conceptualized as a key mechanism by which empowering structures and practices impact behaviour and performance. Hence, Study 2A explored the intervening role PE might have in the relationship between EL and the outcomes. A key goal was to examine the effect of EL on employees' perceptions of empowerment, and the mediating role such empowering perceptions may play with regard attitudinal and psychological outcomes. The results demonstrated that along with having direct negative relationship with perceived stress and direct positive links with mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, EL also had significant indirect effect on these outcomes through PE. Such findings imply that PE is likely to cultivate the

relationship between EL behaviours and employee outcomes. Empowering managerial practices have a crucial role in yielding empowering experiences for employees, characterized by meaningfulness in their work and feelings of self-determination and self-efficacy (Spreitzer, 1995). Such psychologically empowered employees have high intrinsic motivation and an active orientation towards their work and hence, are more likely to yield positive behaviour and attitudes. EL is likely to influence dimensions of PE to further impact employees' perceived stress, mental health, PWB, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. When leaders delegate authority, provide support and display genuine concern with a focus on the enrichment of employees' perceptions about empowerment at work, their impact on employees' health and well-being and positive work attitudes will be more. Consequently, PE can be considered an important resource to foster positive state of mind, psychological well-being and positive work attitudes among employees. Nevertheless, the results consist of cases of partial mediation, leaving open the possibility that there might be other mediating mechanisms at work. Hence, future research should contemplate the possibility of alternative mediating mechanisms in the links between EL and such outcomes.

The mediating role of PE was further highlighted by observations from Study 2B. As discussed before, the top management revealed that supportive and empowering leader behaviours are instrumental in motivating employees to feel equipped to take decisions and actually participate in the decision-making process. The top executives felt that managers can enhance employees' sense of purpose by involving them in the goal-setting process and recognizing their contribution to the organization. They also emphasised on the prominent role leadership in fostering employees' sense of autonomy and ability to influence work outcomes, which in turn, are reflected in active involvement in the decision-making process. Leaders mentor, instil confidence and motivate employees to take risks, communicate trust, take responsibility for employees' decisions, provide them support and resources to implement these decisions, and hence enhance employees' feelings of efficacy and sense of control in relation to their work. Furthermore, it was observed that experience of meaning, competence,

impact and autonomy were negatively associated with perceived stress, and positively associated with health and well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Hence, it can be concluded that empowering leader behaviours facilitate the dimensions of PE, which in turn enhance employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

Researchers have suggested that cultural values may moderate how people experience social-structural empowerment (Spreitzer, 2008). EL encourages granting authority and participative decision-making, and such leadership behaviour might be incompatible with the socio-cultural environment of Indian organizations. In high power-distance and high uncertainty avoidance cultures like India, empowering the front-line employees might produce role stress, confusion and dissatisfaction (Seibert et al., 2004). Dependence proneness prevailing in the Indian socio-cultural context might add to this stress and dissatisfaction. Taking the socio-cultural context into account the researcher explored the possibility that employees might not be receptive to EL initiatives in Indian organizations. Consequently, empowering and participative forms of leadership behaviour may not be strongly and positively linked with PE and employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. The responses of top executives in Study 2B echoed similar concerns when they stated that in Indian society, where deference towards leaders is very high and people are prone to avoid risks, empowering initiatives by the organization may not be perceived positively. But contrary to such assumptions, the findings of Study 2A indicated EL is positively associated with PE and employee well-being and organizational effectiveness in Indian work context. A possible explanation is that EL facilitates self-leadership among employees by 'leading them to lead themselves' and hence make them more confident and adept in decision making. Moreover, the mentoring function associated with EL would further remove any hesitation or inhibition that employees might have in participating in decision making. Also, self leadership strategies such as self-management, constructive thinking, and deriving meaning from the task make it possible for an employee to deal with inhibitions they might have regarding taking initiatives. In high power-distance cultures, leaders are also expected to take care of the employees by displaying

enabling behaviours like showing concern and support in exchange for loyalty and obedience (Hofstede, 2001). Hence, it is possible that power distance would in fact enhance the effect of EL on employee satisfaction and well-being. Also, there has been a strengthening of democratic processes as a result recent economic and political changes in India (Kapur & Ramamurti, 2001), and this might explain as to why EL was accepted by Indian employees, hence resulting in positive work attitudes and behaviour. Another possible reason why Indian employees were receptive of relational empowerment such as EL can be their higher levels of education, which eventually resulted in smaller power distance values (Hofstede, 2001). That being said, Study 2A does not examine culture directly, hence substantial conclusions regarding the implications of cultural differences cannot be drawn. However, the findings establishing the efficacy of EL in the Indian work context are vital, because questions have been raised regarding the validity and applicability of Western leadership models in Asian cultures (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999). True cross-cultural studies are required to gain stronger insights on the efficacy of EL.

Previous research has shown that public and private organizations demonstrate significant differences with regard to their management practices and their contextual characteristics (Fottler, 1981; Rainey, 1982; Stupak & Moore, 1987). However, in PE literature there is a research void regarding comparative studies between private and public employees. Hence, the current research attempted to examine the differences in public and private sector organizations in terms of employees' perceptions of PE. The results of Study 2A demonstrated that private sector employees were more psychologically empowered than public sector employees. Private sector employees scored higher in Impact and Autonomy as compared to public sector employees. These findings are consistent with previous literature indicating increased PE among private sector employees as compared to public sector employees, especially with regard to impact and autonomy (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Public organizations are highly bureaucratic and are characterized by rigid rules and regulations, formalized processes, hierarchical control and formal means of communication (Perry & Porter 1982; Rainey, 1983; Robertson & Seneviratne, 1995). The observations

derived from the qualitative study, Study 2B, substantiate this finding. It appeared from the responses of top executives that private sector organizations grant more decision-making power to their employees as compared to public sector organizations. Since, most of the public sector organizations in India are bureaucratic by nature, the decision-making power is dictated by hierarchy and pre-defined schedule of power. Such high levels of formalization do not allow managers to grant their employees enough discretion and flexibility and decision-making power is restricted to managerial level employees.

It is evident that results of the three studies conducted as a part of this research have supported most of the hypotheses framed in reference to the research questions raised in Chapter 1. The findings of this research work support a widely researched theoretical proposition that organizational structures and practices within workplace are essential in shaping and enhancing work experiences and work life of employees. EL puts emphasis on employees' autonomy, participation and development by sharing power, encouraging self-direction and supporting them. Hence, empowering leaders develop an empowering and facilitating climate where employees experience intrinsic motivation, and develop a positive feeling about the work and the workplace. In line with existing research (e.g. Chen et al., 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), the present research found that empowering leaders enabled their followers to experience PE. While EL focuses on the leaders-subordinate relationship; PE underlines psychological aspects of an individual employee and causes for motivation (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). It was also established that PE, a form of individual motivation based on meaningful and autonomous work, enhances employee well-being (assessed in terms of perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being and job satisfaction) and organizational effectiveness (organizational commitment). Finally, EL emerged as a significant predictor of well-being outcomes and organizational commitment, both directly as well as indirectly through PE. EL motivates employees by conferring greater authority and autonomy to them and by fostering their sense of control, perceptions of competence and feelings of being empowered. When employees get opportunities to get involved in work decisions and activities and engage in self-development,

they are likely to experience well-being, be satisfied with various aspects of their jobs and have loyalty and affection for the organization.



Chapter 5

Conclusion, Contributions, Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The preceding two chapters, Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, have reported the results of the three studies (Study 1, Study 2A and Study 2B) which answered most of the research questions raised in Chapter 1. Chapter 4 has presented a general discussion of results obtained from these studies. This chapter makes an attempt to conclude the research work and present its contributions in terms of theoretical, methodological and practical implications. Further, limitations and potential directions for future research are also discussed here.

Conclusion

The objective of this dissertation was to examine the impact of empowering leadership (EL) on employee well-being and organizational effectiveness and the mediating role of psychological empowerment (PE) on these relationships. The present research work aimed to provide a theoretical framework by connecting the upcoming area of well-being research with leadership and employee empowerment research within the OB/HR domain. A further highlight was that it focused on employees in Indian organizations, where an inadequacy exists with regard to well-being research, and the socio-cultural context and work atmosphere differ from that of western organizations to some extent.

Globalisation, rapid technological and structural changes in business, changing nature of work, knowledge-based economy and highly competitive business environment are making organizations demand more from their employees than ever before. To adapt to these changes, employees must learn to take initiative, take responsibility, make quick decisions for their actions, and control their own work environment. Organizations need to empower their employees in order to enable them to perform tasks which were traditionally confined to the management level. Consequently, the concept of empowerment has continued to gain popularity in management literature and practice (Wall,

Wood, & Leach, 2004). Managerial approaches based on empowerment have been adopted by most organizations as it is expected to increase employee productivity and organizational efficiency. Employees who experience empowerment at work would be more involved and engaged not only with their work but also with their organizations (Stander & Rothmann, 2010). Also, empowered employees are more likely to effectively adapt to the shifting business atmosphere (Gorman & Sandefur, 2011).

EL, an emerging leadership theory, has been demonstrated to encourage positive employee behaviours and attitudes (Arnold et al., 2007; Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Mohammed, Fernando, & Kaputi, 2013). However, many scholars have contended that for benefits to materialize, such empowering managerial approaches should foster perceptions of empowerment among employees (*psychological state of empowerment or PE*) which, ultimately, culminate into positive workplace outcomes such as increased performance and positive job attitudes (Menon, 2001).

In today's workplace, employees who are happy and healthy are acknowledged to be more satisfied with various aspects of their job, have enhanced levels of productivity and creativity, have less turnover intentions, and display improved in-role and extra-role performance (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008). Employee well-being has consequential impact on an organization's performance and survival by affecting absenteeism, turnover, illness and health care costs, and job performance (Spector, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Danna & Griffin, 1999). Health and well-being has become a crucial issue for policymakers today and consequently, besides profit maximization, firms have started to focus on enhancing employees' well-being and happiness. A psychologically healthy workplace simultaneously promotes health and well-being of employees and enhances organizational effectiveness. The APA's Center for Organizational Excellence (2018) has delineated empowerment as first of the five psychologically healthy workplace practices. Empowerment research has mostly focused on employee performance and attitudes (Ahearne et al., 2005; Srivastava et al., 2006; Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016), only a handful of studies have

concentrated on the impact of empowerment on employee's psychological state of mind (Ahearne et al., 2005).

In the present research work, employee well-being was assessed in terms of perceived stress, mental health, psychological well-being and job satisfaction. Organizational commitment was examined as an indicator of organizational effectiveness. The main focus of the current research was on PE. It explored the impact of PE on employee well-being and organizational performance. Further, it examined the relationship between EL and PE and explicated the mediating role of PE in the relationship between EL and these employee outcomes. Additionally, the potential moderating role of personality and power distance dimension of culture in the relationship between PE and perceived stress was also investigated.

A pertinent review of literature yielded several research questions, which were documented in Chapter 1. Three studies were carried out to test the relationships explicated in these research questions and hypotheses were formulated accordingly.

Study 1 was an experimental study conducted to answer the first research question exploring the relationship between PE and perceived stress. In addition, Study 1 also explored the potential moderating role of personality variables and power distance in the relationship between PE and perceived stress. The results of Study 1 provided further directions to explore the efficacy of empowerment in Indian work context. Accordingly, Study 2A was carried out to explore and answer the research questions raised in Chapter 1. To augment the results of this quantitative study, Study 2B, which is a qualitative study, was carried out simultaneously using the interview method.

Across all three studies it was evident that PE positively impacts employee health and well-being and performance outcomes. Additionally, the findings of Study 1 revealed that emotional stability and agreeableness operated as boundary conditions which moderate the negative relationship between PE and stress; such that this relationship is stronger when emotional stability and agreeableness are

higher rather than lower. The results of both Study 2A and Study 2B indicated that EL was positively related to PE at workplace. Empowering leaders display enabling and supportive behaviours which increase employees' intrinsic motivation associated with cognitions of competence, self-determination, impact and meaning (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). The findings of Study 2A and Study 2B also revealed that EL is positively associated with employee well-being and performance outcomes. Specifically, EL was found to mitigate the levels of perceived stress and positively impact the mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Finally, the results demonstrated that along with having direct negative relationship with perceived stress and direct positive links with mental health, psychological well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, EL also had significant indirect effect on these outcomes through PE. This suggests that PE mediated the relationship between EL behaviour and employee outcomes.

These findings imply that empowering leader behaviours such as delegating authority to the employees and displaying concern about their well-being promote positive work attitudes in the employees and a positive state of mind in terms of their work and personal life (Culbertson et al., 2010). Most importantly, this research demonstrates that leadership can contribute to the enhancement of employees' health and well being and organizational commitment by increasing their PE.

Contributions and Implications

Theoretical contributions

This research work formulated and examined a conceptual model that assimilates EL theory with significant outcomes related to the health and well-being of employees. While most empowerment studies have mainly focused on job performance and job attitudes (Ahearne et al., 2005; Srivastava et al., 2006; Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016), only a handful of studies have concentrated on the impact of EL on psychological state of mind (Ahearne et al., 2005). Yet, there are strong

theoretical underpinnings to expect EL would influence psychological health and well-being, a contention that has been supported empirically in this dissertation.

Another theoretical implication of this research work is expanding the literature on PE, especially in the context of Indian organizations, which are different from western organizations due to their cultural characteristics. Explicating these links in the Indian work context contributes to both empowerment and well-being literatures.

The present research makes an attempt to synthesize empowerment from a macro and a micro perspective: empowerment as an autonomy-supporting managerial practice (i.e., EL) and empowerment as a facilitating psychological experience (i.e., PE). This research work attempted to explore this antecedent-consequent link between EL and PE and present a better understanding of the antecedent conditions involved in the process of PE. Moreover, the current research enriches both leadership and the empowerment literatures by explicating the mediating role of PE in the relationship between EL and employee outcomes like perceived stress, mental health and psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

To the best of researcher's knowledge there have been very few empirical studies regarding the application of leadership, empowerment and well-being theories in Indian work context. This study confirms the applicability of these theories in the context of Indian organizations. The findings of this research establish the efficacy of EL and PE in predicting positive employee and organizational outcomes in a different cultural milieu than the West - the Indian work context.

By examining the potential moderating role of personality variables, Study 1 of this research work provides information to answer the question: who can truly reap the benefits of PE? This study hopes to fill the lacuna in empowerment research that has existed till now regarding the role of personality in perception of empowerment and its outcomes.

Methodological contributions

It is worth mentioning that an offshoot of this research work is the development of two vignettes in order to manipulate the level of PE in Study 1. Vignettes are more realistic and less abstract than conventional survey questions and increase the internal validity by bringing in experimental control. Study 1 used experimental vignette methodology as it allows the researcher to formulate scenarios of the constructs being tested. It provides greater control over the manipulation of independent variables while gathering evidence regarding causation, thereby increasing both internal and external validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Based on the conceptualization of PE and its dimensions by Spreitzer (1995) and Menon (2001), vignettes depicting scenarios of high PE and low PE were formulated. The vignettes were successful in manipulating the levels of PE in the present study.

It is important to note that the researcher is not aware of any research which has employed the qualitative method in order to explore the concept of empowerment and its correlates. Hence, Study 2B is a contribution to the limited number of such qualitative studies. Moreover, qualitative research methods help to explore a concept in-depth and to obtain a detailed description and views on the concerned topic.

Recent researches have indicated that contrary to the recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986), significant indirect effects can be detected even when initially no significant causal relationship between predictor and outcome was established. Hence, in addition to hierarchical regression analysis, the mediation analyses in Study 2A was also conducted by performing PROCESS Macro V 3.18 (Hayes, 2018) in SPSS (version 20.0) to measure the strength and direction of indirect effect.

Practical implications

The findings of the current research indicate that PE based on experience of meaning and autonomy at work increases employee well-being and positive job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job design has been found to be a crucial factor for intrinsic motivation, positive workplace attitudes and enhanced work performance of employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Hence, crafting or redesigning jobs with autonomy and meaning would foster employee engagement and psychological well-being.

The findings of the current research reiterate the efficacy of PE in predicting positive employee outcomes in a different cultural milieu than the West - the Indian work context. It provides justification for how PE overpowers the role of socio-cultural values like dependence proneness and high power distance to foster employee well-being outcomes. In doing so, the present study substantiates the positive effects of PE on employee health and well-being. Consequently, managers should foster a sense of empowerment by providing opportunities for challenging, meaningful tasks with varying difficulties, allowing employees to assume greater decision-making power and responsibility at work, providing feedback and training to develop their skills and enhance feelings of competence, and finally, allowing the employees to make an impact by involving them in strategic goal setting and making work outcomes visible and valuable. Structural empowerment (organizational policies and structures) would be more effective in yielding positive outcomes when the management is able to facilitate PE in the employees by creating a certain level of trust and a culture of positive error management where employees feel safe to take decisions and new responsibilities. Organizations need to formulate policies and create a culture which would empower the employees psychologically and give them a sense of personal control. This would have positive effects on the health and well-being of employees and the organization would reap the benefits of enhanced employee performance and positive employee attitudes.

The findings further reveal that supportive and empowering leaders increase employees' perceptions of empowerment and well-being and foster positive job attitudes. As organizations are moving to information-based, autonomous units of knowledge workers, the conventional hierarchical role of a leader has shifted to a more supportive and non-controlling one (Joo, Park, & Lim, 2016; Drucker, 1988). Knowledge workers prefer to work in an organizational climate which is supportive of the employees and is characterized by autonomy and management transparency (Thite, 2004). Hence, managerial training needs to concentrate more on developing and employing a supportive and an EL style (e.g., coaching and mentoring) among managers and supervisors in order to boost employees' sense of PE and eventually their health and well-being.

The findings pertaining to the moderating role of personality in the PE-stress relationship suggest that, from an organizational perspective, dispositions of potential employees should be assessed and taken into account during the hiring process to help create a workforce which exhibits more initiative and is self-driven to improve its own performance. Managers should be aware that along with psychologically empowering the employees, personality variables like emotional stability and agreeableness are crucial in mitigating the detrimental effects of work place strain. Although dispositions are relatively stable, employees can be inducted to effective personality improvement programmes and motivation training to cultivate such dimensions of personality. This would help the employees not only to deal with work place stress effectively, but also enhance positive work attitudes and outcomes like job satisfaction and performance.

The findings of the research have implications for Indian organizations and managers with regard to empowerment interventions. Designing jobs that allow for self-determination and are meaningful to the employees are necessary for facilitating PE. Organizational practices need to be streamlined in order to enhance meaningfulness of work for the employees, their perceived competence, sense of autonomy and perceptions of impact. Supervisors and managers can play a significant role in creating empowering work environments. They can

contribute to a supportive work climate by taking into account the opinions of the employees, granting more authority, and encouraging self-initiation (Gagne' & Deci, 2005). To realize true empowerment, managers must encourage the voice of employees from lower and middle management and enhance employee engagement and involvement. Management should design HRM interventions such as talent management and employee entrepreneurial behaviour interventions, which would minimize the policing role of HR, enhance the level of trust and perceived positive support among employees, and consequently facilitate the experience of PE (Bhatnagar, 2007).

Limitations

As with all research, this dissertation had to balance various considerations and thus is not without limitations.

1. Study 1 used vignettes to examine the relationship between PE and perceived stress. But, like most vignette studies, it does not measure the correspondence between the hypothetical behaviour and actual behaviour. Difficulties may arise when participants are asked to adopt a vignette perspective based on an unfamiliar situation. Since the nature of their job makes it unlikely that bank employees would have an opportunity to experience high PE at work, this study needs to be carried out in highly empowered contexts like autonomous/self-managed teams.
2. The limitations of self-reported measures exist in Study 1 and Study 2A. Respondents may interpret the meaning of each question differently and reply based on their own understanding of the question. Also, their responses might be affected by social-desirability bias.
3. Study 1 is based on a relatively small sample. Potential limits on generalizability of the results may exist and thus, should be viewed with caution.

4. Study 2A was based on cross-sectional survey data with potential common method bias. This can exaggerate the relationships among the variables, hence questioning their causality. However, the results of Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) implied common method variance was unlikely to confound the interpretations of results.
5. The sample of Study 2A includes highly specialized professional workers as well as general staff (non-professional workers). Non-professional workers and professional workers differ in their responses to leadership behaviour (Howell & Dorfman, 1986), an aspect which was not considered in this study. The differences between general staff and professional workers with respect to the impact of EL can be considered by future research in this domain. Further, executives and team leaders also constituted the sample. Considering that delegation moves top-down the organizational hierarchy, it is possible that the degree of empowerment or extent of the impact of EL would be dependent on a respondent's position in the organizational hierarchy, a factor which was not taken into account in Study 2A.
6. In case of the qualitative study, one of the limitations is the generalization of findings from a few cases. The sample size of Study 2B, which consisted of top management executives, is quite small ($N = 30$) as it is not easy to get the top bosses to spare time for interviews. Although the sample was representative of the organizations from which quantitative data for Study 2A was collected, it would be better to increase the sample size in order to increase the power of generalization. This issue is resolved to some extent by the fact that this study basically tried to substantiate the findings of Study 2A and both studies were conducted on the same conceptual framework and addressed similar research questions that emerged from the review of literature.

Direction for Future Research

1. Study 1 highlights that besides using strategies for empowering the employees, it is essential that organizations take into account individual dispositions of the employees while predicting desirable outcomes. Future research along this line might explore the moderating role of Big Five traits in buffering or boosting relationships between PE and a host of employee outcomes like work engagement, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour.
2. Future research can also look at individualized culture dimensions, other than power distance, like uncertainty avoidance and collectivism as potential moderators in the relationship between PE and its outcomes. Study 2A does not examine culture directly; hence substantial conclusions about the ramifications of cultural differences cannot be drawn. True cross-cultural studies are required to gain stronger insights on the efficacy of EL and PE.
3. Future research should yield a theoretically nuanced and empirically established understanding of EL by integrating studies on its antecedents and effectiveness. A comparative deficiency of empirical research on the structure and measurement of EL in a localized context hampers the expansion of EL theory in the Indian work context. The available research generally espouses the single measurement method of questionnaire, which makes it susceptible to error. To guarantee accuracy, EL should be measured from various perspectives by coalescing multiple techniques such as case study and in-depth interviews.
4. Although the current research examined EL as a dyadic construct, research findings imply that it can also be operationalized at the team level (e.g., Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Although multilevel models of empowerment have been examined in the past (e.g., Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004) none has directly dealt with the effects of EL on mental

health and psychological well-being. Future research might address multi-level issues in circumstances where there is a requirement for teams to be empowered and yield such positive psychological states.

5. A primary aim of study 2A was to examine the impact of EL on the PE of employees, and its potential mediating role regarding the outcomes. Since the results include cases of partial mediation, future research should explore the likelihood that there might be other mediating mechanisms at work.

In conclusion, this research work uniquely synthesized leadership, empowerment, and well-being theories to posit a framework concerning the possible impact of EL and PE on employee health and well-being and organizational performance in the Indian work context characterized by its unique socio-cultural values. Overall, this dissertation provides important foundations that will hopefully inspire more future research on different conceptualizations of empowerment and psychologically healthy workplaces. The findings of this research work have implications for management practitioners and academics alike.

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Appendix A (Study 1)

Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati
Department of Humanities and Social Sciences
 Guwahati – 781039 (Assam) INDIA

Dear Friend,

I'm a research scholar working at the Department of Humanities & Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati. As a part of my thesis work, I am conducting a study about workplace. I would request you to kindly participate in this study and go through these following pages to answer certain questions on processes at work place.

There is no right or wrong answer. Your answer is the best answer. Therefore, please feel free to indicate your choice.

All the information provided by the participants will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose. Your identity will not be disclosed at any stage.

I understand your time constraints, but, as you realize, without your help, it would not be possible for me to carry out this study. Therefore, I request you to kindly extend your cooperation.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours sincerely,

Manaswita Bharadwaja
 Research Scholar

E-mail: manaswita@iitg.ernet.in

Personal Information

Name (optional): _____ Age (in years): _____

Gender (M/F): _____ Programme: _____

Semester: _____

SECTION I

Please read the following scenario carefully.

You work at a company as a middle level manager. You have good working relationship with your supervisors and co workers. In your company the goals are set keeping in mind the goals of the employees, so that the employees can relate to the company goals and are inspired by them. Corporate procedures are well defined and the company provides employees with mechanisms to change policy. The management ensures that the employees are given opportunities to develop the skills and competencies required to perform their jobs effectively and efficiently. As a result the employees may feel more confident to handle challenges at work. Employees have authority to make decisions about their work. Finally, the company appreciates the contribution each employee makes to their respective departments and to the company as a whole. This provides the employees with a sense of influence and control over the happenings of their department and makes them enthusiastic about the contribution their work makes to the organization.

Imagine that you have been an employee of this company for a considerable amount of time. You experience the above regarding your work role. Now, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the following statements describes your self-orientation by encircling the options given in the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

1. I am confident about my ability to do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The work that I do is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

9. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The work I do is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Now, imagine that as an employee of this company, you have been experiencing the following situation for some time.

Your company got a project some time back and the management considered you the most capable to carry it out. Thus, you were allotted the responsibility to carry out the project. It requires a lot of tasks to be done with minimal errors and within a limited time frame. You have taken up the project and have been working for it for a month now.

In such a scenario, how often do you think you are going to experience the following? Please indicate by encircling the options given below.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Almost Never	Some times	Fairly Often	Very Often

1. In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?	1	2	3	4	5
2. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
3. In the last month, how often have you felt nervous and "stressed"?	1	2	3	4	5
4. In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5
5. In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?	1	2	3	4	5
6. In the last month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?	1	2	3	4	5
7. In the last month, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Almost Never	Some times	Fairly Often	Very Often

8. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were on top of things?	1	2	3	4	5
9. In the last month, how often have you been angered because of things that were outside of your control?	1	2	3	4	5
10. In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION II

Following are a few sections which contain generic statements meant to capture your generalized feelings and opinions. Please respond to them without thinking about the scenarios mentioned earlier.

The questions in this section are your abilities to complete certain tasks. Please encircle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which it describes your abilities.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all true	Hardly true	Neither true nor untrue	Somewhat true	Exactly true

1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5
2. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
8. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III

Here are a number of statements which refer to feelings, thoughts and behaviour that are common to all people. Please encircle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree Strongly

I describe myself as someone who.....

1	... is talkative	1	2	3	4	5
2	... tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5
3	...does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
4	...is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5
5	... is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
6	... is reserved	1	2	3	4	5
7	... is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5
8	... can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5
9	... is relaxed, handles stress well	1	2	3	4	5
10	... is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5
11	... is full of energy	1	2	3	4	5
12	... starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5
13	... is reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5
14	... can be tense	1	2	3	4	5
15	... is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
16	... generates a lot of enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
17	... has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5
18	... tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5
19	... worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
20	... has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
21	... tends to be quiet	1	2	3	4	5
22	... is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
23	... tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
24	... is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1	2	3	4	5
25	... is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
26	... has an assertive personality	1	2	3	4	5
27	... can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5
28	... perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
29	... can be moody	1	2	3	4	5
30	... values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree Strongly

31	... is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	2	3	4	5
32	... is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
33	... does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
34	... remains calm in tense situation	1	2	3	4	5
35	... prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5
36	... is outgoing, sociable	1	2	3	4	5
37	... is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
38	... makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
39	... gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5
40	... likes to reflect, play with interests	1	2	3	4	5
41	... has few artistic interests	1	2	3	4	5
42	... likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
43	... is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
44	... is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION IV

The following statements are about beliefs and opinions you may hold with regard to manager-supervisor relationship. Please encircle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree Strongly

1. Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
2. It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Employees should not disagree with management decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank You for your valuable time!

In order to manipulate the levels of psychological empowerment (high and low), vignette method was used. The above vignette is for high psychological empowerment condition. For low psychological empowerment condition, following vignette was used. However, rest of the questionnaire/measures were exactly similar.

You work at a company as a middle level manager. You have a good working relationship with your supervisors and co workers. In your company the goals are set solely by the management, without keeping in mind the goals of the employees. Although corporate procedures are well defined the employees do not have any say in policy. The company hardly provides any opportunity to the employees to develop their skills and competencies required to perform their jobs effectively and efficiently. As a result the employees may not feel confident enough to handle challenges at work. Employees do not have much authority to make decisions about their work. Finally, the company does not appreciate the contribution each employee makes to their respective departments and to the company as a whole. Thus, the employees do not really feel a sense of influence and control over the happenings of their department and they are not enthusiastic about the contribution their work makes to the organization.

Appendix B (Study 2A)
Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati
Department of Humanities and Social Sciences
 Guwahati – 781039 (Assam) INDIA

Dear Madam/Sir,

I'm a research scholar working at the Department of Humanities & Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati under the guidance of Professor Nachiketa Tripathi. The area of my research is psychological empowerment. I would request you to kindly participate in this study and go through the following pages to answer certain questions on psychological empowerment and related concepts.

There is no right or wrong answer. Your answer is the best answer. Therefore, please feel free to indicate your choice. All the information provided by the participants will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose. The identity of the organization or the employees will not be disclosed at any stage.

I understand your time constraints, but, as you realize, without your help, it would not be possible for me to carry out this study. Therefore, I request you to kindly extend your cooperation.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours sincerely,

Manaswita Bharadwaja
 Research Scholar
 E-mail: manaswita@iitg.ernet.in

Personal Information

Name (optional): _____ Age (in years): _____

Gender (M/F): _____ Designation: _____

Qualifications: _____ Tenure in present job (in years): _____

Total work experience (in years): _____

Salary (Optional): Please indicate your choice by putting [✓]

[] 30,000 to 40,000

[] 60,000 to 70,000

[] 90,000 to 1,00,000

[] 40,000 to 50,000

[] 70,000 to 80,000

[] 1,00,000 and above

[] 50,000 to 60,000

[] 80,000 to 90,000

SECTION I

[EL]

Listed below are statements which **describe behavior and actions of supervisors at work place**. For each statement, please tick [✓] **one** number to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. My supervisor sets high standards for performance by his/her own behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My supervisor works as hard as anyone in my work group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My supervisor leads by example.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My supervisor provides help to work group members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My supervisor teaches work group members how to solve problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My supervisor listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My supervisor uses my work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My supervisor gives all work group members a chance to voice their opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My supervisor explains company goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My supervisor explains rules and expectations to my work group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My supervisor explains his/her decisions and actions to my work group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My supervisor shows concern for work group members' well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My supervisor takes the time to discuss work group members' concerns patiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My supervisor shows concern for work group members' success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. My supervisor helps develop good relations among work group members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION II

[ERI]

Listed below are statements which indicate a **person's perception about himself/herself**. For each statement, please tick [✓] **one** number to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. I often think about having greater control over my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I have a clear concept of myself as an employee who wants to have greater decision-making power.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Having certain degree of power and discretion is an important part of my identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I would feel a loss if I have no discretion at all in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION III

[PE]

Listed below are a number of **self-orientations that people may have with regard to their work role**. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each one describes your self-orientation by ticking [✓] the options given below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. I am confident about my ability to do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The work that I do is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I have significant autonomy (<i>freedom</i>) in determining how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My impact (<i>influence</i>) on what happens in my department is large.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have a great deal of control (<i>authority</i>) over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The work I do is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I am self-assured (<i>confident</i>) about my capabilities to perform my work activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV(A)

[PSS]

The questions in this scale ask you about your **feelings and thoughts during the last month**. Please indicate *how often* you felt or thought a certain way by encircling the options given below.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Almost Never	Some times	Fairly Often	Very Often

1. In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?	1	2	3	4	5
2. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
3. In the last month, how often have you felt nervous and “stressed”?	1	2	3	4	5
4. In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5
5. In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?	1	2	3	4	5
6. In the last month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?	1	2	3	4	5
7. In the last month, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
8. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were on top of things?	1	2	3	4	5
9. In the last month, how often have you been angered because of things that were outside of your control?	1	2	3	4	5
10. In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION IV(B)

[GHQ]

The following set of questions asks how you **feel about yourself and your life**. Please tick [✓] **one** number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. Have you recently felt constantly under strain?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Have you recently felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

3. Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Have you recently been able to enjoy normal day to day activities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Have you recently been losing confidence in you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you are doing?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Have you recently felt capable of making decisions about things?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Have you recently been able to face up to your problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Have you recently felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Have you recently been thinking yourself as a worthless person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy all things considered?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Have you recently been feeling unhappy and depressed?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV(C)

[PWB]

The following set of statements deal with how you **feel about yourself**. Please tick [✓] **one** number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My decisions are not usually influenced by what everyone else is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I tend to worry about what other people think of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. It's difficult for me to voice my own opinions on controversial matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

7. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. The demands of everyday life often get me down.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I often feel overwhelmed by my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I have been able to build a home and a lifestyle for myself that is much to my liking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I am not interested in activities that will expand my horizons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. When I think about it, I haven't really improved much as a person over the years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I have the sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I do not enjoy being in new situations that require me to change my old familiar ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Most people see me as loving and affectionate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

28. I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I have a sense of direction and purpose in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. My daily activities often seem trivial and unimportant to me.							
32. I don't have a good sense of what it is I'm trying to accomplish in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I enjoy making plans for the future and working to make them a reality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. In general, I feel confident and positive about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I like most aspects of my personality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. My attitude about myself is probably not as positive as most people feel about themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV(D)

[JS]

The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts **about various aspects of your job**. For each statement, please tick [✓] **one** number that indicates your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with that particular aspect of your job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Slightly dissatisfied	Neutral	Slightly satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

1. How satisfied are you with the fringe benefits you receive?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Slightly dissatisfied	Neutral	Slightly satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

2. How satisfied are you with the friendliness of the people you work with?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How satisfied are you with the amount of freedom you have on your job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How satisfied are you with the chances you have to learn new things?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How satisfied are you with the respect you receive from the people you work with?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How satisfied are you with chances you have to accomplish something worthwhile?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How satisfied are you with the amount of pay you get?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How satisfied you are with the chances you have to do something that makes you feel good about yourself as a person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How satisfied are you with the way you are treated by the people you work with?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How satisfied are you with the chances you have to take part in making decisions?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. How satisfied are you with the amount of job security you have?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV(E)

[OCOM]

The statements listed below describe your feelings and thoughts **about your work and organization**. Please tick [✓] **one** number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. I am quite proud to tell people who it is I work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

4. Even if the firm was not doing well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel myself to be a part of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. In my work I like to feel I am making some effort, not just for myself but for the organization as well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organization would please me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV(F)

[ACOM]

The statements listed below describe your feelings and thoughts **about your work and organization**. Please tick [✓] **one** number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your valuable time!

Appendix C (Study 2B)

Interview schedule

Thank you for taking out the time for this.

Q1. Can you please tell us a little bit about yourself - your background, education, qualifications and work experience?

Q2. I would like to know a little bit about the organization - Function, Departments, Reporting lines, Strength?

Q3. What is the nature of duties that you perform in this organization? What about the team of people that works under you?

Q4. I would like to know from you whether your organization allows the employees to take decisions which are relevant to their respective job roles and can have impact on the outcomes.

Q5. Can you please tell us whether employees in your organization feel equipped and motivated to take decisions and are actively involved in the decision-making process?

Q6. Do you think employees in your organization find purpose in their work? Can you please elaborate by citing some examples?

Q7. Do you think employees in your organization are confident about their qualifications, skills and abilities to perform their jobs? Why do you think so?

Q8. As a leader, do you allow your employees to take responsibility and also the space to take appropriate decisions as and when required?

Q9. What is the average level of stress experienced by employees of your organization?

Q10. Do you think employees in your organization experience well-being and function effectively in their personal and professional lives?

Q11. According to you, do employees in your organization remain satisfied with various aspects of their job over a period of time?

Q12. Do you think most of the employees of your organization identify with and are committed to the organization?

Appendix D (Study 2A and 2B)

Information about the organizations

Organization 1

This organization is an ISO 9001:2015 Govt. Enterprise established in 1974 under the aegis of Indian Railways. It is a pioneer in multidisciplinary consultancy in the fields of transport, infrastructure and related technologies. Incorporated as a Public Limited Company in Delhi, the organization overseas projects and develops cooperative links between consultants/firms and local resources in sharing its expertise in various sectors of operations. With a dedicated workforce of more than 2000 employees and a sales turnover of almost 1500 crores INR, Organization 1 is a leading company in providing rail transport management services to operators in India and abroad.

Organization 2

Organization 2 is the country's first Public Sector refinery serving the country since 1962. It is the first to be awarded with ISO-9001 certificate of International Quality Standards as well as ISO-14001 for Environment Management System and Occupational Health and Safety Management System (OSHMS), a very stringent compliance very few companies have achieved. With almost 35, 000 employees and a net profit of Rs. 21,046 Crores, the Organization is responsible for providing millions an access to energy across the country

Organization 3

Organization 3 is a Union Government owned engineering company specializing in designing and manufacturing of railway signalling systems and safety equipment. With its manufacturing unit located in Uttar Pradesh, it was founded in 1974 with its headquarters at New Delhi. With an operating revenue of 160 crores INR, Organization 3 is a pioneer in India in the areas of solar photo-voltaic ceramics, ferrite and piezo ceramics.

Organization 4

Established in 1929 as Imperial Council of Agricultural Research it is now an autonomous organization under the Department of Agricultural Research and Education (DARE), Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare, Government of India. The organization is one of the largest national agricultural systems in the world with 101 institutes and 71 agricultural universities spread across the country. The organization is primarily responsible for ushering and maintaining Green revolution in the country by enabling increase in production of food grains through their research and development activities.

Organization 5

Organization 5 is a Public Sector Enterprise under Ministry of Railways responsible for upgrading professionalizing and managing the catering and hospitality services at railway stations, on trains and various other locations to promote domestic and international tourism. With a workforce of approx. 4500 employees and revenues in excess of 1500 crore INR, it has business and offices located all across the country, with its Corporate Office in New Delhi. Since its incorporation in September, 1999 it has become a subsidiary of Indian Railways in handling its tourism, catering and online ticketing operations of the Indian Railways network.

Organization 6

The Organization 6, head-quartered in Maligaon, Guwahati in the state of Assam, is one of the 17 railway zones in India. With its incorporation in 1958 it has been responsible for railway operations in the entire Northeast region of the country as well as several parts of West Bengal and Bihar. The organization is responsible for managing rail operation through 5 divisions namely, Tinsukia, Lumding, Rangiya, Alipurduar & Katihar, characterized by not just exceptional beauty but also by an arduous terrain.

Organization 7

Organization 7 is a consulting group which solves the problems of its clients through unmatched services in strategy, digital, technology and operations. The organization partners many Fortune Global 500 companies in driving innovation and improving the way they work. With clients in more than 120 countries and most appearances in World's Most Admired Companies List, a strong and diverse workforce, makes Organization 7 one of the pioneers in leading innovation and transforming business processes through expertise and enterprise.

Organization 8

This organization completed 25 years of listing on Indian stock exchanges in 2018 as a specialist in global consulting and software services. Organization 8 with more than 209,000 employees and a market capitalization of approximately US\$ 42.4 billion has been a major catalyst in leading India's emergence as a global destination for software services talent. Since its inception, Organization 8's journey of over 35 years has seen it become of the first IT Company from India to be listed on NASDAQ enabling clients in further 45 countries to help them succeed in their digital transformation. Globally, Organization 8 has 82 sales and marketing offices and 123 development centres as on 31st March, 2018.

Organization 9

As one of the World leaders in 3G, 4G and next-generation wireless technology innovations, Organization 7 is empowering Indian citizens with latest tech innovations and solutions. With its beginnings some 30 years ago, the Organization has come a long way in redefining the mobile experience and enabling new generation of powerful mobile devices. The Organization 9's office in Bengaluru specializes in wireless modem and multimedia software, embedded applications and digital media networking solutions.

Organization 10

Organization 10 is popularly recognised as a pioneer in the concept of luxury boutique hotels in India. Since its inception 40 years ago, the Organization has

gained popularity and prestige in achieving global standards in quality of service and service excellence. Located in some of the biggest cities around the country, Kolkata was the first city to open its arms to the Organization in 1967. With a strong workforce of almost 42,000 employees the Organization is rapidly expanding its operations in different sectors like Tea, Hospitality, Shipping, Real Estate and Financial services.

Organization 11

Organization 11 is an Indian global automobile manufacturer, a \$45 billion enterprise marking its presence since 1945, as India's largest and the original equipment manufacturer. With global employee strength of 83,000 members, Organization 11 is considered world's leading automobile manufacturer. The Organization is India's leading automobile manufacturer with a portfolio of cars, sports utility vehicles, trucks, buses and defence vehicles.

Organization 12

Organization 12 was ranked 195 on 2018 Fortune 500 and has been voted for 10 years as one of the most admired Fortune companies. It offers tech support to its client by combining and building their assets and knowledge with powerful digital technologies to generate new revenue streams, new operating models and entirely new ways of delighting their customers. With revenues of over US\$ 14.8 billion, Organization 12 has 357 strategic clients and over 6000 consulting professionals worldwide to help clients embed digital thinking and solutions into the core of their businesses.