

**PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AS DETERMINANTS OF INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEE
PERFORMANCE**

by

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PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AS DETERMINANTS OF INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

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SUMMARY

Psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour as determinants of individual employee performance

by

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The concepts of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance have been researched over the years indicating positive relationships with performance, efficiency and effectiveness within organisations. This study investigated the relationship concerning the constructs of psychological empowerment (PE); Utrecht Work Engagement (WE); organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and individual work performance (IWP) amongst employees (n = 314) in a steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa with the aim to create a scientific model using these constructs. The study followed a quantitative cross-sectional research approach. A web-based survey was used to collect data from a population of 6,500 full-time working adults.

Several statistical techniques were used to meet the research objectives such as structural equation modelling and confirmatory factor analysis. Pearson product–moment correlation and mediated/ moderated regression analysis was further used in this study. The findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between all the variables. PE and WE predicted IWP and PE and OCB predicted IWP and that WE and OCB also predicted IWP.

The mediated regression analysis results of medium effect were established amongst the constructs PE, WE and IWP and OCB and IWP had the stronger relationship. The mediated regression analysis results showed PE and WE have a positive and significant association with IWP and that PE and WE were positive and significantly associated with OCB. Furthermore, a moderating relationship between PE and IWP was established amongst the employees of the age between 18-35 years, meaning that age was a moderator between PE and IWP, amongst younger employees.

Recommendations regarding the four variables have been made, in the form of, a scientific model which was proposed, and when implemented had a potential to enhance psychological empowerment, organisational citizenship behaviour and engagement in the workplace and could assist organisations during a process of recruitment, selection, placement, and development of talent. Following the results highlighted above, the general aim of this study was achieved.

In conclusion, employees' work attitude (PE and WE) played a role in individual's work behaviour (OCB) and such behaviour influenced the individual work outcome. The abovementioned empirical findings support the theoretical assumptions of this study.

KEY TERMS:

Psychological empowerment, individual work performance, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, biographical variables, confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, mediating variables, moderating variables, *t*-test, ANOVA.

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CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC POSITIONING TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The study investigated whether psychological empowerment (PE), work engagement (WE) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) influenced individual work performance (IWP), with specific reference to employees in a steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa.

In explaining the reasons pertaining to the study and the problem statement, Chapter 1 focused on the rationale of the research study. It also emphasised the aims of the literature review, the empirical study and the overall purpose of the investigation. The models that serve as the study's boundary and its underlying paradigms was also discussed. The methodology, selection of psychometric tools, data analysis strategies and ethical considerations supporting this study were all covered in the research process.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The context of the study is individual work performance in a steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa. As is the case worldwide, South African steel consumption is closely related to GDP growth (and investment) and overall economic activity (Baxodirovna, 2017). Organisations face tremendous pressure to increase productivity and competitiveness. South African businesses are more exposed than ever to the effects of global economic conditions, technological advancements and fierce international competition. Consequently, some organisations have turned to cost-cutting measures and profitability to outperform rivals (Marangu et al., 2017; Elston et al., 2018).

The South African steel industry is under severe threat, but its continued existence and sustainability are critical to supporting the country's economic development goals and the growth of numerous key sectors. Steelmaking contributes more than 1.1 percent directly to South Africa's GDP and an additional 0.4 percent indirectly. The top five steel-consuming industries collectively contribute approximately R600 billion to South Africa's GDP (15 percent of the total) and employ more than 8 million people (Creamer, 2015).

Creamer (2015) also mentioned the effects of industry performance, such as how imports pose a serious threat to the local steel industry. This threat is driven by the steel industry's current global overcapacity, which amounts to approximately 300 million tonnes per year and

is primarily driven by China, which produces 50% of global steel and has the capacity to increase further.

Consequently, the Secretary General of the National Union of Metalworkers of South Africa (Numsa), stated that any loss of productivity and the closure of steel plants in the short term would be a devastating blow to South Africa's manufacturing industry. The above description demonstrates disempowerment and disengagement of employees, which might negatively affect the National Development Plan (NDP 2030).

Steel is the most used metal in the world and is vital to the construction, transport, manufacturing, motor, medical, aircraft, defence and domestic appliance industries. It is an industrial enabler and vital element to the sustainability of South Africa's economy. The sustainability of the local steel industry is entirely consistent with and supportive of the 2030 National Development Plan as well as successive industrial policy action plans and the more recent infrastructure investment plans. More specifically, the SA primary steel industry enjoys a value chain that stretches all the way from mining through to the manufacture of some of the world's most sophisticated motor vehicles. Not only are steel's backward and forward linkages unmatched, but it also underpins the local agriculture, mining, transport and construction sectors. Collectively, these sectors account for about 33.5% of nominal GDP and almost a third of all formal employment (Business Day, 2024).

Based on the above-described situation, this research explored the construct of PE, WE and OCB to determine whether each construct positively influence IWP. The unique contribution of this study involved the scientific model as an outcome of the study with biographical variables as moderation and the anticipated application in a steel manufacturing organisation within South African context. The constructs mentioned are important for this study in determining whether a steel manufacturing organisation employees could reach and sustain the expected productivity target levels and remain engaged within the organisation. These constructs are subsequently discussed.

Work Engagement

According to McHugh (2001), fostering engaged employees through positive organisational behaviour is essential to guaranteeing high performance. Schaufeli et al. (2006) define work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling work-related mental state characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption." Employee engagement has frequently been hailed as the secret to an organisation's competitiveness and goal-achieving. According to Devi (2009), motivated workers collaborate with others to enhance performance in their jobs for the benefit of the organisation(s) and are conscious of the organisational context. Testing the impact of WE on IWP in steel manufacturing organisations is crucial because of this.

Organisational citizenship behaviour

Khan et al., (2019) refers an excellent voluntary performance on the part of employees for the tasks not officially contracted, as phenomenon called organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The excellent performance which is ideally voluntary on the part of the employees and does not form part of their official contracted work activities is referred to as organisational citizenship behaviours (Khan et al., 2019). Organisational citizenship behaviour was identified by Khan et al. (2019) as essential behaviour for functioning organisations. These behaviours reduce conflict and encourages teamwork, thereby increasing organisational effectiveness and productivity (Devece et al., 2016).

The success of any organisation essentially depends on the performance of its employees, in that they make an effort beyond what is expected of them in the workplace (Lee et al., 2018). This is especially true at present, given the dramatic changes in the economic environment, constant improvements in technology, and the extent of heated competition in the marketplace. OCB therefore, reduces conflict and encourages teamwork, thereby increasing organisational effectiveness and productivity (Devece et al., 2016).

Psychological empowerment

Psychologically empowered employees respond with high energy to perform duties, and they show engagement in their job (Macsinga et al., 2015). Empowered employees can save the organisation from crisis through commitment by creating opportunities (Ghalavi & Nastiezaie, 2020). Psychological empowerment construct sub-dimensions of meaning, impact, and competence may improve concentration, which improves employees' performance in their jobs (Kimpah & Ibrahim, 2020).

According to Qui et al., (2020) employees who are empowered are trustworthy towards the organisation and fellow colleagues which provides confidence that organisation will reciprocate fair treatment, even in a subordinate position. Empowered employees have the ability to protect the business from crisis through their commitment, passion and seeking different opportunities within the organisation. Francis and Alagas (2020) on the other hand indicates that among the top reasons, for employees to leave their organisation is extended working hours and non-existence of flexibility in the workplace, a lack of workplace culture, a lack of career progression, power distance striking high and lack of trainings and further development, which all leads to disempowerment of employees.

It is, therefore, imperative that the construct of psychological empowerment (PE) is used to find out to what extent are employees psychologically empowered and does do psychologically empowered employees impact individual work performance within the steel manufacturing organisations.

Individual work performance

Work performance is highly influenced by several major interventions such as organisation's developmental programs, incentives, remuneration and many more, (Ibrahim et al., 2017).

IWP is a key indicator of team and company performance, which contributes to company productivity and competitiveness (Koopmans et al., 2014).

The most important difference worth noting in Koopman et al., (2014) IWP framework is that there is no single questionnaire designed to measure all dimensions of IWP as a collective, rather than the IWP measure designed by Koopmans (2014). This construct is important in establishing the relationship with PE, WE and OCB constructs and to determine the extent these constructs influence IWP. The established relationship will assist in the development of a model that could be used to improve employee performance in the steel manufacturing organisation.

The question that needs to be addressed is what impact psychological empowerment, work engagement and OCB have on employees' individual work performance in steel manufacturing organisations.

Disengagement, amongst high potential employees, leads to decreased productivity and participation. In the worst scenario, if employers leave the situation unattended, high potential employees will disengage and feel invaluable, hence, disengaged employees may lead to less

day-to-day productivity (Othman & Mahmood, 2019). The high rate of safety incidents, rising levels of protests and striking actions within the steel manufacturing organisations are symptoms of a deep-seated problem that requires organisations to pay attention to their employee's engagement levels, psychological empowerment and OCB.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

At the time of the economic uncertainty, employees would be concerned about the security of their jobs. Productive workforce may not remain engaged for a long period without support or positive initiatives provided by the organisation (Othman & Mahmood, 2019). When reaching a plateau state, disengagement and gradual decline on performance is prominent and organisations are likely to encounter the cost of labour, recruitment, development, loss of knowledge and experience, valuable skills, critical expertise, and productivity.

The economic slump within the country and the steel industry problems results in demotivation and disengagement of employees within the organisation. This is clear from the rising rates of sick leave, labour turnover, particularly for technical workers, and perceived low wage/salary yearly (Nhlabatsi, 2014). How can workers in South Africa's steel industry rise to the occasion and fulfil their mandate to achieve goals like sales, productivity, safety, finances and earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation and amortisation (EBITDA)? This could be feasible if the steel manufacturing companies could improve the work attitudes of their employees, as reflected in the constructs of PE and WE and work behaviours that centre on the OCB construct to achieve positive work outcomes by putting an emphasis on the individual work performance construct.

Measures of work engagement, psychological empowerment and OCB-O for health care aides (HCAs) were demonstrated by Ginsburg et al. (2016) in their research work "PE, WE and OCB of Health Care Aides." The study's findings show that understanding HCAs' work attitudes and behaviours is critical for job performance, recruitment programmes, incentive systems, retention, and training strategies. When employees are empowered, it is easier for them to exchange thoughts and ideas at large (Newman et al., 2017).

Employee participation in decision-making, according to Spreitzer (2005), helps employees break free from stagnant mindsets and take the initiative in trying new approaches. Instead of waiting for approval from a supervisor, empowering practices allow employees to choose how they will resolve service issues on their own and surpass clients' expectations by going above and beyond what is expected of them. This means that employees will pro-actively fix any

encountered problem even before their supervisor knows about them and then deliver a quality product/service to the customer without waiting for further instructions from the supervisor. According to Shuck (2011), enhancing employee work engagement has the capacity to improve organisational performance. Kahn (1990) argues that engaged employees are resource efficient, problem-solvers, innovative, and cooperative. Engaged employees also generate new products.

Numerous studies have concurred that engagement is a critical factor in determining an individual's attitudes, behaviours, and performance as well as the productivity, profitability, retention, and even return to shareholders of an organisation (Saks et al., 2022; Schaufeli, 2018). Work engagement is a self-determined motivation through which an employee displays enthusiasm and satisfaction when performing work activities (Bakker et al., 2017). Gruman and Saks (2011) highlight the significance of differentiating between engagement as a behaviour and a state. While some regard engagement as a state, Schaufeli et al. (2002) characterise it as a psychological state with outwardly manifested behaviours.

Kahn (1992) describes the state of engagement as a psychological presence made up of four dimensions: focused, connected, attentive, and integrated. These dimensions are then manifested in behaviours that are emotional, cognitive, and physical. Hence, Kahn (1992) suggest that: (1) employee engagement has a state and behavioural dimension; (2) engagement behaviours are preceded and led by the state of engagement; and (3) performance outcomes are directly related to engagement behaviours.

Saks et al., (2022) point out that managers could give employees tools that will increase their availability. Leaders could foster employee engagement by offering challenging assignments and experiences, providing some oversight and autonomy, presenting performance feedback, and facilitating participation in decision-making, in addition to offering social support (Schaufeli, 2021; Bester et al., 2015).

Employees' citizenship behaviours can be enhanced through this type of empowerment given OCB encompasses seven dimensions, such as civic virtue, organisational loyalty, and helping. It also reflects behaviours beyond official roles. Individual initiative is one OCB dimension that relates to enhancing organisational effectiveness through selfless acts of innovation and creativity that have the potential to bring about positive change (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OCB is characterised as behaviour that is chosen on its own, not governed by formal job requirements and not explicitly acknowledged by a formal reward structure. By lubricating the social systems of the organisation, lowering friction and improving efficiency, OCB is known to enhance an organisation's effectiveness, efficiency and overall performance (Podsakoff & Mac Kenzie, 1997).

Konovsky and Organ (1996) identified five categories of OCB, namely civic virtue, sportsmanship, courtesy, altruism and generalised compliance. Voluntary acts that assist another person in need are referred to as acts of altruism. Courtesy encompasses actions taken to avoid causing trouble for others and to respect their rights. Any behaviour that shows tolerance for less-than-ideal circumstances without raising an objection is referred to as sportsmanship. Civic virtue is defined as positive actions that demonstrate a readiness to engage in responsible participation in the life of an organisation. Finally, generalised compliance refers to actions taken at the discretion of the individual, above and beyond the organisation's minimal standards for attendance.

Empirical and conceptual research in this field suggests two broad dimensions, namely OCBO-behaviours and OCBI-behaviours (Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCB-O are behaviours that benefit the organisation, and OCB-I are behaviours that directly benefit specific individuals. The categories of OCB-O are generalised compliance and civic virtue, while the categories of OCB-I are altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship. This study will use both types of OCB.

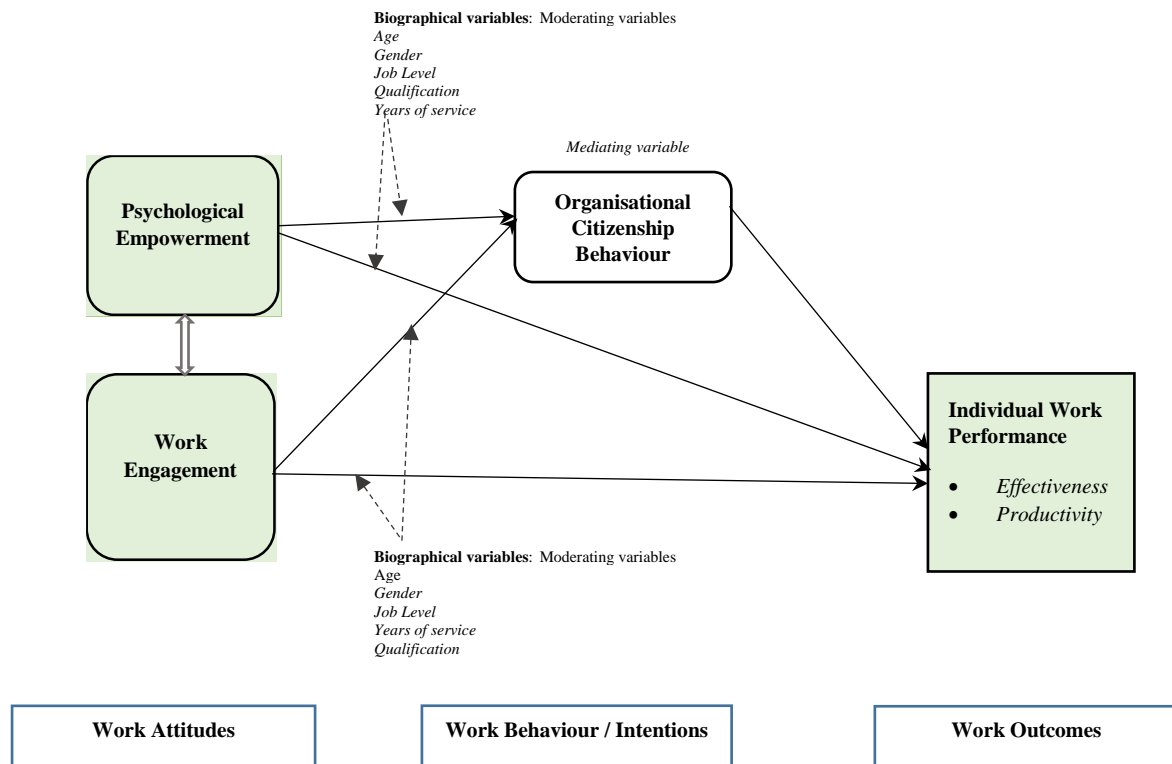
Koopmans et al. (2011) view work performance as three concepts related to individual work performance. Three points should be highlighted concerning work performance: (1) It should be defined in terms of behaviour rather than results; (2) It should only include behaviours that are relevant to the organisation's objectives; and (3) It should be multidimensional.

Moreover, IWP includes task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour (Koopmans et al., 2011). Work performance, therefore, refers to behaviours or actions of employees rather than the results of these actions. (Koopmans et al., 2014). To achieve better and consistent results for groups and entire organisation, continuous attention to and recognition of defining, measuring, tracking and addressing individual work performance is critical (Zeglat & Janbeik, 2019).

Based on the discussions above, the study proposes the hypothesised conceptual model illustrated in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1

Conceptual model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance



Note. This conceptual model summarises the relationship between work attitudes (PE & WE), behaviours (OCB) and outcomes (IWP) with the inclusion of mediated and moderated variables.

In specific terms the testing of the model can add value during the process and developing employees when displaying characteristics of engaged, empowered and performance through citizenship behaviours.

In consideration of the background and problems observed, the following research hypotheses are brought forward and empirically investigated in this study:

H1: Practically significant linear relationship exists between the levels of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.

H2: Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) predict individual work performance (as dependent variable).

H3: Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) predict organisational citizenship behaviour (as dependent variable).

H4: The relationships between psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) and individual work performance (as dependent variable) are mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.

H5: Group differences (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.

H6: Biographical variables (age, job level qualification and years of service) moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).

Several research questions relevant to the literature have been brought forth considering the problem statement and hypotheses already mentioned:

Research questions with regards to the literature review

The following research questions were formulated to address psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance in terms of literature:

- How is psychological empowerment and its dimensions conceptualised in the literature?
- How is work engagement and its dimensions conceptualised in the literature?
- How is organisational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions conceptualised in the literature?
- How did researchers conceptualise individual work performance and its dimensions in the literature?

- What is the nature of the theoretical relationship, by means of a conceptual model, amongst, psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance in the organisational context and how can this relationship be explained in terms of an integrated theoretical model?
- What are the potential implications and limitations of the study as well as ideas for future research?

Research questions with regards to the empirical study

The following research questions were formulated to address empirical study:

- What is the nature of the overall relationship between psychological empowerment dimensions (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact), work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption), organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB-I and OCB-O) as independent variables and individual work performance (task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work performance) as a dependent variable?
- Do psychological empowerment and work engagement significantly predict individual work performance in a steel manufacturing organisation?
- Do psychological empowerment and work engagement significantly predict organisational citizenship behaviour in a steel manufacturing organisation?
- Does organisational citizenship behaviour mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and individual work performance?
- Do group differences (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work?
- Do biographical variables (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance?
- What recommendations can be formulated for individual work performance within the steel manufacturing organisations and what suggestions could be made for possible future research based on the outcomes of this research?

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The following aims are formulated with respect to the abovementioned empirical research questions:

1.4.1 The general aim of the study

The general aim of this study was to develop a scientific model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviours and individual work performance. In addition, it was to determine whether psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviours predict individual work performance. Furthermore, to investigate which biographical variables moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, and work engagement as well as organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. Moreover, as mediating and moderating variables were investigated and reported, the testing of a statistical model was examined and the results are reported in this study to meet the level of PhD required.

1.4.2 Specific aims of the research

The aims for the literature review and empirical study are set out in the following sections.

1.4.2.1 Literature review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are to:

- Conceptualise psychological empowerment and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise work engagement and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise organisational citizenship and its dimensions behaviour from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise individual work performance and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective.
- Explain the theoretical relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour in predicting individual work performance through a conceptual model with specific reference to a steel manufacturing organisation.

1.4.2.2 *Empirical study*

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims are as follows:

- To explore the empirical relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance
- To determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can significantly predict individual work performance in the steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa.
- To determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can significantly predict organisational citizenship behaviour in the steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa.
- To determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement as dependent variables and individual work performance can be mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.
- To determine whether group differences (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.
- To determine whether biographical variables (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).
- To develop a model that would enhance individual work performance of employees in a steel manufacturing organisation.
- Propose recommendations that can be formulated to manage individual work performance, suggest areas that can be pursued for further research in the field of industrial and organisational psychology about individual work performance.

1.5 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

A paradigm is "a fundamental system or perspective that guides the investigator", according to Lincoln and Guba (2000). It is widely assumed that the paradigms we construct in our minds have a significant impact given that they shape the lens through which we perceive the world (Covey, 1989). Saunders et al., (2019), grouped paradigms into five perspectives which are positivism, initial realism, interpretivism, post-modernism and pragmatism and Ugwu et al.,

(2021), in his paper considered commonly used paradigm in the extent of research papers as positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism.

In this study, a theoretical model by Mouton and Marais (1992) was used, which asserts that any research is guided by a specific paradigm perspective, including theoretical and methodological convictions.

- *Positivism research paradigm:* This study followed the positivism research paradigm. Positivist methodology accentuates engaging in research in situations where variables can be controlled. In the natural form of positivism, the only focal point of the study is to investigate the explanatory or causal relationships between variables in the study, as is done in the natural sciences. As such, experimental designs are chosen in the positivist paradigm, including quasi-experimental designs (Park et al., 2020).
- *Methodology:* Methodology is about the design process for conducting research and it is not about the instruments or methods for doing research (Igwenagu, 2016). Naturally, research method flows from one's position of ontology, epistemology and axiology. According to Reynolds et al (2022), the methodology followed when adopting positivism is a quantitative research method. Therefore, the methodology followed in this study was a quantitative research method.
- *Ontology:* This study followed a relativism ontological position. According to Park et al., (2020) the positivist paradigm is based in the assumption that a single tangible reality exists, one that can be understood, identified, and measured. . This study adopts a realistic ontology. Ahmed (2008:2) describes ontology as "One that follows the physical world in which the researchers assume the existence of a world of cause and effect".
- *Epistemology:* Crotty (2003:3) defines epistemology as a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know. According to Ponterotto (2005:131), the relationship between the "knower" (research participant) and the "would-be knower" (the researcher) is the focus of epistemology. Nguyen (2023) refers to epistemology as how we know the truth or reality or what counts as knowledge. This study follows an objectivism epistemological position in which the researcher is to find out "the way things are and the way they really work".

- *Axiology*: According to Ponterotto (2005:133), axiology is the study of the nature of values in the scientific method as it relates to the role of the researcher. Values have no place in the research process, according to positivists. A person's beliefs, aspirations, feelings, and expectations are not considered in scientific research. Any influence that might impede the research process is eliminated or tightly controlled by the researcher when employing standardised, methodical investigative techniques.

1.5.1 Intellectual climate

An open systems paradigm was used to present the literature review on psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. According to Flood (2010), the systems theory approach focused on the components and procedures that engage in dynamic interaction. An organism's existence cannot be fully comprehended in terms of how its constituent parts behave; rather, the components interact with one another. The entire organism is responsible for the behaviour displayed. The individuals and their surroundings coexist. This paradigmatic perspective was essential in revealing the impact that the workplace and social surroundings had on each employee's psychological empowerment, level of work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and productivity. To guarantee an unbiased and scientific examination of the empirical data, the study was based on the presumptions mentioned earlier.

1.5.2 Meta-theoretical statements

According to Babbie and Mouton (2009), meta-theoretical statements are philosophical or schools of thought that reflect the nature of the discipline and provide a framework for the research questions. Models and theories related to the identified variables served as the foundation for the study in the empirical setting. Within the field of study, the research centred around the use of industrial and organisational psychology in the consulting psychology stream. The subsequent meta-theoretical claims were relevant to the research:

1.5.2.1 *Industrial and organisational psychology (IOP)*

According to Bergh and Theron (2009), industrial and organisational psychology (IOP) studies modifies human behaviour in the workplace using a variety of psychological concepts, theories and techniques. IO psychologists' overarching objective is to preserve and enhance organisational function by comprehending the psychological aspects of employee-work environment interaction. WE and PE are related to work attitudes and OCB is related to work

behaviour. IO psychologists evaluate these behaviours and attitudes. The constructs of PE, WE, OCB, IWP and the strength of the relationship between these constructs were all included in the model discovered in this study.

1.5.2.2 *Personnel psychology*

The focus of the field of IO psychology is primarily on the individual. As stated by Bergh and Theron (2009), personnel psychologists focus on using individual differences within and between employees to predict the best fit between the organisation and the employee. Therefore, the study of personnel psychology addresses issues including job analysis, the preservation of significant and rare skills, psychological evaluation, hiring and placement practices, compensation, training and development, to mention a few (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). This study examined the moderating role of age, gender, job level, years of service, qualification in relation to PE, IWP, OCB and WE.

1.5.2.3 *Theoretical models*

The author used the literature review as a basis for developing a conceptual model. The following elements made up the suggested conceptual model that was applied in this study:

- Work engagement: A positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind marked by vigour, dedication and absorption.
- Quality of work and psychological empowerment: A motivational construct manifested in four cognitions, namely, meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.

The concept of work behaviour encompasses OCB, which had two dimensions, namely OCB-O and OCB-I. The work outcomes of OCB comprise of task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB), with an emphasis on IWP.

The following models were consulted as the baseline to developing a proposed model:

- The WE experience and its antecedents and outcomes (Schaufeli, 2013).
- A heuristic framework of IWP (Koopmans et al., 2013).
- The OCB Model (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994).
- The Healthy Work Organisation Model (Wilson et al., 2004).

1.5.2.4 *Conceptual descriptions*

Below is a brief explanation of each variable:

- PE is the experience of intrinsic motivation that an individual experience in relation to their work role and is based on self-perceptions (Spreitzer, 1995).
- WE, according to Schaufeli et al. (2006), is “a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”.
- OCB is defined in terms of the intended recipient or target (Lee & Allen, 2002). The OCB in this case, differentiate between two types of behaviours: those aimed at the individual (OCB-I) and those aimed at the organisation (OCB-O).
- OWP, which is described as actions that are relevant to the goals of the organisation (Campbell, 1990). According to Koopmans et al. (2011:856), this definition includes three concepts: "(1) work performance should be defined in terms of behaviour rather than results; (2) work performance includes only those behaviours that are relevant to the organisation's goals; and (3) work performance is multidimensional." Moreover, based on Koopmans et al. (2013), IWP includes task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviour.

1.5.3 **Central hypotheses**

The following was the main hypotheses formulated for this study:

Individual work performance is predicted by psychological empowerment, work engagement (work attitudes) and organisational citizenship behaviour (work behaviour).

Additionally, the relationship between IWP, OCB, PE and WE is moderated by employees belonging to different biographical groups.

1.6 **RESEARCH DESIGN**

Research designs are plans and procedures for conducting research that range from general hypotheses to specific techniques for gathering data and analysis (Cresswell, 2008). Abutabenjeh et al., (2018) explain that there are considerable similarities found in describing the concept of research design, however, what is critical though, is that there are elusive differences in how the approaches to the research design are carried out. According to

Creswell (2008), the choice of research design is influenced by the researcher's perspective assumptions, inquiry procedures, or strategies, certain techniques for gathering, analysing and interpreting data, the nature of the research problem, the researcher's prior experiences and the study's intended audience.

For this study, a cross-sectional survey design was used to target permanent employees from all categories of a steel manufacturing organisation, with the aim of describing the empirical relationship between the variables. The respondents were presented with questions through an electronic survey concerning their characteristics, beliefs, opinions and past and current behaviour (Fischer et al 2023; Maree, 2007; Neuman, 2006; Oates et al., 2004).

1.6.1 Research variables

Lee (2000) indicates a variable as a symbol that has values or symbols assigned to it. This is the most common method of classifying variables as independent or dependent. The assumed cause and presumed effect of the dependent variable is known as an independent variable. The antecedent is the independent variable and the consequent is the dependent variable. IWP is the dependent variable in this study, while PE, WE and OCB are the independent variables. The aim of the study was to determine whether these variables had any meaningful relationships with one another.

1.6.2 Methods to guarantee reliability and validity

The following measures were put in place to ensure reliability and validity of instruments:

1.6.2.1 Reliability

Souza et al. (2017) defines reliability as the ability to reproduce a consistent result in time and space, or from different observers, presenting aspects on coherence, stability, equivalence and homogeneity. It is one of the main quality criteria of an instrument. Reliability refers mainly to stability, internal consistency and equivalence of a measure.

In this research process, reliability was ensured as follows:

- a) Data collection – a simple random sample of employees in the four business units of a steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa was used to invite participants in the study. An electronic survey was used to collate data from participants.

- b) Data management – manual data were collected using online questionnaires and were stored on the system with a password code known by the researcher.
- c) Data analysis - To guarantee the accuracy of the analysis, the data were analysed using the statistical programme SPSS 2015. The reliability of the instruments used to compile the data were established by using Cronbach alpha coefficients to determine internal consistency. For research instruments, a reliability coefficient of 0.70 to 0.75 was sufficient (Blanche, et al., 2006).

1.6.2.2 *Validity*

Validity refers to the fact that a tool measures exactly what it proposes to measure. Validity is not an instrument characteristic and must be determined regarding a specific matter, once it refers to a defined population (Souza et al., 2017)

In this study, the aim and problem statement served as guidelines, while models and theories relevant to the research topic were used to ensure the validity of the literature review. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to verify the validity of the instruments in the new setting. The measuring tools chosen for the study were in line with the models and theories that served as its foundation. and that they were displayed in a uniform way. To ensure external validity, a straightforward random sampling was carried out and design validity was attained by eliminating tenable rivalry hypotheses.

1.6.3 Unit of study

The things or objects that are studied to create generalisations about them and further clarify their differences are referred to as the unit of analysis (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The unit of analysis in this study were the individual employee's, with a focus on PE, WE, OCB and IWP. In terms of biographical variables, the unit of analysis were the sub-groups. The study's unit of analysis were expanded to include all employees of a steel manufacturing organisation.

1.6.4 Methods to ensure ethical research principles

The study's foundation was established by the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and the Health Professions Councils of South Africa (HPCSA) ethical guidelines. The Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology's Research Committee was contacted to request ethical approval to carry out the study. The participants gave their informed consent and all information was handled in confidence, including the results.

The participants were asked not to write any information that could reveal their identities or reveal their names to maintain confidentiality. The organisation that provided the data would be the only recipient of the results and any suggestions made would be for the organisation's advantage. The study's subjects did not suffer any injury (Babbie & Mouton 2009; Blanche, et al., 2006).

1.6.5 Delimitations of the study

The aim of this research was to create a conceptual model that would enhance each worker's productivity within the South African steel industry. To create the conceptual model, four research constructs - psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance - were used.

The conceptual model was developed by consulting and utilising four well-known models as a starting point. These models included the following: the Model of OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1994), the Heuristic Framework of IWP (Koopmans et al., 2013), the experience of WE and its Antecedents and Outcomes (Schaufeli, 2013) and the Model of Healthy Work Organisation (Wilson et al., 2004).

The quantitative method was followed in this study and a simple random sample of 300 – 350 permanent employees across the levels within four identified steel manufacturing business units in South Africa were used in the study.

1.7 RESEARCH METHOD

There were two phases to the study. The review of the literature was the first phase and the empirical study was the second.

1.7.1 Phase one: Literature review

In this phase, the following proposals were made.

Step 1: Conceptualise psychological empowerment from a theoretical perspective

Step 2: Conceptualise work engagement from a theoretical perspective

Step 3: Conceptualise organisational citizenship behaviours from a theoretical perspective

Step 4: Conceptualise individual work performance from a theoretical perspective

Step 5: Integrate the variables and conceptualise the theoretical relationship between the variables

Step 6: Formulate the study hypotheses to achieve the study objectives.

1.7.2 Phase two: Empirical study

Phase two consisted of the following steps:

Step 1: Research design

A cross-sectional survey design was used to describe the empirical relationship between the variables among permanent employees from the steel manufacturing organisation across all categories (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The e-survey was used to collect data from respondents regarding their beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and past or current behaviour.

Step 2: Identification and characterisation of the sample

Simple random sampling of 314 permanent employees across post levels (management, specialists and bargaining category employees) within four different business units of steel manufacturing organisation were given equal opportunity to participate in the study.

Step 3: Choosing and motivating the questionnaires

Part A- biographical data regarding age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service.

Part B- questionnaire relating to psychological empowerment.

Part C- questionnaire relating to work engagement.

Part D- questionnaire relating to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Part E – questionnaire relating to individual work performance.

1.7.3 Instruments used to measure the variables

The measuring empowerment questionnaire - PEQ (Spreitzer, 1995)

The measuring empowerment questionnaire (PEQ) (Spreitzer, 1995) was utilised. This questionnaire contains 12 statements that assess psychological empowerment. Each construct is assessed using three items. The construct has four sub-dimensions (meaning, i.e. "My job activities are meaningful to me", competence, i.e. "I am confident about my ability to

do my job", self-determination, i.e. "I can decide on my own how to do my work", and impact, i.e. "I have significant influence over what happens in my department") (Spreitzer, 1995). The aim of Spreitzer's (1995) instrument was to create and validate a measure of psychological empowerment in a workplace setting, thereby adding to the expanding body of literature on empowerment.

As stated in Spreitzer's (1995) study, the PEQ items had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.72 for the insurance sample and 0.62 for the industrial sample. The significance of this data leads one to conclude that the overall reliabilities are acceptable. For the empowerment items, internal consistency and test-retest reliability were established and Konczak et al. (2000) discovered a high alpha reliability coefficient of 0.86 in their investigation.

In support of Spreitzer's four-empowerment dimension, Siegal and Gardener (2000) discovered a fourth dimension. According to Liden et al. (2000), each sub-dimension of the scale's construct validity was found to have an overall impact (0.86), self-determination (0.85), meaning (0.92), competence (0.77) and empowerment (0.92). A study by Dee et al. (2002) supports the four-factor structure. In 2006, Moye and Henkin verified the four subscales. This instrument's validity and reliability will be verified once more.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale - (Schaufeli, 2003)

The vigour, dedication and absorption subscales of the Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002), which assesses participants' vigour, dedication and absorption in their current jobs, were used to measure work engagement. The assessment was a 17-item, seven-point Likert scale, with one representing "strongly disagree" and seven representing "strongly agree" (Schaufeli et al., 2002). For instance, "At work, I persevere, even when things do not go well"; "I am enthusiastic about my job"; and "Time flies when I'm working" are examples of items that demonstrate vigour, dedication and absorption. The Work Engagement Scale has a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.90.

Bothma and Roodt (2012) conducted second-level factor analyses on the sub score inter-correlation matrixes on the three dimensions of the UWES with the aim to confirm the scale's two factors, which were suggested by Kaiser's (1970) criterion and extracted using principal axis factoring and a direct oblimin rotation. These factors explained approximately 64% of the variance in the factor space. Their results did not support the UWESs three-factor structure. Gwamanda et al., (2024) in the study to test the psychometric properties of the Utrecht Work

Engagement Scale (UWES) on a Zimbabwean sample obtained high Cronbach alpha coefficient for the three subscales with vigour (0.78), dedication (0.79) and absorption (0.80).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen 2002)

The relevant scale aligned with the objective of this study was OCBO and OCBI behaviours measured using 16 items based on Lee and Allen's (2002) refinement of the initial OCB scale. These items are divided into two scales: (i) eight of these items were used to assess the OCBI (for example, "I help others who have been absent"), and (ii) the other eight items were used to assess the OCBO (for example, "I take action to protect the organisation from potential problems"). Cronbach's alpha for the subscales measuring OCBI was 0.86, while OCBO was 0.90. The overall OCB scale was measured by adding up the two types of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO) and its overall Cronbach alpha was 0.92. This instrument's validity and reliability have been reaffirmed. The two-factor study was validated by the study's findings.

Individual Work Performance Questionnaire - IWPQ (Koopmans, 2015)

The reviewed Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ), created by Koopmans (2015), was used to measure each employee's performance at work. Three components made up an individual's work performance: task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviour.

The 18 items on the questionnaire were rated on a five-point Likert scale, with five representing "always" and one representing "never." "I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time" is an example item for task performance; "I took on extra responsibilities" is an example item for the contextual performance dimension; and "I made problems at work bigger than they were" is an example of counterproductive work behaviour. Excellent internal consistency of 0.78 for task performance, 0.85 for contextual performance and 0.79 for counterproductive work behaviour were found in the psychometric properties of the IWPQ (Koopmans et al., 2011). This instrument's validity and reliability have been reaffirmed. The study's findings supported the two-factor analysis rather than the original three.

Step 4: Research procedure

Business units' managers were informed of the research aims and objectives. This information was also devolved down to employees in different operating sites within a steel manufacturing organisation participating in the study. The employee gave their informed consent before taking part in the research study. Respondent anonymity was ensured and the information was handled with extreme confidentiality. Participants were provided access to an e-mailed link directing them to the e-survey site to fill in questionnaires.

Step 5: Data administration – collection, management and storage

Data were collected via electronic means, computer, laptop. Employees were randomly invited to fill in the e-survey questionnaires online (internal survey site). Data were protected and only accessed through access code known by the researcher.

Step 6: Data Analysis

To analyse the data, IBM SPSS (version 28, 2021) was utilised. Reliability with regards to PEQ, UWES, OCBQ and IWPQ items was evaluated using both inferential statistics, such as correlations and descriptive statistics, such as means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis, in the data analysis process. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to specify the relationship between the constructs. 95% ($p \leq 0.05$) was chosen as the confidence interval level for statistical significance. For the practical significance of the correlation coefficients, cut-off points of 0.30 (medium effect) and 0.50 (large effect) were established (Cohen, 1992).

Multiple regression analysis was used to calculate the percentage of the dependent variable (individual work performance) that can be explained by the independent variables (WE, PE, OCB and biographical data). To ascertain the mediating effect, group means from various groups on biographical variables were compared using moderated regression analysis.

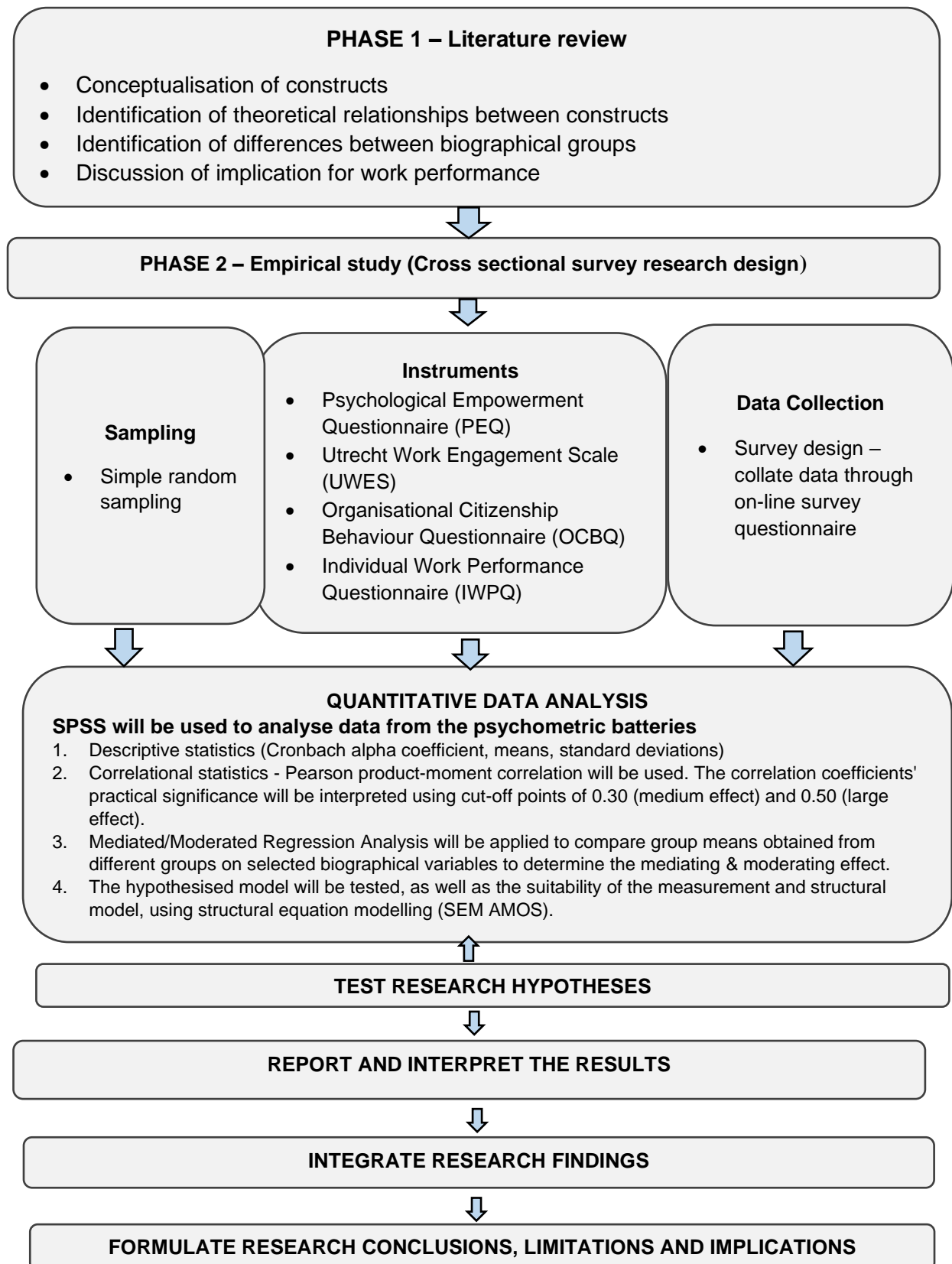
The hypothesised model was tested using structural equation modelling (SEM AMOS), which was also used to assess the measurement and structural model's suitability. The specification and testing of a measurement model was done using goodness-of-fit indices.

Step 7: Discussion

The literature and study assumptions are discussed in relation to the research findings. Inconsistent results are emphasised, conclusions are drawn and suggestions for additional study are put forward.

Figure 1.2

Flow chart of research method



Note. Adapted flow chart of the research method. From *The Practice of Social Research*, by Babbie and Mouton, 2009. Copyright 2009 by Babbie and Mouton.

1.8 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusion, limitations and recommendations are discussed in the final chapter of this study (Chapter 8).

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The structure of the study, in terms of chapter layout, is as follows:

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the study

This chapter provided the reader with background information on the topic while outlining the variables to be investigated. The chapter also provided guidelines for the structure of the research as well as the methodology for data collection and analysis.

Chapter 2: Psychological empowerment

The researcher examined the literature on the first psychological empowerment construct in this chapter. The researcher explained the origin and meaning of this construct, its definition, compared how other researchers have used it in their research and the results they found. The discussion included the validity and reliability for the instrument measuring psychological empowerment (MEQ), (Spreitzer, 1995) and the model behind psychological empowerment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Chapter 3: Work engagement

The researcher researched the literature on the second construct of WE in this chapter. The researcher explained the origin and meaning of this construct, its definition, compared how other researchers have used it in their research and the results they found. The validity and reliability of the tools used to measure work engagement were discussed, (Schaufeli et al., 2002) and the model behind WE (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Chapter 4: Organisational citizenship behaviour

The third construct of OCB was examined in this chapter's literature review. Here, the researcher explained the origin and meaning of this construct, its definition, compared how other researchers have used it in their research and the results they found. The model underlying OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and the validity and reliability of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCBQ) measuring tool were also discussed.

Chapter 5: Individual work performance

In this chapter, the researcher conducted a literature review on the fourth construct of IWP. Here, the researcher clarified the definition, history and significance of this construct—the concept of IWP (Koopmans 2014). The validity and reliability of the framework supporting IWP, as well as the instrument measuring individual work performance (IWPQ) (Koopmans, 2014) were also discussed.

Chapter 6: Empirical research design and methodology

The research design that was selected to fit the study and research methodology that provides support for the study were the main topics of this chapter. The validity and reliability of the instruments, IWPQ (Koopmans, 2014), UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2002), OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and PEQ (Spreitzer, 1995) were outlined. Also, the confirmatory analysis, structural equation modelling, mediating and moderating regression analysis, correlation, and group mean difference.

Chapter 7: Results of empirical research

With regard to Chapter 7, the researcher focused discussions on the results emanating from the research analysis as well as its implications in the steel manufacturing organisation concerned.

Chapter 8: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The research study was concluded in this chapter with well-organised discussions and findings. The chapter concluded with recommendations for the steel manufacturing organisation, recommendations for future research and the field of industrial and organisational psychology. It also noted the limitations encountered during the study.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the research, the problem statement, the study's motivation and the definition of its aims. To build and evaluate the suggested model of PE, WE, OCB and IWP, a literature review search and an empirical investigation were employed. The research model was selected to align with the study paradigm. There was a discussion of the research design, methods and chapter layout.

CHAPTER 2: PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Chapter 2 discuss the initial aim of the literature review, which is to conceptualise psychological empowerment. By incorporating the existing literature, the research is contextualised by highlighting the major trends in psychological empowerment. In chapter 2, the researcher reviews the extent of psychological empowerment as an important characteristic that impact the work performance of an individual employee in the workplace.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The word, empowerment has been used to describe a variety of specific interventions, as well as the presumed effects of those interventions on employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, Zimmerman, 2000). Such interventions include resource allocation by the leader, delegation of authority, participative management and motivation (Bandura, 1986; Burke, 1986; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; McClelland, 1975; Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005). Many researchers consider psychological empowerment, as empowerment at the individual level of analysis (Zimmerman, 2000), which becomes a beneficial factor that boosts customer satisfaction, team effectiveness and productivity (Gardner et al., 2011; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Kirkman et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 1999).

According to Zimmerman (2000), psychological empowerment should not be interpreted as individualism, the promotion of one ideology over another, or simply an intrapsychic phenomenon; rather, psychological empowerment includes beliefs that goals can be achieved, awareness of resources and factors that hinder or enhance one's efforts to achieve goals, and efforts to fulfil those goals. Therefore, the four dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact proposed by Spreitzer (1995) are used to measure employees' feelings of PE in the workplace. These measurement dimensions are supported widely by scholars in the research field on PE (Bester et al., 2016; Bhatnager, 2012; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Fong & Snape, 2015; Ginsburg et al., 2016).

Is there a relationship between empowered employees and job satisfaction? This is a commonly asked question. One must consider the four dimensions of empowerment as well as earlier findings and results when responding to this question. Meaningfulness is the most compelling theoretical argument among the four dimensions of PE for a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Fourie, 2009; Gholifar & Gholami, 2011; Liden et al., 2000). According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), people who believe their jobs are important and worthwhile are more satisfied with their jobs than those who do not believe they are important at all.

Positive relationships between work satisfaction and the other dimensions of empowerment have also been viewed from different perspectives. In terms of the impact dimension, people should feel satisfied with their jobs if they believe they have a direct influence on outcomes that have an impact on the organisation (Spreitzer, 1990). Furthermore, having a sense of control or self-determination over one's work is rewarding because any accomplishments can be attributed to the person doing the work rather than to others. Similar findings were made by Brown and Petersen (1993), who discovered a relationship between increased job satisfaction and task autonomy and decision-making latitude.

Batista et al. (2017), in the dimension of autonomy, obtained a very high value of mean = 4.05 and standard deviation = 0.59; and competence perception of mean = 4.2, standard deviation = 0.02 and obtained a mean (M) of 6.07 and a standard deviation (SD) of 0.88. According to Batista et al. (2017), fulfilling fundamental psychological needs results in behaviours driven by autonomy and high levels of life satisfaction. Carless (2004) discovered that impact was not a significant predictor of overall job satisfaction, but rather of present job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.24$, $t = 3.84$, $p < 0.001$). No relationship was discovered between job satisfaction and self-determination (Carless, 2004).

Finally, studies on self-efficacy show that people who believe they can succeed are happier at work than people who worry they will not measure up. Martinko and Gardner (1982) point out that experiencing feelings of helplessness due to a fear of failure can make an individual feel less satisfied with their work than those who are confident in their abilities.

Miesera and Gebhardt (2018) compared vocational pre-service teachers' attitudes, self-efficacy, and experiences with inclusive education in the Canadian and German school systems, discovering that experience and attitudes were the most important predictors of self-efficacy. Attitudes and self-efficacy are correlated ($r = 0.40$), as is experience and self-efficacy ($r = 0.35$). These results demonstrate the importance of different dimensions that influence self-efficacy in individuals' performance.

The illustration suggests that there is strong theoretical support for the idea that psychological empowerment - which includes the four concepts of meaningfulness, competence, self-determination and impact and job satisfaction are positively related.

Spreitzer et al. (1999) found that various PE dimensions are related to different elements of OCB in their study "Empowered to Lead: The Role of Psychological Empowerment in Leadership." Specifically, they found that (i) the meaning dimension had a high correlation

with courtesy, (ii) the competence dimension correlated with conscientiousness and sportsmanship, (iii) the self-determination dimension correlated with altruism, and (iv) the impact dimension correlated with conscientiousness. These results are an indication that PE would likely inculcate the spirit of innovativeness, productivity and influencing mind-set amongst leaders and individual employees within organisations.

2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

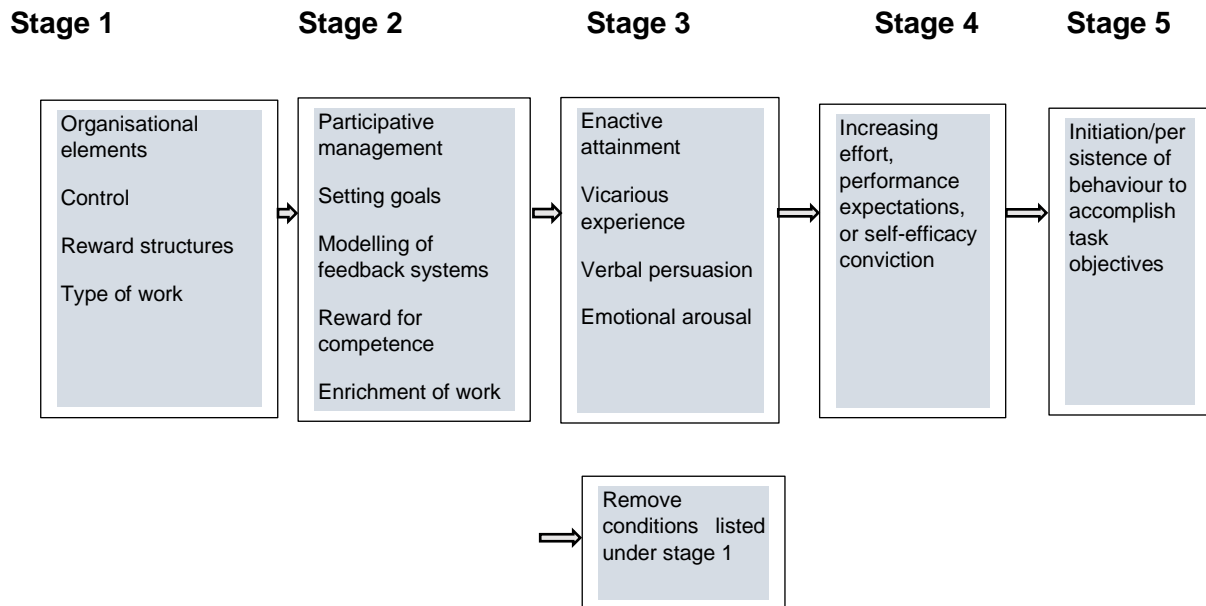
The 1980s saw the introduction of the concept of empowerment (Blanchard et al., 1996; Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000; Whetten & Cameron, 1998). The concept of psychological empowerment attracted the attention of many scholars and researchers, including Spreitzer (1995), Bandura (1986), Conger and Kanungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990). During the conceptualisation of the psychological empowerment process, these aspects were critically considered.

2.2.1 Empowerment process

Figure 2.1 below highlights the views by Conger and Kanungo (1988) to address the construct of empowerment and its underlying processes based on proven evidence from previous management researchers and practitioners and from the management and psychology literature. Authors outlined the empowerment process to show that the process is not the same as sharing or delegating power but rather that it is an enabling mechanism to empowerment.

Figure 2.1

The process of empowerment stages



Note. The process of empowerment stages. From the empowerment process: Integrating theory and practices, by Conger and Kanungo, 1988, *The Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), p. 471. Copyright 1988 by Conger and Kanungo.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) connected expectancy and self-efficacy theories to empowerment as a motivational phenomenon, adhering to the process theory approach. According to expectancy theory, an individual's motivation to put forward greater effort in each task is based on two types of expectations: (a) that their effort will result in a desired level of performance, and (b) that their performance will produce desired outcomes. According to Bandura (1986), the former is known as the self-efficacy expectation, while the latter is known as the outcome expectation.

Figure 2.1 implies that empowering is enabling in terms of how it raises subordinates' convictions in their own effectiveness rather than increasing subordinates' expectations for positive performance outcomes. Even when desired outcomes are not achieved, individuals may feel empowered and their beliefs reinforced, particularly when leaders recognise their performance.

There are five stages in the process of empowerment, as mapped out by Conger and Kanungo (1988):

- The stage 1 involves diagnosing the internal organisational factors, supervision, reward structure and job nature that contribute to subordinates' sense of helplessness. This phase aimed to identify variables that impact individual empowerment in an organisation either favourably or unfavourably.
- The application of manager empowerment strategies and techniques (enhancement of work, goal-setting, feedback system, modelling, competence-based reward and modelling) constitutes the 2nd stage. Given that the aforementioned tactics are essentially meant to inspire higher-achieving individuals, groups and the workforce as a whole, it is evident that they have an impact on workplace empowerment.
- Using four sources—verbal persuasion, emotional arousal, vicarious experience and active attainment, which constitute stage 3, is supplying subordinates with information about their own self-efficacy. Employees who are aware of what is going on in their workplace will feel more empowered; therefore, self-efficacy data supports individuals' feelings of empowerment.
- Because of stage three (increasing effort, performance expectations, or belief in personal efficacy), subordinates experience empowerment in stage 4. In stage five, the behavioural effects of empowerment are observed (initiation of behaviour to accomplish tasks objectives).
- Stage 5, visible effects of empowerment become evident with the aim of consistence and sustenance of positive behaviour to achieve task objectives.

The stages outlined above sought to provide a holistic empowerment process to be taken care of by managers and supervisors in creating enabling environment for individual employees to express their mind, skills, talent freely in executing their tasks thereby showing a feeling of being empowered.

The process of empowerment stages reinforces the feeling of empowerment and belief to employees by the leaders' empowerment actions as outlined through the five stages. It is important to show how these steps are/could be applied.

In accordance with Conger and Kanungo's (1988) five phases of empowerment, Pastor (1996) provided context for the following stages of empowerment, during which the team and manager function:

- During stage 1, decisions are taken by the manager and notify the team. At this stage managers operate at the pre-stage one level, deciding with no input from the team.
- In stage 2, the manager solicits team feedback, makes decisions based on those suggestions, and communicates with the team.
- At stage 3, the manager and team discuss the situation, solicit team proposals and input make decisions, and notify the team.
- In stage 4, management and the team collaborate to make decisions, further strengthening the relationship.
- During stage 5, the manager assigned decision-making to the team. The team operates completely autonomously, making critical decisions which they may or may not inform management about.

Al-Dmour et al. (2018) describe empowerment process in three phases as outlined:

- Information sharing involves breaking down traditional hierarchies and empowering employees to take on responsibilities.
- Promote autonomy and independence throughout the organisation.
- Self-conducted teams offer benefits such as job satisfaction, attitude change, and improved employee-manager relationships.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) note contextual factors that played a role in the decline in members of the organisation's self-efficacy beliefs. These contextual elements are divided into the following four categories:

- Organisational factors: These comprise highly centralised organisational resources, start-up endeavours, competitive pressures, interpersonal bureaucratic climate, inadequate communications/network-forming systems and major organisational changes/transitions.
- Negativism (focusing on mistakes), authoritarianism (strong control) and a lack of justification for decisions and actions are characteristics of the supervisory style.
- Reward systems: These comprise non-contingency (randomly assigned rewards), low incentive value, absence of innovation- or competence-based rewards and low incentive value of rewards.

- Job design challenges include unclear roles, insufficient training and support, unattainable goals, insufficient authority or discretion, limited task variety, limited opportunities for advancement, and limited participation in programmes and decisions that impact job performance. Other issues include a lack of appropriate/necessary resources and networking opportunities, highly structured work routines, a high level of rule structure, a lack of meaningful goals or tasks, and limited interaction with senior management.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) also emphasise sources of self-efficacy information as well as empowering leadership and/or supervision practises. The following are examples of effective leadership and supervision techniques: (a) expressing confidence in subordinates while maintaining high performance standards; (b) creating opportunities for subordinates to participate in decision-making; (c) granting autonomy free from bureaucratic constraints; and (d) establishing motivating and/or significant goals.

The abovementioned contextual factors are meant to alert managers about the negative impact these factors could have on their subordinates and affect individual empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Coetzee and de Villiers (2010) highlight contextual factors that potentially influence organisational operations as well as workers' engagement and the sense of well-being at work to include role ambiguity, work relationships, tools and equipment, career advancement, job security, lack of job autonomy, workload, compensation and benefits, lack of leadership support and work-home interface.

Lee and Ko (2010) discovered that individual-level variables such as job position, years of experience, employment status, self-efficacy, and positive affectivity were positively associated with performance. De Villiers-Scheepers (2011) found contributing contextual factors to self-efficacy beliefs within organisations as financial incentives (pay for performance, recreational facilities), social incentives (verbal recognition, encouragement and appreciation of employees), job design incentives (autonomy, growth through career development and recognition of individual performance), Incentives inherent in the organisational culture (the size of the firm, organisational structure and leadership style) and organisational freedom (autonomy and discretion employees enjoy when making decisions about performing their work in the way they believe is most effective).

De Villiers-Scheepers (2011) found a significant difference in social incentives between ICT and service firms, with a 90% significance level and p-value near $p = 0.05$. ICT firms were more likely to offer social incentives (mean = 7.224) than service firms (mean = 6.851).

There were no significant differences in the formal acknowledgement offered by ICT or service firms ($p = 0.143$). However, there were significant differences in the means of formal acknowledgement rewards for firms with a low entrepreneurial orientation (mean = 5.278), moderate entrepreneurial orientation (mean = 6.235), and high entrepreneurial orientation (mean = 6.362). De Villiers-Scheepers (2011) found no significant differences in organisational freedom among firms with low, moderate, and high (mean = 6.053, 6.878, and 7.077, respectively).

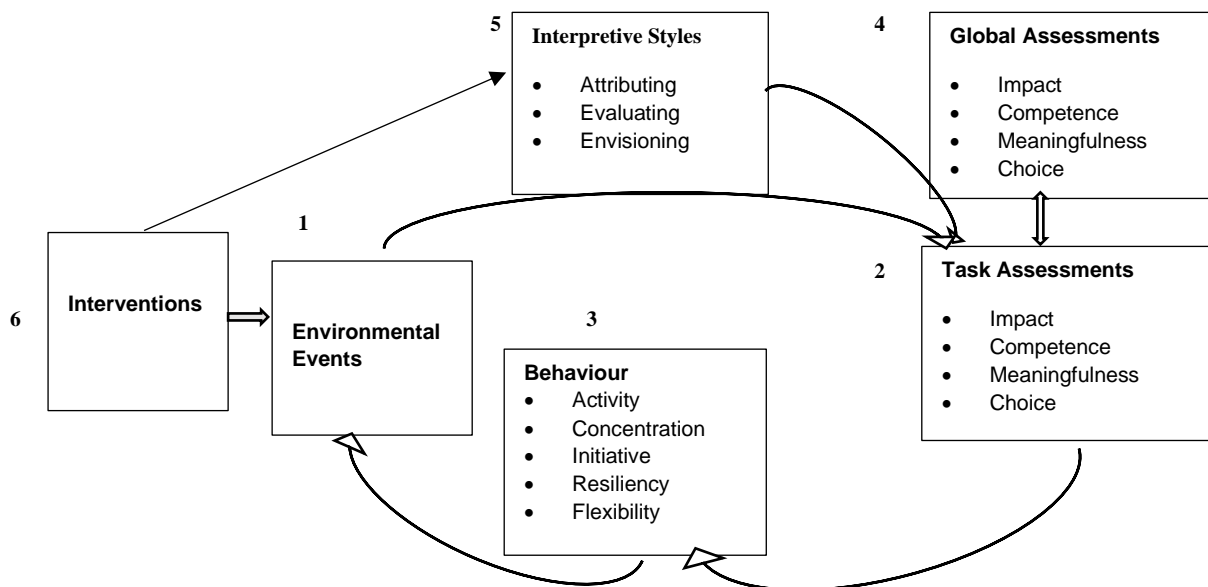
2.2.2 Cognitive model of empowerment

Figure 2.2 depicts Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) cognitive model, which aimed to expand on the cognitive components of empowerment. The model concluded that worker empowerment is based on four cognitions (task assessment): sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define the cognitive model of empowerment core as an ongoing cycle of environmental events, task assessments, and behaviour, in addition to the model's global assessment, interpretive styles, and interventions.

The model describes both the environment and the events that occur within it. It informs the individual about the implications of current task behaviour as well as conditions and events that may influence future behaviour. Individuals who exhibit activity, concentration, initiative, resiliency, and flexibility are more likely to achieve outcomes, which provide additional evidence of competence, choice, and impact on meaningful goals. As a result, task assessments have the potential to initiate self-reinforcing cycles due to their effects on behaviour and subsequent outcomes.

Figure 2.2

Cognitive model of empowerment



Note. The model of cognitive empowerment developed by Thomas and Velthouse. From Cognitive Elements of Empowerment: An "Interpretive Model of Intrinsic Task Motivation" by K. W Thomas and B. A Velthouse, 1990, *Academy of Management Review*, 15(4), p. 666. Copyright 1990 by the NPS Institutional Archive.

The model assists individual understanding of the task at hand by assessing the task and surrounding environment to take an action with confidence. It's a cognitive processing of the work situation and how to complete the task successfully. The steps are meant to simplify the model.

Following environmental events by Thomas and Velthouse (1990: 671-676) are the task assessments input. According to such input shapes the individual's task assessments regarding:

- **Impact** (the extent to which an action is perceived as "making a difference" in achieving the task's objective or having the desired effects in the task environment).
- **Competence/personal mastery/self-efficacy** (refers to the extent to which an individual can competently carry out task activities when trying).
- **Meaningfulness** (focuses on evaluating the task's goal or purpose considering the individual's own standards or ideals).

- **Choice** (it is concerned with a person's causal accountability for their deeds, or whether their behaviour is thought to be self-determined) (Thomas & Velthous, 1990).

These task assessments, in turn, energise and sustain the individuals' behaviour. This behaviour then impacts environmental events and the cycle continues. The task assessment is followed by *global assessments* which are an individual's generalised beliefs about impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice. These are said to be abstract beliefs in contrast to the specific assessments that motivates a persons' behaviour in each task situation. They represent cumulative learnings from previous assessments and are used to fill in gaps when assessing novel situations. For example, individuals with a high global assessment are more optimistic about the outcome of the task at hand, whereas those with a low global assessment may be pessimistic.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) explain that the global assessment measure comes because of assessing the four assessment variables, that is, the global impact, global competence, global meaningfulness and global choice. The *global impact* assesses individual perceived impact of a person's behaviour. Individuals with high global impact usually have higher expectancies of impact on specific tasks and shows proactive behaviour, resiliency to setbacks and measures of emotional setbacks. An individual's generalised sense of their capacity to function well in novel circumstances is embodied in their *global competence*. *Global meaningfulness* illustrates the combined degree to which individuals psychologically invest in the tasks in which they participate, also known as their overall level of caring or commitment. Low global meaningfulness levels are associated with alienation and suggest a diminished expectation of new tasks having meaning. *Global choice* is a person's generalised tendency to experience self as origin or pawn. This entails interpreting situations in terms of higher or lower levels of self-determination.

The global assessment element is followed by interpretive styles, whose tendencies are related to an individual's interpretive processing of events. This processing includes subjective information about evaluation, attribution, and visualisation. Specific approaches to each process are claimed to have a direct impact on an individual's task assessments (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Attributing: Causal attributions are categorised into three dimensions: internal versus external, stable versus unstable, and global versus specific. Any attributional style that favours stable, global explanations for setbacks is considered to have a negative impact on motivation by exaggerating the presence of obstacles, whether internal (general, permanent lack of competence) or external (general, permanent non-impactfulness of the environment). Similarly, any style that neglects stable, global attributions for success is expected to disadvantage an individual by lowering assessments of competence and/or influence.

Evaluating. Dysfunctional standards take the form of unqualified and absolute requirements. Such high expectations are difficult to meet, and any outcome that falls short of complete perfection is viewed negatively. In this model, absolutistic standards tend to reduce impact assessments.

Envisioning. This third process involves cognitive imaginary future events, which are visualisations or predictions of what may occur. For example, high achievers appear to work harder at anticipating the positive and worrying less about the negative. According to this model, this type of visualisation boosts motivation by influencing task assessments of impact, competence, and meaningfulness. Envisioning success enables a person to focus on his or her purpose and its meaning.

The final step is **empowering interventions**, which offer methods for influencing the variables in the model to improve an individual's task assessments while gradually increasing global assessments. Two broad intervention strategies are identified: changing the environmental events on which the individual bases his or her task assessments and changing the individual's interpretation styles of those events.

Environmental changes. This refers to judgements about task assessments and empowerment that are influenced by objective variables in the individuals' environment. Such variables include but not limited to leadership, be it charismatic or transformative, delegation of authority, job design and reward systems. These variables are measured against individual's perception of his/her impact on the task at hand, competence regarding the task execution, meaningfulness of the task and individual choice/self-determination.

Strategies for interpretive interventions. This refers to acquired habits rather than innate abilities. These habits are rarely used as learning activities, and most people are unaware of how they influence their interpretations of events. Regardless of whether the results are positive or negative, the style must remain consistent. However, such styles can be altered by making people aware of the assumptions inherent in a style and teaching them to unconsciously monitor their ongoing interpretations and consequences.

Spreitzer (1994) supports the findings of Thomas and Velthouse (1990). Lee (2001) measured task assessments as part of an experimental laboratory investigation of the effects of positive feedback upon intrinsic task motivation. In that study, self-report ratings of task assessments, when summed across assessment dimensions, correlated very strongly with two pencil-and-paper measures of intrinsic motivation that were available at the time.

Path analysis also revealed that task assessments mediated the causal connection between positive feedback (the experimental manipulation) and intrinsic motivation ratings on those measures.

According to Seibert et al. (2004), psychological empowerment acts as a mediator between the empowerment climate and individual job performance, with the structural empowerment climate linked to psychological empowerment.

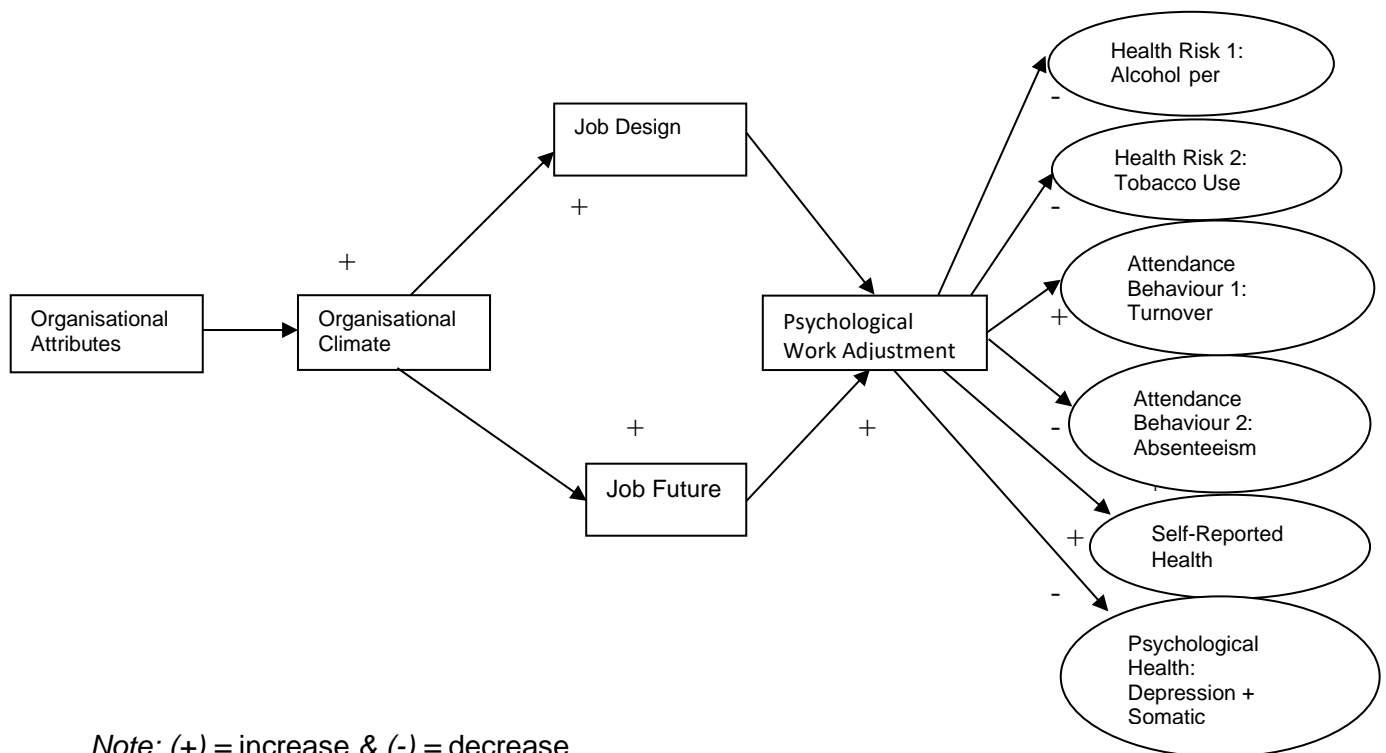
The Wilson et al. (2004) model (figure 2.3) is included to provide additional context for psychological empowerment in the workplace and its relevance to the study is briefly described.

2.2.3 Model of healthy work organisation

Figure 2.3 depicts the healthy work organisation model (Wilson et al., 2004), which aims to improve work organisation health by focusing on job satisfaction, organisation commitment, job stress, and business outcomes. According to Wilson et al.'s (2004:142) model, actions to improve work organisation typically involve changes to one or more of three broad work domains: job design, organisational climate, or job future. Job design encompasses the demands and characteristics of individual positions. The organisational climate emphasises communication, participation, and the overall social environment at work, while job future addresses job security, equity, and other career development issues.

Figure 2.3

Model of Healthy Work Organisation



Note: (+) = increase & (-) = decrease

Note. The model of Healthy Work Organisation based on the idea that employees in organisations are more productive and healthier. From “Work characteristics and employee health and well-being: Test of a model of healthy work organisation by M.G Wilson, D.M Dejoy, R.J Vandenberg, H.A Richardson and A.L McGrath, 2004. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology* 77(4), p. 565. Copyright 2000 by the British Psychological Society.

According to the Wilson et al. (2004) model, the healthy work organisation, asserts that it should be possible to identify the job and organisational characteristics of a healthy organisation and contemporary scholars have acknowledged job design and work adjustment as vital factors leading to psychological empowerment of employees (Liden et al. 2000, Jena et al., 2019).

The model shows that awareness of *organisational attributes*, values, belief systems, policies, procedures and standards within an organisation, often leads to *organisational climate*, which is facilitated by psychologically empowered and engaged employees. The presumption made here is that the employee would feel attached to the organisation (job satisfaction & organisational commitment) and thereby increase their level of performance. This situation

leads to Job Future, which involves high levels of work engagement and individual work performance.

Psychological work adjustment, facilitated by psychological empowerment, becomes an organisation's outcome. This occurs when employees experience self-efficacy, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and reduced stress. The assumption is that this situation leads to organisational health and improved employee performance (Jena et al., 2019).

The model suggest psychological work adjustment outcomes as follows:

- Health Risk 1: Alcohol per month – the risk of taking alcohol in a month is significantly reduced and this reduces the health risk facing employees.
- Health Risk 2: Tobacco use – the risk of smoking tobacco is significantly reduced and thereby lessens the health risk of employees.
- Attendance behaviour 1: Turnover intentions – psychological work adjustment increase employee's attendance behaviour and reduces employee intentions to leave the organisation
- Attendance behaviour 2: Absenteeism – the experience of employee absenteeism from work is lessened and thereby improves attendance behaviour of employees.
- Self-reported health –because of psychological work adjustment and the feeling of empowerment, employees report their health status willingly on a regular basis.
- Psychological health: Depression, somatic stress and anger – with improved psychological health, there's less depression, somatic stress and anger amongst employees at the workplace.

The above result in a satisfied employee. The assumption is that this situation leads to organisational health and improved employee performance.

2.2.4 The critique of healthy work organisation model

The following characteristics are missing in the Wilson et al. (2004) model and are deemed critical if the healthy work organisational model is to be successful. Kuenzi et al. (2013) concluded that a properly functioning organisation strategically integrates employee well-being into its business objectives and reinforces it through established practices on leadership support, learning culture, and healthy job quality.

Leadership. Leadership is a critical component of organisational sciences. Indeed, leadership quality has been linked to several organisational psychology outcomes, including well-being, safety climate, and organisational performance (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004). According to the literature, supportive leadership is essential for the development of a healthy organisation. Naturally, leaders are critical to the development of a strong organisation.

According to Gurt and Elke (2009), Carmeli and Vinarski-Peretz (2010), and Sparrow and Sonnentag (2008), Leaders serve as catalysts for developing personal and meaningful connections with their employees, which is essential for achieving desired job and work-related attitudes. When leadership is perceived to be healthy and supports the effective balancing of people and productivity concerns, it tends to create an engaging work environment for employees and higher returns for the organisation (Raya & Panneerselvam, 2013).

Learning culture. Culture has a significant impact on organisations and the people who work in them, however many organisational initiatives address it the least (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). According to Kuenzi et al. (2020) culture, in simple terms, refers to how things are done in organisations. It is the process of communicating and promoting the organisational ethos to employees, recognising and demonstrating respect, and cultivating a sense of personal inspiration for one's work.

Following Peterson and Wilson (2002), research into the Healthy Organisation Culture should be prioritised since it serves as the foundation for the growth of a successful, innovative, productive, and, most importantly, healthy organisation. Cooper and Cartwright (1994) state that healthy organisations promote a culture of greater communication and cooperation, in which employees and managers readily assist one another to achieve business goals. Relationship building thus becomes an essential component of a healthy organisational culture.

Job quality. Job quality has a significant impact on almost every aspect of a working person's life. Individual and organisational outcomes are significantly influenced by key job characteristics like job demand and decision-making latitude. (Kuenzi et al., 2020). According to DeJoy et al. (2010), a feasible workload, an explicit role, a sense of control, job security, flexible work arrangements, and ensuring that an employee doesn't feel overwhelmed all contribute to employee well-being and organisational productivity.

This study includes the Wilson et al. (2004) model, amongst other models, to demonstrate the influence of psychological empowerment towards individual work performance.

2.3 EMPOWERMENT PERSPECTIVES

As the idea of empowerment gained traction, several viewpoints were established over time to strengthen and expand study on the idea in the workplace. These viewpoints, which will be discussed, include social structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and critical empowerment.

2.3.1 Social-structural empowerment approach

According to Lawler (1986), power is the capacity to make decisions that are pertinent to a person's position or role as well as formal authority or control over organisational resources. According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), empowerment is the process of sharing power - that is, formal authority or control over organisational resources - by delegating responsibilities to various members of the organisational hierarchy. In sharing decision making powers allow leadership to focus more on strategic and innovative issues to ensure organisation reach its goals and move forward.

According to the social structural model developed by Bowen and Lawler (1995), employee empowerment results from organisational practises that disperse rewards, information and power throughout the organisation. It highlights how crucial it is to shift organisational structures, policies and practises from top-down control systems to high involvement practises. The core of the social-structural perspective on empowerment, according to Liden and Arad (1996), is the notion of power sharing between superiors and subordinates in order to transfer relevant decision-making authority to lower echelons of the organisational hierarchy.

High involvement or self-managing systems, such as (i) participatory decision-making, (ii) performance-based pay, (iii) open information flow, (iv) flat organisational structures and (v) training and development, are specific instances of social structural empowerment practises (Lawler 1996; Spreitzer 1996).

Miller et al. (2006) distinguish between six elements of social structural empowerment: formal power, informal power, resources, information, support and opportunity. Rao (2012) found structural empowerment in the nursing environment results in decreased burn-out, decreased

job strain, increased trust in the workplace, increased job satisfaction and work effectiveness. Empowering environments in a variety of industries, including nursing, result in increased motivation, risk taking, achievement orientation and career aspiration (Rao (2012).

According to Prasad (2001), the social-structural perspective, which holds that power lies with individuals at all levels of a system, is ingrained in democratic values and concepts. Even at the lowest echelons of the organisational hierarchy, employees can become empowered provided they have access to resources, opportunities, information and support. This description suggests that even employees delivering post, working in the garden or a secretary in the office have potential in an organisation to make informed decisions within their work context without following strict orders from their superiors.

2.3.2 The downside of socio-structural empowerment

Previous researchers (Prasad, 2001; Liden & Arad, 1996) found that specific practices that exemplify a high involvement or self-managing systems such as participative decision-making, flat organisational structures, performance based pay, open information communication flow and training on their own yielded only marginal effect on empowerment; however, Lawler (1996) suggests that the real impact of such practices would come from the interface and the strengthening of these practices within the organisations. The social-structural perspective though, is limiting according to empowerment theorists, in that, in certain circumstances, employees have access to power, information and rewards, but they still feel powerless. In other circumstances, people do not have any of the objective characteristics of an empowering work environment, but they still feel and act empowered. As a result of this psychological empowerment perspective emerged (Spreitzer, 2007).

According to Spreitzer and Doneson (2005), the goal of the social structural approach to empowerment is to share authority between the subordinate and the superior. It is based on theories of social exchange and social power. Its foundation is found in democratic principles and ideals. The emphasis now is on the ways in which institutional, social, political, economic and organisational factors can eliminate situations in which people feel helpless (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005).

Sharing of power with subordinates means that management and organisation leadership can spend more time focussing on strategic and innovative issues related to the organisation as they would now have more time freed up as they no longer micromanage subordinates. This indicates that more time is devoted to building the future of the organisation. Giving workers

the freedom to decide for themselves within the parameters of their jobs is known as employee empowerment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005).

Employees with autonomy can decide what falls within the purview and area of their work (Spreitzer, 2007). Consequently, Spreitzer concluded that social-structural empowerment involves increasing employee participation by distributing responsibility from the top to the bottom of the organisational hierarchy.

2.3.3 Psychological empowerment approach

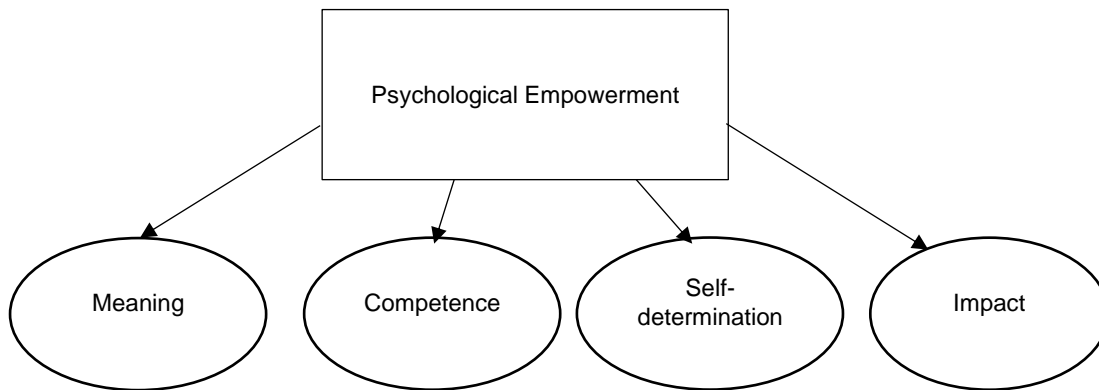
Employees must believe that they control their own destiny, which requires a set of psychological prerequisites known as psychological empowerment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005). A process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organisational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organisation practises and informal techniques of providing efficacy information, according to Conger and Kanungo (1988).

In support, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define empowerment as increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to one's work role, namely competence/self-efficacy, self-determination/choice, and impact. They argue that empowerment is multifaceted and its significance cannot be captured by a single idea.

Figure 2,4 is the reflection of psychological empowerment with its four sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.

Figure 2.4

Psychological empowerment framework (adapted)



Note. Psychological empowerment is composed of four dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. From Psychological empowerment in the workplace: dimension, measurement and validation, by G. M, Spreitzer, 1995, *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), p. 1442. Copyright 1995 Academy of Management.

The four concepts of psychological empowerment are defined by Spreitzer (1995) as follows:

- a) Meaning represents the importance of a work objective assessed considering a person's personal standards and ideals (Bandura, 1989). It also entails a fit between one's views, values and behaviours and the demands of a job role.
- b) Competence/self-efficacy represents a person's confidence in their ability to carry out tasks expertly (Deci et al., 1989). Competency is comparable to personal mastery, agency beliefs and effort performance expectations.
- c) Self-determination is the feeling that one could choose how to initiate and control actions. It exhibits autonomy in how work behaviours are started and maintained.
- d) Impact refers to a person's ability to influence operational, administrative, and strategic outcomes at work. (Ashforth, 1989).

According to Spreitzer (1995), the experience of empowerment is visible in all four dimensions; if any one dimension is missing, the experience of empowerment is diminished. These four cognitions, when combined, reflect an active, rather than passive, approach to one's job role. It is, therefore, claimed that the four dimensions act simultaneously but independently on performance, adding up to an overall construct of psychological empowerment.

Creating work environments known to boost these cognitions may lead to increased commitment, job satisfaction, improved performance, and lower turnover intentions (Seibert et al., 2011). Previous studies have indicated that employees who feel psychologically empowered exhibit higher levels of engagement (Bhatnagar, 2012). The structural equation modelling was conducted and results indicated (see Figure 2.4).

Psychological empowerment and meaning (correlation = 0.45), psychological empowerment and competence (correlation = 0.42), psychological empowerment and self-determination (correlation = 0.57) and psychological empowerment and impact (correlation = 0.63) (Spreitzer et al., 1999).

In distinguishing the difference between empowering process and empowered outcomes, Zimmerman (1995) refers to empowering processes as those where people create or are given opportunities to control their own destiny and influence the decisions that affect their lives. A series of experiences known as the empowering process also help people see how their goals and their understanding of how to achieve them more closely, give them greater access to and control over resources and give them a sense of mastery over their own lives as individuals, organisations and communities.

Zimmerman (1995) defines an empowering process as opportunities to develop and practise skills, to learn about resource development and management, to collaborate with others on a common goal, to broaden one's social network support, and to develop leadership skills. Furthermore, empowering process is about *empowering individuals* which involves mentors who help mentee about different work roles, *empowering organisations* which is about mutual help groups that helps members learn organisational and leadership skills and, *empowering communities* which is about organisational coalitions that enable citizens to have a voice in local policy decisions.

Zimmerman (1995) compares empowered outcomes to specific measurement operations that can be used to study the effects of interventions designed to empower participants, investigate empowering processes and mechanisms, and generate empirical literature to aid in the development of empowerment theory. The perspectives of Spreitzer (1995) and Zimmerman (1995) on psychological empowerment are similar. Zimmerman (2000) extends the concept beyond the workplace boundaries to include the community in which the employees belong.

The section that follows will focus on empowerment from a critical approach.

2.3.4 Critical empowerment approach

Critical theory is a term coined by theorists based at the Frankfurt Social Research Association in the 1920s and 1930s (Fuchs, 2017). Critical theory is developed through the examination of theory, which aims at inconceivable critical changes in society. Theoretical discussions, debates, and encounters are part of the contention of theory. The most well-known representatives of this paradigm include Herbert Marcuse, Theodor W. Adorno, Max Horkheimer, and Jürgen Habermas (Fuchs, 2022).

Critical theory is referred to as the theories and methods of the Frankfurt School between 1923 and end of World War II. Critical theory assigns the philosophy, theory, and practice of the directors and associates of the Frankfurt School Institute for Social Research (Linklater, 2007). Critical theory is seen as a distrust of state and corporate control over the culture industry (literature, music, magazine, radio, TV etc) and characterised by the critique of the mass culture that is embedded in an elitist hierarchical society where privileged people prevail culturally and socially. However, critical theory scholars, having the intention to promote transition toward socialism, denigrated capitalist ideologies in research and theory and fostered the necessity of developing the sociology of mass culture and were persuaded that cultural phenomena are the translation and reflection of the whole socio-economic structure (Tarr, 2017).

Critical approaches operate from shared worldviews about the nature of reality, the goals of inquiry, and knowledge development (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). According to Udod (2014) power operates to shape the everyday reality within the workplace, secondly, facts cannot be isolated from the domain of values or removed from some ideological caption and third, that critical approaches focus on freedom and how positions of privilege can overpower other groups through the way governance is managed. In a nutshell, critical theorists agree that power is a basic component of human life, shaping human and workplace interactions (Fuchs, 2022; Tarr, 2017; Udod, 2014).

The concept of critical empowerment has been widely examined in the academic literature and is an important concept when applied in the workplace. A multidimensional concept of empowerment refers to (a) enabling an individual to act by sharing power with others to achieve a common goal, and (b) enabling individuals to gain control over their lives as they become aware of aspects of the organisational system and their practice that constrain their work (Udod, 2014). From the critical perspective, Foucault (1982) conceptualises disciplinary power, which is divided into norms and standard practices, as products of moral, medical,

sexual and psychological regulations. Foucault (1982) sees power as a product of relationships and as associated with practices, techniques and procedures and that power and knowledge coexist.

Following critical empowerment theorists, traditional empowerment interventions are disempowering because real power remains embedded at the highest levels of the organisation, even in the absence of formal power structures involving direct worker ownership and representation. (Wendt, 2001). O'Connor (2001) argue that the feeling of being empowered does not equal to real empowerment. O'Connor (2001) asserts that interventions aimed at empowering workers frequently lead to strong peer pressure, which makes some workers feel even more in control and powerless. According to O'Connor (2001), power cannot be genuinely empowering unless it is bestowed upon employees through genuine ownership and control.

Kanter's (1993) theory of structural empowerment in organisations defines power structure as involving three sources: resources (supplies, equipment, money, and enough time to achieve organisational goals), information (knowledge and expertise required to do one's job well), and support (consistent feedback, guidance, advice, and opinions from formal and informal networks). According to Lethbridge et al. (2011), power comes from both formal and informal sources, and it is obtained through positions of authority held and structural conditions within the organisation, rather than individuals' personality traits or integration process, and formal power is evident in jobs that allow for discretion, flexibility, creativity, and autonomy in decision making.

Spreitzer (1995) defines psychological empowerment as a motivational construct with four dimensions: meaning (fit between individuals' values, beliefs, and behaviours and the requirements of their work roles), competence (self-efficacy to carry out tasks at work using skill), self-determination (a person's feeling of independence or autonomy in starting or continuing work-related behaviours or actions), and impact (degree of influence individuals believe they have). Thus, psychological empowerment described an intrapersonal process shaped by individuals' personal experiences or beliefs about their work role (Spreitzer, 1997; Lethbridge et al, 2011).

The three empowerment perspectives/approaches described shed some light into the empowerment perspectives in general. Although these perspectives showed the essence of empowerment at different levels within the organisation and amongst employees, research is continuing to enhance the concept of empowerment.

As a result, positive organisational scholarship (POS) is conducting research on empowerment theory with the goal of attracting people to want to change since they own the change process rather than forcing or pushing people to change.

This study adopts psychological empowerment perspective and align to Spreitzer's (1995) concept for the following reasons:

The focus of this study is in the main the individual contributions to the organisational outcomes. The individual employee behaviour, motivation and attitude determines the level of individual's contribution to the team objectives and overall organisational aims. Understanding the determinants of individual's work performance assists in shaping individual focus in the task at hand, create awareness of critical tasks and expected results. Unlike structural empowerment, psychological empowerment is more focused on the psychological aspect of the construct.

Psychological empowerment has been found by Zhang and Bartol (2010) to have a positive impact on creativity by influencing both intrinsic motivation and creative process engagement. The psychological dimensions of impact, competence, meaning and self-determination are designed to show how each person feels empowered in their role (Spreitzer, 1995). Questionnaires on PE, WE, OCB and IWP was used in this study to assess how well each participant was performing in their specific work role within the company.

2.4 DEMONSTRABLE EFFECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

As stated by Malan (2002), psychological empowerment can be used to lower absenteeism and turnover rates, give workers a feeling of ownership and encourage them to take on more responsibility. It can also increase motivation, employee commitment, performance and job satisfaction. Carson and King (2005) postulates that empowerment of employees offer organisations increased productivity and the ability to adapt to change and be more responsive.

Mir and Mir (2005) add that psychological empowerment extends to other organisational factors which includes increase productivity, decrease labour costs, increase customer satisfaction and encourage continuous improvement. Amenumey and Lockwood (2008) regard psychological empowerment as an effective strategy that helps organisations to

strengthen relationship amongst the stakeholders. Stewart et al. (2010) indicate that an increased psychological empowerment leads to high levels of collaboration and autonomy which then result in lower levels of job strain. Stander and Rothmann (2010) conclude that empowering organisations enhances the meaning of work.

This section provides a holistic picture discussion of the antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment and a brief outline follow.

2.4.1 Antecedents of psychological empowerment

Alonso et al. (2023) in the study on meta-analysis of psychological empowerment, its antecedents, outcomes and moderating variables, highlight Spreitzer's (1995) antecedents and consequences of PE as follows:

2.4.1.1 Psychological empowerment antecedents

The antecedents of PE involve psychosocial and organisational factors, individual worker characteristics, personality factors, leadership, team and individual level, these are briefly outlined.

(a) Psychosocial and organisational factors

Structural and high-performance managerial empowerment practices

Within this category are structural empowerment and high-performance managerial methods, which are thought to enhance performance through an increase in employees' job-related knowledge and competencies. By giving workers more access to resources, information, learning opportunities, growth opportunities, and innovation, managers can foster employee empowerment and motivation. These aspects are managerial practices related to this. Monje Amor et al. (2021) discovered that job engagement and structural empowerment are related to better task performance and lower levels of intention to leave. PE partially moderated this association.

Social support and trust in the organisation

Sociopolitical support, organisational support, income or rewards, and organisational trust are all included in this category. "Social support and trust in the organization" is a category that relates to the opinions of individuals of actual benefits, support, and trust that go beyond the chance to obtain specific components. According to Gill et al. (2019), trust fosters a sense of

empowerment and that interpersonal trust as well as organisational or sociopolitical support in the form of resources or rewards can be viewed as facilitating variables that can raise employee motivation.

Work role and work content

The duties and responsibilities that a person is required to carry out on the job are included in the idea work role. Employees would feel less psychologically empowered if their jobs and the tasks they are required to complete were not clearly defined. Furthermore, when workers perform routine and uninteresting duties, their prospects for empowerment are restricted. Conversely, jobs with complex tasks and enriching job characteristics offer greater opportunities for meaningful work and self-determination (Towsen et al., 2020). This further suggests that authentic leadership influences work engagement through psychological empowerment, independent of the degree of role clarity among employees. A toxic workplace can cause demotivation and make it difficult to complete necessary activities.

- (b) Individual worker characteristics (tenure, job rank, education, positive and negative personality characteristics)

This group include employee attributes like tenure, education level, and organisational status. Just a small number of research (Llorente-Alonso et al., 2024) believe these characteristics to be crucial, while many include them as control or demographic variables. Faculty members who were above average age showed higher levels of psychological empowerment, motivation, and satisfaction, according to Prabha et al. (2021). Moreover, higher levels of contentment and PE were seen in faculty members with experience levels above average. Koberg et al. (1999) observed greater empowerment among employees who had been with their organisation for longer and had a higher rank. Higher levels of empowerment are also correlated with employee attributes such as job title and position within the organisational hierarchy and Spreitzer (1996) found significant associations between education level and PE, and in a sample of healthcare employees.

- (c) Personality factors such as locus of control, attributional style and self-control has an influence on PE.

The research suggests that employees with an internal locus of control have higher expectations of their impact on certain tasks than those with an external locus of control. According to the cyclical and dynamic model established by Thomas and Velthouse (1990),

interpretive styles influence the way in which individuals can empower or disempower themselves.

2.4.2 Leadership and psychological empowerment

Empowerment results from a motivating process which is started by leadership. Transformational leadership and authentic leadership share similarities, as stated by Rodríguez et al. (2017). It has been suggested that transformative leadership is built on the latent construct of authentic leadership, which also helps members' psychological capital grow. According to Jang (2020), the method via which authentic leadership influences performance is empowerment, which is the result of a leader's capacity to build their followers' psychological capital. Other scholars have also made the case that charismatic leaders can inspire their followers to go above and beyond what is expected of them, and that charismatic leadership is linked to a variety of favourable organisational outcomes (Negara et al., 2024).

Conger and Kanungo (1998) indicate that to make change, leaders can (i) develop innovative ideas for change, (ii) influence seniors to enlist their support for such ideas for change, (iii) inspire subordinates to make such a change happen. The increasingly competitive and vigorous landscape of business has forced companies to release new products and services on a frequent basis to meet customers' demands in a rapidly changing world (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2015). Therefore, innovative behaviour is critical for companies' success (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2015). Additionally, leaders need to be able to communicate and sell their creative ideas and vision to the executive for support, also create enthusiasm amongst subordinates to inspire and motivate them to work in collaboration to achieve the leader's vision.

To influence seniors in the organisation hierarchy is one critical leadership character. The expectation is that empowered individuals, given their pro-active approach to work, actively seek to influence their seniors to gain support for their ideas (Spreitzer et al., 1999), which implies that the aspects of empowerment may be predictive of inspirational leadership. According to Spreitzer et al. (1999), there is a positive correlation between supervisor empowerment and subordinates' inspiration. Following Bowen and Lawler (1992), empowering leadership, therefore, improves people's sense of intrinsic motivation in relation to their perceptions of competence, self-determination, impact and meaning.

Being a leader is more than just providing direction to the organisation and its followers. It involves innovation on the part of the leader, influencing skills and being a role model for subordinates. Empowering leadership is a motivating leadership style that is presumably

connected to worker performance, according to Arnold et al. (2000). When considered on an individual basis, research has demonstrated a positive correlation with both worker creativity and job performance (Ahearne et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2020). At a team-level, it shows a positive association with team performance and at a cross-level association, it demonstrates individual innovation, teamwork behaviours and low turnover intentions (Chen et al., 2011; Srivastava et al., 2022). According to Srivastava et al. (2022) more knowledge sharing and team efficacy were linked to empowered team leadership and these factors in turn predicted unit performance

The opposite of innovation is to have managers preserving the status quo by monitoring the compliance of subordinates to the current system which is what Spreitzer et al. (1999) found in relation to empowerment derailment. To bring about the innovative ideas, influence and inspiration, there are five dimensions of empowering leadership that a leader must display (Arnold *et al.*, 2000):

- Setting an example, which refers to a collection of actions that demonstrate a leader's dedication to both their own and their team members' work.
- Coaching, which is a collection of actions meant to enlighten team members and foster their independence.
- Participatory decision making, which is the process by which a leader uses the knowledge and suggestions of the team to reach decisions.
- Displaying concern, which refers to a set of actions that show a general consideration for the welfare of team members; and
- Informing, which refers to the leader's communication of company-wide details like the mission and philosophy in addition to other pertinent information.

Arnold et al. (2000) conclude that an empowering leader with these qualities will be viewed as a helpful leader who offers advice to followers, treats them fairly and values their opinions.

According to Srivastava et al. (2022), there are five things an empowering leader can do to empower their subordinates. First, by sharing their own knowledge first, an empowering leader can show their support for team-wide knowledge sharing and set an example for their subordinates. Secondly, an empowering leader fosters a collaborative problem-solving environment and teaches team members effective communication techniques. By teaching team members these skills, the leader helps them feel more empowered. Thirdly, team members have more chances to express their ideas and make suggestions when a leader

promotes participative decision making. Team members are more likely to feel like valuable contributors to the decision-making process and to be eager to share their knowledge when they are led by someone like that. Fourthly, because their social standing within the company is frequently correlated with their specialised knowledge, workers may feel uneasy about imparting knowledge to colleagues. Knowledge sharing obstacles can be eliminated by an empowering leader who recognises and allays these worries. Lastly, sharing information encourages a team's search for solutions both inside and outside the group as well as a larger cooperative effort to support one another.

Previous studies indicate that the relationship between leadership and performance outcomes at the individual (Zhang et al., 2020) and group (Srivastava et al., 2022) levels is mediated by psychological empowerment and intrinsic motivation. Chen et al. (2007) discovered that team empowerment mediates the relationship between team climate and team performance and psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and individual performance.

Bester et al. (2015:11) found that a leader's capacity to empower others may guarantee that employees are willing to participate in additional activities and in-role job performance, as well as that they will choose to stick with the company through challenging times. Additionally, they found that when a leader supports their team members' growth, gives them autonomy over decisions and holds them accountable, the team members feel psychologically empowered and are more likely to be obedient to the organisation, participate in optional activities and be more loyal.

Carroll et al. (2012) asserts that there is a mediating role of structural empowerment in the association between job satisfaction and performance and authentic leadership. Structural empowerment was positively and statistically significantly impacted by authentic leadership ($b - r = 0.46; p < 0.01$). This, in turn, had a statistically significant direct impact on job satisfaction ($r = 0.41; p < 0.01$) and performance ($r = 0.17; p < 0.01$). Furthermore, through empowerment, authentic leadership had an indirect effect ($r = 0.19; p < 0.01$) and a statistically significant positive direct effect ($r = 0.16; p < 0.01$) on job satisfaction.

The findings of Dewettinck and Amejide (2011) show that affective commitment and job satisfaction were directly impacted by empowering behaviours exhibited by leaders, which were also positively correlated with psychological empowerment. The outcomes also demonstrated that psychological empowerment is enhanced by leadership empowerment behaviours and psychological empowerment in turn affects affective commitment and job

satisfaction. Govender (2017) discovered that work effort and service delivery are positively correlated, that employees perform better when they feel empowered by their leaders and that tenure in a position or institution does not always translate into superior performance.

These results highlight the crucial role that leadership plays in fostering an environment where employees feel empowered and subordinates can freely express their talents in order to achieve desired performance outcomes.

2.4.3 Psychological Empowerment at individual and team level

Leaders can boost team members' self-efficacy and control over their work environment in an empowering organisational structure. This is true because, when given the authority to make decisions about their jobs independently, team members must have sufficient information to guarantee that the choices they make are appropriate and justified considering the circumstances surrounding the decisions. They are, therefore, more inclined to exchange knowledge both before and during the decision-making process (Xue et al., 2011). Thus, psychological empowerment occurs due to the stimulation and nurturing provided by empowering leadership.

One of the main benefits of empowerment theory is that people with more power ought to perform better than people with less power (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Spreitzer (1990) emphasises that empowered workers are likely to be viewed as effective because they carry out their duties with initiative, demonstrating the usefulness of the construct of meaning. This is the case because they are thought to be capable of making a significant impact on their workplaces and work environments.

According to Liden et al. (2000), people who believe their work has purpose and that they can positively influence others both inside and outside of the company by carrying out their duties are more driven to do their best work. In a research study by Rawat (2011), it was discovered that meaningfulness accounted for affective and normative commitment ($\beta = 0.10, p \leq 0.05$ & $\beta = 0.14, p < 0.05$), respectively. Colquitt et al. (2011), however, suggest that focusing on unimportant tasks can lead to feelings of emptiness and detachment.

Deci and Ryan (1987) discovered that people who possess self-determination are resilient and exhibit an interest in learning and activities. In the absence of self-determination, people experience a sense of powerlessness since they are unable to take appropriate actions related

to their jobs. According to Kraimer et al. (1999), experiencing a sense of impact requires the fulfilment of conditions for self-determination.

However, Fourie (2009) discovered that, while professionals in a South African public sector did not feel a notably greater sense of self-determination than lower-level employees, they did feel a significantly greater sense of impact. Colquitt et al. (2011) found that workers with high levels of self-determination have the freedom to decide which tasks to complete, how to organise them and how long to work on them. According to Rawat (2011), employees who have self-determination have more control over their work and a say in decisions pertaining to their jobs, which increases their involvement in the company.

Theory on empowerment suggest that performance and the *impact dimension* ought to be positively correlated. People will perceive themselves as more effective if they feel they can influence organisational outcomes and the system in which they are ingrained (Ashford, 1989). On the other hand, people who do not think they can change the world will not put in as much effort at work and, therefore, will be perceived as less productive. Ashford (1989) also discovered that high performance and a refusal to retreat from trying circumstances are linked to the impact dimension.

Competence, generally, has a significant impact on people's feelings of confidence and self-worth, which translates into higher performance levels when compared to people with less authority. Considering this, Ozer and Bandura (1990) discovered a favourable correlation between high goal expectations, coping strategies and feelings of competence. According to Rawat (2011), self-determination and competence predict an organisation's commitment to stay in operation. They also show that employees who feel competent are more likely to believe they can carry out their jobs successfully and with skill, which motivates them to put in a lot of effort on behalf of the company.

Significant, moderate and positive correlations were discovered by Ölçer and Florescu (2015) between job performance and the psychological empowerment components of meaning ($r = 0.395$), competence ($r = 0.497$), self-determination ($r = 0.417$) and impact ($r = 0.390$). The findings showed that improved psychological empowerment was correlated with improved job performance within the company.

Finally, Chen et al. (2007) investigated the effects of two empowering leadership practices— i) at the team level (empowering leadership climate) and (ii) at the individual level—on both individual and team empowerment to better understand social-structural empowerment and

psychological empowerment at multiple levels. Chen et al. (2007) discovered that individual empowerment influenced individual performance, while team empowerment influenced group performance.

Based on the findings, it is evident that psychological empowerment and social structural empowerment components are linked to performance at the individual, team, and unit levels.

2.4.4 Consequences of psychological empowerment

The consequences of PE are divided into workers' affective reactions, workers' attitudinal reactions and the actions or behaviours generated by empowerment which are indicated below.

(a) Workers' attitudinal reactions (organisational commitment & turnover intention)

Employees who feel empowered are seen as more competent and capable of having significant effects on the work they do. Additionally, they are more likely to put in more effort, behave autonomously, and have a stronger sense of loyalty to their organisation. Higher PE levels have been linked to lower rates of intention to leave the organisation and higher levels of organisational commitment (Islam et al., 2016).

(b) Workers' affective reactions (job strain, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction)

Affect driven behavior can be generated by dispositions and work events that lead to affective reactions, which in turn can lead to employees wanting to contribute more to their organisation when they are engaged and enthusiastic about their work, according to Park et al. (2022). PE may serve as a buffer against ongoing workplace pressures, according to Calvo and García (2018), who contend that PE is the outcome of structural empowerment. However, research by Manapragada et al. (2019) suggests that experiencing high levels of stress at work can impede the process by which empowerment affects safe behaviors and positive work attitudes. One of the emotive responses among workers that has been studied the most is job satisfaction, which is thought to be a sign of psychological health and well-being. Mathew & Nair, (2021) discovered that the direct association between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction is strong, positive and significant.

(c) Worker actions/behaviours' (innovative behaviour, work performance and OCB)

In line with Spreitzer (1995), the relationship between social-structural antecedents and innovative behaviour is mediated by intrapersonal empowerment. The effective use of original concepts within the organisation is known as innovation. According to Ambad et al. (2021), empowered workers tend to be more accountable, put in more effort at work, are more innovative, and improve productivity at work. According to Khan and Ghufuran (2018), the relationship between empowerment and OCB results from an employee's perception of meaningful work, sense of independence and freedom, and sense of competence and impact. The more an employee behaves in a way that benefits the organisation – that is, by supporting coworkers and customers and acting politely, diligently and critically the more they are.

Spreitzer et al. (1997) state that when employees feel empowered, they have more positive attitudes towards job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and less strain. Empowerment has a positive impact on managerial effectiveness and innovative behaviour, employee effectiveness, employee productivity, and work unit performance (Spreitzer et al. 1997).

2.5 DOWNSIDE OF EMPOWERMENT

Psychological empowerment construct has its fair criticisms while it remains a relevant in the organisational psychology realm. Kaplan (1999) provided a list of empowerment model critic at its initial phase as follows:

- Abdication of responsibility. Leaders and managers need not confuse empowerment with abdication of responsibility. Leaders must always provide direction and be hands-on, rather than hands-off and playing the middle ground.
- Super star syndrome. Senior managers often prefer individuals displaying high standards like theirs, high leadership style and thereby get their trust and confidence to the disadvantage of those who are not similar. This then influences the empowerment of employees in general.
- Character disorders. The character of leaders which is ingrained in controlling everything than providing subordinates with necessary autonomy hampers empowerment. However, interventions such as skills training and attitude adjustment can provide a great deal of assistance. A change in values can also assist change in character of such individuals.

- Need for success and mastery. Leaders need to achieve, succeed and improve is always a good thing, however, the problem comes when ego supersedes the normal and logic. And this affects empowerment negatively and lastly.
- Perfectionism and narcissism behaviour. Narcissism tendencies often come when leaders live in fear of failure and guarantee a win. This kind of behaviour affects empowerment negatively.

Furthermore, Spreitzer (2007) conducted a literature review of empowerment and mentioned that since the four cognitions of psychological empowerment—meaning, competence, self-determination and impact—reflect an active rather than passive orientation to one's work role, the experience of empowerment is limited if any one of the dimensions is absent. For this reason, empowerment is referred to as the *gestalt* of the four dimensions. Spreitzer (2007) uses the example of people lacking a sense of meaning to illustrate the point that even though people have the discretion to make decisions (i.e., self-determination), they will not feel empowered.

On the other hand, people will not feel as empowered if they think they can have an impact but do not think they have what it takes to perform their job well (i.e., they do not feel competent). In this way psychological empowerment becomes limited in that it is individually centric and does not take empowerment tools such as power, knowledge, information and rewards into account as in structural empowerment and also does not take into account social issues such as high involvement practices, participation, access to information, access to resources and empowering leadership.

Critical theorists are aware of how programmes that promote employee empowerment repeatedly increase managerial control over workers by means of peer supervision (Spreitzer, 1996). According to Bartunek and Spreitzer (2006), the meaning of empowerment has changed over time, concentrating more on issues related to increasing productivity and less on facilitating the welfare of individuals or society. Real ownership and control of the means of production is the source of true empowerment, according to critical theorists (O'Connor, 2001).

Dewettinck et al. (2003) discovered a significant correlation between employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in their study of perceptions of empowerment. However, found a weak correlation between worker performance and psychological empowerment. According to Dewettinck et al. (2003:23), empowerment explains a consistent 6% of the variance in employee performance in two different samples of employees: one of

mind-level employees in an industrial organisation and the other of lower-level employees in a service organisation. They discovered that the contributions of the competence and impact dimensions to performance were consistently significant but very modest, while the self-determination and meaning dimensions did not significantly explain any variance in performance.

While most research on empowerment found positive outcomes, Spreitzer and Mishra (1997) found some trade-offs. Spreitzer and Mishra (1997), for instance, discovered that individuals who reported higher levels of the meaning dimension in their work also reported higher levels of stress. They hypothesised that people who had a stronger sense of connection with their work took it more seriously and, as a result, dealt with more stress at work. According to Spreitzer et al. (1997) employees who have too much power eventually lose that power because their managers perceive that their power is a threat. These managers might be concerned that competent employees will be labelled because they do not match the organisation's needs and take too many chances, as stated by Spreitzer (1997).

These findings provide the indication of the outcomes that might be expected in this research, however, with a combination of the moderating factors, an explanation might be found for such anticipated results.

2.6 PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

Biographical variables play an important role in psychological empowerment, and when employees are psychologically empowered, organisational factors as well as the impact of specific biographical variables must be considered.

Vardi (2000) report significant differences on perceptions of psychological empowerment and age groups. Vardi (2000) also found significant relationships between gender and hierarchical level and perceptions of psychological empowerment. According to Lin (2002), perceptions of empowerment are not significantly impacted by age or educational attainment. Yet, Boudrias et al. (2004) discovered a substantial correlation between years of service, gender and psychological empowerment at ($p > 0.05$). There were no apparent distinctions between gender, hierarchical levels, or psychological empowerment perceptions, according to Kim and George (2005).

Hancer and George (2003) discovered a strong correlation between years of service and perceptions of psychological empowerment. Perceptions of psychological empowerment and

educational attainment did not significantly differ from one another (Vardi, 2000). Hung (2006) found significant differences in teacher empowerment when biographical variables such as educational background and gender were taken into account.

Fourie (2009) found that general managers and professionals had a better sense of empowerment than the lower-level employees and it was discovered that educational attainment positively correlated with psychological empowerment; however, there was no significant correlation between educational attainment and perception of competence ($r = 0.13$; $p = 0.05$). Years of experience in the current role also failed to find a statistically significant positive correlation between perceived competence and educational attainment.

Fourie (2009) also discovered that psychological empowerment did not significantly differ between genders, but that white people felt more empowered than members of other racial groups. Furthermore, Fourie (2009) discovered that managers felt much more in control of their own destiny and impact than did lower-level workers. However, Durand (2011) discovered no statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between, educational levels, gender groups, language groups and years of service and psychological empowerment.

Livne and Rashkovits (2018) while testing the distinct relationships between three types of job demand (i.e., quantitative, emotional and mental) and employees' psychological states of burnout and empowerment discovered a positive correlation between psychological empowerment and job tenure ($r = 0.19$, $p .01$ in sample 1; $r = 0.29$, $p 0.01$ in sample 2). As a result, longer tenure is linked to greater psychological empowerment. Previous studies provide evidence for the positive correlation between psychological empowerment and length of employment (Dickson & Lorenz, 2009; Kruja et al., 2016).

Fong and Snape (2015) research found that biographical variables were generally weak and inconsistent with their hypothesised outcome and, therefore, excluded in their conclusion. Fong et al. (2015) results were found to be consistent with the outcomes found by Podsakoff et al. (2000). Beukes (2015) found that psychological empowerment strongly predicted work engagement (b - regression = 0.69; $p = 0.01$) and that there was a strong correlation between psychological empowerment and total work engagement ($r = 0.83$). These findings supported by earlier studies (de Klerk & Stander, 2014; Mendes & Stander, 2011).

In conclusion, research has shown a significant correlation between high levels of psychological empowerment at work and age, gender and years of employment. However, in certain cases, the outcomes were different. Therefore, it is essential to consider these biographical factors when determining whether they could moderate the relationship between PE, WE, OCB and IWP in the workplace.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The first literature research aim - to conceptualise psychological empowerment in the workplace from a theoretical and psychological point of view - was covered in Chapter 2. After discussing the theoretical underpinnings of psychological empowerment, various workplace psychological strategies were covered. The various psychological empowerment models were discussed, along with the biographical factors that may act as moderating factors in the relationship between PE and IWP in the workplace.

A portion of the second research aim - that is, to conceptualise the work engagement construct as a beneficial factor that enhances individual work performance - is covered in Chapter 3. De Villiers and Stander (2011) found a significant and positive regression between psychological empowerment and work engagement. But a strong predictor of work engagement turned out to be psychological empowerment. This suggests that PE and WE have different but complementary components. For this reason, it is important to focus on work engagement as a construct in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: WORK ENGAGEMENT

The second aim of the literature review was to conceptualise work engagement, which becomes the subject of Chapter 3. The research is contextualised by outlining the key advancements in work engagement and integrating them into discussions of recent literature. Efforts are made to identify the constructs influencing work engagement. The degree of work engagement is examined in this chapter as a crucial factor influencing an individual employee's productivity at work. Lastly, the biographical factors that moderate the relationship between work engagement and work performance are explored.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Employee engagement must be high for employees to perform at their best and this can be done by consistently creating a supportive work environment within the organisation. Practitioners and academic researchers see engagement, which takes on various forms, as a significant predictor of employee behaviour (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Harter et al., 2003; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Simpson, 2009).

Manufacturing sector accounts for approximately 17% of GDP in South Africa (StatsSA, 2015), demonstrating the sector's importance to the country's economic growth and success. However, in recent times, the sector has been impacted by uncertainty about employment, and production is a major concern. As a result, employees and organisations can benefit from proactive employees, as organisations rely on their employees' proactivity to maintain a competitive advantage in the face of constant market changes.

An organisation's competitive advantage can be achieved by having highly motivated employees working in a positive environment that allows the organisation to progress. Therefore, work engagement is at the core of this result, which is a positive mindset related to work that is marked by high levels of vigour and dedication (Schaufeli & Barkker, 2004).

WE have been linked to improved job performance and organisational commitment, according to earlier research (Hakanen et al., 2006). WE have been found to be predicted by job resources, especially when there are high demands on the job (Bakker et al., 2008). Employees who are engaged perceive themselves as fully capable of handling the demands of their work and they feel an active and productive connection with their work activities (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

According to Bakker et al. (2014), employees who have access to the necessary job resources and an optimal level of job demands are not only motivated and involved, but also have higher job satisfaction rates.

Chapter 3 will discuss the concept of engagement, including constructs that are related to work engagement. The discussions will also consider the extent of the biographical groups influence to employee's engagement within the organisation.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

This section explored the concept of work engagement and employee engagement focussing on Kahn and Schaufeli work in the 1990's and 2000 scientific work as well as recent research in the field.

Work engagement

According to Kahn (1990), engaged workers have a mental, emotional and physical connection to their job. Many researchers in the field of organisational psychology credit Kahn as the originator of the engagement concept (Carter et al., 2018; Mauno et al., 2010; Macey et al., 2011). Kahn (1990) conducted an ethnographic study among counsellors and architects' employees, serving as both an outside researcher and participant, to examine moments of individual engagement and disengagement. Kahn (1990) used the terms personal engagement and personal disengagement to describe self-in-roles.

Kahn (1990) defined personal engagement as the harnessing of organisation members' personally to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances. Personal engagement, according to Kahn, is the process through which individuals in an organisation connect their identities to their work roles. During role performances, people engage in this process by using their bodies, minds and emotions. In contrast to disengaged counterparts, employee engagement increases the likelihood that employees will exert more discretionary effort at work. Kahn (1990) define personal disengagement as the separation of oneself from one's work roles and during role-playing, disengaged individuals withdraw and protect themselves physically, mentally, or emotionally.

Kahn (1990) considers the three dimensions of engagement to involve the simultaneous application of physical, cognitive and emotional. In line with this, Shuck et al., (2017) measured the three dimensions separately, however, combined them into a single measure. Byrne et al.,

(2016) and Farid et al. (2019), supports Kahn (1990) three psychological conditions as safety, meaningfulness, and availability.

Kahn (1990) defined meaningfulness as investment revenues and a sense of self-satisfaction derived from the positive performance. Safety is defined as the feeling of security without fear, or any negative elements of self-image, status or career shown (Kahn, 1990). Availability is defined as the “sense of owning the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary” (Kahn, 1990) to complete one’s work.

According to Kahn, by positively fulfilling the criteria for these areas (for example, my work is meaningful, I feel safe, and I have the resources to complete my work) it will outshine their roles in the work, engagement in social life, psychologically and physically be present.

Wollard (2011) indicates that engagement and disengagement may be represented as an engagement continuum ranging from fully engaged, to occasionally/temporarily disengaged to actively disengaged. This recognises that the fluctuating nature of engagement to disengagement is not a linear process. This may be because the individual may attempt to reconcile psychological safety, meaningfulness and availability, and this may be impacted by context and individual resilience (Wollard, 2011). It also suggests that ‘occasional/temporary disengagement’ may be due to recovery.

Overall, Kahn’s (1990) conceptualisation of engagement was constructed based on qualitative study and it assessed the conditions under which employees are likely to be engaged but not engagement as a psychological construct. Kahn, (1990), however, mentioned that engagement has two critical components, attention and absorption in a role. Attention refers to being engrossed in a role whereas absorption implies intrinsic motivation in a role (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Kahn’s approach mainly focused on conditions needed for the status of engagement to occur and suggested two critical components of engagement. However, his approach did not suggest how engagement can be assessed (Schaufeli, 2012).

Schaufeli et al., (2002) define work engagement as an active, positive state associated with one’s work, characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption. Employees physically, emotionally, and cognitively engage with their work roles through dynamism, commitment, and absorption (Gupta et al., 2017; Schaufeli et al., 2004; 2019). In Schaufeli, et al. (2004), vigour indicates exhaustion as the opposite dimension of burnout, which describes having a lot of energy and mental toughness when working, being willing to put effort into a task, being able to resist fatigue and remain persistent in the face of adversity. On the other hand, dedication,

which is the antithesis of burnout and involves cynicism, refers to having a strong sense of purpose in one's work as well as feelings of excitement, pride, inspiration and challenge. Similarly, absorption is defined as being completely focused, cheerfully absorbed in one's work and finding it challenging to step away from one's own work (Schaufeli, et al., 2004).

Schaufeli (2013) indicates that the term, engagement, in everyday usage, implies a state of involvement, dedication, passion, enthusiasm, absorption, focused effort, zeal and energy. It is also critical to understand the distinction between employee and work engagement. Most often, work engagement is used interchangeably with employee engagement. Schaufeli (2013) posits that the conceptualisation of work engagement involves physical energy, emotional element, and a cognitive component.

Schaufeli et al., (2002) developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), along with its shortened version, the UWES-9 (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). The UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2002) is divided into three categories and comprises 17 items in total. These are vigour -with sample questions: "*At my work, I am bursting with energy; When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work*", dedication - with sample questions "*My job inspires me; I am enthusiastic about my job*" and absorption – with sample question: "*When I am working, I forget everything else around me; I am absorbed in my work*".

Even though engaged workers put in a lot of effort, they are not workaholics; rather, their motivations are very different. Because they enjoy what they do, engaged workers exert a lot of effort into their work, but they also know when to give it up and go home to their personal lives. Workaholics, on the other hand, are motivated by an overwhelming inner desire to work and feel ineffective, anxious, restless, and guilty when they don't (Schaufeli, 2017). As a result, they work excessively since they have no other alternative. Accordingly, it has been suggested that workaholics have a negative (avoidance) motivation while engaged employees have a positive (approach) drive (Taris et al., 2014). While the latter are motivated to work to escape the bad thoughts and feelings, the former are drawn to work because it is enjoyable.

The three dimensions of work engagement are described as having three distinct components by May et al. (2004), namely a physical component, an emotional component and a cognitive component. The physical component is characterised as the energy required to complete the task; the emotional component is outlined as giving one's all; and the cognitive component is defined as being so engrossed in a task that one forgets everything else (Shuck & Reio, 2011; Shuck et al., 2014; Shuck et al., 2017). Simpson (2009) agrees that personal engagement is inclusive of physical, cognitive and emotional aspects during work role performance.

Consequently, employees' overall personal engagement in work activities increases with their level of engagement in each dimension. This suggests that people express themselves in their work environments when they are engaged through their work role.

Employees that are more involved are thought to experience less depression and have a lower risk of cardiovascular disease. Consequently, they miss fewer workdays due to illness than their less engaged colleagues. Additionally, engaged workers have a strong sense of loyalty to their company and do not intend to leave. Furthermore, motivated workers enjoy self-improvement, exercise self-discipline, are creative, and commit few mistakes. Moreover, there is a positive correlation between work engagement and company outcomes. For example, motivated business owners see more growth and success, and motivated managers see improved team performance. Higher financial turnover and productivity are guaranteed by engaged workers, who also deliver superior customer service (Schaufeli, 2014; Schaufeli, 2021; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2020; Schneider et al., 2018).

Employee engagement

While work engagement is regarded as having one established scale, the UWES, there is no such scale for employee engagement; rather, there are several scales that exist in parallel. Among these is a scale of employee engagement developed by Shuck, Adelson, and Reio (2017) and based on the perspective that work engagement and employee engagement are separate concepts. In their scale, employee engagement comprises three sub-factors. Shuck et al., (2016) define employee engagement as an active, work-related positive psychological state operationalised by the intensity and direction of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural energy. Cognitive engagement being defined as intensity of mental energy expressed toward positive organisational outcome (sample question: *"I am really focused when I am working; I give my job responsibility a lot of attention"*), while emotional engagement is defined as intensity and willingness to invest emotionality toward positive organisational outcome (sample questions: *"Working at my current organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me; I feel a strong sense of belonging to my job"*) and behavioural engagement defined as psychological state of intention to behave in a manner that positively affects performance and/or positive organisational outcome (sample question: *"I am willing to put in extra effort without being asked; I really push myself to work beyond what is expected of me"*), (Shuck et al., 2016).

Behavioural engagement display employee's compliance in work activities, teamwork, and full contribution of the team in achieving set goals. Importantly, fostering engagement is not a once-off intervention, it requires ongoing and conscious effort from managers (Shuck et al., 2014), particularly middle and frontline managers, who are in closer contact with employee.

In conclusion, work engagement pertains to an employee's relationship with their work, whereas employee engagement encompasses the relationship that an employee has with their organisation and their occupational roles (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). As a leader, being able to recognise the level of engagement an employee has is important in managing the employee (Govender, 2020).

The development of a conceptual model that enhances individual employee work performance and attitude towards employee work is one of the study's objectives and work engagement is one of the constructs under study.

3.3 OUTCOMES OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

The constructs of work engagement and organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, job involvement and job burnout are among the related constructs that are highlighted below.

3.3.1 Organisational commitment

According to Lee and Peccei (2007), organisational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with an employer, wants to stay within the organisation, and is willing to go above and beyond to do so. Mabasa and Ngirande (2015) argue that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are inextricably linked; while a person may have positive commitment tendencies to his organisation, he or she may be dissatisfied with a specific job or experience. Mabasa et al. (2015) highlight that there is lack of information on how employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment are influenced by perceived organisational support, particularly for junior academic staff in higher education institutions.

In the management literature, factors like work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have all received extensive research and are the antecedents of employees' performance and organisational success (Peng et al., 2016; Mabasa & Ngirande, 2015). In the steel manufacturing industry context, including the South African context, level of engagement, organisation citizenship behaviour and psychological empowerment can

explain the extent of individual employee performance and organisation outcomes (De Beer et al., 2016; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Reece, 2018). Work engagement and organisational commitment were found to have a statistically and practically significant positive correlation ($r = 0.42$; $p < 0.01$; medium effect) by Beukes and Botha (2010). In the research of Lin et al., (2020), organisational commitment directly influences satisfaction, and indirectly influences it through work engagement, while a study by Gomes and Marques, (2022) found that organisational commitment is an antecedent variable for work engagement. Contrary to this finding, in a study conducted by Mazetti (2023) discovered that work engagement had the highest effect size for job satisfaction ($r = 0.60$) and commitment ($r = 0.63$). Previous research (Alessandri et al., 2015; Van Wingerden et al., 2017) found that work engagement had a beneficial impact on organisational commitment, job performance, turnover rate, and job satisfaction.

3.3.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour and work engagement

During globalisation and extreme competition, organisations continue and flourish on optimal utilisation of their human resources (Seval & Caner, 2015). It is, therefore, critical for organisations to identify the factors encouraging employees to offer work activities beyond their day-to-day duties. This kind of employee discretionary behaviour is regarded as extra-role behaviour and is frequently known as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), which is extremely significant for individual performance, organisational productivity and efficiency (Gupta et al., 2017).

This way of accomplishing the task, that is, using discretionary behaviour, leads to a feeling of fulfilment and generates positivity among employees, which motivates and engages such employees to continue displaying extra-role behaviours. Organ (1988) defines OCB as voluntary behaviour on the part of an individual that, while not specifically recognised by the official reward system, collectively contributes to the smooth operation of the organisation. Williams & Anderson (1991) divided OCB into two categories according to the intended beneficiary: OCB directed at Individual (OCB-I) and OCB directed at Organisation (OCB-O).

OCBI refers to voluntary behaviours directed towards colleagues, whereas OCB-O refers to voluntary behaviours directed towards the organisation (Shaheen et al., 2016). The former includes behaviours that benefit individuals immediately while indirectly benefiting the organisation, whereas the latter includes behaviours that benefit the organisation directly rather than an individual.

According to Schaufeli et al. (2002), WE is the degree to which workers exhibit zeal, energy and commitment towards their jobs by deriving meaning from their roles and becoming fully engaged in their work. Employees who are dynamic, committed and absorbed physically, emotionally and cognitively engage themselves in work roles. Based on their appropriate work role, engaged employees identify with their organisation, which brings them happiness. Additionally, they enjoy sharing the advantages that their organisation provides by fostering a supportive environment and similar values. Because of this, the engaged staff members are motivated to go above and beyond to support the expansion of their organisation.

In a study involving undergraduate students, Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) discovered a positive relationship between higher WE and OCB ($\beta = 0.41, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.16$). Work engagement was found to account for 16% of the variance in OCB. Furthermore, Alfes et al. (2013) discovered that work engagement positively predicts OCBO in a study on employees in the service sector. Employee engagement was discovered to be positively and significantly related to both in-role and extra-role performance, with a standardised estimate of 0.52. Tims et al. (2014) discovered that task performance and OCBI are positively impacted by WE.

Furthermore, 144 employees were studied by Bakker et al. (2012), who discovered that WE positively predict task performance as well as OCB. In their research, Runhaar et al. (2013) discovered a positive correlation between WE and both OCBO ($\beta = 0.39, p 0.001$) and OCBI ($\beta = 0.23, p 0.001$). Du Plooy and Roodt's (2010) research determined whether work engagement, burnout OCB could prevent turnover intentions and found specifically that WE and OCBs were significantly negatively related to turnover intentions.

3.3.3 Job satisfaction

Employee job satisfaction plays an important role in an organisation's success. Understanding how to keep employees satisfied is essential for achieving better results. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) mention the process through which workers aim to attain and preserve environmental congruence is known as job satisfaction. Correspondence with the environment can be defined as both the individual meeting the environment's requirements and the environment meeting the individuals. In contrast, Saari and Judge (2004) defined job satisfaction as a pleasant or upbeat emotional state caused by an evaluation of one's work or work experience. An employee's level of job satisfaction is determined by how well they believe their job provides the things they value.

Abdulla et al. (2011) indicate that job satisfaction is influenced by a variety of factors, including the work itself, compensation, opportunities for advancement, supervision, and colleagues. According to Ehsani et al. (2013), job satisfaction increases productivity, ensures physical and mental health, brings life satisfaction, boosts morale, leads to fewer job events, and quickly trains new job skills. As a result, job satisfaction, as a variable, contributes to employee engagement and organisational success. Yeh (2013) found a positive correlation between work engagement and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees, with empirical support for the relationship ($\beta = 0.591$, t -value = 9.034, $p = 0.001$).

Borst et al., (2019) research investigating whether the effects of work engagement on attitudinal, behavioural, and performance outcomes within the semi-public and public sector are also as high as expected, the results of the cross-sectional meta-analysis of 130 studies showed that the most noticeable significant sectoral differences was found in the mean, work engagement and the effects of work engagement on the level of attitudinal outcomes (job satisfaction and commitment) and behavioural outcomes (workaholism and turnover intention).

3.3.4 Job involvement

Work involvement is an attempt to gauge how much people value their work and the performance they achieve as a way to reward themselves (Robbins & Judge, 2016). Put another way, a worker's dedication to his work is reflected in his job involvement. According to Ongori (2007), job involvement refers to how involved or focused workers are in their work, as well as how aware they are of their job. Mohsan et al. (2011) define job involvement as the primary source of organisational commitment, motivation, and job satisfaction, all of which influence employee job performance. Following Sethi and Mittal (2016), job involvement refers to how much a worker immerses themselves in their work, invests time and energy in it and views work as a major aspect of their lives. Absenteeism and turnover rates are indications of individual work performance, which leads to employee motivation and work improvement.

Septiadi et al (2017) explain the effect of job involvement on employee performance that if an organisation involves employees more frequently in each job, the employees involved will be more active and can improve their performance. Dalay (2007) in a study "The relationship between the variables of organisational trust, job engagement, organisational commitment and job involvement" discovered that job involvement moderates the relationship between "identification" factor of organisational commitment and "vigour" factor of job engagement.

According to Stoyanova & Iliev (2017), if more employees are engaged in meaningful work, they will have more fulfilling experiences, which will boost organisational effectiveness and productivity. Work engagement is a way for people to strive their hardest to show a high level of dedication to their employer, hence, job involvement has a positive and significant influence on organisational commitment meaning that increasing work involvement increases organisational commitment.

According to Yeh's (2013) analysis of the Sobel's test results, the indirect path, that is, participation in tourism, work engagement and job satisfaction, was statistically significant (Sobel's $z = 6.994$, $p = 0.000$). Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006), when using confirmatory factor analyses, found that engagement and job involvement represent two distinct, weakly related ($r = 0.35$) concepts. Furthermore, several health complaints have a significant negative correlation with work engagement but a positive correlation with job resources, whereas job involvement has no or a significantly weaker relationship.

3.3.5 Job burnout

A condition of physical and mental tiredness is known as job burnout. Maslach et al. (1997) define job burnout as long-term stress response of an individual to prolonged exposure to emotional and interpersonal stressors at work, which include diminished personal achievement, depersonalisation, and emotional tiredness.

According to Peng et al. (2016), depersonalisation is the deliberate effort to maintain a distance between oneself and one's work, as well as the display of passive, indifferent, and cynical attitudes and emotions towards others at work. Emotional exhaustion is defined as extreme emotional fatigue combined with a lack of enthusiasm and vigour for work. Reduced personal accomplishment is characterised by a low sense of self-esteem and an even more negative assessment of work, as well as an inability to experience pleasure, satisfaction, and a sense of accomplishment associated with job performance. Following Alarcon et al. (2011), job satisfaction was significantly predicted by the burnout subscale [$R^2 = 0.53$, $F(207) = 78.33$, $p < 0.001$]. Although dedication and absorption were significant predictors of job satisfaction, controlling for burnout and engagement revealed a significant additional variance in job satisfaction [$R^2 = 0.08$, $F(204) = 53.25$, $p < 0.001$].

Engaged employees display less burnout and more organisational commitment than disengaged employees (Porath et al, 2012). Lu et al. (2019) found that professional identity and job satisfaction are strong predictors of teacher burnout and used the job demand-

resource model to justify their results. Furthermore, Lu et al. (2019) argued that job resources, including work engagement, work satisfaction, and obligation, lead to great results and diminish undesirable consequences, therefore, high levels of job satisfaction build up the significant and positive impacts of teachers' professional identity on burnout. Faskhodi and Siyyari (2018) found a significant and negative correlation between work engagement and burnout. Faskhodi et al., (2018) study also revealed that vigour, as an element of job engagement, significantly correlated with teacher burnout.

According to Heidarilaghbab and Talepasand's (2021) research, a key factor in lowering teacher burnout is their engagement in educational settings. Additionally, their research showed that the relationship between job participation and teacher burnout is mediated by character strengths. According to their research, legislators ought to consider the creation of empowerment initiatives to increase worker engagement at workplaces and decrease teacher burnout. In Juliana et al. (2021) study, proved the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between teacher burnout and Job Demands-Resources Model. The study by Juliana et al. (2021) found that while job resources had a substantial positive association with work engagement, job demands had a large negative relationship with it. Furthermore, using work engagement as a mediator, it is found that job demands and job resources had a significant indirect relationship with burnout, respectively.

Karatepe and Karadas (2015) found job demand as negatively correlated with work engagement, whereas other researchers found autonomy and a supportive environment were positively correlated with work engagement. Following Wu et al., (2023) research results on the effects of JDC model on burnout and work engagement, showed that emotional support, such as caring and inspiration, mitigated the adverse effects of high demand/low control on burnout and work engagement.

3.3.6 Job Performance

Job performance refers to employees' role performance and behaviours that have a direct impact on organisational objectives and outcomes. In some ways, job performance emphasises the reality and quality of employees' behaviour and performance in meeting their own and the organisation's goals. According to Tuckey et al. (2012), job performance focuses on other extra roles or contextual performance, such as discretionary behaviours, to improve organisational effectiveness.

Motowildo and van Scotter (1994) define task performance as "in-role performance" and it includes official outcomes and behaviours that directly support the objectives of the organisation. Demerouti et al. (2010) indicate that work engagement is advantageous for organisations as well as employees since motivated workers are likely to perform better on the job. Positive emotions like happiness, joy and enthusiasm are responsible for engaged employees' superior performance when compared to non-engaged employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In their research study, Yongxing et al. (2017) discovered a positive correlation between work engagement and objective task performance ($\beta = 0.12, p < 0.01$).

Work engagement comprises multidimensional constructs such as state concept (e.g., feelings of energy or absorption) and trait concept (comprising stable positive views of life and work) (Macey and Schneider 2008). Barker (2008) discovered that work engagement at the day-level was predictive of job performance at the day-level and that work engagement at the week-level was predictive of job performance at the week-level as well. This indicates that work engagement enables employees to perform well at their in-role and proactively plan the tasks to be done.

Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) discovered that day-level personal resources (self-efficacy, optimism and organisationally based self-esteem) influenced state work engagement through day-level job resources (autonomy, coaching, supervisory behaviour and team climate). A positive correlation ($r = 0.15$) was observed by Salanova et al. (2005) between vigour and customer-related performance. Work engagement and job performance were found to be positively correlated by Breevaart et al (2015) ($0.34, p < 0.001$). According to Alessandri et al. (2015), job performance was substantially correlated with work engagement and work self-efficacy beliefs.

It is widely acknowledged that there is a significant relationship between job performance and work engagement. Employees who are engaged approach their work proactively (Schaufeli & Bakker 2004; Salanova & Schaufeli 2008), are more dynamic (Bakker & Leiter 2010; Hakanen et al., 2008), are more responsive to new information (Bakker 2011), score higher on measures of extra-role behaviours (Bakker & Schaufeli 2008), are more focused (Macey et al. 2009), and work harder (Bakker, 2011; Bakker, 2010). Furthermore, motivated employees have resources in their jobs and personal lives to keep them going.

Van Zyl et al., (2019) investigating WE and task performance in a Global Dutch ICT-consulting firm, the results of the study showed that work engagement is a significant driver for innovative work behaviours, which in turn affects the task performance of employees. Further, innovative

work behaviours are therefore important to translate the engaging energies of employees into performance. Khusanova et al., (2021) in a study to identify the key and situational drivers of work engagement found a positive association between job meaningfulness and engagement and the relationship between work engagement and performance and that work engagement explained the influence of meaningfulness on performance, also, Mirda et al., (2022) found that work engagement obtained a significant and positive influence on employee performance.

3.3.7 Intention to stay

Turnover intention is a psychological and behavioural tendency that occurs when employees plan to leave their current organisation or occupation. It is a crucial factor for predicting turnover behaviour directly (Griffeth, 2000). Work engagement (WE) is a positive, fulfilling, work-related mental state with vigour, dedication, and absorption features (Zhang et al., 2022).

Ghazawy et al., (2012) in a study of work engagement and impact on the job outcomes for nurses found that work engagement accounted for a significant increment in explained variance in job performance and turnover intention ($\beta = 0.14$ and -0.41) respectively. Mazetti (2023) conducted a moderation analysis test and the results revealed that moderation analysis in relation the occupational role, work engagement found a low association with turnover intention among civil servants, volunteer workers, and educators.

Weng et al (2023) obtained results which indicated a significant positive relationship between talent management, work engagement, perceived organisational support, and the intention to stay. This study also confirmed the mediating role of work engagement and perceived organisational support in the relationship between talent management and the intention to stay in the study, "talent sustainability and development".

Bellamkonda et al., (2021) in a study, the mediating role of work engagement, discovered that employee engagement fully mediates the relationship between goal clarity, trust in management and intention to stay, while Bellamkonda et al (2024) reveal that the intention to stay was positively related to happiness and that the relationship was mediated by work engagement.

Following the research results by Zhu et al (2022) the turnover intention of nurses was inversely associated with work engagement (coefficient: -0.42) and perceived organisational support (coefficient: -0.32). A substantial moderating role was played by cultural background, economic status, working years, and investigation time ($P < 0.05$). In conclusion, work

engagement and organisational support significantly reduced turnover intention among nurses.

Green HRM practices are defined as a set of activities that ultimately increase resourceful environmental results (Kramar, 2014). Further green HRM is a set of policies used to motivate for proper utilization of organizational resources to promote environmentalism, enhancing employees' satisfaction and morale. Al-Hajri (2020) research obtained a significant positive influence of green HRM practices with work engagement and work engagement with employee retention. The study also reported the mediation of work engagement in the green HRM and employee retention relationship.

3.3.8 In-role/ extra role behaviour/ personal initiative

According to Kahn (1990), job engagement is a distinct and important motivational factor that allows the individual to contribute physical (behavioural), cognitive, and emotional energy to the work done, whereas organisational engagement, which generally improves performance, consists of behavioural (physical), cognitive, and emotional engagements. Kahn (1990) defines job engagement as the physical, cognitive and affective connections one has to all other facets of their work in a way that improves work with their own choice and effort.

According to Maslach et al. (2001), job engagement is the positive opposite of burnout, as the former entails a decline in one's level of engagement with one's job. Attention and absorption are two distinct but connected elements of role engagement, according to Rothbard (2001). While absorption refers to being completely engaged in the work role, Attention is related to cognitive availability and the amount of time spent thinking about the job role. On the other hand, considering personal initiative, Sonnentag (2003) demonstrated, using a within-group design, that the effect of today's recovery on the following day's personal initiative was mediated by the employee's level of work engagement.

Similarly, Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) demonstrate that work engagement fully mediates the relationship between job resources and personal initiative, supporting the discriminant validity. In both studies, correlations between personal initiative and engagement ranged from 0.38 to 0.35. According to Christian et al. (2011), motivated employees are more likely to participate in extracurricular activities that allow them to pursue interests other than those related to their jobs. Furthermore, the findings of Bakker et al.'s (2012) study on proactive employees revealed a positive relationship between proactive personality and work engagement and job crafting, two aspects of in-role performance.

In-role and extra-role performance

Employees generally engage in two types of performances: inside and outside of their roles. In-role behaviour, known as core-task behaviour, is a concept first proposed by Katz and Kahn (1996). Williams and Anderson (1991) define in-role behaviour as all the behaviours required to complete responsible work (Zhu, 2013). Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) define in-role performance as officially mandated results and behaviours that directly support the organisation's objectives.

In-role-performance entails:

- Tasks that contribute to the organisation's technical core, either directly or indirectly,
- Task activities that vary between different jobs within the same organisation,
- Role-specific tasks that employees perform for compensation.
- Important traits needed for task completion include knowledge, skills, and abilities (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999).

Extra-role actions are defined as those that go beyond what is stated in formal job descriptions and improve organisational effectiveness. Extra-role performance was defined by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) as voluntary actions performed by an employee, that are believed to directly support the efficient operation of an organisation, even if they do not directly affect the individual's goal productivity. Examples of the extra role performance behaviour include assisting colleagues with job-related problems, accepting instructions without questioning, keeping the workplace clean and maintaining physical hygiene within the workplace, promoting a work climate that is tolerable and minimises the interruptions created by interpersonal conflict and protecting and conserving organisational resources (Smith et al., 1983).

The JD-R model is appropriate for this study because it emphasises individual work performance in relation to an employee's PE, OCB and WE. This means that an employee's in-role performance is just as important as their off-duty performance in the workplace.

3.4 DETERMINANTS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

WE is positively correlated with job resources like learning opportunities, autonomy, skill variety, performance feedback from colleagues and social support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Engagement has also been connected to personal resources. According to Luthans and Youssef (2007), individuals with self-confidence goals are motivated to pursue their objectives for intrinsic reasons, which leads to increased performance and satisfaction.

3.4.1 Job demands - resources model

The relationship between job resources and employees' level of engagement has been explained by the job demands-resources model (JD-R). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), the model presupposes that every organisation is comprised of two distinct categories: job demands and job resources. These categories are tailored to specific organisational contexts.

The job demands - resources model was used in earlier studies on engagement as a useful framework to understand how engagement can be adopted within the organisations (Bakker & Leiter, 2010; Schaufeli, 2008). The foundation of this model is the idea that there are job resources and demands in every organisation and that these things exist in every organisational setting (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Positive self-evaluations connected to resilience, known as personal resources, describe how people perceive their ability to successfully influence and control their surroundings. They are individual-valued cognitive beliefs that can be used to obtain other resources like materials, energy, or working conditions (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Job resources are the physical, social, and organisational aspects of a job that have the potential to: (a) reduce the physiological and psychological costs associated with job demands; (b) facilitate the achievement of work objectives; or (c) foster personal development, learning, and growth. (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Therefore, resources are not only important but also necessary to handle the (high) demands of the job.

The elements of a job that necessitate continuous mental or physical effort and are consequently linked to specific psychological and/or psychological costs, such as fatigue, are referred to as job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Job demands are related to tasks that employees must complete in their workplace and are not always perceived negatively, though they can become a source of stress when meeting demands that come with a high price tag and high effort requirements, which can lead to negative reactions like anxiety, depression, or burnout (Nienaber & Martins, 2016).

Workload, time constraints, emotional exhaustion, incapacity to perform necessary tasks and lack of assistance from colleagues and supervisors to meet expectations are a few examples of job demands (Crawford et al., 2010).

The physical, psychological, social and organisational components of a job (1) help achieve work objectives; (2) lessen job demands and the corresponding psychological and physiological costs; or (3) foster personal development are referred to as job resources. Resources can be found at the task level (e.g., performance feedback, skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy), the organisational level (e.g., salary, career opportunities, job security), the interpersonal and social relations level (e.g., team climate, support from supervisors and colleagues) and the level of the work (e.g., role clarity, decision-making involvement).

While Nienaber and Martins (2016) point out that the lack of adequate job resources to perform the job effectively may threaten and elicit an increase in the amount of stress employees experience during work activity, which, in turn, results in disengagement, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) consider job resources to be the working conditions, social support, and instruction that enable employees to complete their job duties because they believe they are capable.

Examples of job resources include organisational resources like the chance to progress in one's career, job-specific resources like autonomy, performance feedback, variety of tasks and sufficient job information and social resources like the support of colleagues and superiors (Crawford et al., 2010; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Workplace resources primarily encourage engagement in terms of vigour, or intensity, dedication, or perseverance and absorption, or concentration (Nienaber & Martins, 2016).

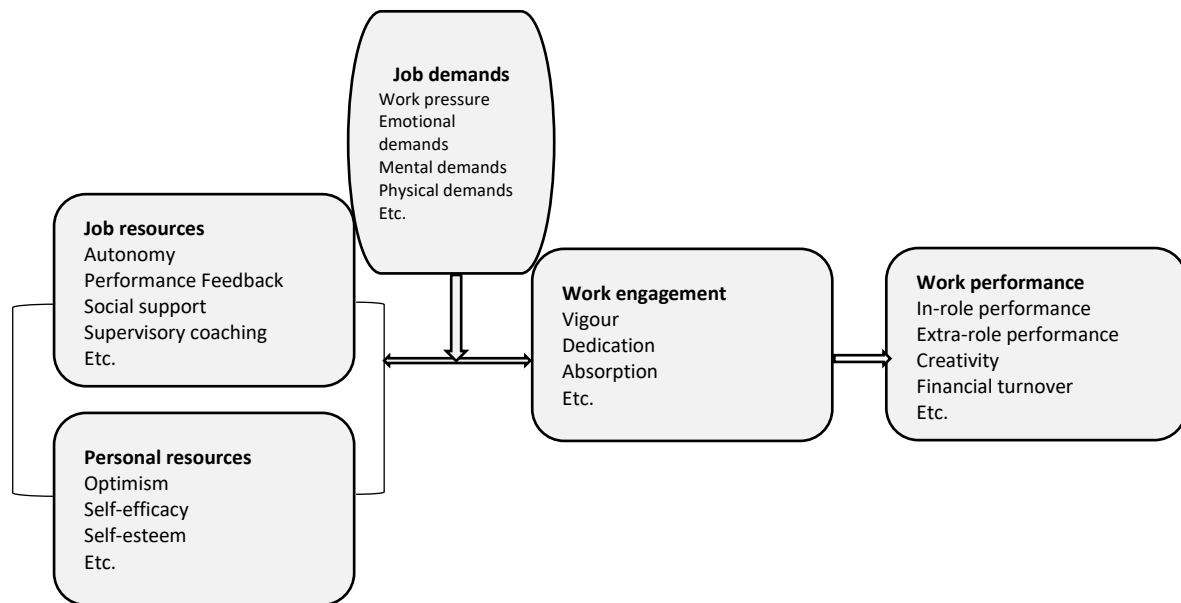
A person's sense of control and ability to successfully influence their environment is referred to as their personal resources. These aspects of oneself are linked to resilience (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli, 2013).

3.4.2 Work engagement model

The modified work and engagement model is the engagement model used in this investigation.

Figure 3.1

Adapted work and engagement (JD-R) model



Note. The work and engagement job demand and resources adapted model. From “Towards a model of work engagement” by Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, *Career Development International*, 13, p. 209. Copyright 2008 by Emerald Group Publishing.

Work engagement is defined by Kahn (1990) as the concurrent application and expression of an individual's preferred self during tasks that support personal presence, connections to others and active, full performances. According to May et al. (2004), there are three components to work engagement: a physical, an emotional and a cognitive component. The physical component is defined as the energy required to complete the task; the emotional component is defined as exhibiting suitable emotions while working; and the cognitive component is defined as demonstrating the capacity for clear thought while carrying out the assigned task.

WE were also conceptualised by Schaufeli et al. (2002) as a motivational construct, with a positive, fulfilling state of mind related to work that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.

The vigour element of WE is defined by high levels of energy and mental toughness while working, a willingness to put effort into one's work, and perseverance in the face of setbacks (Salanova et al., 2005). The dedication aspect of WE include a sense of purpose, excitement, inspiration, pride, and challenge (Salanova et al. 2005). According to Salanova et al. (2005), absorption is a state of complete focus, contentment, and engrossment in one's work, during which time passes quickly and it is difficult to separate oneself from work.

Yener et al. (2012) confirms that the UWES, a tool used to measure WE, consists of three final factors - vigour, absorption and dedication. The finding is consistent with earlier research by Schaufeli et al. (2004). When conducting principal component analysis in hospital nurses, Beukes and Botha (2013) discovered a two-factor structure of the work engagement scale with eigenvalues of 9.13 and 1.07 that were greater than one, as confirmed by the scree plot, which also revealed two factors. The components explain 60% of the variance of the instrument. Hence, two factors were used, instead of original three factor structure.

According to Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015), the standardised beta for vigour ($\beta = 0.242$) explained more variance of the dependent variable than the standardised beta for likelihood of loss of job features ($\beta = 0.184$). Job insecurity and work engagement accounted for 25% of the variation in organisational commitment. Additionally, the results of the multiple linear regression analysis demonstrated that 25% of the variance in organisational commitment was predicted by work engagement (vigour) and job insecurity (likelihood of job features).

WE have been found to be predicted by job resources, particularly when there are high demands on the job (Bakker et al., 2008). Employees who are engaged perceive themselves as fully capable of handling the demands of their work and they feel an active and productive connection with their work activities (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

3.5 WORK ENGAGEMENT, LEADERSHIP AND PERFORMANCE

WE and IWP are positively correlated, according to earlier research. According to Bakker et al. (2004), colleagues gave engaged employees higher ratings for both in-role and extra-role performance—discretionary behaviours that are thought to directly support an organisation's effective operation without necessarily having an impact on an individual's target productivity. This implies that engaged employees are hard workers who are willing to go above and beyond in their jobs. Job resources were found to be the most significant predictors of extra-role performance, while job demands were found to be the most significant predictors of in-role performance (through their influence on disengagement).

Salanova et al. (2005) found that employee ratings of organisational resources, engagement, and service climate were positively related to customer ratings of employee performance and loyalty in a fast-food restaurant. In the study of fast-food restaurants, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) discovered that days with many job resources, like team dynamics and supervisor coaching, as well as personal resources, like optimism, self-efficacy and self-esteem, were associated with higher employee engagement. As a result, they contributed to daily engagement, which led to higher performance and financial returns.

Barker (2011) indicates that there are four reasons why engaged workers outperform disengaged ones in the workplace. First, thankfulness, joy and enthusiasm are among the positive emotions that engaged workers frequently feel. Employees' thought-action inventory is expanded by these positive emotions, suggesting that they are continuously developing their personal resources. Second, engaged employees enjoy better health. This implies that they can concentrate and devote all their abilities and energy resources to their work. Thirdly, engaged workers spread their engagement to those in their immediate surroundings. Finally, engaged workers build their own jobs and personal resources.

High performance is usually the result of collaborative effort among team members; one person's engagement may spread to others, indirectly improving team performance.

Prior studies demonstrate that charismatic leadership can influence work engagement, a measure of how meaningful an employee's work is (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010).

According to Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010), there is a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.40$, $p < 0.01$) between charismatic leadership and work engagement. Additionally, there is a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$) between work engagement and OCB and work engagement accounts for 16% of the variance in OCB. Significant regression was observed between work engagement and charismatic leadership, with $\beta = 0.40$, $p < 0.01$ and $R^2 = 0.16$. Of the variance in work engagement, charismatic leadership explained 16% of the variation.

Nel et al. (2015) discovered that positive leadership has statistically and practically significant correlations with PE ($r = 0.45$) and WE ($r = 0.45$).

3.6 WORK ENGAGEMENT AND BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

Previous research discovered that biographical factors such as age, educational background, gender, job level, and years of service had varying effects on the relationship between dependent and independent constructs. According to Sonnentag (2003), age, gender and years of service can affect engagement.

Rice (2009) results showed that years of service was significantly correlated with dedication, absorption, job security and satisfaction with compensation. However, the study found that years of service on the one hand was not predictor of satisfaction with supervision and did not moderate the relationship between variables involved, that is, vigour, commitment, absorption and contentment with co-workers or satisfaction with supervision on the other hand. Wang and Hsieh (2013), on the other hand, found that age, marital status and position level significantly influence employee engagement.

Lu et al. (2015) discovered that age had a significant effect on employee engagement at work in terms of vigour, commitment, and focus. Females were found to have greater dedication than males. Age had a positive influence on employees' turnover intentions, indicating that older employees are more likely to leave than younger employees.

However, Simpson (2009) in a study to predict WE amongst medical and surgical registered nurses, discovered that WE had a weak positive relationship with age and as age of the nurse increases, WE increased. In addition, they discovered no connection between WE and years of nursing experience, $r(160) = -0.025, p > 0.05$. In terms of qualifications, Simpson (2009) found a marginally significant difference in WE between registered nurses with associate degree level and bachelor's degrees.

Sehunoe et al. (2015) discovered no statistically significant variation in the combined dependent variable, work engagement, across ages, genders, races, or levels of qualification. Munir et al. (2015) study reveals that education was found to have a significant correlation with the three engagement scales (vigour, dedication and absorption) as well as job grade, indicating that individuals with higher qualifications were likely to have higher levels of job grade and WE. Additionally, vigour, dedication and absorption were correlated with job grade. Also, the study discovered no connection between vigour and gender.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 3 addressed the second literature research aim, which was to conceptualise workplace engagement from a theoretical and psychological perspective. After discussing the conceptual underpinnings of work engagement, various concepts associated with work engagement were outlined. The preferred work engagement model was one of the topics covered, along with biographical factors that were highlighted as potential moderating factors in the relationship between WE, OCBs and IWP in the workplace.

A part of third research aim, that is, to conceptualise organisational citizenship behaviour constructs as beneficial factors that enhance individual work performance, was covered in Chapter 4. Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) study on the undergraduate students, found that higher WE had influence on employees' OCB. Tims et al. (2014) found that WE positively influence task performance and OCBI. It is, therefore, the similar objective to explore this relationship between OCB and work performance of individual employee within organisations as an added construct of this research.

CHAPTER 4: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

The third aim of the literature review, was to conceptualise OCB and its aspects in the workplace, became the subject of Chapter four. By identifying the major advancements in organisational citizenship behaviour through an integrated analysis of the body of existing literature, the research is placed into context. Concepts influencing OCB are identified and highlighted. This chapter examine the extent of OCB as a key differentiator that affects individual employee's productivity at work within the organisation. Finally, the biographical variables moderating the relationship between the study constructs are discussed.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The South African workplace has seen several advancements and changes that are driven by several factors ranging from privatisation, restructuring, economic factors, government policies and politics. This has forced employers to consider job variables such as work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and empowerment as critical employee attitude and behaviour within the workplace to achieve expected individual employee and organisational aims and performance objectives (Stander & Rothman, 2010).

Within an organisation, every individual is expected to perform specific roles as defined by job descriptions and superior expectations. However, there are times when people go above and beyond what is expected of them. In many organisations, employees assist their coworkers in ways that are not part of their job responsibilities. This assistance is natural and does not result in a formal reward. Such 'extra role behaviour' is known as organisational citizenship behaviour (Sharma & Jane, 2014).

4.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organ (1988, p. 4) defined OCB as "discretionary behaviour that is not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and, in the aggregate, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation." OCB are defined by Wittig-Berman and Lang (1990) as voluntary, organisation-serving behaviours that employees exhibit that are not associated with their official duties. Organisational citizenship practices, according to several researchers, are helpful mechanisms that may enhance organisational effectiveness, which, in turn, improves both individual and organisational performance (Ladebo, 2009; Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2014).

The definition of OCB by Organ (1988) implies that employees not only fulfil their professional obligations and job duties, but also take voluntary actions in support of the organisation, such as assisting others, promoting company image, participating in decision making, and providing advice.

OCBs are typically discretionary and non-work-related behaviours. These are less likely to be formally or explicitly rewarded; however, such behaviours have been found to be beneficial to individuals within organisations, and the results have been found in literature to be beneficial to the organisation's long-term success (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The literature had observed some similarities and differences among the various types of OCB constructs and has emphasised importance of the causes and effects, at the levels of the organisation and the employees (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The construct includes altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, civic virtue and courtesy and are important to organisational functioning. OCB research has focused on the causes and effects at the organisational and employee levels.

Table 4.1 indicates the diverse definition of OCB as indicated by researchers at different times.

Table 4.1

Summary of organisational citizenship behaviour definitions

Organisational citizenship behaviour	
Researchers	Definition/Dimension
Borman and Motowidlo (1993)	Contextual performance is characterised by non-task-related work behaviours and activities that support the organisation's social and psychological components.
Dalal (2005)	"Intentional employee behaviour that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organisation" is the definition of counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).
Coleman and Borman (2000)	Interpersonal citizenship performance Organisational citizenship performance Job-Task citizenship performance

Organisational citizenship behaviour	
Researchers	Definition/Dimension
Emami (2012)	OCB encompasses positive and constructive behaviours that employees engage in voluntarily, supporting co-workers and benefiting the organisation.
Fan et al. (2023)	OCB: Behaviour that promotes organisational effectiveness, including altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue.
George (2017)	OCB refers to non-rewarded behaviours like altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue
LePine <i>et al.</i> (2002)	The general propensity to be helpful and cooperative in organisational work environments is known as the OCB construct.
Organ (1997), p. 95	The definition of OCB is "performance that supports the psychological and social context in which task performance occurs."
Organ (1988)	OCB is described as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation"
Podsakof et al. (2023)	Employee work behaviour that is positive and beneficial to an organisation but is not specifically required in the job description. It is discretionary behaviour not directly compensated by organisations reward system.
Wittig-Berman and Lang (1990)	Organisation-serving behaviours that employees exhibit on a voluntary basis and outside of their official duties are known as organisational citizenship behaviours, or OCBs.

Note. The organisational citizenship behaviours definitions table compiled by the author.

In this current study, the most appropriate definition of OCB applicable is by Organ (1988), which is stated above. All other definitions build on the original definition by Organ (1988). Since this study focus is to develop the model to improve individual employee performance and to enhance organisational efficiency, Organ's (1988) definition is the fit for the purpose of the study. OCB involves seven types of behaviours which include:

- (1) *Helping behaviour* – “altruism, courtesy, peace-making and cheerleading”, this relates to assistance to specific persons, such as colleagues, clients, associates, or superiors (Organ, 1988). This type of behaviour is designated as OCB-I and its contribution is targeted toward an individual.
- (2) *Sportsmanship* includes OCB-I, “I” the “individual”, which is the intended beneficiary. It is about helping and cooperating with colleagues; these are OCB actions taken with the intention of averting issues that might otherwise arise for specifiable individuals.
- (3) *Organisational loyalty*; this type of behaviour encompasses OCB-O which indicates that the organisation or unit as an entity is the target. Such behaviour is demonstrated by a person's consistent high standards for attendance, punctuality, resource conservation, and time management at work.
- (4) *Organisational compliance* and obedience, often referred to as generalised compliance and spreading goodwill. This type of behaviour also encompasses OCB-O, “O” the “organisation”, which is intended beneficiary and it is about employees' intentions to determine and put into practise modifications to work practices, rules and guidelines to enhance the environment and output.
- (5) *Individual initiative* includes conscientiousness, consist of actions that go well beyond the organisation's minimal role requirements (Law et al., 2005). These actions show that workers respect and follow the policies, guidelines and procedures of the company.
- (6) *Civic Virtue* is characterised by behaviours that demonstrate the worker's genuine concerns and interest in the organisation's operations (Law et al., 2005). It entails making constructive suggestions and protecting the organisation; however, it can also be displayed on a larger scale by defending the company's standards and procedures when challenged by an external source.
- (7) *Self-development* is an employee's ability to accept the pain even if they do not like or agree with the changes that are taking place within the organisation (Smith et al., 1983) in order to reduce the number of complaints from employees, which administrators must deal with (Graham, 1986; Choi, 2007).

Employees are not obligated to display the defined behaviours, also, they would not be punished when they do not display these behaviours. Organisations, though, may reward employees displaying these behaviours as such behaviours contribute significantly to successful task fulfilment, helping and collaborating with others, reasonable organisational rule and procedure following, maintenance, support and confirmation of organisational goals (Barzoki & Rezaei, 2017). In general OCB plays an important role in analysing and understanding individual attitudes and behaviours in organisations (Borman, 2004).

Mendes and Stander (2011) indicate that employees are more likely to experience psychological empowerment if they feel that their leadership is invested in their professional growth, promotes accountability and allows them to take part in decision-making. As a result, there would be a rise in employee loyalty and involvement in organisational procedures, which would make them less likely to participate in abnormal workplace behaviour (Bester et al., 2015). However, OCB extends beyond employee performance based on formal job expectations. It represents those activities carried out by staff members that go above and beyond the minimal role specifications required by the company to advance the wellbeing of colleagues, work groups and/or the company (Lovell et al., 1999).

Relationship between the constructs of engagement and empowerment from previous research had interrelations with OCB in the workplace since work environment have a way of influencing work behaviour and employee attitude. For example, if employees work in an unfriendly environment that creates a negative feeling of disengagement and disempowerment, they might be hesitant to act in ways that go beyond their roles. As a result, they are more likely to engage in undesirable and negative behaviours while at work. (Islam et al., 2015).

Absenteeism, theft, taking excessive breaks, misconduct, being uncooperative with others, and related misconduct are some of the most common examples of undesirable behaviour to eliminate. As a result, organisations emphasise the practice of OCB in order to minimise and eliminate these negative and undesirable characteristics. Changing these employees' attitudes and behaviours will contribute to organisational development (Lee et al., 2013). Thus, the achievement of the organisation is dependent on employees' willingness to go above and beyond their job responsibilities and to be good servants to the organisation (Markóczy & Xin, 2004).

For this reason, it is, therefore, critical that we look at the importance and benefits of OCB and its dimensions as it relates to engagement, empowerment, leadership and performance in the workplace. However, as a starting point the OCB model is outlined to provide a base for the review of the chapter.

Organ (1988) developed the OCB model which comprise the following five qualities: civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, kindness and sportsmanship. Williams & Anderson (1991) later divided OCB into two categories: OCB-I and OCB-O model. This model is depicted in figure 4.1. Among the different known models this study will use OCB which consists of two dimensions (OCB-I – benefitting individual) and (OCBO – benefitting the organisation). The model is depicted in figure 4.1 and the framework outlined.

4.3 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR MODEL

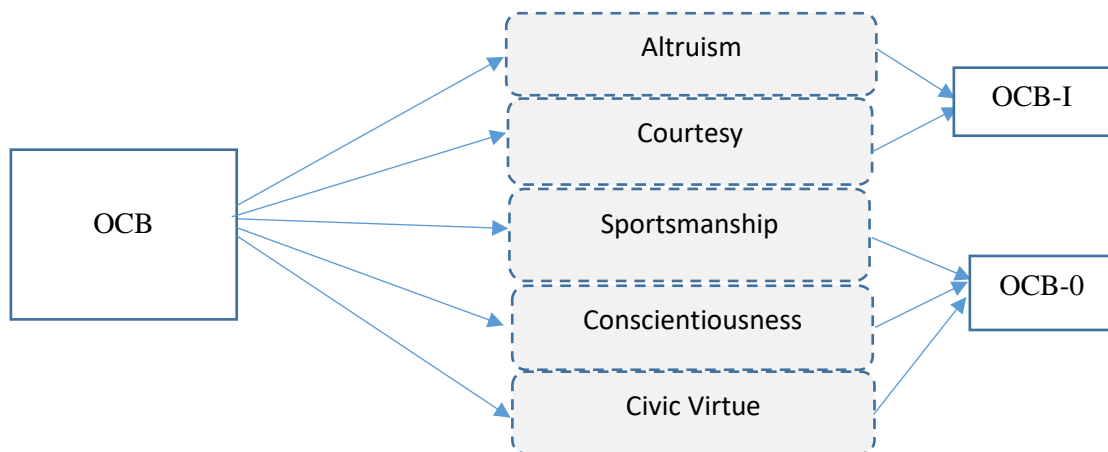
The theoretical development to OCB has tended to emphasise either the pro-social, citizenship nature of the behaviours or that OCBs are just activities that are extra to the employees' role. Similarly, the delineations presented by Williams and Anderson (1991) have tried to separate out whether the drivers of the behaviours are extrinsic, or intrinsic, rather than only pro-social (Jepson & Rodwell, 2006). These opinions might also blend perfectly. Ideas of OCBs as purely (personal) pro-social behaviors, such as altruism that happens in the absence of external rewards, for example, may be at one end of a continuum of OCBs that extends from behaviors that occur to reflect adherence to informal rules at work to behaviours that are comparatively instrumental in compliance. The OCBs have been operationalised differently but overlappingly because of these many theoretical advancements (Jepsen et al., 2006).

Williams and Anderson (1991) operationalised an alternative two factor model of OCB, making a distinction between the employees' behaviour having either a specific individual as the target (OCB Individual/OCBI) or the organisation as the primary beneficiary (OCB Organisational/OCBO). Each of the OCBI and OCBO scales has seven items. Williams and Anderson drew many items for the scales from previous researchers such as Organ (1988) and added new items where they considered it necessary. The scales were developed as an employer measure, not a self-report measure.

The model went through several theoretical development. The first theoretical development uses the five constructs to measure OCB and the second theoretical development is that of Williams and Anderson (1991) which is re-organised into OCB for the individual (OCB-I) dimension, which comprise (altruism and courtesy) and the OCB for the organisation (OCB-O) dimension, which comprises sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue.

Figure 4.1

Organisational citizenship behaviour model



Note. The organisational citizenship behaviour model showing how OCB two subdimensions are constituted. From “Job satisfaction and organisational commitment as predictors of organisational citizenship and in-role behaviours” by Williams and Anderson, 1991, *Journal of Management*, 17(3), p. 601. Copyright 2008 by Scientific Research Publishing.

The second theoretical development is more appropriate as the focus of the model is on individual work performance and effective organisational performance. In this way both OCB-I, which focusses on individual and OCB-O, which focusses on an organisation covered the objective of the study and OCB included:

- Altruism involves selflessness and concern for others' well-being.
- Conscientiousness, demonstrating commitment to high standards of work quality and completion.
- Sportsmanship, choosing to refrain from complaining or acting negatively.
- Courtesy, taking measures that assist in preventing problems from occurring or taking actions in advance to mitigate a problem.

- Civic virtue refers to constructive behaviours participating responsibly in life, that is, assuming the stance of "constructive, accountable participation in the organisation's political or governance processes" (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

In this regard, the OCB-I framework contains the altruism and courtesy dimensions, while the OCB-O framework includes the conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue dimensions of Organ's (1988) framework.

4.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCB AND RELATED CONSTRUCTS

The current study involved four constructs which included OCB, PE, WE and IWP. The relationship between these constructs is important. There were other constructs, which relate very well to OCB leadership and these are highlighted in the discussion below.

Previous research found a positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and other constructs, namely psychological empowerment, work engagement, job performance, leadership, and counter-productive behaviour and this relationship is outlined in the paragraphs to follow.

4.4.1 Organisation Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Psychological Empowerment

According to Walz and Niehoff (1996), OCB improved job performance in a restaurant setting by increasing overall operating efficiency, customer satisfaction and handling of customer complaints. While OCB has influence, is not formally rewarded, however, employees feel empowered (Emami et al., 2012). Spreitzer (1995) discovered that individuals who are empowered view their jobs as important and have a sense of competence and influence over them. These employees are more likely to take initiative and participate in work-related volunteer activities.

The process of raising employees' sense of self-efficacy within an organisation is known as empowerment and delegating authority to its employees. Empowerment is characterised by a range of factors that influence how people interact with their surroundings and motivate them to take the initiative to act and improve procedures. Employee empowerment is defined as employees being more proactive and self-sufficient in helping an organisation achieve its goals (Herrenkohl et al., 1999).

Psychological empowerment reflects an active orientation of wanting to influence one's work role and context (Spreitzer, 1997). Psychological empowerment is a four-dimensional construct that includes meaning (of work tasks), competence (belief in ability to perform work activities), self-determination (control over work behaviours and choice in actions), and impact (positive results).

Psychological empowerment concept is precipitated by the social structural empowerment. Bowen and Lawler (1995) regard social structural model of employee empowerment is a result of organisational procedures that disperse authority, data, expertise and incentives across the board. It highlights how crucial it is to shift organisational structures, policies and practises from top-down control systems to high involvement practises.

However, empowerment theorists regard social-structural perspective as limiting, in that, there are situations where power, information, knowledge and incentives were given to workers, but they felt disempowered. In other circumstances, people behaved and felt empowered despite the absence of all the objective components of an empowering work environment. As a result, the psychological empowerment perspective emerged. The four cognitions of psychological empowerment are impact, competence, meaningfulness and self-determination/choice, according to Spreitzer (1995).

Meaning is defined as a purposeful and personal approach to the work goal. It can be found in almost any task, position, or organisation. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), people who believe their jobs are important and worthwhile are more satisfied with their jobs than those who believe they have little value.

Competence, the second aspect of PE is the belief that employees have in their ability to do their jobs effectively. Studies on self-efficacy show that people who believe they can succeed are more satisfied with their work than people who are afraid they won't be able to. Martinko and Gardner (1982) argue that being afraid of failure can lead to helplessness, and that such people are less satisfied with their work than people who are confident in their levels of competence.

Self-determination/choice is concerned with the delegation of authority to make workplace decisions. When workers can plan and schedule their work, including what to do, when to start and stop working, they are exercising self-determination. (Spector, 1986). A sense of control or self-determination over one's work is rewarding since any achievements can be attributed more to the person doing the work than to others. In addition, Brown and Petersen

(1994) discovered that task autonomy and decision-making latitude are linked to higher job satisfaction.

The final dimension, **impact**, measures how much a worker can affect the strategic decisions and issues of the organisation. (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Employee's psychological empowerment is, therefore, essential and significant for enhanced teamwork and organisational performance. When people believe they have a direct impact on outcomes that affect their organisations, they should feel satisfied with their jobs (Spreitzer, 1990).

Spreitzer (1995) discovered that empowered people see their jobs as important and have a sense of competence and influence over them. These employees are more likely to be proactive and engage in volunteer activities at work. These positive and volunteer behaviours are known as OCBs. According to the findings on the impact of PE on OCB and job satisfaction, employees are more likely to exhibit OCB and be satisfied with their jobs when they feel competent, impactful, and self-determined at work (Bogler & Somech, 2004). The concept of OCB has gained a lot of traction amongst researchers and practitioners due to its positive implications towards enhancing the performance of employees (Becton et al., 2017; Saleem et al., 2017).

According to Saleem et al. (2017), there is a substantial correlation between OCB and the overall employee perception of psychological empowerment. Specifically, employee empowerment accounts to 42.3% of the variance in OCB. Literature further reveals that PE positively correlate with OCB (Ginsburg et al., 2016; Khajepour et al., 2016).

According to Ghalavi et al., (2020) when investigating the relationship between servant leadership and OCB with PE as mediating variable discovered that the amount of correlation coefficient of PE with OCB was significant at ($r = 0.724, p < 0.01$) and direct effect of PE on OCB was significant at ($\beta = 0.67, t = 8.03$).

Almohtasep et al., (2023) found that PE can influence job crafting, which can lead to OCB, hence, job crafting can significantly mediate the relationship between PE and OCB. Also, Nwokolo et al., (2023) findings revealed that the employees' psychological empowerment significantly and positively correlates with the OCB and that the psychological empowerment of the employees significantly moderates the relationship between their job insecurity and OCB.

4.4.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour and employee engagement

Looi et al. (2004) suggest that best employers recognise that their most valuable asset is their employees in achieving the business outcomes required to succeed in the marketplace. As a result, the goal of the best employers is to create and retain an engaged workforce. Recognising the link between people practices and business results distinguishes the best from the rest. Individuals who take initiative to enhance business outcomes for their organisations are considered engaged employees. They stay, speak and strive; they speak well of their workplace, remain devoted to the organisation and try attempt go above and beyond to produce exceptional work (Looi et al., 2004).

According to Baumruk (2004), employee engagement is a key indicator of an organisation's success and financial performance. Previous research results show that employee engagement predicts OCB. Ariani (2013) study established that employee engagement is one of the possible predictors of OCB wherein workers exhibit a propensity to act responsibly and helpfully at work.

According to Ullah et al. (2018), there is a positive correlation ($r = .54$) between OCB and employee engagement. The study also found that 29% of the variance in employee engagement can be attributed to OCB. The findings of Abas et al. (2019) showed a significant correlation between OCB and WE and that WE account for 17.8% of the variance in OCB.

4.4.3 OCB, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Bateman et al. (1983) indicate that job satisfaction triggers citizenship behaviours more than other support systems provided by the organisation. In accordance with this, Organ and Konovsky (1989) discovered that job satisfaction is the strongest correlate with OCB. Muzanenhama et al. (2016) found a weak but positive correlation ($r = 0.13$) between OCB and job satisfaction. Chiboiwa et al. (2010) discovered a moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.19, p < 0.05$) between job satisfaction and OCB.

Darmanto (2015) emphasises the efficacy of the relationship, stating that OCBs are more likely to be found among satisfied employees. Similarly, Bergeron (2007) notes that the happier the employees, the more likely they are to exhibit positive behaviours that contribute significantly to organisational success. Itiola et al. (2014) discovered in a different study that the characteristics of OCB (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship and general compliance), predict administrative staff members' job satisfaction in a state-owned tertiary institution in Nigeria.

Munyon et al. (2010) discovered that there is a constant positive correlation between OCB and job satisfaction and that people with high levels of optimism who continue to engage in OCBs also report high levels of job satisfaction.

A study conducted by Ueda (2011) on OCB in a Japanese organisation revealed that civic virtue and helping behaviour were significantly positively correlated with job involvement ($r = 0.54, p < 0.01$) and affective organisational commitment ($r = 0.38, p < 0.01$), while helping behaviour and sportsmanship were significantly positively correlated with job involvement ($r = 0.35, p < 0.01$). Collectivism also had a positive impact on civic virtue and helping behaviour. Furthermore, collectivism moderated the effect of affective organisational commitment on civic virtue, with affective organisational commitment having a stronger effect when collectivism was weak than when it was strong.

4.4.4 OCB and Job Performance

Hui et al. (1999) made a difference between in-role and extra-role performance, with the former being associated with work behaviours mandated by official job roles and extra-role behaviours are those behaviours that goes beyond the formal job roles. McCloy et al. (1994) describe performance as any behaviour or actions that are relevant to the organisational achievement and defines job performance as the activity or behaviour that supports the organisational goal.

Organ (1988) observes that extra-role behaviour is critical to the general operation of an organisation and that extra-role behaviour has been operationalised by OCB. OCB is behaviour that allows individual to be flexible and such behaviour is not paid by formal reward system in organisation, however, it contributes to the organisation's effectiveness. (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OCB is the primary driver of organisational success, according to Lian and Tui (2012). Lian and Tui discovered a significant correlation between leadership styles and OCB ($r = 0.63, p < 0.01$) in their investigation to ascertain the mediating role of subordinates' competence and downward influence strategies. That relationship was also further affirmed by the path analysis result of the same study ($\beta = 0.349, p < 0.005$). MacKenzie et al. (2001) conclude that transformational leadership influences salespeople to go "above and beyond the call of duty" and that transformational leader behaviours have stronger direct and indirect relationships with sales performance and OCB. Previous research has suggested that OCB has a significant impact on job performance (Farooqui, 2012).

According to Bommer et al. (2007), individual-level OCB has a significant relationship with job performance ratings ($r = 0.65$, $p < .01$), and group-level OCB accounts for over 38% of the variance in these relationships. Francis et al. (2018) show OCB and job performance had a significant positive relationship ($r = 0.51$, $p < 0.01$) and that OCB explained 51% of variance in job performance.

4.4.5 OCB and leadership

Transformational leadership is defined by Bass (1999) as a leader's capacity to encourage, mentor and inspire followers to perform at their highest level. Birasnav (2014) indicates that when the leader motivates, inspires, assists employees to have a better work, such employees develop intrinsic motivation, which leads to superior performance.

Research study by Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) discovered that the presence of a charismatic supervisor increases employee engagement, which fosters organisational citizenship. Transformational leadership and OCB were found to be significantly correlated by Abas et al. (2018), who also found that transformational leadership explained 19.1% of the variance in OCB. Empirical research on the connections between OCB and leadership has led researchers to conclude that followers who experience transformational leadership have higher levels of OCB (Goodwin et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005; Mackenzie et al., 2001).

4.5 OCB AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Age, education, and years of service appear to influence OCB, with older employees having a greater need for affiliation (Doering et al., 1983). Highly educated employees appear to place a higher value on activities that lead to career advancement (Bergeron et al., 2013), whereas tenured employees tend to find socially oriented activities more psychologically rewarding (Chou and Pearson, 2011; Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). Individual actions that support the upkeep and improvement of the social and psychological environments that facilitate task performance are viewed as part of OCB (Bolino et al., 2004; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2013; Tambe & Shanker, 2015).

Age may influence how OCB is displayed: younger employees (compared to older employees) appear to have a greater need for accomplishment rather than affiliation. (Doering et al., 1983; Gyekye and Haybatollahi, 2015). Thus, as employees get older, their behaviour shifts from competing to helping (Chou & Pearson, 2011). Numerous studies support this proposition; for example, Ng and Feldman (2008) found a significant and positive association between age

and OCB. Wanxian and Weiwu (2007) found similar results in a Chinese setting, reporting a positive relationship between employee perceptions of OCB and age. Chou and Pearson (2011) indicate that age significantly predicts the OCB of IT professionals.

It has been suggested that education will instil work values. When these values are translated into workplace behaviours, they frequently lead to better performance and, eventually, job success. (Darmanto, 2015). Ng and Feldman (2008) agree with this viewpoint, claiming that organisations frequently use educational achievements as a selection criterion given that a good education level reflects good values associated with citizenship behaviours. According to Ng and Feldman (2008), highly educated employees appear to be more creative and engaged in citizenship behaviours than less educated employees.

The length of an individual's employment with a company is known as their organisational tenure (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). According to research, tenure and OCB appear to be based on two widely held assumptions. First, employees with more years of service should be more skilled and productive than those with fewer years of service. Second, the organisation inherently expects these staff members with more experience to "connect, help, and guide" the more junior employees, and these "ageing" staff find socially oriented responsibilities more emotionally and psychologically fulfilling (Carstensen et al., 1999;). However, no significant differences have been found between years of service and OCB in a different cultural setting (Huei et al., 2014).

Ucho and Atime (2013) looked at the relationship between distributive justice, age and OCB in university staff members. They discovered a significant correlation between distributive justice and the dimensions of OCB (civic virtue, altruism, conscientiousness and sportsmanship), but not between age and OCB. In a study conducted among railway workers in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Mitonga-Monga et al. (2017) found that there was no statistically significant difference in the OCB of male and female participants and that age, education and years of service accounted for 13.8% of variation in OCB. Mitonga-Monga et al. (2017) reveal that age, education and organisational tenure were found to be significantly and positively correlated with OCB ($0.15 \leq r \leq 0.23$; small effect; $p \leq 0.001$).

4.6 OCB AND COUNTER-PRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOUR

Bolino et al. (2013) questions the belief by previous scholars, such as Organ et al. (2006) that OCB is consistently beneficial to employees and organisations. Contrary to this view, Bolino et al. (2013) in the review study that examined darker motives that underlie employees' desire to engage in OCBs found:

In the category of articles about professional costs of citizenship behaviour, Bolino and Turnley (2005) found negative consequences against citizenship behaviour in the workplace when investigating "the effects of individual initiative", a specific type of OCB that includes behaviours such as: arriving early or staying late, working from home, rearranging personal plans due to work, and taking on special projects. Individual initiative was found to be positively correlated with role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict; among women, the correlation was particularly strong. Vigota-Gadot (2007) in the study investigating the compulsory citizenship behaviour within an organisation, found that compulsory citizenship behaviours positively related to job stress, organisational politics, intentions to quit, negligent behaviour and burnout. The study also discovered a negative relationship between mandated citizenship behaviour and in-role performance, job satisfaction and innovation.

On other hand, Bergeron (2007) reported in his study of the resource-allocation framework that due to time constraints, employees who engage in OCB use resources for these behaviours that they cannot use for task performance. As a result, there is a probability that OCB and task performance will be correlated negatively. Employees who spent more time on OCB earned lower salaries and advanced at a slower rate than those who spent less time on it.

Professional Cost of the OCB Category following Bolino et al. (2005) discovered that using OCBs in an outcome-based reward system has negative career-related consequences. Furthermore, they discovered that employees who spent more time engaging in OCBs received lower salary increases and fewer promotions than those who focused on task performance.

Munyon et al. (2010) discovered that OCBs were positively related to job satisfaction among employees with high levels of optimism; however, the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction was linear among employees with lower levels of optimism, implying that OCBs

were positively related to job satisfaction up to a point, after which more OCBs were associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

The studies outlined above show that, while OCB is defined by its positive contributions to organisational performance (Organ, 1997), the motivations underlying these 'good' activities can be driven by improving one's own image rather than benefiting the organisation or its members.

With regard to citizenship and counterproductive behaviour, Fox et al. (2001) indicate that employees may perform citizenship behaviours to make amends to counterproductive behaviours (CWB) – which are acts that directly hurt organisational functioning, harm organisational property, or impede the productivity of other employees.

Spector and Fox (2010) proposed that, in certain circumstances, OCBs can lead to CWBs. According to Spector et al. (2010), employees frequently feel angry and resentful when they are forced to take on additional duties or work longer hours due to organisational constraints (e.g., insufficient resources), poor planning or communication, or to compensate for their coworkers' poor performance. These angry feelings may lead to counterproductive behaviour. Furthermore, anger may arise when employees do not receive the recognition or rewards, they expect due to their OCB. When OCBs go unnoticed or unrecognised, they can lead to further acts of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2010).

The discussion above indicates how important it is to also consider the negative side of the OCB results and proactively come up with measures to mitigate such counter behaviour.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The third aim of the literature review, which was to conceptualise OCB and its aspects in the workplace, was covered in Chapter 4. By identifying the major advancements in OCB through an integrated approach to the body of existing literature, the research was placed into context. The ideas influencing the behaviour of organisational citizenship were recognised and emphasised. The extent to which OCB serves as a key differentiator that influences each employee's productivity at work within the company was examined. Lastly, a discussion of the biographical variables and OCB in the workplace.

Part 4 of the research will be covered in Chapter 5, which focuses on conceptualising IPW constructs as beneficial factors that influence work performance.

CHAPTER 5: INDIVIDUAL WORK PERFORMANCE (IPW)

Chapter 5 focused on the fourth literature research aim, that is, to conceptualise IPW. The contextualisation of the concept is by determining the key developments of IPW using the current literature in an integrated manner. The discussions include highlighting and identification of concepts influencing work performance, in general, and IPW, specifically. A review of the extent of IPW as a unique construct in the performance of an organisation and biographical consideration are discussed.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Austin and Villanova (1992), since the field of applied psychology's founding, IPW has been a major focus. A distinction is made between task and contextual performance by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) in relation to IWP. Task performance is the skill with which a person carries out tasks that support the technical core of the organisation. For a production worker, the contribution can be direct; for a manager or staff member, it can be indirect. The term contextual performance refers to actions that improve the organisational, social, and psychological framework within which organisational goals are pursued but do not contribute to the technical core. In addition to actions like lending a hand to colleagues or being a dependable team member, contextual performance also involves offering recommendations for ways to streamline processes (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

There are three basic assumptions that are associated with the differentiation of contextual and task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Mowidlo & Smith, 1999):

- Task-related activities vary by job, but contextual performance activities are generally consistent.
- While contextual performance is linked to motivation and personality, task performance is related to ability.
- Task performance is defined as in-role behaviour, while contextual performance is more discretionary and extra-role.

Organisations frequently require high-performing individuals to achieve their objectives, deliver the products and services they specialise in, and gain a competitive advantage. Performance is important for the individual considering completing tasks and performing at a high level can provide a sense of accomplishment, mastery, and pride.

Low performance and failure to meet goals, on the other hand, may be perceived as dissatisfying, as opposed to a personal failure. Furthermore, when performance is recognised by others in the organisation, it is frequently rewarded with financial and other benefits. Individual performance is important; however, it is not the only factor influencing future career development and labour market success. In general, high performers advance more quickly within an organisation and have more career opportunities than low performers (Van Scotter et al., 2000).

Campbell et al. (2015) assert that without individual performance, there can be no job to be satisfied with, no organisation to be committed to and no work to balance with family. Furthermore, there can be no team performance, unit performance, organisational performance, GDP (gross domestic product), or performance in the economic sector without individual performance (Kim & Ployhart, 2014).

As authors demonstrate in the literature there is clear evidence of the importance of IPW. With the current situation of globalisation, pandemics, such as COVID-19 and the economic slump around the world, it is imperative to look at a model that is likely to yield positive outcomes for organisational stability and consistent performance.

According to Shen et al. (2020), the COVID-19 pandemic had a detrimental effect on the energy industry's corporate performance, with the industry performance declining in the first quarter of 2020. However, Sasaki et al. (2020) found that the number of workplace measures had a positive correlation with workers' performance but a negative correlation with psychological distress among the workforce, implying that more intensive implementation of workplace measures responding to COVID-19 reduces employees' psychological distress while maintaining their work performance.

South Africa is faced with a sequence of changes and progression within work environment which is motivated by several factors extending from privatisation, restructuring, economic and social factors, COVID-19 pandemic, infrastructure and political administration agenda. To be effective under such conditions, individuals and work teams must be able to quickly adapt to new task and job demands (Kozlowski et al., 2009).

The situation outlined above has compelled employers to consider job variables such as OCB, which Wittig-Berman and Lang (1990) define as discretionary, organisation-serving behaviours that employees engage in outside of their official duties, and WE, previous research has demonstrated that it is associated with positive attitudes and behaviours.

Engaged chemical process workers are more committed to safety behaviours than less engaged workers (Hansez and Chmiel, 2010), engaged workers have higher supervisor performance ratings than non-engaged workers (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), and engaged employees have more OCB and less counterproductive work behaviours than their less engaged colleagues (Sulea et al., 2012).

Additionally, research by Chiang and Hsieh (2012) shows that PE has a major impact on OCB, which in turn have an impact on the performance of the organisation and above discussed constructs are regarded as critical employee attitudes and behaviours within the workplace to achieve expected individual employee and organisational goals and performance objectives.

5.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF WORK PERFORMANCE

Performance is considered as an ultimate outcome of an organisation as well as an employee (Khan & Sadeli, 2020), whereas work performance is an indicator which is commonly applied to measure individual and group attitudes and behaviours within an organisation (Saraswati et al., 2020). Borman and Motowildlo (1993) define job performance as activities that workers perform in their jobs. Suliman (2001) defined job performance as values and behaviours a worker shows during a certain period for the aim of the organisation and their contributions to the organisation. Colquitt et al., (2017) formally define work performance as the value of the set of employee behaviours that contribute, either positively or negatively, to organisational goal achievement. Following Silitonga and Sadeli (2020) employee performance is often interpreted as representative of the organisation image. Koopman (2013), however define individual work performance as behaviours or actions that are relevant to the aims of the organisation.

Katz (1964) who is the first to use role theory framework to study individual work performance, identified several important roles employees engage in, namely dependable role performance, innovative and spontaneous, protection, and cooperation. According to Muchinsky and Manohan (1987), behaviour and performance are the same thing because behaviour is what people do and can be seen. Organisational citizenship behaviour was conceptualised following from the idea of role theory (Organ, 1997).

Welbourne et al. (1998) combine role theory and identity theory to come up with five distinct roles employees enact at work. Such roles included (i) job (representing in-role or task performance), (ii) career, innovator (like pro-active performance), (iii) team (like OCB-individual), and (iv) organisational (like OCB-organisation).

The extent to which work includes both established and emergent elements is determined by the larger context. According to Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1991), when a broader context defines stability and certainty, the established role takes precedence, whereas when the context is dynamic and uncertain, the role distribution reverses.

Later, due to shortcomings in the use of role theory framework in so far as broader organisational context not fully covered, Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1991) created a framework that distinguished between established tasks, which are the elements of a job that are formalised and generally written down, depending on predictable and static elements of work, and unpredictable tasks, which occur as a result of the non-static nature of work and are rarely formally expressed.

According to Campbell et al. (1993) when conceptualising performance made difference between an action (i.e., behaviour) aspect and an outcome aspect of performance. "Performance is what the organisation hires one to do, and do well" (Campbell et al., 1993, p. 40). As a result, only behaviours that are measurable and scalable are regarded as performance (Campbell et al., 1993). Accordingly, performance is defined by Campbell et al. (1993) as all human behaviour that is measurable and observable in terms of each person's proficiency or level of contribution. The consequence or outcome of a person's behaviour is referred to as the outcome of performance aspect.

Rothmann and Coetzer (2003) define job performance as a multidimensional construct that reflects how well employees complete their tasks, the initiative they take, and the resourcefulness they demonstrate when solving problems. Considering that examining the dimensions of individual performance is one of the study's goals, it is, therefore, important to define what IPW is and its ramifications.

Individual work performance is defined as actions and behaviours that support the objectives of the organisation (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell et al., 1993; Campbell & Knapp 2001; Murphy, 1989). Anitha (2014) defines performance as sticking to the plan and achieving desired results, then goes on to say that there is evidence of both non-financial and financial outcomes that are significantly linked to employee success and organisation. In particular, the efficiency and effectiveness of work performance are based on achieving the maximum output of work with fewer resources as input, meeting organisational goals, and completing the main agenda (Sujatha & Krishnaveni, 2018).

In the analysis of IPW definition, Campbell and Wiernik (2015, p.49) notes that "nothing in the definition requires that a set of performance actions be limited by the term job or that they remain static for an extended period of time." It also does not require that an organisation's goals remain fixed or that a specific management cadre oversee determining the organisation's goals (vision). Neither does it require that actions or goals be stated with a certain level of performance specificity (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p.49)."

Hence, "it is not a violation of this definition of performance for individual organisation members to decide themselves what actions are most relevant for what they think the organisation's goals are or should be". Furthermore, performance should not be confused with other metrics like efficiency or productivity, which are unquestionably important. Performance does not imply development, attrition, or promotion, all of which are important considerations.

Therefore, it is crucial that this study establish a scientific model linking IPW, OCB, PE and WE. It also aims to ascertain whether these behaviours are predictive of IPW.

To understand and effectively unlock organisation value, it is important to look at suitable IPW related models for organisations in the steel manufacturing. Researchers have attempted to develop models and taxonomies of IPW to better understand its nature and dimensionality (Borman & Motowildlo, 1993; Campbell et al., 1993; Johnson, 2003;).

The positive work role behaviours model (Griffin et al., 2007) has helped researchers to articulate the breadth of positive behaviours employees contribute to organisational effectiveness. Role theory has proven to be useful foundation when one looks at the model of IPW. Role theory is a popular framework used in associated research areas such as organisational behaviour and human resources (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991), social psychology (Eagly & Wood, 2016) and sociology (Biddle, 1986). Role theory focuses on how people behave in relation to their identities and the social context (Biddle, 1986).

Griffin et al. (2007) extend role theory as a function of the important characteristics of the organisational context by developing a framework. This framework of IPW by the authors is made up of nine performance dimensions, specifically, (a) team member proficiency, (b) team member adaptability, (c) team member proactivity and (d) individual task proficiency, (e) individual task adaptability, (f) individual task proactivity, (g) organisation member proficiency, (h) organisation member adaptability, (i) organisation member proactivity. These dimensions distinguish three degrees of uncertainty and interdependence. The types of performance are

related to levels of organisational uncertainty and refer to the extent to which "inputs, processes, and outputs of work systems" lack predictability (Griffin et al., 2007).

Established roles perform competently and effectively when the relationship between input, process, and output is predictable. As the link becomes more complex and unpredictable, emergent roles such as adaptive (adjusting to change) and proactive (self-initiating change) performance become increasingly important. The dimension of interdependence acknowledges the larger social network in which work is performed (Biddle, 1986) and the ways in which performance is thought to contribute to organisational effectiveness.

As work systems become more interdependent and uncertain, a variety of behaviours that contribute to effectiveness have emerged. Several constructs have been introduced that cover a broader range of responsibilities. In Table 5.1 below, Griffin et al. (2007) identified the main approaches to work performance that are currently being used and listed their key constructs sequentially.

Table 5.1
Aspects of performance domain

Author	Characteristics	Author	Characteristics
Borman & Motowidlo, (1993)	Task performance Contextual performance	Morrison & Phelps (1999)	– Taking charge
Borman et al. (2001)	<i>Citizenship performance</i> – Conscientious initiative – Personal support – Organisational support	Parker et al. (2006)	<i>Proactive work behaviour</i> – Proactive problem solving – Proactive idea implementation
Campbell et al. (1993)	<i>Whole performance domain</i> Proficiency in job-specific tasks: – non-job-specific tasks, – written and oral communication, – effort demonstration, – upholding self-discipline,	Podsakoff et al. (2000)	– helpful actions – sportsmanship – loyalty within an organisation – Organisational compliance – Personal initiative – Civic virtue – Personal growth

Author	Characteristics	Author	Characteristics
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – supporting peer and team performance – Leadership and supervision – Management and operations 		
Crant (2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – General proactive behaviour – Context-specific proactive behaviour 	Pulakos et al. (2000)	<i>Adaptivity</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Managing crises or emergency situations – Managing job-related stress. – Using creativity to solve problems, – Coping with ambiguous work situations – Using procedures, technologies and learning tasks – Displaying interpersonal adaptability – Exhibiting flexibility in cultural contexts – exhibiting physical flexibility
Frese & Fay (2001)	<i>Proactivity</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Personal initiative 		

Note. The table reflect the aspects of performance domain from different authors. From “A new model of role work performance: Positive behaviour in uncertain and interdependent contexts”, by M. Griffin, A. Neal, and S. Parker, 2007, *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(2), p. 327. Copy right 2016 by Charlesworth Publishing.

Having looked at the background to the development of the models towards the individual work performance, it is apparent and proven that performance can contribute to organisational effectiveness by completing tasks, demonstrating contextual performance, adapting to new circumstances and engaging in counterproductive behaviour, in line with a framework developed by Koopman (2014).

The aim of this study was to create a scientific model that considers PE, WE, OCB and IWP. Additionally, to ascertain whether individual work performance is predicted by PE, WE and OCB.

Koopman (2014) claims that IWP is a hot topic. It is important in our daily lives, in popular culture, and in a variety of scientific fields, including occupational health, work and organisational psychology, management, and economics. Koopman (2014) attributes the importance of individual work performance to three labour market trends. The first is globalisation of the economy, which entails increasing economic integration and interdependence of national economies around the world through a rapid increase in cross-border movement of goods, services, technology, and capital, resulting in increased competition between companies from all over the world. Companies must cut costs to stay afloat in these times of economic hardship, which includes retrenchments and/or outsourcing of work. Second, employees are encouraged to improve their IWP to boost overall company performance and productivity. Furthermore, employees tend to improve their IWP levels in order to increase their chances of surviving a potential reorganisation with a reduction in manpower. Finally, Europe's employability is dwindling as the older working population grows faster than the young working population. It is critical to improve individual work performance among workers in the labour force (Koopman, 2014).

As a result, individual work performance is a key indicator of team and company performance, contributing to company productivity and competitiveness. Economic recession, defined as a greater supply than demand for products, causes a drop in international trade, debts, bankruptcies, high unemployment rates, and low consumer confidence (Pennaforte, 2016), and has a negative impact on productivity. For these reasons, it is critical to focus on the development of an individual work performance model to assist steel companies (Othman & Mahmood, 2019).

Carpini (2018) reviewed and synthesised more than 90 commonly used performance constructs and classified them using a multidimensional model (Griffin et al., 2007), which distinguishes performance in terms of three categories, *proficiency* (the degree to which a person satisfies formalised role requirements), *adaptability* (the degree to which a person adjusts to modifications in a work environment or job duties) and *proactivity* (the extent to which the individual takes self-directed action to anticipate or initiate change in the work system or work roles) and included the level of contribution, which involved individual, team and organisation.

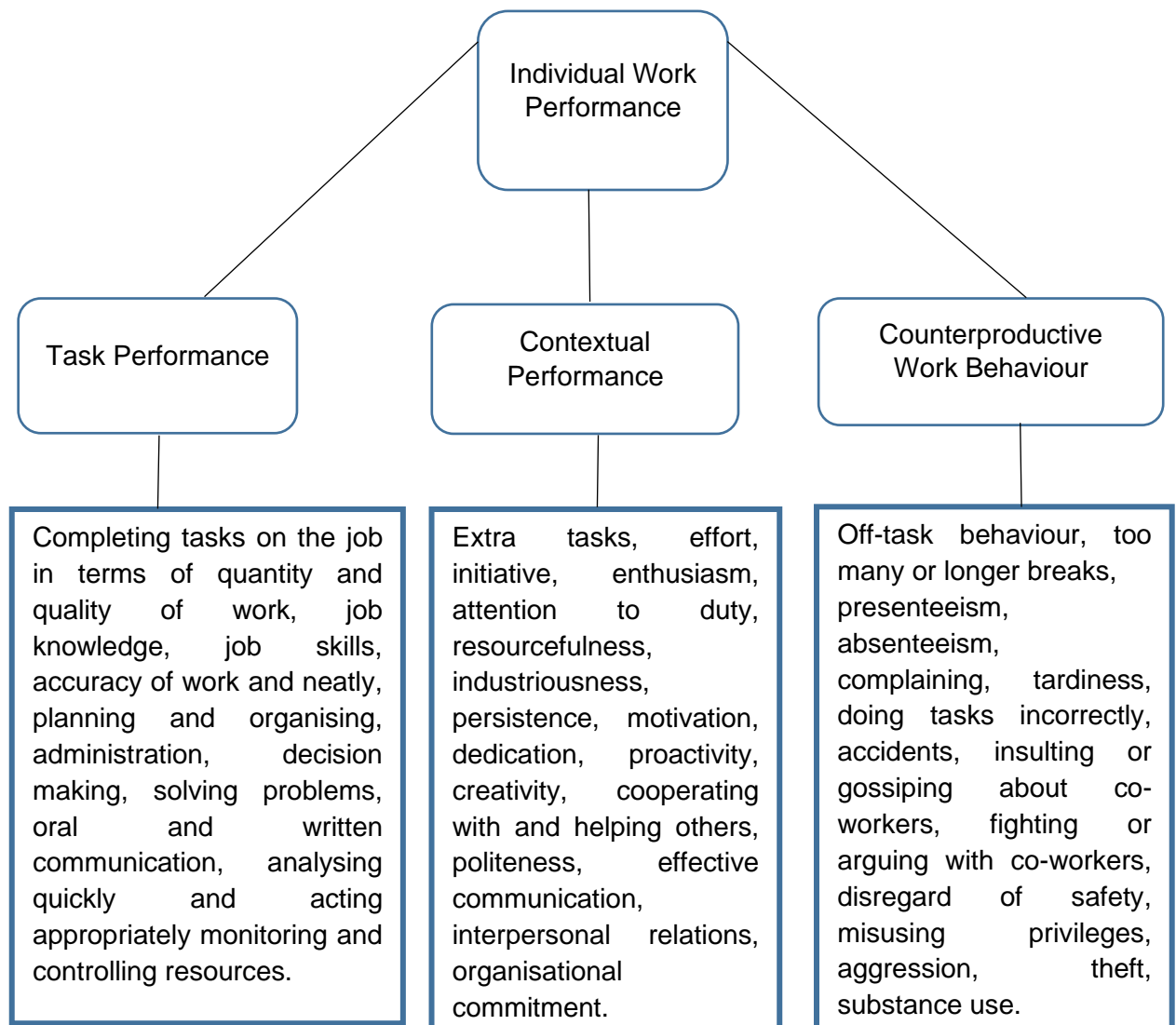
According to the findings, 54% of the constructs fell into the proficiency category, 20% into the adaptive performance category and 28% into the proactive performance category. The findings revealed that there is an abundance of proficiency-related constructs but a relative scarcity of adaptive and proactive performance, implying that more emphasis was required on adaptive and proactive performance.

5.3 HEURISTIC CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The heuristic conceptual framework (Figure 1) of IPW serves as a guide for understanding the construct of IPW. There are three levels involved in understanding the construct: i) a general factor at the top; ii) four dimensions at the second level; and iii) individual measures at the third level that correspond to each dimension. The criticality of these dimensions and the exact indicators associated with each dimension, differ depending on the context involved (Koopman, 2014).

Figure 5.1

Conceptual framework of the individual work performance



Note. The individual work heuristic framework task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive performance. From “Individual Work Performance (IWPQ)”, by L. Koopmans, C. M., Bernaards, V. H. Hildebrandt, S. van Buuren, A. J. van der Beek, and H. C. W de Vet (2014:48), American Psychological Association. Copy right 2019 by APA PsycTests Database Record.

The framework is outlined in the following paragraphs:

First, Aguinis and Kraiger (2009) define IWP as ability an individual possess to perform their work duties by possessing the required skills, experience, attitude and motivation, whereas Koopman (2014) defines IPW as employee behaviours or actions as opposed to the outcomes of these behaviours.

- Task performance is the skill (competence) with which a person executes essential job duties. Task performance is commonly referred to as specific task proficiency, technical proficiency, or in-role performance. Task performance also includes work quantity, work quality and job knowledge (Viswesvaran, 1993). Motowidlo and Schmit (1999) indicate five factors that refer to task performance: a) task proficiency related to the job; b) task proficiency not related to the job; c) written and oral communication skills; d) supervision in the event of a leadership or supervisory role; and (e) management/administration.
- Contextual performance refers to individual behaviours that support the organisational, social, and psychological environments required for technical operations. Van der Linden et al. (2001) distinguish between two types of contextual performance: behaviours that aim primarily at the smooth operation of the organisation as it is now. (i.e., OCB with its five components altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship), and proactive behaviours that aim at changing and improving work procedures and organisational processes (i.e., personal initiative, voice, and taking charge). Contextual performance is often labelled non-job-specific task proficiency, extra-role performance, OCB or interpersonal relations (Koopman, 2014). The mentioned concepts, however, refer to actions that go above and beyond the officially specified job objectives, like taking on extra work, demonstrating initiative, or mentoring new hires.
- Counter-productive work behaviour (CWB) refers to actions that are detrimental to the organisation's health. Campbell (2012) defines CWB refers to a category of individual actions or behaviours that are under individual control and have undesirable outcomes on goals of the organisation. Such behaviours include two primary factors: deviance directed at the organisation (CWB-O), for instance, theft, absence and deviance directed at other individuals (CWB-I), i.e., bullying, gossip.

- Adaptive performance refers to a worker's capacity to adjust to modifications to a work environment or job duties. The following three factors contribute to adaptive performance: a) having the flexibility to adjust to a changing workplace is increasingly important in today's society; b) whereas contextual performance comprises behaviours that positively influence the work environment, adaptive performance comprises behaviours in reaction to the changing work environment; c) empirical support for adaptive performance is the findings by that adaptive performance had differential predictors than task or contextual performance. Griffin et al. (2007) indicate adaptive performance occurs in response to an external demand that requires individuals to "adapt, cope with, and support changes". Proactive performance is characterised by agentic, change-oriented, and future-focused behaviour. Examples of proactive constructs include the innovator role (Welbourne et al., 1998), voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and taking charge (Morrison & Phelps 1999).

Individual work performance is defined by Campbell and Wiernik (2015) as "things that people do, actions they take, that contribute to the goals of the organisation". Most important are individual performance factors in a work role and these are described below.

Campbell (2012) describes the eight factors of individual performance in a work role as follows:

- All models acknowledge the importance of technical performance in various job roles. Such requirements can differ depending on the substantive area (driving a vehicle versus analysing data) and the level of complexity or difficulty within that area. Technical performance also includes basic interpersonal tasks like dealing with patients, vendors, customers, or members of the community (customer service).
- Communication: It refers to the ability to convey information in a clear, understandable, compelling, and organised manner. It is defined as being distinct from subject matter expertise, implying that it is not limited to formal communication. The two major sub-factors are oral and written communication, and their importance varies greatly depending on the job role. According to Lundberg, Törnqvist and Nadjm-Tehrani (2012), employees' communication activities across organisational boundaries – obtain and disseminating information to exchange information with other organisations. Albu and Wehmeier (2014) indicate that employees' voluntary communication behaviours are those actively seeking and sharing valuable and positive organisation-related information – reflect organisational resilience in the context of crisis.

- Initiative, persistence, and effort: This factor includes working extra hours, voluntarily taking on additional tasks, exceeding prescribed responsibilities, or working under extreme conditions. Frese (2008) describes these types of actions as active performance.

- * Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) refers to a group of personal behaviours or acts that are within a person's control and that are detrimental to the organisation's objectives. As previously stated, there appears to be widespread agreement that CWB comprises two major sub-factors: deviance directed at the organisation and deviance directed at other individuals. Spector et al. (2006) classify CWB into five categories: abuse of others, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. Abuse of others is a physically and psychologically dangerous behaviour that occurs to fellow employees or other people through actions such as threats and destructive comments.

Production deviance is a passive behaviour that involves not wanting to complete a task efficiently. Sabotage is an active behaviour that involves physically destroying or damaging organisational property. Theft is defined as the stealing of any property, including company information (Spector et al., 2006). In a study to determine leadership style, turnover intentions and CWB, Puni, Agyemang and Asamoah (2016) found a negative relationship between democratic leadership style and counterproductive behaviours ($r = -0.18, p < 0.05$). The negative relationship indicated that the more employees perceive their leaders to be engaging in democratic leadership style, the less they engage in counterproductive work behaviours.

- * Hierarchical leadership styles include supervisory, managerial, and executive levels. This factor describes leadership performance in a hierarchical relationship. It is also distinguished between leadership and management. Leadership is the process by which people influence one another. According to the leadership research literature, there are six sub-factors that best describe the substantive content. i) Consideration, support, and person-centeredness; ii) establishing structure, guiding, and directing; iii) emphasising goals; iv) empowerment, facilitation, and training; and v) coaching and serving as a model. The sub-factors describe what leaders do rather than performance outcomes (e.g., effective leader-member exchange, follower satisfaction, unit profitability), leadership performance determinants (e.g., cognitive ability, personality), or situational factors influencing leader performance.

Leadership is a series of interdependent processes. Hoch and Koslowski (2014) regard hierarchical leadership model as constituted by transformational leadership, leader member exchange and supervisory career mentoring and they proved to be highly reliable indicators of both individual and group performance. In addition to objective and subjective performance, supervisory career mentoring is more closely associated with career outcomes like salary level, promotion rate and job satisfaction. (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

- In a hierarchical organisation, hierarchical management performance refers to actions that generate, preserve, and allocate resources to achieve goals. This differs from leadership as interpersonal influence. There are eight meaningful sub-factors, which include (i) Decision making, problem solving, and strategic innovation; (ii) Goal setting, planning, organising, and budgeting; (iii) Coordination; (iv) Unit effectiveness monitoring; (v) External representation; (vi) Staffing; (vii) Administration; and (viii) Commitment and compliance.

Anderson et al. (2006) use a functionalist perspective to explain the hierarchy effectiveness relationship within a hierarchical organisation. They propose a positive pathway between hierarchy and team effectiveness through improved coordination-enabling processes, which are defined as the behaviours and strategies used to integrate and align individual member actions, knowledge, and objectives towards the achievement of common goals. According to functionalist scholars, hierarchy can improve team effectiveness by facilitating and coordinating member interactions (Chou & Pearson, 2012), as well as guiding resource allocation, providing members with a sense of their place within the team, and clarifying expectations about norms, roles, and expected behaviours based on members' placement in the hierarchy (Anderson & Brown, 2010).

The conflict perspective of hierarchical management performance, on the other hand, proposes a negative pathway from hierarchy to team effectiveness through heightened conflict-enabling states (Bunderson & Reagans, 2011; Greer & Dannals, 2017; Tarakci et al., 2016), which are emergent team states distinguished by the possibility of perceived incompatibilities or differences among members. According to the conflict perspective, hierarchy can motivate people to advance through the ranks, resulting in members at different levels having opposing interests and perspectives, potentially leading to more intragroup conflicts.

- Peer/team member leadership performance: This factor reflects hierarchical leadership behaviours. The distinguishing feature is that these actions take place within the context of peer or team member interrelationships, which can exist at any level of the organisation.
- Peer/team member management performance: A high-performing work team distinguished by peer/team member management performance, which includes planning, problem-solving, balancing workloads, and monitoring performance. As a result, important aspects of management performance are more prevalent in both the peer or team context and the hierarchical setting.

5.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING WORK PERFORMANCE

A review of previous literature research found significant antecedents of contextual performance which is synonymous with organisational citizenship behaviour (Johangir et al., 2004; Meyer & Allen, 1997). These are as follows:

Role perception: Role perception includes role conflict and role ambiguity which have both been demonstrated to have a strong negative relationship with OCB. However, there is a positive correlation between role clarity and role facilitation.

Individual disposition: It includes personality variables associated with the workplace, specifically positive affectivity, negative affectivity, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. Personality variables such as extraversion, introversion, and openness to change are thought to be important when dealing with coworkers or customers. At the same time, extraversion and introversion should be observed within certain boundaries.

Fairness perceptions: Procedure and distributive justice are critical components of fairness. Procedural justice refers to whether employees believe organisational decisions are objective, whereas distributive justice refers to a proportionate reward scheme based on their training, tenure, responsibility, or workload. Both are positively correlated with contextual performance.

Motivation: The study discovered that motives play an important role in improving contextual performance. By encouraging employees to actively participate in decision making, management can help team members coordinate their efforts. This will improve group effectiveness and efficiency.

Leadership: It appears to have a significant impact on a worker's willingness to engage in contextual performance. It is positively related to OCB. Leadership enhances team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness among employees, resulting in organisational commitment. It also has an indirect impact on how employees perceive fairness and justice at work.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment: Task performance is defined as an individual's ability to successfully complete the task assigned to them, subject to the normal constraints of reasonable resource utilisation (Jamal, 2007). A positive correlation has been discovered between job satisfaction, job performance, and OCB. This relationship can help to lower employee absenteeism, turnover, and psychological distress. Employees who are very satisfied with their jobs are more likely to take part in OCB. Along with job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment is cited as an antecedent.

Van Scotter (2000) conducted research on two samples of Air Force mechanics to determine how task and contextual performance affect turnover, job satisfaction, and effective organisational commitment. The findings were that the relationships between task performance, contextual performance and the two samples exhibited remarkable consistency in terms of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Workers who reported feeling more devoted to the company and more content with their work also had higher contextual performance.

5.5 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO INDIVIDUAL WORK PERFORMANCE

Biographical variables such as gender, age, years of service play a pivotal role regarding HR practices, job satisfaction and task performance (Hunjra et al., 2010). Gender diversity can improve internal work processes, expand an organisation's external network, and boost the organisation's moral standing (Jackson & Joshi, 2011). However, Heffernan and Dundon (2016) discovered that the Swedish manufacturing industry had higher rates of sick leave than other industries, with women taking more sick time than men.

According to Kaiser and Spalding (2015), women in male-dominated organisations often have less power, which can have a number of implications for salaries and promotion opportunities. Furthermore, gender discrimination is frequently a problem in manufacturing-related industries, as Powell and Sang (2015) discovered, "women experience gendered treatment in everyday interactions with peers" in the UK engineering and construction sectors.

Individual-level research, according to Ng and Feldman (2008), suggests that age is inversely related to employees' memory capacity, goal orientation, and training performance. Nasir et al. (2011) found that education, age and gender all moderated the relationship between task performance and job satisfaction ($r = 0.88$, $p < 0.01$) in their investigation to identify the variables moderating the relationship between task performance and job satisfaction.

For the better understanding of how OCB and biographical factors (gender & tenure) affect the relationship between employee performance and motivation, Tan et al. (2014) found that the relationship between extrinsic motivation and employee performance is perfectly mediated by OCB, while the relationship between intrinsic motivation and employee performance is partially mediated by OCB. Additionally, there were no moderate results in the relationship between OCB and employee performance for either gender or years of service with the organisation.

Gender moderated the relationship between overall work performance and adaptive work performances, according to Carpini's (2018) findings. The results were found to be consistent with the results found by Aiken and West (1991) and Dawson (2014). The results for adaptive performance and gender ($r = 0.16$) and proficient performance and gender ($r = 0.22$). However, relationship was more for women ($r = 0.15$) than men ($r = 0.6$). The study supported the hypotheses that women benefit more from adaptive performance than men. Negative correlation was found between adaptive performance and age and job tenure and between age and proficient performance as well as job tenure and proactive performance.

Carpini (2018) agrees with Ng et al. (2005) that it is possible that women who are highly adaptive at work will be rewarded with higher overall work performance, which could assist them secure an internal career sponsor, which has been linked to both career advancement and salary.

Omori and Bassey (2019) after conducting a study on biographical characteristics and worker's performance, obtained these results:

- a negative t-value of -2.231 $p > 0.05$ variance between gender and employee's performance, indicating that gender had negative significant relationship with employee's performance.
- a significant relationship between educational qualifications and employee's performance, when conducting analysis of variance and obtained F value (5.402) and (p value = 0.000).

- When testing the influence of marital status and employee's performance, results showed F value (6.225, $p < 0.05$) and (p - value = 0.002) in the analysis of variance, indicating that marital status significantly influences employee's performance.
- The results between years of experience and employee's performance obtained following variance analysis was calculated at F (3.242, $p < 0.05$) and (p -value = 0.012), at a considerable degree and suggested that employees with years of experience do perform better at their job.

Cheche et al. (2019) found significant results (p -value = 0.008) in another study, between employee engagement and age, which showed that age moderated the relationship between the performance of the organisation and employee engagement and that employee engagement and tenure had beta coefficient of 0.21 and a corresponding p -value = 0.000, which showed that the relationship was statistically significant and positive, lastly, that education did not moderate between employee engagement and performance, indicated by interaction term of a beta coefficient of 0.21 and a matching p -value of 0.000 exists between education level and employee engagement.

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 5 addressed the fourth aim of the literature review, which was to conceptualise each worker's performance at work and its implications. The study was contextualised by determining the key developments of work performance using existing literature in an integrated manner. The concepts influencing individual work performance behaviour were identified and highlighted. The extent of IWP as an important distinguishing construct that impact overall work performance within the organisation was reviewed. The biographical variables relating to IWP was discussed as well as the consequences for the application of organisational and industrial psychology regarding individual work performance was discussed.

Chapter 6 will look at empirical research design chosen to be appropriate for the study and the supporting research methods.

CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

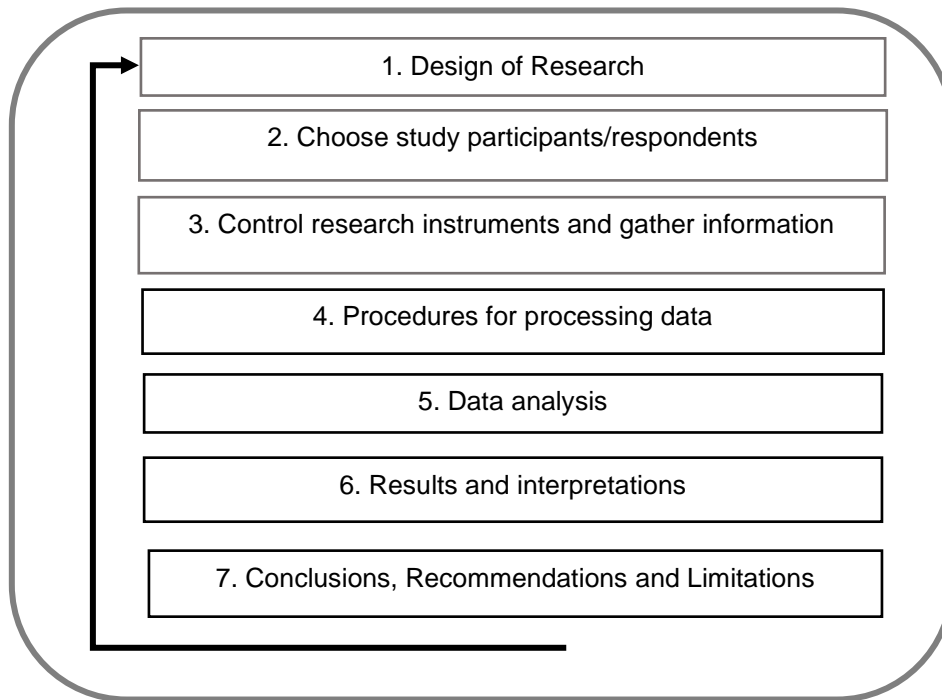
The research design chosen for this study and the research methodology that underpins the study are the main topics of Chapter 6. The study techniques and data analysis plans used to evaluate the connection between individual work performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, psychological empowerment and work engagement of employees in a steel manufacturing organisation involve statistical tests, such as structural equation modelling, hierarchical moderated regression analyses, standard multiple regression analysis, canonical correlation analysis and test for significant mean differences.

The study also sought to determine which biographical factors (age, gender, job levels, qualification level, years of service) could act as a moderator in the relationship between IWP, OCB, WE and PE. The chapter will explore the statistical analyses, the process and measuring tools used for gathering data and the sampling strategy. The development of the research hypotheses will then conclude the chapter.

The discussion in this chapter will include the important steps of empirical study depicted in the schematic flowchart of the research procedure below.

Figure 6.1

The flow chart of the research procedure



Note. The research procedure flow chart showing steps to follow in completing research. From “Quantitative vs. qualitative methods” by Bryman, 2010, *Sociology: Introductory Readings*, 47. Copyright 2010 by Bryman.

Data analysis, findings and interpretations, conclusions, limitations and suggestions are all covered in chapters 7 and 8, respectively.

6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Babbie (2014) defines research design as "the plan or structured framework of how the researcher intends conducting the research process in order to solve the research problem". Creswell (2008) defines research designs as plans and procedures for conducting research that range from broad assumptions to detailed data collection and analysis methods. According to Creswell (2008), the choice of a study design is influenced by the researcher's worldview assumptions, inquiry procedures (known as strategies), specific techniques for gathering, analysing, and interpreting data, the nature of the research problem, the researcher's personal experiences, and the study's audience.

A literature review was conducted to establish the existing state of knowledge regarding this study as well as discussions of the relevant theories relating to the study. Chapter 2 dealt with psychological empowerment, Chapter 3 focused on work engagement, Chapter 4 examined organisational citizenship behaviour and Chapter 5 focused on the literature review relating to individual work performance.

This study's main objective was to create a scientific model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviours and individual work performance. Moreover, the study sought to ascertain whether IWP is predicted by PE, WE and OCB. The study also sought to determine which demographic factors - gender, age, occupation, degree of education and years of service - act as a moderating factor in the connections between PE, WE, OCB and IWP.

This study followed the positivist research paradigm due to the nature of complex phenomena. Reynolds et al (2022) sees positivism as a type of philosophical realism that adheres closely to the deductive method, concluding that the primary aim of positivistic inquiry is explanation, which eventually leads to prediction and control of phenomena. According to Welman et al. (2005), research using the deductive reasoning approach develops and tests a theoretical and conceptual framework through empirical observation to draw conclusions about variables.

To achieve the overall objective of research, a methodology to achieve such objective was adopted. Methodology is described as the process and procedures of the research (Reynolds et al, 2022) and flow from one's position of ontology, epistemology and axiology. Ontology is a philosophical foundation and defined by Crotty (2003:10) as a "study of being" while Ahmed (2008:2) describes ontology as "one that follows the physical world in which the researchers assume the existence of a world of cause and effect".

Epistemology refers to a method for understanding and explaining how we know what we know (Crotty, 2003:3) and its concern the interaction between the research participant, or "knower," and the "would-be-knower" (the researcher). In this study, the researcher followed an epistemological approach to understand and explain how we know what we know through a relationship with research participants. Ponterotto (2005:133) defines axiology as the study of the role of researcher values in the scientific process. In line with positivists view, an individual's values, hopes, expectations and feelings do not feature in scientific inquiry, as a result, the methodology followed when adopting positivism approach is quantitative research method.

Creswell (2009) and Creswell et al., (2017) indicates that quantitative research is typically used to test theories, analyse numerical data and explain phenomena using instruments. Newman (2011) and Creswell et al., (2017) outline characteristics of the quantitative research to include, the following:

- The research problem is articulated effectively and succinctly.
- The research hypotheses to be tested is stated from the onset
- Variables under investigation, both dependant and independent are clearly specified
- A standardised process is used to gather numerical data of some kind.
- Subjectivity judgement gets eliminated
- To analyse and derive conclusions from the data, statistical procedures are employed.

Babbie (2014) though, highlights the shortcoming of the quantitative research as relating to condemnation of human individuality and its ability to think.

Accordingly, this study followed positivism and a quantitative research design, making use of standardised tools for descriptive analysis. Furthermore, this research project evaluated various theories and determined all pertinent variables, through utilising the survey questionnaire to obtain the required numerical data for analysis. For this study, a cross-sectional survey design targeting permanent employees from a steel manufacturing organisation from all categories was used, with the aim of describing empirical relationship between the variables (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). According to Lee (2000), a variable is a symbol to which numerals or values are assigned and the best way to categorise variables is either as independent or dependant. The assumed cause and effect of the dependent variable is known as independent variable. The independent variable is the antecedent, the dependant is the consequent.

The independent variables in the current study are psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour. The dependant variable is individual work performance. The study focus was on establishing whether there is a substantial correlation between these factors and the ability of OCB to mediate the relationship between PE and WE (independent variables) and IWP (dependent variable). The study also investigated the possibility of using biographical variables to mediate the relationship between the dependent variable (individual work performance) and the independent variables (psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour), as

well as whether there were statistical group differences in the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

A survey was used to gather information from respondents about their beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and previous or current behaviour (Fischer et al., 2023). The choice of a survey is a consequence of the instruments to be utilised which are based on unique theories, allowing for the maintenance of objectivity and replication. Distributing survey questionnaires across various technological platforms to cover geographically diverse sample elements is a straightforward process.

6.3 STUDY POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

This section provides an overview of the study population and the sampling method.

6.3.1 Study Population

Mouton (1996:134) defines a population as "a collection of objects, events, or individuals with some common characteristic that the researcher is interested in studying." A target population, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), is a group of people who share specific characteristics and from whom a sample is drawn to determine the parameters or traits of a larger population.

The study population identified in this study was employees permanently employed at a steel manufacturing organisation.

6.3.2 Unit of analysis in study

The unit of analysis refers to the objects studied to draw generalisations and clarify their differences (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Individuals who were permanently employed at all levels were the unit of analysis for biographical variables in the study, with a particular focus on their perception of PE, WE, OCB and IWP. Employees from a steel manufacturing company in South Africa where the study was conducted served as the unit of analysis.

6.3.3 Sampling and data collection

The participating steel manufacturing organisation in South Africa provided a list of 6 500 permanently employed individuals from the company's database, which included all required information for ease of data collection and this sampling frame was used. All employees on

the database were targeted to participate in the study by utilising a basic random sampling technique. Babbie (2014) argues that a sample, or subset of the population, should be chosen to take part in the research. Cooper and Schindler (2014) indicate that if a sample's constituents were chosen at random from a sample frame after all members of the population were listed, the sample is said to be representative of the population. The best kind of probability sampling is a simple random sample because it gives every member of the target population an equal chance of being included in the sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

There were 314 respondents in this study and this was in line with the guideline of the minimum calculation based on the number of constructs (Hair et al., 2014). This study used four questionnaires with 17 constructs involved: Empowering questionnaires (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact); UWES (absorption, vigour & dedication); OCB (altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship); IWPQ (task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive questionnaire) Based on the number of dimensions, 63 variables were observed and this required that one variable should have five respondents and this led to a total of sixty three respondents per variable, which then needed 315 respondents for factor analysis. Hence, the aim was to get 350 respondents to cater for possible missing response from respondents.

6.3.4 Biographical information

Biographical variables used to complete the profile sample included age, gender, job levels, qualification level and years of service. Robbins and Judge (2015) regard such biographical information as objective and accessible. Biographical variables are commonly used to provide objective, easily measurable characteristics of participants. Biographical variables were used in this study to determine if they moderate the relationship among the concepts of individual work performance, organisational citizenship, work engagement and psychological empowerment.

6.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The literature review provided guidelines for the selection of survey instruments to be used when deciding which ones to use in order to gather the necessary data for this empirical research study, the main objectives were to establish a scientific model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviours and individual work performance, also, to ascertain whether there was a relationship between PE, WE, OCB and IWP.

The study survey instruments considered were four standardised and validated questionnaires used to gather information and elicit data from the participants. In general, the questionnaires were used to assess individual's perceptions, attitudes and values within the workplace. The chosen instruments were deemed to be valid and reliable given the extensive research done and outlined in the earlier chapters of this study. Lee (2000) defines reliability as a measuring instrument's lack of distortion or precision, while De Vos (2002) defines reliability as an instrument's accuracy, the degree of consistency between two independently derived sets of scores, and the ability of the same instrument to yield similar results under comparable conditions when administered independently. According to Clark et al., (2021) reliability is concern with whether the same results would be achieved from a study if such study is repeated under the same conditions. Validity is defined as doing what is intended to be done, measuring what is supposed to be measured, and obtaining scores that reflect true differences in the variable being measured rather than random or constant error (De Vos, 2002) and Clark et al., (2021) describe validity as concern with the integrity of the conclusions generated from a piece of research.

According to Drost (2011), the validity of a measure refers to how accurately it captures the underlying construct that it is intended to measure. The term "construct" refers to the skill, knowledge, attribute, or attitude that the researcher is investigating. Zohrabi (2013) explains validity as a way of investigating the truth about research findings.

The details of each survey instrument used in this study are outlined in the section to follow.

6.4.1 Psychological empowerment questionnaire (PEQ)

The psychological empowerment questionnaire (PEQ) was used to assess the psychological empowerment of the workforce. Following are the discussion of the rationale and development of the instrument, the dimension, administration and interpretation. The instrument's validity and reliability are examined, along with the rationale behind its inclusion in this study.

6.4.1.1 Rationale and development of psychological empowerment scale (Spreitzer, 1995)

Following the work done by Conger and Kanungo, (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Spreitzer, (1995) then developed the psychological empowerment scale. The scale looked at the perception of individual motivation using four sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact in the workplace. Sak et al. (2017) indicates that psychological

empowerment expresses the feeling of power and self-esteem as well as the ability to have control over the work environment. In this study, the psychological empowerment scale was utilised with the aim to see individuals' motivation perception in employees' daily execution on their work. In addressing employee's perception in their motivation, the sub-dimensions results can assist with the choice of specific interventions an organisation could deploy for improvement.

6.4.1.2 *Description, administration and interpretation*

The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire includes twelve items that assess psychological empowerment. Each construct was assessed using three items. The construct has four sub-dimensions (meaning i.e. "My job activities are meaningful to me", competence i.e. "I am confident about my ability to do my job", self-determination i.e. "I can decide on my own how to do my work", and impact, i.e. "I have significant influence over what happens in my department")

The PE was measured using a Likert scale with seven points, spanning from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Each statement was asked of the participants, who were requested to say how much they agreed or disagreed. To determine a score for each subscale on the instrument, the responses to each statement on each subscale were added separately. The aggregate score derived from the four sub-scales provides insight into how empowered the participants felt. The scores derived from the statements assist to determine the stance of the participant.

6.4.1.3 *Reliability and validity*

The items of PEQ show that the industrial sample's Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.72, while the insurance sample's was 0.62 as measured in Spreitzer's (1995) study. This information is significant enough to believe that the overall reliabilities are acceptable. For the empowerment items, internal consistency and test-retest reliability were established and Konczak et al. (2000) discovered a high alpha reliability coefficient of 0.86 in their investigation. Siegal and Gardener (2000) found four-empowerment dimension in support for Spreitzer's four-empowerment dimension. According to Liden et al. (2000), each sub-dimension of the scale's construct validity was found to have an overall impact (0.86), self-determination (0.85), competence (0.77) and felt empowerment (0.92). Dee et al. (2002) study support four-factor structure. Moye and Henkin (2006) confirmed the four sub-scales. The validity and reliability of this instrument was again confirmed.

6.4.1.4 *Reasons for psychological empowerment (PEQ) inclusion in this study*

Psychological empowerment questionnaire was used in this study as it captured the most important sealable features of employee psychological empowerment. Numerous prior studies have demonstrated the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Scale was again used in this study to validate its use and relevance in steel manufacturing organisation within South African context with diverse culture and values. Critical was that the measuring instrument (PEQ) was used across all the levels within the organisation to capture employee psychological empowerment.

6.4.2 The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Following are the discussions about rationale and development of the instrument, the dimensions, administration and interpretation. The instrument's validity and reliability are examined, along with the rationale behind its inclusion in this study.

6.4.2.1 *Rational and development of the UWES (Schaufeli & Bakker 2003)*

The instrument used was justified by the fact that the UWES, which uses scientifically developed questions to measure an individual's level of engagement with the organisation, captures the vitality, dedication and absorption that are essential components of the concept of work engagement (Moshoeu, 2012). Additionally, Storm and Rothmann (2003) claim that because the UWES's equivalency is acceptable to a variety of racial groups and organisational settings, it can be used as an impartial tool to measure employee engagement. Furthermore, Martins (2016) reports that employee engagement influences productivity, loyalty and profitability, while Moshoeu (2012) emphasises that workers who are engaged outperform those who are not.

6.4.2.2 *Description, administration and interpretation*

According to Schaufeli et al. (2002), the work engagement scale (UWES) is a 17-item self-report questionnaire that assesses the three fundamental dimensions of employee engagement: vigour (6 items), dedication (5 items), and absorption (6 items). The work engagement scale (UWES), which has 17 items, is used to assess how employees leave their work life each day. It is graded on a 7-point scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (every day), with each point representing an employee's level of vigour, dedication, and absorption. In terms of vigour, dedication and absorption statements, participants were asked to indicate how

frequently they experienced feelings; 0 represented Never, One, two, three, four, five and six times a day, respectively. One, once a year, once a month, once a week and once every six days.

The sum of the scores from the UWES subscales measuring vigour, dedication and absorption is divided by the total number of items in the subscale to determine the overall UWES mean score. Each subscale's mean score was calculated by adding the scores of its individual items and dividing the total by the total number of items in the subscale in question.

6.4.2.3 Reliability and validity

The internal consistency results of the instrument were reported by Schaufeli et al. (2004a) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) to varying degrees, with the Cronbach alpha coefficient for each subscale of vigour (0.81), dedication (0.83), absorption (0.75) and (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Absorption (0.83), dedication (0.87) and (0.85) (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The overall work engagement scale reliability (Cronbach alpha) for Schaufeli et al. (2002) was found to be 0.90 whereas Ojo et al., 2021 obtained Cronbach Alpha of 0.93 for one factor model for work engagement in a study examining the predictors of resilience and work engagement.

6.4.2.4 Reasons for using UWES

The UWES 3-factor scale have provided reliable and valid results in the previous research studies (Schaufeli et al., 2006). This study aimed at looking at work engagement in the broader sense of the concept to understand the perception of employees in regarding the three subscales of vigour, absorption and dedication. Understanding employees on these subscales would assist with specific intentional interventions by the organisation than a broader approach to work engagement as single construct.

6.4.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCB)

The OCB directed at the individual (OCB-I) and OCB directed at the organisation (OCB-O) scales were used to measure the OCB of employees. Following is the discussion of the scale development and rationale, its description, administration and interpretation and the instrument's validity and reliability as well as justifiable reasons to use the scale.

6.4.3.1 *Development and rationale of the organisational citizenship behaviour scale (Lee & Allen, 2002)*

The OCB's ability to record an individual's behaviour serves as the instrument's foundation towards fellow employees and the organisation through questions that are scientifically proven to elicit the responses that indicate levels of individual's behaviour with regards to OCB-I (altruism, courtesy), OCB-O (civic virtue, conscientiousness, sportsmanship) which are central characteristics of the instrument.

6.4.3.2 *Description, administration and interpretation*

OCB was measured using Lee and Allen (2002). A self-report questionnaire consists of (OCB-16), with OCB-I having 8 items and OCB-O with 8 items. Initially, the OCB was measured using OCBQ (Podsakoff et al., 1990) with 24 items focussing on OCB. However, the scale was refined by Williams and Anderson (1991) and later by Lee and Allen (2002) to focus on OCB directed at individuals and OCB directed at the organisation.

6.4.3.3 *Reliability and validity*

OCB has been verified in several countries, including Australia, Japan, Hong Kong, and China (Lam et al., 1999; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004). The internal consistency for the OCBS dimensions ranged from $\alpha = 0.84$ (civic virtue), $\alpha = 0.85$ (conscientiousness), $\alpha = 0.87$ (courtesy), $\alpha = 0.88$ (altruism), and $\alpha = 0.88$ (sportsmanship). Most studies supported the five-factor structure proposed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) (Naqshbandi & Kaur, 2011, p:188).

Williams and Anderson (1990) separated OCB focussing on the individual and OCB focussing on the organisation using the same constructs. Lee and Allen (2002) later refined OCB-I and OCB-O to ensure that there's no overlap of the construct dimensions from one to another.

6.4.3.4 *Reasons for including OCB in the study*

The reason for inclusion in the research is that OCB provides scientifically valid results when used to measure employees OCB in many studies and that OCB is relevant for the achievement of the study objectives. Understanding of individual employee's perception provides management an opportunity to focus their intervention appropriately.

6.4.4 Individual Work Performance Questionnaire - IWPQ

Individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ-2015) was used in this study. This section outlines the development and rationale of the questionnaire, the description, administration and interpretation, reliability and validity including the reasons for inclusion in this study.

6.4.4.1 Development and rationale for individual work performance questionnaire - IWPQ (Koopmans, 2015)

Rationale for the development of a scale for measuring individual work performance was used for individual's proficiency in performance of their core tasks, the behaviours that supports the organisation, social and psychological environment as well as the actions that are detrimental to the organisation's health such as absenteeism, theft and substance abuse. In this study, the scale was used to assist in understanding perceptions of individuals in their work performance.

6.4.4.2 Description, administration and interpretation

IWPQ is a brief questionnaire designed to assess each worker's overall performance at work in a broad working population. As a result, it is appropriate in research studies that include either employees from a specific type of job and/or research studies conducting different types of jobs (e.g., company-wide, or nation-wide surveys). However, IWPQ is less appropriate for use in feedback, assessments and/or individual evaluations. The IWPQ takes less than 5 minutes to complete and can be administered electronically, or through pen and paper. It can be filled out individually, as well as by colleagues or supervisor(s), however, only individual version has been validated. Before the questionnaire is administered, the instructions are spelled out at the top of the IWPQ. Respondents are asked to respond carefully and honestly to the questions on their conduct during the previous three months at work.

A five-point Likert scale is used to rate the IWPQ, with 1 denoting seldom and 5 denoting always. The intrinsic work productivity questionnaire (IWPQ) assesses three constructs: (1) task performance, such as "I managed my workload to finish it within the allotted time," (2) contextual performance, such as "I initiated new tasks after finishing my previous ones," and (3) counterproductive work behaviour, such as "I voiced concerns about minor work-related issues at work".

To allow a valid calculation of subscale or overall score, at least 75% of the scale questions must be completed. This means allowable omission per subscale can be 1 question for task performance out of 5 questions, 2 for contextual performance out of 8 questions and 1 for CWB out of 5 questions.

Mean scores on the IWPQ scales are calculated by adding the scores from each subscale item and dividing by the total number of items. The IWPQ produces three subscale scores that range from 0 to 4, with higher scores indicating better work performance. An interpretation of the scores based on percentiles is provided, ranging from "very high" to "very low" performance in relation to employee categories.

6.4.4.3 Reliability and validity

Cronbach alpha results for the IWPQ subscale obtained by Koopmans et al. (2014a) was good and results were as follows: task performance was 0.78, contextual performance was 0.85 and counterproductive work behaviour was 0.75, with overall Cronbach alpha results of 0.80. Ohman and Mahmood (2019) obtained overall Cronbach alpha value of 0.95 in a study linking employee engagement towards individual work performance and Zeglat and Janbeik (2019) for task performance and contextual performance subscales obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.78 and 0.76 respectively in a study of meaningful work and organisational outcomes.

6.4.4.4 The reason for using IWPQ in the study

The reason for including the IWPQ was that the questionnaire is proven as reliable and valid and it looks at individual's perception of the task specific situation, the social interaction surrounding the task at hand and the behaviours that hinders the work performance of individuals within the work environment. The results thereof assist in guiding intervention programmes geared towards improving employee's perception in a positive direction.

6.5 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection is about the methods employed to get information from survey respondents. This section outlines the method used to collect data for the study.

6.5.1 Conducting field study survey

A test investigation was done to check how user friendly is the platform used to gather data, the relevancy and suitability of the language used in the questionnaires content. Five individuals from different biographical profiles, i.e., age, gender, education level, position level, and years in service, participated. In line with Moshoeu (2016), the item wording of some questions in the work engagement scale were adopted, such as "I find it hard to separate or detach myself from my job; I am absorbed (immensely) in my work and it inspires and motivates me." The same approach was followed in checking the PEQ, IWPQ and OCB, with no changes recommended for these instruments.

An online approach to data collection was used. Employees completed the questionnaire online (electronically).

In terms of survey communication, all employees in the organisation were invited to complete the questionnaire through an e-mail with a link. The e-mail contained a message from the researcher and supervisor explaining the questionnaire's purpose, confidentiality and anonymity, how the results would be used, what would be done with the responses, and the questionnaire's content. The communication included the names and contact information for both the supervisor and the researcher.

The individuals who took part were notified that their agreement to participate in the survey was confirmed by their affirmative response to an email invitation and by clicking the survey link to start the survey.

The online survey reached a sizable portion of the population, improving the research findings' generalisability. The technique is quick, affordable and adaptable, allowing for complete control over the sample and, crucially, the ability to load data straight into the analysis programme while maintaining participant privacy and confidentiality (Blumberg et al., 2005).

Study used a web-based data collection method for the following reasons highlighted by Martins (2010) citing Church et al. (2001) when outlining the advantages of conducting surveys online as follows:

- The people surveyed, their computer familiarity and literacy levels.
- The survey's execution expenses and the most dependable and economical survey technique.

- The intricacy of the surveyed population, encompassing their geographic location, for instance.
- How long will it take for respondents to finish and send in the survey?
- The way surveys and/or answers will be monitored.
- The significance of confidentiality.
- The sample's dimensions.
- The sponsors' anticipations regarding the survey results.
- The size of the population, the necessary sample size, the degrees of confidence and the error margin.
- The involvement and influence of various parties, including management teams, unions and consultants, on the survey procedure both prior to and following the survey.

The questionnaire took about twenty minutes to complete, however there was no time limit. Four questionnaires were included, one for each of the following topics: psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, individual work performance and a section on biographical information. Nevertheless, the questionnaires were integrated in one platform used and identified from section A through to section E.

6.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Fundamental ethical considerations are made at all stages of research, from research planning, design, implementation, and reporting (Wassenaar, 2006). Cooper and Schindler (2014) emphasise that the research process should not cause physical or emotional harm to respondents, and that their privacy, dignity, and well-being should always be respected. It is therefore the researcher's responsibility to ensure that participants' dignity, privacy and well-being are not harmed in any way during the execution of the research and reporting of the research results.

In ensuring adherence to ethical research practices in protecting participants interest, considerable efforts were completed before the survey data were gathered.

The following steps were, therefore, taken:

- The Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP) and the University Ethics Committee were consulted to seek ethical clearance: The procedure entails a permission letter to the department of IOP and an application form submitted to the Departmental Ethical Committee and the Ethics Committee of the University of South Africa (UNISA). Permission was obtained from both committees.
- Clearance was obtained from the participating organisation to conduct the study. Individuals who are 18 years and above were purposefully chosen and asked to voluntarily participate in the study by completing four questionnaires online.
- Participants were informed through the company's internal mail system, along with a cover letter explaining the study's objectives and the nature of the research.
- The letter emphasised the importance of confidentiality in the research project, stating that all information would be used only for research purposes.
- Participants were advised that acceptance and responding affirmatively to an e-mail invitation by clicking on the survey link to start the survey confirms their agreement to participate in the survey.
- Participants were also informed that they could withdraw voluntarily from the study at any time, the survey took no more than 20 minutes to be completed.
- All questionnaires were filled out anonymously through the link provided.
- Furthermore, the researcher was prepared to address any questions or concerns. The completed questionnaires were stored in the server and accessed with password only known to the researcher.

Given the study's potentially sensitive nature (participants reported on their attitudes and feelings towards their organisations), the data collection method used seemed appropriate, as the questionnaire could be completed anonymously. It was assumed that because participants were not required to provide their name and contact information, they would be more likely to provide honest answers.

Completed questionnaires were securely stored, and raw data was collected and converted into an SPSS dataset. Participants were also informed that records will be kept for five years for audit purposes where after it will be permanently destroyed. Records will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer. It was also indicated that there is no financial compensation or incentives for participation in the survey.

6.7 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF DATA

In this section, data processing, statistical analysis tools, validity of instruments group mean and regression analysis is discussed.

6.7.1 Data capturing and processing

The data collected from the online questionnaire responses were stored on an internal web server of the company.

In this case, data cleaning and processing were limited to fully completed questionnaires. The online survey received 314 responses in total. The data was reviewed and organised for analysis. The raw database was imported into IBM SPSS, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (version 28, 2021) computer programme. The data was checked for missing values, and none were found. IBM SPSS was used as the statistical programme to analyse the data (version. 28, 2021) to execute statistical and quantitative procedures.

6.7.2 Data Analysis

Tables and figures that present quantitative descriptive results are discussed as part of the statistical analysis. The statistical methods applied in this investigation comprise inferential statistics, such as correlations and descriptive statistics, mean, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis, to analyse the data and determine how reliable the PEQ, UWES, OCBQ and IWPQ items are. The Pearson product-moment correlation and Spearman's rank order correlation are highlighted alongside multiple regression analysis, structural equation modelling, hierarchical mediated moderated regression analysis, and the test of significant mean differences.

6.7.3 Descriptive statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics use tables and figures to summarise the data. Descriptive statistics organises and summarises univariate and bivariate analyses of quantitative data, with a focus on measures of central tendency and dispersion (Bryman, 2010; Durrheim, 2006).

6.7.3.1 *Reliability, internal consistency*

Reliability, according to Neuman (2011), is the degree to which a measuring tool consistently yields the same result when used to compare various groups within the same population. Clark et al., (2021) describe reliability as concern with whether we would get the same results from a study if we repeated it under the same conditions. A reliability test is used to determine whether an instrument yields accurate results when given to various groups of people in similar circumstances. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient, a reliability metric, is used to assess the internal consistency of each questionnaire item in the study. This index measures how consistently all the questionnaire items measure the same characteristics (Huysamen, 1993). The scales and subscales were evaluated and the reliability of the measuring instruments in the current study was confirmed, using the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) and the inter-item correlation coefficient. An acceptable instrument can be determined by looking for a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.70 or above. Consequently, inter-item correlations greater than 0.70 are regarded as appropriate (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

6.7.3.2 *Means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis*

For the statistical analysis, IBM SPSS and Amos (version 28, 2021) were utilised. For the questionnaires and their sub-scales, the Cronbach alpha coefficients, skewness, kurtosis, mean (X) and standard deviation (SD) will be determined. The mean, defined as the summary of values divided by their number, is the central tendency measure, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) and Neuman (2011). The expected mean is used to calculate the score averages obtained in the various dimensions of the instruments, whereas the mean is used to calculate an arithmetic average over a set of values.

The standard deviation, according to Steyn (1999), is the degree to which a score deviates from the mean. The standard deviation, as defined by Cooper and Schindler (2014), is the square root of the variance, which computes the average deviation of each score from the mean, as well as the average distance of all scores in the distribution from the mean, or distribution centre.

Skewness is a descriptive indicator of symmetry that indicates the level of skewness (positive or negative) in a population, whereas kurtosis indicates the level of pointedness in a score distribution (Steyn 1999). Hair et al. (2014) defines skewness as a measure of a distribution's symmetry; in most cases, it is compared to a normal distribution. Relatively few large values

and a leftward tail characterise a positively skewed distribution, whereas relatively few small values and a rightward tail characterise a negatively skewed distribution.

Kurtosis determines how peaked or flat a distribution is in comparison to a normal distribution, with skewness values outside the range of -1 to +1 indicating a significantly skewed distribution. A positive value indicates a relatively peaked distribution, whereas a negative value indicates a relatively flat distribution. According to Pallant (2011), skewness refers to the shape of a unimodal histogram for numerical data and describes the degree of deviation from the mean of the data distribution. Kurtosis is defined as the distribution's pointedness or flatness in comparison to the normal distribution (Saunders and Townsend, 2016). Field (2013:89) assumes that the data meet the criteria for a normal univariate distribution, with skewness ranging from -2 to +2 and kurtosis ranging from -3 to +3.

6.7.4 Validity of the Instruments

According to Clark et al., (2021) validity is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions generated from a piece of research. Validity refers to an instrument's ability to measure consistently and accurately what it is intended to measure (Babbie, 2014; Neuman, 2011). Internal and external validity are the two main types of validity, according to Bryman (2010). While internal validity primarily pertains to causality, external validity concerns whether the study's findings can be generalised outside of the defined research context. Hair et al. (2014) defines content validity as an assessment of the degree of correspondence between the items chosen to constitute a summary scale and its conceptual definition, whereas Cooper and Schindler (2014) define content validity as the degree to which the item content accurately captures the universe of all relevant items under observation.

Table 6.1 shows the summary of different types of validity:

Table 6.1*Various definitions of validity and techniques (Adapted)*

A form of validity	Measured items	Techniques
Construct	The extent to which the relevant aspects of the construct are captured by the underlying instrument being used for measurement.	Factor analysis, Correlation, Judgmental
Criteria-related (predictive, concurrent)	The extent to which a predictor can accurately capture the pertinent criterion aspect.	Correlation
Content	The extent to which the items' content accurately captures the universe of all pertinent objects being observed.	Judgement

Note: The table shows various definitions of validity. From “*Business Research Methods*” (4th ed.) by D. Cooper & P. Schindler, 2004, McGraw-Hill Education. Copyright 2014 McGraw-Hill Education (UK) Limited.

The instruments used in this study were validated through previous studies and are appropriate for this research study. Previous research has ensured the accuracy of scores on the relevant criteria, content validity (validated through pilot studies), and construct validity by critically examining the criterion-related validity of the instruments to be used. Furthermore, confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses were used in the instrument validation process. The structural equation modelling (SEM) techniques used by the AMOS programme would be incorporated into the current study (Arbuckle, 2010).

A factor analysis was performed to ascertain validity of measuring instruments and is described by Hair et al. (2014) as a statistical approach that can be used to analyse interrelationships among many such factors. Factor analysis is a statistical technique that is used to represent the relationship between sets of related variables by identifying a relatively small number of factors, according to Tredoux et al. (2006). According to Cooper and Schindler (2014), factor analysis is used to identify the underlying construct that explains the variance, eliminate the number of variances and find structure in the relationship between variables.

When evaluating the degree of construct validity in a dataset with respect to a measure that gauge's constructs, exploratory factor analysis is helpful. To ascertain the instrument's structure among a sample of participants in a steel manufacturing organisation, exploratory factor analysis was employed.

The criteria for significant factor loading according to Hair et al. (2010) are proposed as follows:

- A factor loading of more than ± 0.30 is regarded as satisfying the minimum threshold.
- A factor loading of ± 0.40 is regarded as more significant.
- When a factor loading is ± 0.50 or higher, it is deemed practically significant.
- This study, practically significant factor loading of ± 0.50 or greater will be used.

Hair et al. (2010) suggests that the correlation matrix's cut-off loading be established at a cut-off point of ± 0.50 . This shows that within the data, factors account for nearly half of the relationships. Loadings of less than 0.30 were eliminated because they did not meet the practical significance threshold.

6.7.5 Inferential statistics of measuring instruments

Inferential statistics, defined as the use of inductive reasoning, enables a researcher to base a claim on empirical evidence and draw conclusions about the population. Mostly used to test the research hypotheses, multivariate statistics are intended to predict or determine how well the sample statistics predicted parameters of the entire population. Numerous statistical tests are employed in inferential statistics, notably tests for significant mean differences, hierarchical moderated regression analyses, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling. Correlation analysis, hierarchical moderated/mediated regression analysis, a test for mean group differences and structural equation modelling were all used in this investigation.

6.7.5.1 *Structural equation modelling (SEM)*

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a family of statistical models that aims to explain the relationships among multiple variables, according to Hair et al. (2014). By doing this, it looks at the way relationships can be expressed in a set of equations, comparable to a set of multiple regression equations and the way they are structured. All the relationships between the constructs (the independent and dependent variables), which form part of the analysis are displayed in these equations.

Several variables are used to represent latent or unobservable constructs (similar to the variables used in factor analysis). As a result, each multivariate technique is classified as either interdependent or dependent. SEM can be thought of as a hybrid of the two types of methods because it is based on two well-known multivariate methods: multiple regression analysis and factor analysis.

As a result, a path diagram is used to illustrate SEM to highlight the interdependence of the variables. According to Hair et al. (2014), a path diagram is made up of circles and squares or rectangles that are joined by arrows. In theory, the observed variables are represented by squares or rectangles and the latent, or unobserved, variables are represented graphically by circles or ovals. Furthermore, the presence or absence of lines between variables indicates the interrelationship between them, implying that there is either no relationship at all or a relationship between them. Single-headed arrows represent regression coefficients, whereas double-headed arrows show covariance between variables (Schreiber et al., 2006).

Furthermore, lines and spaces between variables indicate how closely related the variables are to one another; these can indicate that there is no relationship at all or that there is one. Double-headed arrows show covariance between variables, whereas single-headed arrows indicate the regression coefficient.

Hair et al. (2014) developed a six (6) stage process when using SEM and the current study will follow all the stages as indicated below:

Stage 1: Defining individual constructs

The researcher had to make a choice of using an established scale or develop a new scale and in each case, the researcher's selection of items to measure each construct serves as the foundation for the remainder of the SEM analysis. The first step in the process is to choose the measurement scale items and scale type, such as a Likert scale or a semantic differential scale, after providing a solid theoretical definition of the concepts involved.

Stage 2: Developing the overall measurement model

At this stage, the researcher specifies the measurement model, adds each latent construct to the identified model, and maps the measured indicator variables (items) to latent constructs. The establishment of a measurement model is important in that it shows representation for indicators, constructs and relationships between the constructs.

Stage 3: Designing a study to produce empirical results

Once the basic constructs and measured variables/indicators have been defined, the researcher must now address issues of research design and estimation. This stage then considers (i) the type of data to be analysed, whether covariances or correlations; (ii) the consequences and solutions for missing data; and (iii) the impact of sample size. The researcher focuses on the model structure, the various estimation techniques available, and the computer software that will be used.

Stage 4: Assessing the measurement model validity

In this step, the indices of goodness-of-fit are tested. The validity of a measurement model is contingent upon two factors: (i) determining the measurement model's acceptable goodness-of-fit levels and (ii) locating evidence of construct validity. The goodness-of-fit (GOF) measure, also known as the similarity between the observed and estimated covariance matrices, indicates how well the stated model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items.

Stage 5: Specifying the structural model

In the fifth stage, the structural model is stipulated by establishing connections between independent and dependent constructs by using the suggested theoretical model as a guide. Finding the dependency relationships between the constructs that are hypothesised to exist is necessary for this. All hypotheses describe a particular relationship that the researcher needs to be specific about.

Stage 6: Assessing structural model validity

This final stage focuses on determining the validity of the theoretical relationships proposed by the structural model. It is understood that if the measurement model is not damaged, the reliability and validity tests in stages 4, 5, and 6 cannot be performed. That would be the end point, and the researcher would need to achieve acceptable results in assessing the measurement model before moving forward. If the researcher fails to achieve an acceptable fit for the measurement model, specifying the structural relationships will not improve the model fit.

The structural relationships would be tested only after the measurement model had been validated and achieved an acceptable model fit. Testing the fit of a structural model differs from testing the fit of a measurement model in two major ways, according to Hair et al. (2014). Firstly, rival or alternative models are encouraged to bolster a model's superiority, even though an acceptable overall model fit must be established. Second, because the estimated parameters for the structural relationships offer concrete empirical support for the relationships that are theoretically proposed and illustrated in the structural model, special attention is paid to them.

6.7.5.2 *Test for group mean differences*

This section included a test for group differences. The researcher was able to control whether there were any significant differences between the groups of biographical variables that served as important moderators between the dependent construct (individual work performance), the mediating construct (organisational citizenship behaviour), and the independent constructs (psychological empowerment and work engagement) by performing tests for significant mean differences. To determine whether there were any significant differences, analysis of variance (ANOVA), *t*-tests, and mean score comparisons were used.

According to Terre Blanche and Dhurrhein, (2002), the *t*-test is a statistical test used to analyse data differences between two groups' means. To determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the groups of biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the dependent construct (individual work performance), the mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviour) and the independent construct (psychological empowerment and work engagement), the test for significant means difference was employed. An assortment of statistical models called ANOVA is used to examine variations in group means and their associated procedures; it compares the variability within groups and between groups (DeCoster, 2006).

6.7.5.3 *Correlation analysis*

According to Bryman (2010), a correlation coefficient indicates the strength of the relationship between two or more variables, whereas correlation statistics assess the direction and strength of the relationship. According to Cooper (2014), the Pearson product-moment correlation (*r*) is commonly used to estimate the strength, direction, and magnitude of a relationship between variables. The magnitude of a relationship between two variables is

determined by the degree to which it is significant. The null hypotheses were accepted using the significance level.

A hypotheses test is typically conducted with a significance level of $p \leq 0.05$. A positive coefficient (+1.00) indicates a direct relationship, according to Cooper and Schindler (2014), this means that an increase in one variable causes an increase in another, whereas two variables that are not related produce a negative correlation (-1.00).

In the correlation matrix, the cut-off loadings would be set at a cut-off point of ± 0.50 per Hair et al. (2010) recommendation. With a loading of .30 or less, the data would be discarded given that it does not meet the minimal threshold for practical significance, indicating that factors account for roughly 50% of the relationship in the data.

In this study, loading of 0.30 or less was discarded and a cut-off loading point of ± 0.50 was used, per Hair et al. (2010) protocol.

The practical significance of the correlation was established and the null hypotheses rejected or accepted at a significance level of $r \geq 0.30$ and $p \leq 0.05$.

As per Steyn's (1999) findings, the thresholds for pragmatic importance are $r = 0.30$ (medium effect) and $r = 0.50$ (large effect and of practical importance).

6.7.5.4 *Hierarchical moderated/mediated regression analysis*

The method of using moderated regression analysis to determine how a variable modifies or influences the nature of a relationship between two variables, independent and dependent variable (Cohen, 1983; Hayes, 2017) statistical mediation and moderation analysis are statistical methods used to investigate questions about how (mediation, or indirect effects) and under what conditions (moderation, or conditional effects) work.

Hierarchical moderated/mediated regression analyses were employed in this study to determine whether the biographical variables (age, job levels, qualification and years of service) considerably reduce the impact of the independent variable relationship (PE & WE) and dependent variable (IWP). Moreover, to determine whether work engagement and psychological empowerment were mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.

6.7.6 The level of statistical significance

Between 0 and 1, the p-value expresses the degree of statistical significance. Stronger evidence suggests rejecting the null hypotheses is indicated by a smaller p-value. Statistics are indicated by a p-value of less than 0.05, usually ≤ 0.05 . at 0.05 or 5% as the significance level. When the p-value is low, it means that the recognised values deviate significantly from the population value that was hypothesised at the start.

A lower p-value is considered more significant. Furthermore, if the p-value is extremely small, the result will be highly significant. However, in general, p-values less than 0.05 are considered significant, as obtaining a p-value less than 0.05 is uncommon.

The following is the general interpretation of the p-value at a 10% level of significance:

- If $p > 0.1$, the null hypotheses is not assumed to hold.
- A value of $p > 0.05$ and $p \leq 0.1$ indicates a low assumption for the null hypotheses.
- If $p > 0.01$ and $p \leq 0.05$, the null hypotheses require strong assumptions.
- A p-value of less than 0.01 indicates a strong assumption for the null hypotheses.

6.7.6.1 *Statistical significance of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient*

Pearson's product-moment correlation determines the relationship between the constructs and formed the basis of the guide in the study.

A minor practical effect, $r \geq 0.10$ is considered and practical effect of $r \geq 0.30$ is considered medium; also, a practical effect of $r \geq 0.50$ is regarded as large.

6.7.6.2 *Statistical significance of structural equation modelling*

To determine whether the suggested model in this study fit the measurement and structural model, goodness-of-fit was employed. Goodness-of-fit is acceptable if threshold for RMSEA and SRMR is ≤ 0.08 and CFI and TLI values are ≥ 0.90 values and AIC and BIC model with lowest value (Arbuckle, 2011; Awang, 2012:56; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2014:642 & Kieseppä, 2003).

Table 6.2 indicates the model-fit standards and interpretations.

Table 6.2

Model-fit criteria and fit interpretation

Model-Fit Standards	Tolerable Level	Analysis
The goodness-of-fit (GIF) index	From 0 (no fit) to 1 (ideal fit).	A value near 0.90 or 0.95 indicates a good fit.
The approximation error of root mean square (RMSEA)	From 0.05 to 0.08	Values between 0.05 and 0.08 suggest a close fit.
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	From 0 (no fit) to 1 (ideal fit)	A value near 0.90 or 0.95 indicates a well-fitting model.
Root mean residual that has been standardised (SRMR)	Lower score represents a better fit	Value less than 0.08 (Awang, 2012)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to 0.90 or 0.95 reflects a good model fit (Awang, 2012)
Akaike information criterion (AIC)	Model with lowest value	Selecting the model with the lowest derived value
Bayesian information criterion (BIC)	Model with lowest value	A small value represents a better fit of the data
Relative chi-square (CMIN/df)	Acceptable 3-5	Acceptable values 3-5 Excellent values <3.0 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010)

Note. Model-fit criteria, tolerant level, analysis and interpretation. Researcher's own compilation.

CFI – A CFI cut-off value of 0.95 or higher is a sign of good fit.

SRMR – The models obtaining high values of 0.08 are deemed acceptable, however, zero indicates a perfect fit.

RMSEA – A cut-off value of below 0.08 shows a good fit and value close to 0.06 is more acceptable.

GFI – The GFI rises as the number of parameters increases, and it has an upward bias in large samples. The acceptable range is between zero and one and it is generally accepted that a cut-off value of 0.90 or greater indicates well-fitting models.

TLI – The Tucker Lewis index is generally unaffected by sample size. Values over 0.90 or over 0.95 are acceptable.

CMIN/df – The normed chi-square value is calculated by dividing the chi-square index by the degrees of freedom. Acceptance criteria vary between three and five.

6.7.6.3 *Statistical significance of hierarchical moderated regression analysis*

Cohen (1992) recommends effect sizes as:

d = practical effect size (0.2 = small effect; 0.5 = moderate effect; 0.8 = large effect size).

6.8 FORMULATION OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

To achieve the empirical aims of the current study, the following research hypotheses were put forth considering the research problem mentioned in Chapter 1.

- H1:** Practically significant linear relationship exists between the levels of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.
- H2:** Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) predict individual work performance (as dependent variable).
- H3:** Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) predicts organisational citizenship behaviour (as dependent variable).
- H4:** The relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) and individual work performance (as dependent variable) is mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H5:** Group differences (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.
- H6:** Biographical variables (age, job level, qualification, and years of service) moderate relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).

6.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 6 dealt with the fifth literature research aim, that is, provided a description of the research methodology that would be used in this study. Among these are tests for significant mean differences, hierarchical moderated regression analysis, standard multiple regression analysis, structural equation modelling and canonical correlation analysis. The research also aims to determine which biographical variables (age, gender, job level, qualification level, years of service) would mediate between psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. It was discussed how to choose a sample, how to collect data, what tools to use for measurement and how to perform statistical analyses. The research hypotheses were formulated at the end of the chapter. The unique contribution of this study includes the scientific model as an outcome of the study with biographical variables as moderation and the anticipated application in the steel manufacturing organisation within South African context.

The aim of research objective 6 is covered in Chapter 7, specifically what the theoretical relationship would be between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance in the context of an organisation and how this relationship could be explained in terms of an integrated theoretical model using a conceptual model.

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the research design and methodology were discussed to evaluate the correlation between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance in a steel manufacturing organisation. The objective of this chapter is to provide the findings from the numerous statistical analyses carried out to evaluate the formulated hypotheses.

Statistical results of empirical study report include the measuring instruments used, descriptive statistics on biographical information and constructs, assessment of the common method bias (CMB), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), test of mean differences, factor analysis, modelling using structural equations, correlations and mediation/ moderation. Analyses results are presented in tables and figures.

The summary concludes this chapter with the research hypotheses.

7.2 BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

This section highlights the biographical variables of 314 voluntary repliers who completed online, administered surveys. The results are reflected in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1

Biographical information relating to Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)	
Gender	Male	249	79.3
	Female	65	20.7
	Total	314	100.0
Age Group	18-25 years	5	1.6
	26-35 years	65	20.7
	36-45 years	79	25.2
	46-55 years	110	35.0
	56+ years	56	17.5
	Total	314	100.0

Characteristics		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Highest level of qualification	Below matric	19	6.1
	Matric	118	37.6
	Trade certificate	41	13.1
	Diploma	58	18.5
	Under Grad Diploma	46	14.6
	Post Grad Diploma	32	10.2
	Total	314	100.0
Job Level	Unskilled	31	9.9
	Skilled	79	25.2
	Administrator	33	10.5
	Specialist	64	20.4
	Senior Specialist	31	9.9
	Junior Manager	57	18.2
	Middle Manager	12	3.8
	Senior Manager	7	2.2
Total	314	100.0	
Years of service with company	Less than 2 years	17	5.7
	2 - years	23	7.3
	5 - 10 years	54	17.2
	10 – 15 years	54	17.2
	15 – 20 years	35	11.1
	Above 20 years	131	41.7
	Total	314	100.0

A list of variables for ease of interpreting Table 7.1 contents:

1. **Gender:** includes male and females
2. **Age Group:** composed of 5 categories (18-25; 26-35; 36-45; 46-55; 56+)
3. **Qualifications:** categorised into 6 group (Below matric; Matric; Trade certificate; Diploma; Undergraduate; Postgraduate)
4. **Job Level:** composed of 6 categories (Unskilled; Skilled; Administrator; Specialist; Senior specialist; Junior manager; Middle manager; Senior manager)
5. **Years of service with company:** composed of 6 categories: less than 2 years; 2-5 years; 5-10 years; 10-15 years; 15-20 years; above 20 years)

Table 7.1 reflects the results of the respondent's biographical profile within a steel manufacturing organisation. Respondents are a diverse group of adults who are permanently employed in a steel manufacturing organisation with business units in Gauteng (Vanderbijlpark, Vereeniging, Pretoria), KwaZulu Natal (Newcastle), Western Cape (Saldanha) with N = 6 000. A purposeful random sample of 314 respondents participated in the study. The profile sample includes the following biographical variables: age, gender, job levels, highest level of qualification and employee years of service.

A total of 249 male respondents participated in the study, which represented 79.3% of respondents and a total of 65 respondents were female, which represents 20.7% of respondents. About age distribution, most participants between 46 – 55 years (35%), followed by 36 – 45 years (25.2%), 26 – 35 years (20.7%) and then 55 years and above with 17.5%.

With regard to qualification level, the results showed the highest number of respondents have a matric certificate at 118 (37.6%), which was followed by 58 (18.5%) respondents with a diploma, then under graduates with 46 (14.6%). Respondents with trade certificates constituted 41 (13.1%). The second last group of respondents was postgraduates with a total number of 32 (10.2%) and lastly, respondents with below matric qualifications were 19 at 6.1%.

In terms of job levels, 79 respondents (25.2%) are skilled, while 64 (20.4%) respondents are in the specialist category, which is followed by the respondents in junior manager category 57 (18.2%). There were 31 (9.9%) respondents from the senior specialist and unskilled categories respectively and middle manager with 12 (3.8) respondents and 7 (2.2) respondents for senior manager category.

Observing the years of service within the organisation, 131 respondents are above 20 years which represents 41.7% of respondents. This is followed by the respondents who are between 5 – 10 and 10 – 15 years of service, each category representing 17.2% respectively. There were 35 (11.1%) respondents in the category of 15 – 20 years and 40 (13%) respondents for both the 2 – 5 years and less than 2 years category.

7.3 MEASURING CONSTRUCTS ITEMS ANALYSIS

This study utilised the four measuring scales to collect data from the respondents. The four measuring scales are psychological empowerment (PE), work engagement (WE), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and individual work performance (IWP). Table 7.2 highlights the respondent's preference responses to each item.

Table 7.2*Psychological empowerment item response analysis*

PE Item	Mean SD	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Everyday	Top 2 - Box		
									Strongly disagree	Strongly agree	
B1	The work I do is very important to me	6.28 (1.114)	1.6%	0.6%	2.2%	1.6%	3.2%	38.5%	52.2%	4.5%	93.9%
B2	My job activities are personally meaningful	5.91 (1.226)	1.0%	1.9%	4.5%	4.5%	6.1%	50.0%	32.2%	7.3%	88.2%
B3	The work I do is meaningful to me	6.11 (1.068)	0.0%	1.9%	3.8%	1.9%	4.1%	50.0%	38.2%	5.7%	92.4%
B4	I am confident about my ability to do my job	6.22 (1.233)	1.6%	0.3%	5.4%	1.9%	1.9%	35.7%	53.2%	7.3%	90.8%
B5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	6.25 (1.067)	1.6%	0.6%	1.6%	1.0%	4.8%	43.9%	46.5%	3.8%	95.2%
B6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	6.00 (1.130)	0.3%	1.9%	3.5%	2.9%	10.2%	45.5%	35.7%	5.7%	91.4%
B7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	5.85 (1.296)	2.5%	1.3%	3.8%	2.5%	10.8%	48.7%	30.3%	7.6%	89.8%
B8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	5.88 (1.384)	2.5%	3.5%	1.9%	1.9%	11.8%	42.4%	36.0%	8.0%	90.1%
B9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	5.52 (1.523)	3.8%	2.5%	7.0%	4.5%	13.4%	44.6%	24.2%	13.4%	82.2%
B10	My impact on what happens in my department is large	5.70 (1.573)	3.2%	3.8%	6.1%	4.1%	8.3%	38.9%	35.7%	13.1%	82.8%
B11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	4.88 (1.777)	4.8%	9.9%	8.6%	12.7%	15.6%	29.9%	18.5%	23.2%	64.0%
B12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department	4.87 (1.758)	5.1%	8.9%	9.6%	10.8%	19.1%	29.0%	17.5%	23.6%	65.6%

PE item responses from respondents indicate that most of the responses were positively skewed to the right with above 80% respondents strongly agreed with the statements about psychological empowerment in their workplace. Only 2 statements B11 "*I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department*" (64%); B12 "*I have significant influence over what happens in my department*" (65%) where respondents slightly agreed, in relation to their control and influence on what happens within their departments. All in all, respondents strongly agreed that they are psychologically empowered in their workplace.

Table 7.3 highlights respondents item responses preference to work engagement scale.

Table 7.3*Work engagement item response analysis*

WE Item	Mean SD	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Everyday Never	Top 2 - Box Never	Everyday
C1 At my work, I am bursting with energy.	4.89 (1.555)	4.8%	1.0%	2.2%	9.6%	3.5%	33.1%	45.9%	5.7%	82.5%
C2 I find my work full of meaning and purpose.	5.38 (1.170)	0.0%	1.9%	2.9%	5.7%	2.9%	17.8%	68.8%	4.8%	89.5%
C3 Time flies when I'm working.	5.43 (1.250)	2.5%	0.3%	2.5%	2.5%	1.3%	20.1%	70.7%	5.4%	92.0%
C4 I feel strong and vigorous in my job.	5.05 (1.494)	3.2%	2.5%	2.2%	5.4%	6.1%	26.1%	54.5%	8.0%	86.6%
C5 I am enthusiastic about my job.	5.24 (1.280)	1.3%	1.0%	2.9%	7.6%	3.8%	22.0%	61.5%	5.1%	87.3%
C6 When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	3.76 (2.390)	22.6%	4.8%	2.5%	6.1%	2.5%	30.6%	30.9%	29.9%	64.0%
C7 My job motivates me.	4.99 (1.532)	1.6%	4.1%	4.1%	8.0%	3.5%	23.2%	55.4%	9.9%	82.2%
C8 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	4.89 (1.572)	2.5%	3.8%	3.5%	8.6%	6.4%	24.5%	50.6%	9.9%	81.5%
C9 I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work.	4.77 (1.727)	5.4%	3.2%	2.9%	9.2%	4.8%	25.8%	48.7%	11.5%	79.3%
C10 I am proud of the work that I do.	5.52 (1.040)	0.0%	1.9%	0.3%	6.4%	1.3%	15.3%	74.8%	2.2%	91.4%
C11 I am absorbed in my work.	4.99 (1.532)	3.8%	2.2%	2.2%	6.7%	4.5%	29.0%	51.6%	8.3%	85.0%
C12 In my job, I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	4.71 (1.563)	3.5%	3.2%	1.9%	13.7%	3.5%	36.3%	37.9%	8.6%	77.7%
C13 To me, my work is challenging.	4.72 (1.718)	3.5%	5.1%	3.5%	12.4%	3.2%	23.9%	48.4%	12.1%	75.5%
C14 I get carried away by my work.	4.24 (1.869)	6.7%	6.7%	3.5%	15.9%	4.8%	30.9%	31.5%	16.9%	67.2%
C15 I am very resilient, mentally, in my job.	5.06 (1.477)	2.2%	3.8%	2.9%	4.1%	4.8%	28.3%	53.8%	8.9%	86.9%
C16 It is difficult to separate myself from my job.	3.80 (2.223)	17.5%	4.1%	5.1%	12.7%	5.4%	24.8%	30.3%	26.8%	60.5%
C17 I always persevere at work, even when things do not go well.	5.20 (1.355)	1.3%	1.9%	4.1%	5.7%	3.2%	22.6%	61.1%	7.3%	86.9%

The WE response items from the respondents are skewed to the right in affirmation indicating that respondents work engagement behaviours are displayed every day, with 80% average positive response. The item C16 "*it is difficult to separate myself from my job*" (60.5%) reflects respondents work engagement behaviour statement displayed at least "Once a week". Overall, respondents displayed high work engagement behaviours.

The OCB item response preferences from respondents are seen in the Table 7.4.

Table 7.4*Organisational Citizenship Behaviour item response analysis*

OCB Item	Mean SD	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Always	Top 2 - Box		
									Never	Always	
E1	Help others who have been absent	5.64 (1.900)	5.7%	6.1%	1.9%	14.3%	3.2%	14.0%	54.8%	13.7%	72.0%
E2	Willingly giving time to help others who have work-related problems	6.18 (1.449)	1.3%	3.5%	2.5%	8.0%	4.1%	15.0%	65.6%	7.3%	84.7%
E3	Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees request for time off.	5.19 (1.730)	6.4%	9.2%	6.1%	15.3%	4.8%	16/9%	41.4%	21.7%	63.1%
E4	Go out of your way to make newer employees to feel welcome in the workplace.	6.03 (1.730)	4.8%	3.8%	2.2%	7.0%	3.5%	12.4%	66.2%	10.8%	82.2%
E5	Show genuine concern and courtesy towards co-workers even under most trying business or personal situations.	6.10 (1.492)	1.3%	2.9%	5.1%	8.3%	3.5%	16.2%	62.7%	9.2%	82.5%
E6	Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	5.51 (1.795)	2.2%	8.6%	4.5%	15.6%	4.5%	19.4%	45.2%	15.3%	69.1%
E7	Assist others with their duties	5.80 (1.633)	1.9%	6.4%	2.2%	12.1%	3.2%	25.5%	48.7%	10.5%	77.4%
E8	Share personal property with others to help their work.	4.79 (2.249)	13.1%	12.1%	6.4%	8.9%	4.5%	21.3%	33.8%	31.5%	59.6%
E9	Attend functions that are not required but that help the organisation image.	3.02 (2.197)	32.8%	27.7%	5.4%	10.2%	2.9%	5.1%	15.9%	65.9%	23.9%
E10	Keep up with developments in the organisation.	5.40 (2.011)	5.1%	9.6%	5.7%	12.7%	4.5%	11.1%	51.3%	20.4%	66.9%
E11	Defend the organisation when others criticise it.	5.24 (2.150)	7.3%	12.4%	4.8%	10.2%	4.1%	12.1%	49.0%	24.5%	65.3%
E12	Show pride when representing the organisation in public.	5.70 (1.995)	6.4%	7.6%	2.9%	8.6%	2.5%	10.8%	61.1%	16.9%	74.5%
E13	Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation	5.37 (2.092)	4.1%	14.6%	4.8%	9.2%	4.1%	9.6%	53.5%	23.6%	67.2%
E14	Express loyalty towards the organisation.	6.26 (1.595)	3.2%	4.5%	1.6%	4.1%	2.9%	8.3%	75.5%	9.2%	86.6%
E15	Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	5.96 (1.820)	4.1%	7.6%	2.5%	3.8%	1.9%	15.6%	64.3%	14.3%	81.8%
E16	Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation	5.82 (1.196)	5.4%	7.6%	1.6%	8.3%	1.6%	13.1%	62.4%	14.6%	77.1%

OCB's response items are skewed to the right with above 70% respondents' positive responses "Always" display organisational citizenship behaviours for individuals and organisation. With items E14 "Express loyalty towards the organisation", E15 "Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems", E2 "Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems", E5 "Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations", E4 "Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group", ranging from (86.6 to 82.2%), highest statement response. Item E9 though, reflects the negative view of the respondents with 66% indicating that they will 'Never' attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image.

There's also other respondents with a high "Never" response in certain items, such as items E8 "share personal property with others to help their work" (31.5%), E11 "Defend the organisation when other employees criticise it" (24.5%), E13 "Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation" (23.6%), E3 (21.7) "Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' request for time off" and E10 "Keep up with developments in the organisation" (20.4%).

In Table 7.5 below, individual work performance respondents item response preference is presented.

Table 7.5*Individual work performance item response analysis*

IWP Item	Mean SD	Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always	Top 2 - Box		
							Never	Always	
D1	I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.	3.91 (1.148)	4.8%	8.3%	16.9%	30.9%	39.2%	13.1%	70.1%
D2	I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve.	4.50 (0.808)	0.6%	1.0%	13.4%	18.2%	66.9%	1.6%	85.0%
D3	I was able to set priorities.	4.24 (0.993)	2.2%	3.8%	15.3%	25.5%	53.2%	6.1%	78.7%
D4	I was able to carry out my work efficiently.	4.16 (0.968)	1.6%	5.4%	14.3%	33.1%	45.5%	7.0%	78.7%
D5	I managed my time well.	4.02 (1.103)	3.8%	6.4%	17.5%	28.3%	43.9%	10.2%	72.3%
D6	On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed.	3.86 (1.198)	4.8%	10.8%	18.2%	25.8%	40.4%	15.61%	66.2%
D7	I took on challenging tasks when they were available.	4.02 (1.103)	3.2%	8.9%	15.0%	28.7%	44.3%	12.1%	72.9%
D8	I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.	4.12 (1.089)	3.5%	4.8%	18.5%	22.6%	50.6%	8.3%	73.2%
D9	I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.	4.20 (1.047)	3.8%	3.8%	12.1%	28.7%	51.6%	7.6%	80.3%
D10	I came up with creative solutions for new problems.	3.93 (1.088)	3.5%	8.6%	15.9%	35.4%	36.6%	12.1%	72.0%
D11	I took on extra responsibilities.	3.99 (1.156)	4.5%	7.6%	17.5%	25.5%	44.9%	12.1%	70.4%
D12	I continually sought new challenges in my work.	3.77 (1.204)	6.7%	9.2%	18.5%	31.5%	34.1%	15.9%	65.6%
D13	I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations.	3.71 (1.351)	9.9%	10.8%	18.2%	21.0%	40.1%	20.7%	61.1%
D14	I complained about minor work-related issues at work.	2.20 (1.378)	44.9%	22.0%	11.1%	12.1%	9.9%	66.9%	22.0%
D15	I made problems at work bigger than they were.	1.61 (1.122)	67.8%	18.5%	4.1%	3.5%	6.1%	86.3%	9.6%
D16	I focused on the negative aspects of the situation at work instead of the positive aspects.	1.75 (1.178)	61.8%	17.8%	9.2%	5.4%	5.7%	79.6%	11.1%
D17	I talked to colleagues about the negative aspects of my work.	2.29 (1.353)	39.5%	23.2%	16.2%	10.8%	10.2%	62.7%	21.0%
D18	I talked to people outside the organisation about the negative aspects of my work.	1.85 (1.148)	52.2%	29.0%	4.8%	9.9%	4.1%	81.2%	14.0%

With IWP, most response items are skewed to the right, indicating a positive response with an average of response items reflecting that individual work performance behaviour are “Always” displayed by the respondents within their work environment, items with high percentage response rate includes items D2 “I kept in mind the work results I needed to achieve” (85%), D9 “I worked on keeping my work skills up to date” (80.3%), D3 “I was able to set priorities” (78.8%), D4 “I was able to carry out my work efficiently” (78.7%) Items 14 “I complained about minor work-related issues at work” (22.0%) to item 18 “I talked to people outside of the organisation about the negative aspects of my work” (14.0%) are negatively responded which implies a positive organisational citizenship behaviour.

Although respondents’ responses on most items are rated highly, there are those items rated low, such as item D4 (7.0%) “I was able to carry out work efficiently”, D8 “I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up to date” (8.3%), indicating some hindrance in the execution of their work, D9 (7.6%) “I worked on keeping my work skills up to date”, indicating that very few respondents are unable to keep their job related knowledge up to date, D16 (11.1%) “I focused on the negative aspects of the situation at work instead of the positive aspects”, this shows that there are some respondents who do focus on the negative aspects of their work.

7.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CONSTRUCTS

In this section, the descriptive statistics about the constructs and the test for normality of data are presented. The descriptive statistics presented, includes the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the constructs in the study, are presented in Table 7.6.

7.4.1 Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis

D'Agostino's K-squared test was used to determine whether the data were normally distributed (Dabbagh, 2021). This test assesses the distribution of data using two statistics: skewness and kurtosis. Skewness describes the shape of a unimodal histogram for numerical data and the degree of deviation from the mean of data distribution (Pallant, 2011).

Kurtosis describes how the distribution is pointed or flat in relation to the normal distribution. (Saunders & Townsend, 2016). According to Field (2013), for data to be considered satisfactory for a normal univariate distribution, its skewness must be in the range of -2 to +2 and its kurtosis must be between -3 and +3.

The results of Table 7.6 show the mean score, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis and other values for the various variables and their sub-dimensions.

Table 7.6

Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of study variables

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	95% CI	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Upper	Statistic	Statistic	Std Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PE_M	314	2.00	7.00	6.10	6.20	0.909	-1.805	0.138	4.228	0.274
PE_C	314	1.00	7.00	6.23	6.34	0.959	-2.196	0.138	7.171	0.274
PE_S	314	1.00	7.00	5.75	5.88	1.208	-1.787	0.138	3.933	0.274
PE_I	314	1.00	7.00	5.15	5.31	1.477	-0.840	0.138	0.086	0.274
PE	314	2.92	7.00	5.81	5.90	0.798	-0.800	0.138	0.891	0.274
WE	314	1.00	6.00	5.03	5.14	1.032	-1.432	0.138	1.890	0.274
IWP_T	314	1.00	5.00	4.10	4.19	0.839	-1.062	0.138	1.130	0.274
IWP_C	314	1.00	5.00	3.98	4.07	0.795	-0.820	0.138	0.624	0.274
IWP	314	1.83	5.00	4.04	4.12	0.686	-0.722	0.138	0.342	0.274
OCB_I	314	1.57	7.00	5.78	5.90	1.148	-1.156	0.138	1.199	0.274
OCB_O	314	1.17	7.00	5.75	5.90	1.335	-1.398	0.138	1.625	0.274
OCB	314	1.68	7.00	5.76	5.88	1.058	-1.255	0.138	1.582	0.274

Abbreviations

- PE_M:** Psychological empowerment – meaning
- PE_C:** Psychological empowerment – competence
- PE_S:** Psychological empowerment – self-determination
- PE_I:** Psychological empowerment – Impact
- PE:** Overall psychological empowerment
- WE:** Work engagement
- IWP_T:** Individual work performance – task
- IWP_C:** Individual work performance – contextual
- IWP:** Overall individual work performance
- OCB_I:** Organisational citizenship behaviour for individual
- OCB_O:** Organisational citizenship behaviour for organisation
- OCB:** Overall organisational citizenship behaviour

Table 7.6 shows the mean value for psychological empowerment was 5.81, the scale used is based on the extent of respondent’s agreeableness with the statement. The “agree” response indicates the respondents’ perception of being psychologically empowered in the workplace,

with competence and meaning sub-dimensions being more in agreement with the statements than impact and self-determination sub-dimensions.

Work engagement had a mean value of 5.03. The scale is determined by the frequency of the respondent's feeling engagement with their work. The results indicate "Once a week" however, more towards "A few times a week", which suggests that, at least, respondents felt more engaged with their work.

The mean value of 5.78 for organisational citizenship behaviour, which is also a frequency of behaviour while executing work. The results indicate "Once a week towards a "few times a week". This implies that respondents perceive displaying organisational citizenship behaviour a few times a week for both individual and organisation alike.

IWP mean score value 4.04. The scale used is also based on a frequency of respondent's execution of their tasks. The responses reflects "regularly" but very close to "often" on the scale, which indicate that respondent's perception is that often they engage equally in both task and contextual work performance.

Table 7.6 highlights the range of the skewness statistics for the four scales which is from -1.432 to -0.722 and kurtosis range is between 0.342 to 1.890. Similar to how the kurtosis values were within the advised normality range of -3 and +3, the skewness values were within the recommended normal range of -2 to +2, these results suggest that the data used for this study were normally distributed, even though for PE, WE, OCB and IWP were highly skewed positively except for IWP sub-dimension of counterproductive work behaviour which were negatively skewed. The standard deviation of between 0.687 and 1.058 shows that the values were evenly distributed (Welman et al., 2005).

7.5 TESTS FOR GROUP MEAN DIFFERENCE

This section addresses research hypotheses H5: Ascertain whether statistical group differences (age, gender, years of service, job level and qualification) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance, that is to assess whether significant differences exist between employees from different biographical background in relation to psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviours.

Groups of biographical variables were also used as moderators between the independent variables (psychological empowerment & work engagement), dependent variable (individual work performance) and mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviours). The results of the independent sample *t*-test, ANOVAs, mean scores investigating the relationship between the biographical and independent variables are summarised through paragraphs and tables to follow.

The independent sample *t*-tests and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique were performed to assess the differences in biographical variables (age, gender, job level, highest qualifications and years of service) to what extent they differ significantly to the psychological empowerment, work engagement. Individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviours within the workplace.

The *t*-test and ANOVA were used to test for significant differences between the biographical groups (age, gender, job levels, years of service, qualification).

7.5.1 Test for group mean: Gender

Table 7.7 show the *t*-test results for the biographical variable, gender. The independent sample *t*-tests analysis technique to assess difference in biographical variable (gender) as to what extent it differs significantly to the psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviours within the workplace.

Table 7.7

Independent sample t-test for group mean: Gender

Variable	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	mean difference	Eta Squared
PE_M	Male	249	6.105	0.916	0.066	0.948	0.008	0.009
	Female	65	6.097	0.885				
PE_C	Male	249	6.194	1.004	-1.365	0.173	-0.182	-0.190
	Female	65	6.376	0.750				
PE_S	Male	249	5.728	1.240	-0.578	0.564	-0.97	-0.081
	Female	65	5.825	1.081				
PE_I	Male	249	5.253	1.488	2.446	0.015*	0.499	0.341
	Female	65	4.753					

Variable	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	mean difference	Eta Squared
PE	Male	249	5.820	0.839	0.610	0.543	0.056	0.071
	Female	65	5.763	0.619				
WE	Male	249	5.055	1.033	0.907	0.365	0.130	0.126
	Female	65	4.925	1.028				
IWP_T	Male	249	4.144	0.834	1.770	0.078	0.206	0.247
	Female	65	3.938	0.841				
IWP_C	Male	249	4.000	0.794	0.778	0.437	0.086	0.108
	Female	65	3.913	0.800				
IWP	Male	249	4.072	0.696	1.533	0.126	0.146	0.214
	Female	65	3.926	0.635				
OCB_I	Male	249	5.752	1.122	-0.739	0.461	-0.118	-0.103
	Female	65	5.870	1.246				
OCB_O	Male	249	5.727	1.394	-0.755	0.452	-0.121	-0.091
	Female	65	5.848	1.080				
OCB	Male	249	5.739	1.072	-0.811	0.418	-0.119	-0.113
	Female	65	5.859	1.003				

Note: Significant T-test at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

The gender-specific independent *t*-test results (Table 7.7) show that there were statistically significant differences between the male and female groups in terms of psychological empowerment *impact* sub-dimension (PE-I), with ($p < 0.05$). The results show that impact was slightly higher in males ($M = 5.253$, $SD = 1.488$) and females ($M = 4.753$, $SD = 1.372$; $t(312) = 2.446$, $p = 0.015$, two-tailed).

These results suggest that females' participants felt having less impact in psychological empowerment than their male counterparts in the workplace. The SPSS output provided a value of 0.341 for eta squared, which indicates a large effect size. There was no statistically significant difference between males and females on all four variables and sub-dimensions ($p < 0.05$). The eta squared showed medium to large effect size for the PE (0.071), WE (0.126), IWC (0.108), IWP-T (0.247) and IWP (0.214).

7.5.2 Test for group mean: Age

Table 7.8 shows the ANOVA results for the biographical variables of age. The technique of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to evaluate the differences in the biographical variable (age) and to what extent it differs significantly to the psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviours within the workplace.

Table 7.8

Independent ANOVA results- test for group mean: Age

Variable	Levene Statistic		df1	df2	Sig.		
PE - meaning	11.662		3	310	0.000		
Variable	F-value	Sig.	Biographical variable	N	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE – meaning	5.506	0.015	18-35 years.	70	6.109	0.703	0.051
			36-45 years.	79	6.105	0.808	
			46-55 years.	110	6.300*	0.726	
			56+ years.	55	5.703**	1.378	
			Total	314	6.104	0.908	
PE - competence	0.989	0.398	18-35 years.	70	6.364	0.636	<0.001
			36-45 years.	79	6.183	1.032	
			46-55 years.	110	6.259	1.068	
			56+ years.	55	6.081	0.961	
			Total	314	6.232	0.959	
PE – self determination	0.422	0.737	18-35 years.	70	5.714	0.994	0.004
			36-45 years.	79	5.637	1.387	
			46-55 years.	110	5.827	1.204	
			56+ years.	55	5.793	1.204	
			Total	314	5.748	1.208	
PE - Impact	0.633	0.594	18-35 years.	70	5.271	1.371	0.001
			36-45 years.	79	5.012	1.582	
			46-55 years.	110	5.233	1.509	
			56+ years.	55	5.024	1.394	
			Total	314	5.149	1.477	
Psychological empowerment	1.601	0.189	18-35 years.	70	5.864	0.665	0.015
			36-45 years.	79	5.734	0.859	
			46-55 years.	110	5.904	0.799	
			56+ years.	55	5.650	0.844	
			Total	314	5.808	0.798	
Work engagement	0.487	0.692	18-35 years.	70	5.146	1.087	0.001
			36-45 years.	79	4.953	1.025	
			46-55 years.	110	4.997	0.981	
			56+ years.	55	5.049	1.080	
			Total	314	5.028	1.031	
PE - meaning	11.662		3	310	0.000		

Variable	F-value	Sig.	Biographical variable	N	Mean	SD	Eta squared
IWP – Task	1.682	0.171	18-35 years.	70	4.295	0.653	0.016
			36-45 years.	79	4.067	0.806	
			46-55 years.	110	4.054	0.927	
			56+ years.	55	4.000	0.891	
			Total	314	4.101	0.838	
IWP – Contextual	0.757	0.519	18-35 years.	70	4.051	0.726	0.001
			36-45 years.	79	4.043	0.856	
			46-55 years.	110	3.950	0.806	
			56+ years.	55	3.869	0.769	
			Total	314	3.982	0.794	
Individual Work Performance	1.442	0.231	18-35 years.	70	4.173	0.580	0.014
			36-45 years.	79	4.055	0.672	
			46-55 years.	110	4.002	0.725	
			56+ years.	55	3.934	0.735	
			Total	314	4.042	0.685	
OCB - individual	0.200	0.896	18-35 years.	70	5.683	1.174	0.002
			36-45 years.	79	5.795	1.135	
			46-55 years.	110	5.813	1.124	
			56+ years.	55	5.794	1.202	
			Total	314	5.776	1.147	
OCB – Organisation	0.280	0.840	18-35 years.	70	5.723	1.324	0.003
			36-45 years.	79	5.782	1.287	
			46-55 years.	110	5.815	1.279	
			56+ years.	55	5.621	1.536	
			Total	314	5.752	1.335	
Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.222	0.881	18-35 years.	70	5.704	1.021	0.002
			36-45 years.	79	5.789	1.061	
			46-55 years.	110	5.814	1.059	
			56+ years.	55	5.708	1.119	
			Total	314	5.764	1.058	

Note1: ANOVA $p \leq 0.05$ deemed significant. (2-tailed).

Note2: *indicates significantly more positive than **

Note3: F value indicates the merging of the following two values: $df1$ & $df2$.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed in one way between groups to investigate the impact of age differences on the psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviour of employees. The age range of the participants was split into four groups: Group 1:18-35; Group 2: 36-45; Group 3: 46-55; and Group 4: 56+.

There was no statistically significant difference at $p \leq 0.05$ level between the four age groups and the four constructs of psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, except for the psychological empowerment *meaning* sub-dimension, $F(3, 310) = 5.506$; $p = 0.001$), which showed a statistically significant difference.

The actual difference in mean scores between groups regarding PE-meaning was very small, even though it reached statistical significance. Using eta squared, the effect size was determined to be 0.051.

Games-Howell *post hoc* test was performed to ascertain the exact position of the impact difference in the PE-meaning sub-dimension among the four age groups. The Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 – 46 to 55 years ($M = 6.300$, $SD = 0.726$) was significantly different from Group 4 – 56+ years ($M = 5.703$, $SD = 1.378$). Group 1 – 18 to 35 ($M = 6.109$, $SD = 0,703$) and Group 2 – 36 to 45 ($M = 6.105$, $SD = 0.808$) did not differ significantly from either group.

7.5.3 Test for group mean: Job Level

Table 7.9 shows the ANOVA results for the biographical variables of job level. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique was performed to assess differences in biographical variable (job level) and to what extent it differs significantly to the psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviour within the workplace.

Table 7.9

Test for group mean: Job level

Variable	Levene / Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PE - meaning	2.146	5	308	0.060
PE – competence	1.242	5	308	0.289
PE - Impact	2.813	5	109.654	0.020
PE	2.929	5	112.745	0.016

Variable	Levene / Welch Statistic	df1		df2	Sig.		
IWP – Task	6.767	5		113.633	0.000		
IWP - contextual	1.301	5		308	0.263		
IWP	5.525	5		111.239	0.000		
OCB - Individual	1.607	5		308	0.158		
OCB	2.241	5		108.703	0.055		

Variable	F- value	Sig.	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE - meaning	3.005	0.012	Unskilled	31	5.655**	0.990	0.047
			Skilled	79	6.189	0.689	
			Administrator	33	6.050	0.961	
			Specialist	64	6.328*	0.716	
			Senior Specialist	31	5.860	1.010	
			Manager (Junior, Middle, Senior)	76	6.131	1.079	
			Total	314	6.104	0.908	
PE – competence	2.473	0.032	Unskilled	31	6.016	1.207	0.039
			Skilled	79	5.993**	1.125	
			Administrator	33	6.257	0.830	
			Specialist	64	6.500*	0.835	
			Senior Specialist	31	6.322	0.822	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	6.296	0.800	
			Total	314	6.232	0.959	
PE – self determination	3.181	0.066	Unskilled	31	5.043	1.718	0.049
			Skilled	79	5.818	1.051	
			Administrator	33	5.888	0.831	
			Specialist	64	6.005	1.084	
			Senior Specialist	31	5.516	1.060	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.780	1.314	
			Total	314	5.748	1.208	

Variable	F-value	Sig.	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE - Impact	2.838	0.020	Unskilled	31	4.655**	1.812	0.044
			Skilled	79	5.215	1.333	
			Administrator	33	5.131	1.483	
			Specialist	64	5.119	1.595	
			Senior Specialist	31	4.580	1.440	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.548*	1.278	
			Total	314	5.145	1.477	
Psychological empowerment	3.898	0.016	Unskilled	31	5.342**	1.099	0.060
			Skilled	79	5.804	0.810	
			Administrator	33	5.832	0.567	
			Specialist	64	5.988*	0.700	
			Senior Specialist	31	5.569	0.722	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.939	0.758	
			Total	314	5.808	0.798	
Work engagement	1.566	0.225	Unskilled	31	4.843	1.090	0.025
			Skilled	79	5.059	1.036	
			Administrator	33	5.008	1.304	
			Specialist	64	5.107	0.943	
			Senior Specialist	31	4.626	1.156	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.179	0.854	
			Total	314	5.028	1.031	
IWP – Task	7.578	0.001	Unskilled	31	4.086*	0.779	0.110
			Skilled	79	4.409*	0.693	
			Administrator	33	4.353*	0.506	
			Specialist	64	4.078*	0.771	
			Senior Specialist	31	3.451**	0.998	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	3.964*	0.929	
			Total	314	4.101	0.838	

Variable	F-value	Sig.	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
IWP – Contextual	2.665	0.022	Unskilled	31	3.748	0.779	0.041
			Skilled	79	4.144*	0.723	
			Administrator	33	4.109	0.830	
			Specialist	64	3.943	0.855	
			Senior Specialist	31	3.638**	0.959	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	4.026	0.679	
			Total	314	3.982	0.794	
			Individual Work Performance	6.422	0.001	Unskilled	
Skilled	79	4.276*				0.576	
Administrator	33	4.231*				0.516	
Specialist	64	4.010*				0.726	
Senior Specialist	31	3.545**				0.837	
Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	3.995*				0.639	
Total	314	4.042				0.685	
OCB - individual	3.140	0.009				Unskilled	31
			Skilled	79	5.884	1.074	
			Administrator	33	5.969	0.999	
			Specialist	64	5.750	1.201	
			Senior Specialist	31	5.248**	1.409	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.992*	0.949	
			Total	314	5.776	1.147	
			OCB – Organisation	1.301	0.263	Unskilled	31
Skilled	79	5.755				1.339	
Administrator	33	5.868				1.195	
Specialist	64	5.713				1.277	
Senior Specialist	31	5.537				1.559	
Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.989				1.211	
Total	314	5.752				1.335	

Variable	F-value	Sig.	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
Organisational citizenship behaviour	2.702	0.055	Unskilled	31	5.344	1.297	0.042
			Skilled	79	5.819	1.015	
			Administrator	33	5.919	0.906	
			Specialist	64	5.731	1.095	
			Senior Specialist	31	5.393	1.336	
			Manager (Junior Middle Senior)	76	5.990	0.811	
			Total	314	5.764	1.058	

Note1: ANOVA significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

Note2: *indicates significantly more positive than **

Note3: F value indicates the merging of the following two values: $df1$ & $df2$

One-way (ANOVA) between analysis of group variance was conducted to explore the participants difference in job levels on independent constructs (psychological empowerment, work engagement), dependent construct (individual work performance) and mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviour). The participants in the study were divided into six groups according to their job level (Group 1: Unskilled; Group 2: Skilled; Group 3: Administrator; Group 4: Specialist; Group 5: Senior Specialist; Group 6: Manager / Junior / middle / senior).

A statistically significant difference was observed at ($p \leq 0.05$) between the participants job levels and the independent variables (psychological empowerment), dependent variable (individual work performance) and mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviour): PE-meaning results, $F(5, 308) = 3.005$; $p = 0.012$), the PE-competence, $F(5, 308) = 2.473$; $p = 0.032$), the PE-impact, $F(5, 109.654) = 2.838$; $p = 0.020$ and overall PE, $F(5, 112.745) = 3.898$; $p = 0.016$; IWP-task, $F(5, 113.633) = 7.578$; $p = < 0.001$, the IWP-context, $F(5.308) = 2.665$; $p = 0.022$), the overall IWP, $F(5, 111.239) = 6.422$; $p = < 0.001$; the OCB-individual, $F(5, 308) = 3.140$; $p = 0.009$, the overall OCB, $F(5, 108.703) = 2.702$; $p = 0.055$) were significant.

There was no significant distinction between the work engagement, the OCB-organisation and the participants job levels. Even though reaching statistical significance the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The effect size calculated using the eta squared, ranges between small effect size (PE-competence = 0.039; IWP-contextual = 0.041; OCB = 0.042; PE-impact = 0.044; PE-meaning = 0.047; OCB-individual = 0.049; to medium effect size, PE = 0.060; IWP = 0.094 and IWP-task = 0.110).

When conducting Games-Howell *post hoc* test to determine where the differences exist between participants job levels and psychological empowerment (and its sub-dimensions of meaning, competence and impact), work engagement, individual work performance (and its sub-dimensions of IWP – task and IWP – contextual) and organisational citizenship behaviour sub-dimension of OCB – individual), the results were as follows:

When considering the **PE-meaning** sub-dimension, the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 – Unskilled ($M = 5.655$, $SD = 0.990$) was significantly different from Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 6.328$, $SD = 0.716$). Group 2 – Skilled ($M = 6.189$, $SD = 0.703$), Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 6.689$, $SD = 0.961$), Group 5 – Snr Specialist ($M = 5.860$, $SD = 1.010$) and Group 6 – Manager Junior/ middle/ senior ($M = 6.131$, $SD = 1.079$) did not significantly change from either group.

Regarding **PE-competence**, the Games-Howell test showed that the mean score for Group 2 – skilled ($M = 5.993$, $SD = 1.125$) was significantly different from Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 6.500$, $SD = 0.835$). Unskilled ($M = 6.016$, $SD = 1.207$), Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 6.257$, $SD = 0.830$), Snr Specialist ($M = 6.322$, $SD = 0.822$) and Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 6.296$, $SD = 0.800$) did not differ significantly from either group.

When considering **PE-impact**, the Games-Howell revealed that the mean score for Group 1 – Unskilled ($M = 4.655$, $SD = 1.812$) was significantly different from Group 6 – Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 5.548$, $SD = 1.278$). Group 5 – Snr specialist ($M = 4.580$, $SD = 1.440$). Group 2 – skilled ($M = 5.215$, $SD = 1.333$), Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 5.131$, $SD = 1.483$) and Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 5.119$, $SD = 1.595$) did not substantially change from either group.

For **PE overall scale**, the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 – Unskilled ($M = 5.342$, $SD = 1.099$) was significantly different from Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 5.988$, $SD = 0.700$). Group 2 – skilled ($M = 5.804$, $SD = 0.810$), Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 5.832$, $SD = 0.567$), Group 5 – Snr specialist ($M = 5.569$, $SD = 0.722$) and Group 6 – Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 5.939$, $SD = 0.758$) did not differ significantly from other groups.

When looking at **IWP-task**, the Games-Howell test showed that the mean score for Group 5 – Snr specialist ($M = 3.451$, $SD = 0.998$) differed significantly from Group 1 – Unskilled ($M = 4.086$, $SD = 0.779$), Group 2 – skilled ($M = 4.409$, $SD = 0.693$), Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 4.353$, $SD = 0.506$), Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 4.078$, $SD = 0.771$) and Group 6 – Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 3.964$, $SD = 0.929$).

In reference to the **IWP-contextual**, the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score for Group 5 – Snr specialist ($M = 3.638$, $SD = 0.959$) differed significantly from Group 2 – skilled ($M = 4.144$, $SD = 0.723$). Group 1 – Unskilled ($M = 3.748$, $SD = 0.779$), Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 4.109$, $SD = 0.830$), Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 3.943$, $SD = 0.855$) and Group 6 – Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 4.026$, $SD = 0.679$) showed no apparent distinctions from either group.

Concerning the **IWP overall scale**, the Games-Howell test showed that the mean score for Group 5 – Snr specialist ($M = 3.545$, $SD = 0.837$) differed significantly from Group 3 – Administrator ($M = 4.231$, $SD = 0.516$). Group 1 – Unskilled ($M = 3.917$, $SD = 0.680$), Group 2 – skilled ($M = 4.276$, $SD = 0.576$), Group 4 – Specialist ($M = 4.010$, $SD = 0.726$) and Group 6 – Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 3.995$, $SD = 0.639$).

Looking at **OCB – individual**, the Games-Howell test revealed that the mean score for Group 5 – Snr specialist ($M = 5.248$, $SD = 1.409$) was significantly different from Group 6 – Manager Junior/middle/senior ($M = 5.992$, $SD = 0.949$). Other Groups, Unskilled ($M = 5.350$, $SD = 1.318$), Skilled ($M = 5.884$, $SD = 1.074$), Administrator ($M = 5.969$, $SD = 0.999$) and Specialist ($M = 5.750$, $SD = 1.201$) were not significantly different from other groups.

7.5.4 Test for group mean: Qualifications

Table 7.10 shows ANOVA results for the biographical variables of qualifications. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique was performed to assess differences in biographical variable (qualifications) and to what extent it differs significantly to the psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviours within the workplace.

Table 7.10

Test for group mean: Qualifications

Variable	Levene/Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PE – competence	2.166	4	309	0.073
PE – self- determination	5.453	4	113.896	0.000
PE - impact	7.649	4	110.293	0.000
PE	2.260	4	309	0.063
IWP - task	0.828	4	309	0.508
IWP	0.727	4	309	0.574
OCB - organisation	3.685	4	112.378	0.007
OCB	3.880	4	110.239	0.005

Variable	E- value	Sig	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE - meaning	1.652	0.161	Below Matric;	137	5.987	0.968	0.021
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	6.300	0.520	
			Diploma	58	6.264	0.686	
			UG degree	46	6.021	1.120	
			PG degree	32	6.177	1.001	
			Total	314	6.104	0.908	
PE - competence	5.943	0.001	Below Matric;	137	5.959	1.119	0.071
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	6.292	0.858	
			Diploma	58	6.379*	0.828	
					*		
			UG degree	46	6.543*	0.648	
			PG degree	32	6.609*	0.618	
Total	314	6.232	0.959				
PE – self determination	4.887	0.001	Below Matric;	137	5.584	1.302	0.059
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	6.154*	0.707	
			Diploma	58	6.057*	0.888	
			UG degree	46	5.297*	1.563	
					*		
			PG degree	32	6.000	0.875	
Total	314	5.748	1.208				

Variable	E-value	Sig	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE - Impact	4.003	0.001	Below Matric;	137	5.005	1.482	0.049
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	5.894*	0.854	
			Diploma	58	5.298	1.592	
			UG degree	46	4.768*	1.568	
			PG degree	32	5.083	1.459	
			Total	314	5.148	1.477	
Psychological empowerment	5.448	0.001	Below Matric;	137	5.635*	0.873	0.066
			Matric		*		
			Trade Certificate	41	6.160*	0.533	
			Diploma	58	6.000*	0.698	
			UG degree	46	5.657*	0.836	
			PG degree	32	5.967	0.621	
			Total	314	5.808	0.798	
Work engagement	1.710	0.147	Below Matric;	137	5.102	1.011	0.022
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	5.181	0.811	
			Diploma	58	5.071	1.081	
			UG degree	46	4.698	1.137	
			PG degree	32	4.915	1.073	
			Total	314	5.028	1.031	
IWP – Task	3.741	0.005	Below Matric;	137	4.206*	0.814	0.046
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	4.219*	0.689	
			Diploma	58	4.137*	0.844	
			UG degree	46	3.688*	0.999	
			PG degree	32	4.031	0.700	
			Total	314	4.101	0.838	
IWP – Contextual	2.106	0.080	Below Matric;	137	4.017	0.757	0.027
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	4.136	0.819	
			Diploma	58	4.075	0.772	
			UG degree	46	3.791	0.778	
			PG degree	32	3.737	0.922	
			Total	314	3.982	0.794	

Variable	E-value	Sig	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
Individual Work Performance	3.667	0.006	Below Matric;	137	4.112*	0.662	0.045
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	4.178*	0.566	
			Diploma	58	4.106*	0.686	
			UG degree	46	3.739**	0.756	
			PG degree	32	3.884	0.703	
			Total	314	4.042	0.685	
OCB - Individual	2.015	0.092	Below Matric;	137	5.773	1.151	0.025
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	6.101	0.935	
			Diploma	58	5.854	1.018	
			UG degree	46	5.422	1.424	
			PG degree	32	5.741	1.077	
			Total	314	5.776	1.147	
OCB – Organisation	2.018	0.007	Below Matric;	137	5.661*	1.521	0.025
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	6.227*	0.810	
			Diploma	58	5.881	1.155	
			UG degree	46	5.601**	1.071	
			PG degree	32	5.515	1.552	
			Total	314	5.752	1.335	
Organisational citizenship behaviour	2.504	0.005	Below Matric;	137	5.717*	1.135	0.031
			Matric				
			Trade Certificate	41	6.164*	0.707	
			Diploma	58	5.868	0.966	
			UG degree	46	5.511**	1.047	
			PG degree	32	5.628	1.157	
			Total	314	5.764	1.058	

Note1: ANOVA significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

Note2: *indicates significantly more positive than **

Note3: F value indicates the merging of the following two values: $df1$ & $df2$

The level of qualifications for the participants in the study were grouped into 5 levels (Group 1: Matric & below; Group 2: Trade certificate; Group 3: Diploma; Group 4: Undergraduate; Group 5: Postgraduate). There was a statistically significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$). between participants qualification and independent variables (psychological empowerment & work engagement), dependent variable (individual work performance) and mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviour):

The PE-competence results, $F(4, 309) = 5.943$; $p < 0.001$, the PE-self-determination, $F(4, 113.896) = 4, 887$; $p < 0.001$, PE-impact, $F(4, 110.293) = 4.003$; $p < 0.001$, PE overall scale, $F(4, 309) = 5.448$; $p < 0.001$, IWP-task, $F(4, 309) = 3.741$; $p = 0.005$, IWP overall scale, $F(4, 309) = 3.667$; $p = 0.006$, OCB-organisation, $F(4, 112.378) = 2.018$; $p = 0.007$ and OCB overall scale, $F(4, 110.239) = 2.504$; $p = 0.005$, were found to be statistically significant. However, no noticeable distinction was discovered between PE-meaning, Work Engagement scale, the OCB-individual and the IWP-contextual sub-dimension with the levels of qualification.

The effect size calculated using the eta squared, range from small effect size values (PE-meaning = 0,021, WE = 0.022, OCB-I & OCB-O = 0.025, IWP-context = 0.027, OCB overall scale = 0.031, IWP overall scale = 0.045, IWP-task = 0.046, PE-impact = 0.049, PE-self-determination = 0.059) and medium effect size values (PE overall construct = 0.066 & PE-competence = 0.071)

When conducting Games-Howell post hoc test to determine where the differences exist between the six qualification levels for psychological empowerment (and its sub-dimensions of competence, self-determination and impact), Individual work performance (and its sub-dimensions of IWP – task) and Organisational citizenship behaviour (and its sub-dimension of OCB – organisation), the results were as follows:

The Games-Howell test conducted for **PE-competence** indicated that the mean score for Group 3: Diploma ($M = 6.379$, $SD = 0.828$) was significantly different from Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 6.543$, $SD = 0.648$) and Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 6.609$, $SD = 0.618$). Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 5.959$, $SD = 1.119$) and Group 2: Trade certificate did not differ significantly from other qualification groups.

For **PE-self-determination**, the Games-Howell test showed that the mean score for Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 5.297$, $SD = 1.563$) was significantly different from Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 6.154$, $SD = 0.707$) and Group 3: Diploma ($M = 6.057$, $SD = 0.888$). Group 1:

Matric & below ($M = 5.584$, $SD = 1.302$) and Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 6.000$, $SD = 0.875$) did not differ significantly to other groups.

With reference to **PE-impact**, the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score for Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 4.768$, $SD = 1.568$) was significantly different from Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 5.894$, $SD = 0.854$) and. However, Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 5.005$, $SD = 1.482$), Group 3: Diploma ($M = 5.298$, $SD = 1.592$) and Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 5.083$, $SD = 1.459$) did not differ significantly to other groups.

Regarding **PE overall scale**, the Games-Howell test revealed that the mean score for Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 5.635$, $SD = 0.873$) was significantly different from Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 6.160$, $SD = 0.533$), Group 3: Diploma ($M = 6.000$, $SD = 0.698$) and Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 5.657$, $SD = 0.836$). Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 6.160$, $SD = 0.533$) and Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 5.967$, $SD = 0.621$) though, did not differ significantly to other groups.

Looking at **IWP-task**, the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score for Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 3.688$, $SD = 0.999$) was significantly different from Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 4.206$, $SD = 0.814$), Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 4.219$, $SD = 0.689$) and Group 3: Diploma ($M = 4.137$, $SD = 0.844$). On the other hand, Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 4.031$, $SD = 0.700$) did not differ significantly to other groups.

Pertaining to **IWP overall scale**, the Games-Howell test showed that the mean score for Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 3.739$, $SD = 0.756$) was significantly different from Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 4.112$, $SD = 0.662$), Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 4.178$, $SD = 0.566$) and Group 3: Diploma ($M = 4.106$, $SD = 0.686$). On the other hand, Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 3.884$, $SD = 0.703$) did not differ significantly to other groups.

Following the Games-Howell test on **OCB-O**, the results revealed that the mean score for Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 5.601$, $SD = 1.701$) was significantly different from Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 5.661$, $SD = 1.521$) and Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 6.227$, $SD = 0.810$). Group 3: Diploma ($M = 5.881$, $SD = 1.155$) and Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 5.515$, $SD = 1.552$) were not significantly different from other groups.

For **OCB overall scale**, the Games-Howell test results highlighted that the mean score for Group 4: Undergraduate ($M = 5.511$, $SD = 1.047$) was significantly different from Group 1: Matric & below ($M = 5.717$, $SD = 1.135$) and Group 2: Trade certificate ($M = 6.164$, $SD =$

0.707). Group 3: Diploma ($M = 5.868$, $SD = 0.966$) and Group 5: Postgraduate ($M = 5.628$, $SD = 1.157$) was not significantly different from other groups.

7.5.5 Test for group mean: Years of service

Table 7.11 below show ANOVA results for the biographical variable of years of service. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique was performed to assess the differences in biographical variable (years of service) and to what extent it differs significantly to the PE, WE, IWP and OCB's within the workplace.

Table 7.11

Test for group mean: Years of service

Variable	Levene Statistic	/Welch	df1	df2	Sig.		
PE – self-determination	2.565		4	119.249	0.042		
PE - impact	5.792		4	119.171	0.000		
PE	3.741		4	118.288	0.007		
IWP - task	5.288		4	119.283	0.001		
IWP - context	1.269		4	309	0.282		
IWP	2.714		4	120.117	0.033		

Variable	F-value	Sig	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE - meaning	0.540	0.706	Less than 5 years.	40	6.008	0.919	0.007
			5 – 10 years.	54	6.166	0.912	
			10 – 15 years.	54	6.061	0.676	
			15 – 20 years.	35	6.276	0.585	
			Above 20 years.	131	6.078	1.050	
			Total	314	6.104	0.908	
PE competence	0.643	0.632	Less than 5 years.	40	6.375	0.574	0.008
			5 – 10 years.	54	6.111	1.362	
			10 – 15 years.	54	6.259	0.828	
			15 – 20 years.	35	6.357	0.818	
			Above 20 years.	131	6.194	0.941	
			Total	314	6.232	0.959	

Variable	F-value	Sig	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared
PE – self determination	2.276	0.042*	Less than 5 years.	40	5.958	0.700	0.029
			5 – 10 years.	54	5.425	1.516	
			10 – 15 years.	54	5.617	1.273	
			15 – 20 years.	35	6.114	0.902	
			Above 20 years.	131	5.773	1.206	
			Total	314	5.748	1.208	
PE - Impact	4.142	0.001*	Less than 5 years.	40	5.425	1.149	0.051
			5 – 10 years.	54	4.833	1.778	
			10 – 15 years.	54	5.209	1.211	
			15 – 20 years.	35	5.933	1.037	
			Above 20 years.	131	4.961	1.555	
			Total	314	5.149	1.477	
Psychological empowerment	2.962	0.007*	Less than 5 years.	40	5.941	0.520	0.037
			5 – 10 years.	54	5.634	1.009	
			10 – 15 years.	54	5.787	0.750	
			15 – 20 years.	35	6.170	0.622	
			Above 20 years.	131	5.752	0.806	
			Total	314	5.808	0.798	
Work engagement	1.982	0.097	Less than 5 years.	40	5.353	0.965	0.025
			5 – 10 years.	54	4.881	1.170	
			10 – 15 years.	54	5.132	0.977	
			15 – 20 years.	35	5.159	0.906	
			Above 20 years.	131	4.912	1.028	
			Total	314	5.028	1.031	
IWP – Task	2.532	0.001*	Less than 5 years.	40	4.458	0.465	0.032
			5 – 10 years.	54	4.142	0.815	
			10 – 15 years.	54	4.098	0.853	
			15 – 20 years.	35	4.076	0.812	
			Above 20 years.	131	3.984	0.914	
			Total	314	4.101	0.838	

Variable	F-value	Sig	Biographical variable	n	Mean	SD	Eta squared	
IWP Contextual	-	2.443	0.047*	Less than 5 years.	40	4.040	0.664	0.031
				5 – 10 years.	54	3.755	0.874	
				10 – 15 years.	54	4.133	0.764	
				15 – 20 years.	35	4.200	0.699	
				Above 20 years.	131	3.937	0.815	
				Total	314	3.982	0.794	
Individual Work Performance	1.971	0.033*	0.033*	Less than 5 years.	40	4.249	0.454	0.025
				5 – 10 years.	54	3.948	0.710	
				10 – 15 years.	54	4.116	0.628	
				15 – 20 years.	35	4.138	0.565	
				Above 20 years.	131	3.961	0.769	
				Total	314	4.042	0.685	
OCB - individual	1.070	0.281	0.281	Less than 5 years.	40	6.003	0.764	0.014
				5 – 10 years.	54	5.801	1.153	
				10 – 15 years.	54	5.531	1.308	
				15 – 20 years.	35	5.869	1.109	
				Above 20 years.	131	5.773	1.179	
				Total	314	5.776	1.147	
OCB Organisation	-	1.652	0.065	Less than 5 years.	40	6.083	0.851	0.021
				5 – 10 years.	54	5.731	1.415	
				10 – 15 years.	54	5.793	1.335	
				15 – 20 years.	35	6.033	1.100	
				Above 20 years.	131	5.568	1.457	
				Total	314	5.752	1.335	
Organisational citizenship behaviour	1.355	0.082	0.082	Less than 5 years.	40	6.043	0.663	0.017
				5 – 10 years.	54	5.766	1.032	
				10 – 15 years.	54	5.662	1.150	
				15 – 20 years.	35	5.951	0.976	
				Above 20 years.	131	5.670	1.137	
				Total	314	5.764	1.058	

Note1: ANOVA significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

Note3: F value indicates the merging of the following two values: $df1$ & $df2$

The years of services for the respondents in the study were grouped into 5 levels (Group 1: less than 5 years; Group 2: 5-10 yrs.; Group 3: 10-15 yrs.; Group 4: 15-20 yrs.; Group 5: above 20 yrs.). There was statistically significant difference at ($p \leq 0.05$) between the participants years of service and the independent variable (psychological empowerment and its sub-dimensions of self-determination & impact), dependent variable (individual work performance overall scale and its sub-dimensions of IWP-task & IWP-contextual):

The PE-self-determination results, $F(4, 119.249) = 2.276$; $p = 0.042$, PE-impact $F(4, 119.171) = 4.142$; $p = < 0.001$, PE overall scale, $F(4, 118.288) = 2.962$; $p = 0.007$, IWP-task, $F(4, 119.283) = 2.532$; $p = < 0.001$, IWP-context, $F(4, 309) = 2.443$; $p = 0.047$, IWP overall scale, $F(4, 120.117) = 1.971$; $p = 0.033$, OCB-organisation, $F(4, 112.378) = 2.018$; $p = 0.007$ and OCB overall scale, $F(4, 110.239) = 2.504$; $p = 0.005$ were found to be significant.

However, there was no significant difference found between the PE-meaning, PE-competence, WE scale, the OCB-individual, the OCB-organisation and the OCB overall scale with the respondents' years of service.

The effect size calculated using the eta squared, range from small effect size values (PE-meaning = 0,007, PE-competence = 0.008, OCB-I = 0.014, OCB overall scale = 0.017, OCB-O = 0.021, WE = 0.025, IWP overall scale = 0.025, PE-self-determination = 0.029, IWP-context = 0.031, IWP-task = 0.032, PE-impact = 0.037) and medium effect size values (PE- impact = 0.051)

Upon conducting Games-Howell post hoc test to determine where the differences exist between participants years of service group and psychological empowerment (sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact), WE, IWP (and sub-dimensions of IWP – task and IWP – contextual) and OCB (and sub-dimension of OCB – individual and OCB – organisation). The results showed no significant differences in years of service between the variables listed above and their sub-dimensions.

7.6 COMMON METHOD VARIANCE

Descriptive statistics and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were performed. Self-report measures and a cross-sectional research design were employed in this study. As a result, common method bias was used on the four constructs chosen. To evaluate potential common method bias, a one factor CFA and the Harman's one factor test were used. Following Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Coetzee, Ferreira and Potgieter (2021), common method variance

will occur when a single factor emerges from the analysis or if one overall factor explains the greater part of the variance. The results of the tests are summarised in Table 7.12 which can be found under 7.6.1.2.

IBM SPSS AMOS (version. 28, 2021) was used to analyse the data and if they comply to goodness-of-fit: the chi-square (CMIN), the degree of freedom (df), the relevant level of significance (p), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), a comparative fit index (CFI), the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC). Goodness-of-fit is acceptable if the threshold for RMSEA is ≤ 0.08 , CFI, TLI values are ≥ 0.90 , SRMR values ≤ 0.08 and AIC and BIC model shows the lowest value (Arbuckle, 2011; Awang, 2012; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2014; Kieseppä, 2003).

7.6.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

7.6.1.1 Interpreting and reporting on scale reliability

This section focuses on the report of the internal consistency reliability for these measuring instruments: i) Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire - PEQ (Spreitzer, 1995); ii) UWES (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003); iii) Individual Work Performance Questionnaire - IWPQ (Koopmans, 2015) and 1v) OCB Scale – OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002).

Cronbach's alpha coefficients, average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability must all be calculated when using structural equation modelling. According to Huang, Savita, Dan-yi, and Omar (2022), Cronbach's alpha is the most widely used test score reliability coefficient for single administration. In this study, composite reliability is preferred over Cronbach's alpha coefficient as it provides a less skewed measure of reliability.

A composite reliability coefficient ≥ 0.70 is considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2017) use composite reliability (CR) as a measure of internal consistency in scale items. CR scores range from 0 to 1, with scores close to 1 being particularly desirable as they indicate greater reliability. Composite reliability must exceed 0.7 (Kholed et al., 2021).

Malhotra and Dash (2011) describe AVE as a strict measure of convergent validity. According to Malhotra and Dash (2011), AVE is a more conservative measure than composite reliability. Values above > 0.70 are considered very good, while values ≥ 0.50 are acceptable, confirming construct reliability and convergent validity.

7.6.1.2 *Reporting on scale reliability: psychological empowerment questionnaire (PEQ)*

The PEQ was used to measure the employee's psychological empowerment using subscale of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Table 7.12 reports Cronbach alpha coefficient values, together with the AVEs and composite reliabilities including factor loadings for each of the four subscales of the PEQ.

Table 7.12

Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the PE

Construct	Items	Alpha α	CR	AVE	Factor Loading
PE_M	B1	0.71	0.72	0.46	0.64
	B2				0.72
	B3				0.67
PE_C	B4	0.72	0.72	0.41	0.67
	B5				0.58
PE_S	B7	0.82	0.82	0.61	0.78
	B8				0.80
	B9				0.77
PE_I	B10	0.83	0.84	0.65	0.64
	B11				0.84
	B12				0.92

a) *Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and alpha coefficient (PEQ)*

It is important to note that only item B6 was removed to improve the PE scale's reliability, which increased from 0.56 to 0.72. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated using the internal consistency of each sub-construct. The Cronbach's alpha values in Table 7.12 were all greater than 0.6 (Ferine et al., 2021; Kholed et al., 2021).

Although the AVE results for meaning and competence sub-scales were below the threshold of 0.5, Pasamar, Johnson and Tanwar (2020) indicate that if the CR is higher than 0.6, then the convergent validity is acceptable. In this case the CR for all the sub-scales range between 0.72 and 0.84. This indicates that the requirements for internal consistency were met. The results show that all CR values exceeded the threshold of 0.7. These results of the sub-scales indicate internal consistency of the constructs and, therefore, convergent validity of the construct is achieved, indicating that the scale can be used in this study.

7.6.1.3 Reporting on scale reliability: UWES

The UWES was used to measure the employee’s engagement at work using the subscale of vigour, dedication and absorption. Table 7.13 reports the Cronbach alpha coefficient values together with the AVEs and composite reliabilities including factor loadings for a single factor model of the UWES since the three-factor model did not emerge.

Table 7.13

Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the UWES

Construct	Items	Alpha α	CR	AVE	Factor loading
WE	C1	0.82	0.82	0.41	0.50
	C2				0.61
	C4				0.61
	C5				0.66
	C7				0.69
	C8				0.81
	C9				0.59

b) *Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and alpha coefficient (UWES)*

It is important to note that during reliability evaluation the following items were removed to improve the reliability of the WE scale; Item C3, C6, C10, C11, C12, C13, C14, C15, C16 and C17 were removed to improve the reliability of the WE scale and a single factor emerged with Cronbach’s alpha coefficient and composite reliability of 0.82 and AVE of 0.41. These results indicate an acceptable convergent validity of the construct as indicated by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This imply that the requirements of internal consistency were met and that the scale can be used in this study.

7.6.1.4 *Reporting on scale reliability: organisational citizenship behaviour scale (OCB)*

The OCB was used to measure the employee's engagement at work using subscale of OCB-I directed at individual and OCB-O directed at organisation.

Table 7.14 reports the Cronbach alpha coefficient values together with the AVEs and composite reliabilities including factor loadings for each of the two subscales of the OCB.

Table 7.14

Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the OCB

Construct	Items	Alpha α	CR	AVE	Factor Loading
OCB - I	E1	0.79	0.79	0.36	0.56
	E2				0.70
	E3				0.58
	E4				0.56
	E5				0.64
	E6				0.53
	E7				0.61
OCB-O	E10	0.79	0.80	0.41	0.52
	E12				0.50
	E13				0.57
	E14				0.74
	E15				0.79
	E16				0.67

d) *Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and alpha coefficient (OCB)*

In the OCB scale only items E8, E9 and E11 were removed to improve the reliability of the OCB scale. This improved the OCB-I average variance extracted from 0.33 to 0.36 and OCB-O average variance extracted from 0.36 to 0.41. These results prompted a final second order evaluation of OCB. OCB-I and OCB-O contributed towards overall OCB and final CR and AVE results were 0.72 and 0.57 respectively. These results indicate that the convergent validity is acceptable and suggest that requirements for internal consistency were met, as the values of CR exceeded the threshold of 0.7 and AVE exceeded the 0.5 threshold (Pasmara et al., 2020;

Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Therefore, convergent validity of the construct is achieved indicating that the scale can be used in this study.

7.6.1.5 *Reporting on scale reliability: individual work performance questionnaire (IWPQ)*

The IWP was used to measure employee’s performance at work using the subscale of task performance and contextual performance. Table 7.15 reports the Cronbach alpha coefficient values together with the AVEs and composite reliabilities including factor loadings for each of the two subscales of the IWP.

Table 7.15

Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the IWP

Construct	Items	Alpha α	CR	AVE	Factor Loading
IWP - Task	D1	0.73	0.77	0.46	0.73
	D3				0.68
	D4				0.67
	D5				0.66
IWP Contextual	D7	0.74	0.75	0.39	0.56
	D9				0.45
	D10				0.63
	D11				0.66
	D12				0.77

e) *Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and alpha coefficient (IWPQ)*

Original IWP single factor CFA model did not converge to demonstrate a three-factor model, which led to the discarding of items D14 – D18 as they showed insignificant loadings on the standardised regression weights (D14 = 0.004; D15 = -0.069; D16 = -0.080; D17 = -0.062; D18 = 0.007). This led to baseline of a two-factor model.

It is significant to remember that starting from the baseline of 14 items for IWP task performance and IWP contextual performance the following items were excluded to improve the scale reliability: D2, D6, D8 and D13 and a two-factor model for IWP emerged. The second order validity analysis resulted in improved CR of 0.72 and average variance extracted of 0.57.

Both results were above the threshold of CR 0.7 and AVE 0.5 respectively. Meaning the convergent validity is achieved and that the requirements of internal consistency were met. This suggests that the scale can be used in this study.

In summary, the following conclusions were drawn from the results presented above:

- a. Considering measuring empowerment questionnaire (PEQ) (Spreitzer, 1995); the scale obtained overall construct validity and overall subscales obtained high reliabilities. The AVE constructs reflected construct reliability.
- b. Regarding the UWES (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003); the scale obtained the overall construct validity and reliability as a single factor. However, the initial construct with the three subscales did not yield the expected high reliabilities, instead all sub-scales obtained very low reliability and thus, rendering the WE scale to a single factor structure. In the past, several studies obtained low reliabilities on these sub-scales (De Bruinet et al., 2013; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli et al, 2019).
- c. Focusing on the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire - IWPQ (Koopmans, 2015); the scale obtained the overall construct validity and reliability as a two-factor structure. The three-factor structure did not emerge, however, only two sub-scales occurred with the counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) subscale obtaining lower reliability, and this led to items of this sub-scale being discarded due to lower factor loadings. The discarded factor showed no relationship with the other two factors.
- d. The OCB Scale – OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002); the scale obtained the overall construct validity and the subscales obtained high reliabilities.

Overall, all the four measurement scales obtained construct validity and reliability prompting the researcher to proceed with the proposed research hypotheses.

7.7 SCALE ASSESSMENT – MEASUREMENT MODEL VALIDITY

This section looked at how well the theoretically hypothesised model fits the components of the structural model that has been empirically established. Using structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis, the section attempted to test the entire structural model, which consists of the measurement model as well as the structural model.

This section addressed the *Research aim 7: To develop a model that would enhance individual work performance of employees in a steel manufacturing organisation. This was achieved by empirically testing the proposed conceptual model.*

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine the construct validity of the measurement's scales. Table 7.16 summarises the fit statistics for each of the tested models.

Table 7.16

Structural equation modelling

Measurement Instrument	Model 1: Baseline	Model 2: Final 2nd order	Model 3: Final order
Psychological Empowerment:	- CMIN/df = 2.925	- CMIN/df = 2.571	- CMIN/df = 2.670
• Meaning	- TLI = 0.90	- TLI = 0.93	- TLI = 0.92
• Competence	- CFI = 0.93	- CFI = 0.95	- CFI = 0.95
• Self-determination	- RMSEA = 0.078	- RMSEA = 0.071	- RMSEA = 0.073
• Impact	- SRMR = 0.061	- SRMR = 0.053	- SRMR = 0.053
	- AIC = 200.4	- AIC = 154.8	- AIC = 157.5
	- - BIC = 312.9	- - BIC = 252.3	- - BIC = 262.4
	- CMIN/df = 4.315	- CMIN/df = 3.052	- CMIN/df = 5.015
	- TLI = 0.67	- TLI = 0.90	- TLI = 0.88
	- CFI = 0.72	- CFI = 0.93	- CFI = 0.92
Work Engagement	- RMSEA = .103	- RMSEA = .081	- RMSEA = .113
	- SRMR = .086	- SRMR = .046	- SRMR = .049
	- AIC = 574.5	- AIC = 115.3	- AIC = 92.8
	- - BIC = 713.2	- - BIC = 194.0	- - BIC = 150.7
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour:	- CMIN/df = 3.423	- CMIN/df = 1.991	- CMIN/df = 1.991
• OCB-I	- TLI = 0.80	- TLI = 0.93	- TLI = 0.93
• OCB-O	- CFI = 0.83	- CFI = 0.94	- CFI = 0.94
	- RMSEA = 0.088	- RMSEA = 0.056	- RMSEA = 0.056
	- SRMR = 0.071	- SRMR = 0.050	- SRMR = 0.050
	- AIC = 418.6	- AIC = 181.4	- AIC = 181.4
	- - BIC = 542.3	- - BIC = 282.6	- - BIC = 282.6

Measurement Instrument	Model 1: Baseline	Model 2: Final 2nd order	Model 3: Final order
Individual Work Performance:	– CMIN/df = 7.068	– CMIN/df = 2.831	– CMIN/df = 2.831
• Task performance	– TLI = 0.63	– TLI = 0.91	– TLI = 0.91
• Contextual performance	– CFI = 0.69	– CFI = 0.91	– CFI = 0.94
	– RMSEA = 0.139	– RMSEA = 0.076	– RMSEA = 0.076
	– SRMR = 0.092	– SRMR = 0.058	– SRMR = 0.058
	– AIC = 506.4	– AIC = 111.6	– AIC = 111.6
	– - BIC = 607.6	– - BIC = 182.8	– - BIC = 182.8

Notes: Sample size (N)=314; $p \leq .000$

Source: Authors compilation

It was clear that four measurement models were tested, and that modifications were made to all models to meet the goodness-of-fit criteria. Goodness-of-fit is acceptable if the threshold for RMSEA and SRMR is ≤ 0.08 and CFI and TLI values are ≥ 0.90 and AIC and BIC model obtain the lowest values and CMIN/df ratio of < 3 (good) and < 5 (sometimes permissible) (Arbuckle, 2011; Awang, 2012; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2014 & Kieseppä, 2003).

The results of the psychological empowerment final model are depicted in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1

Psychological empowerment final model

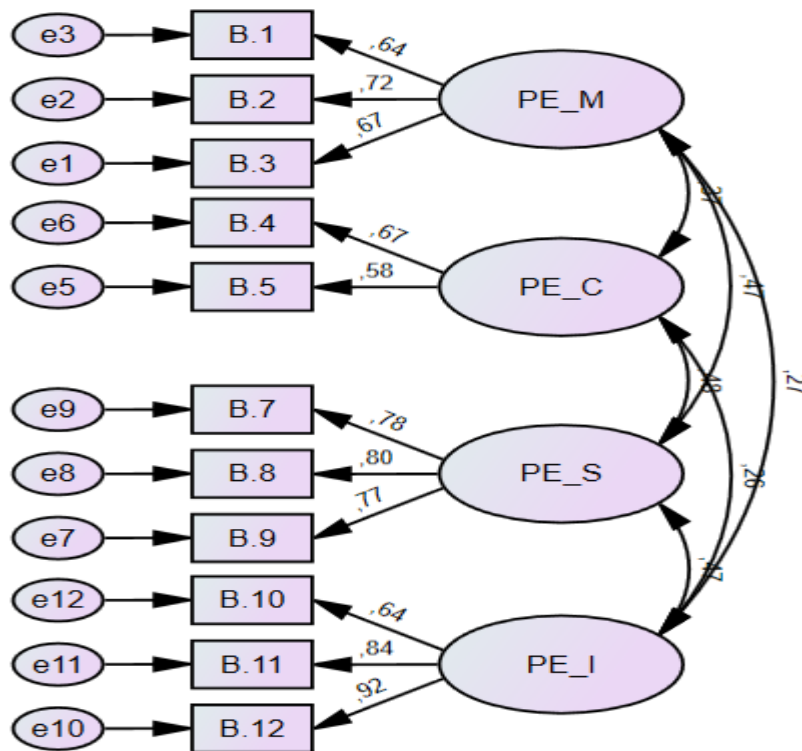


Table 7.16 provides the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for psychological empowerment model 3 (final model) and displayed the overall construct validity of the scale (four original subscale measurement model), with the fit indices showing RMSEA is ≤ 0.08 , CFI, TLI values are ≥ 0.90 and SRMR values ≤ 0.08 (chi-square/df ratio = 2.670; $p < 0.000$; RMSEA = 0.073; SRMR = 0.053; TLI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95 and AIC = 157.5 and BIC = 262.4).

Figure 7.1 depicts a confirmatory factor analysis for psychological empowerment with four sub-dimensions (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact) as in the original PE scale, with factor loadings for each item above 0.50 indicating convergent validity. However, the competence sub-dimension consists of two items than three-items in the original subscale. This suggests that the two-items explain competence in the same way the three-items does. The figure also indicates a correlation ranging from 0.27 to 0.47 indicating discriminant validity amongst the sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.

Results of the work engagement final model are portrayed in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2

Work engagement final model

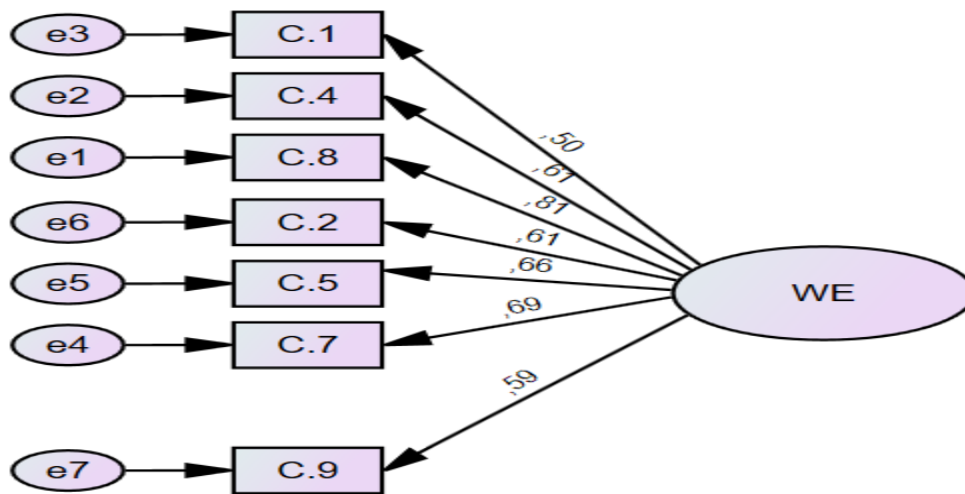


Table 7.16 illustrate confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for work engagement displayed the single construct scale model in model 3 (final), deviating from the original three factor model, with the fit indices showing RMSEA is > 0.08 , CFI > 0.90 , TLI < 0.90 and SRMR values ≤ 0.08 (chi-square/df ratio = 5.015; $p < 0.000$; RMSEA = .113; SRMR = 0.049; TLI = 0.88 which is closer to 0.90; CFI = 0.92 and AIC = 98.2 and BIC = 150.7).

Figure 7.2, the WE final model shows a single construct scale model with seven items, veering away from a 17-items scale, with three-sub-dimensions, which suggest that there is no discriminant validity amongst the three sub-dimensions of vigour, dedication, and absorption. Podsakoff et al. (2003) use confirmatory factor analysis to show that if only one factor emerges from the factor analysis and accounts for all variance in the items, it may be reasonable to conclude that common method variance is a major issue. The seven-items factor loadings are above 0.50 confirming convergent validity existed amongst the items. The original scale had three sub-dimension and with the common latent factor explaining more than 50% of the variance, 10 items from the original UWES scale had to be discarded due to common method variance, hence, a single construct emerged.

The results of organisational citizenship behaviour final model are depicted in Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3

Organisational citizenship behaviour final model

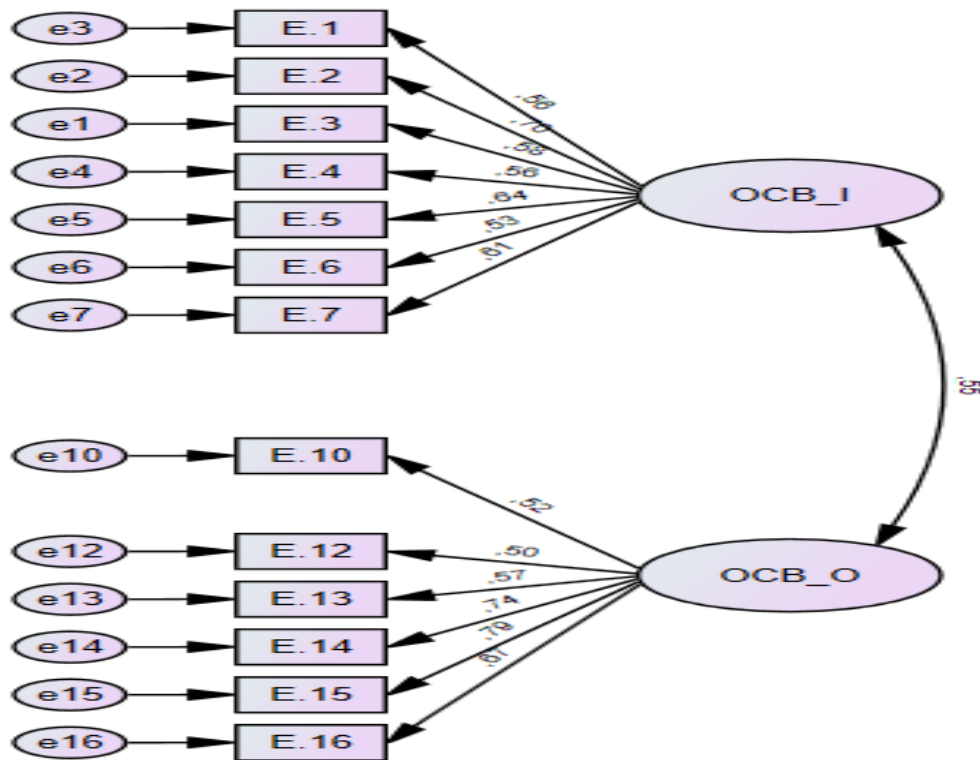


Table 7.16 display confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for OCB model 3 (final model) displayed the overall construct validity of the subscales (two original subscale measurement model), with the fit indices showing RMSEA is ≤ 0.08 , CFI, TLI values are ≥ 0.90 and SRMR values ≤ 0.08 (chi-square/df ratio = 1.991; $p < 0.000$; RMSEA = 0.056; SRMR = 0.050; TLI = 0.93; CFI = 0.94 and AIC = 181.4 and BIC = 282.6).

Figure 7.3 confirms the original scale of the organisational citizenship behaviour with two sub-dimension of OCB directed at individual (OCB-I) and OCB directed at organisation (OCB-O). However, there are 3-items excluded owing to common method bias. The correlation between the two sub-scale is 0.55 indicating discriminant validity between the two subscales. The factor loadings for each item are above 0.50 which shows convergent validity is achieved.

The results of individual work performance final model are portrayed in Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4

Individual work performance final model

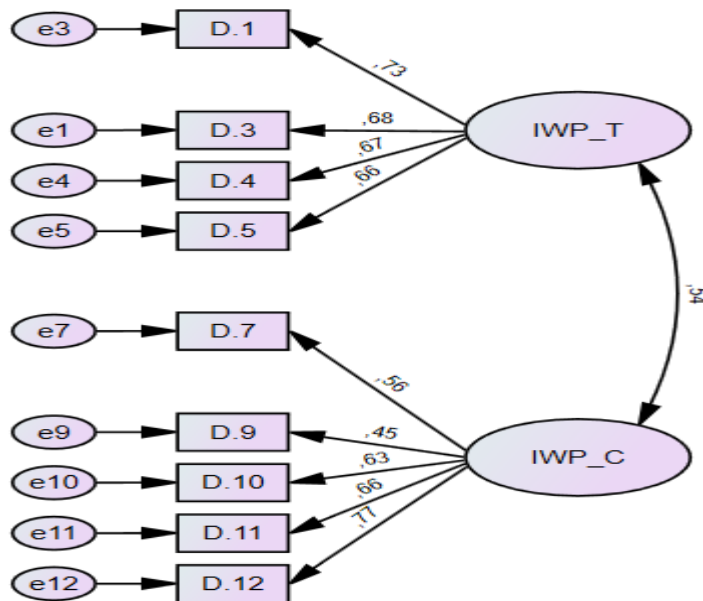


Table 7.16 indicates confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for IWP model 3 (final model) displayed the construct validity of the two subscales (three-subscale measurement model did not emerge), with the fit indices showing RMSEA is ≤ 0.08 , CFI, TLI values are ≥ 0.90 and SRMR values ≤ 0.08 (chi-square/df ratio = 2.831; $p < 0.000$; RMSEA = 0.076; SRMR = 0.058; TLI = 0.91; CFI = 0.94 and AIC = 111.6 and BIC = 182.8).

Figure 7.4 shows individual work performance scale with two sub-dimensions of individual work performance task, with four items and individual work performance contextual, with five items, which is different from the original IWP scale with three sub-dimensions with 18 items that included a third sub-dimension of counterproductive work behaviour. According to Eichom (2014), when a newly introduced common latent factor explains more than 50% of the variance, common method bias may exist. The third sub-scale was excluded due to common method variance, hence the two sub-scales remained. The factor loading for each item is above 0.50 indicating convergent validity. Correlation between the two sub-dimensions is 0.54, which indicates that there is discriminant validity within the two sub-dimensions.

In summary, the results of the CFA confirmed psychological empowerment overall construct with four factors, the work engagement with single factor construct, the individual work performance with two factor overall construct and the organisational citizenship behaviour overall two factor constructs. This provided evidence of construct validity for the four measurement scales and confirmed the feasibility of testing the research hypotheses.

7.8 PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION

This section addresses the research hypotheses, H1: practically significant linear relationship (correlations) exists between levels of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to determine the direction and strengths of the relationship between variables.

Tredoux and Durrheim (2013) set a cut-off point for statistically significant correlation at 95% interval confidence level ($p \leq 0.05$) and the practical effect size at $r \geq 0.30 \geq 0.50$ (medium to large effect). The results of the correlation analysis and discussions follow in Table 7.17 below.

Table 7.17

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis between psychological empowerment, work engagement, individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviour

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 PE_Meaning												
2 PE_Compotence	245**											
3 PE_Self-determination	370**	340**										
4 PE_Impact	230**	213**	438**									
5 Psychological Empowerment	605**	597**	788**	758**								
6 Work Engagement	324**	222**	332**	329**	437**							
7 IWP_Task	292**	0.040	317**	284**	346**	413**						
8 IWP_Contextual	177**	121**	235**	317**	322**	322**	409**					
9 Individual Work Performance	282**	0.094	330**	357**	399**	439**	849**	830**				
19 OCB_Individual	138*	0.035	285**	325**	308**	229**	237**	402**	378**			
11 OCB_Organisation	318**	0.049	333**	305**	372**	460**	350**	388**	439**	450**		
12 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	276**	0.050	365**	369**	402**	414**	349**	463**	482**	826**	875**	

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

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

Table 7.17 highlights the significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of the psychological empowerment scale, ranging from $r \geq 0.21$ to $r \leq 0.44$ indicating practical significant (small to medium effect size; $p \leq 0.05$). The four sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment had practically significant positive relationship with the overall psychological empowerment construct ($r \geq 0.60$ to $r \leq 0.79$; large effect).

About the psychological empowerment overall construct and the work engagement overall construct, the correlation matrixes results reveal a significant and positive correlations ($r = 0.44$; medium effect). The results indicate a relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement.

The four sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact) further showed a positive significant correlation with the overall work engagement construct ($r = 0.32$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$; PE_M; $r = 0.22$; small effect; $p \leq 0.05$; PE_C; $r = 0.33$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$; PE_S & $r = 0.33$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$; PE_I).

In addition, the findings from the correlation matrix highlight that overall psychological empowerment construct had a positive practical significant correlation of medium effect with IWP two sub-dimensions ($r = 0.35$; IWP_T; $p \leq 0.05$; $r = 0.32$; $p \leq 0.05$; IWP_C) and that the overall psychological empowerment construct was positively and significantly correlated with the overall individual work performance construct ($r = 0.44$; medium effect, $p \leq 0.05$). The correlation results of overall scales (PE & IWP) indicate the relationship between psychological empowerment and the individual work performance in the workplace. When correlating the four sub-scales of PE and two sub-scales of IWP, the results showed a positive relationship of small to medium effect ranging from $r \geq 0.04$ to ≤ 0.31 .

Furthermore, a positive practical significant correlation of medium effect was observed between psychological empowerment and the two OCB sub-scale ($r = .30$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$; OCB_I; $r = 0.37$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$; OCB_O). The psychological empowerment overall construct had practically significant positive correlation with OCB overall construct ($r = 0.40$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$).

A significant positive correlation was identified between WE overall construct and IWP overall construct ($r = 0.44$; $p \leq 0.05$; medium effect) and work engagement overall construct obtained a positive and practically significant correlation with the two sub-construct of individual work performance ($r = 0.23$; $p \leq 0.05$; IWP_T; $r = 0.46$; $p \leq 0.05$; IWP_C).

The correlation between IWP overall construct and its sub-dimensions indicated a highly positive and practically significant relationship of large effect ($r = 0.85$; IWP-T; $p \leq 0.05$; $r = 0.83$; IWP-C; $p \leq 0.05$).

With regards to work engagement single construct and overall organisational citizenship behaviour the correlation matrix showed that there was a positive significant relationship of medium effect ($r = 0.41$; $p \leq 0.05$). When looking at the work engagement single construct and the two sub-scales of OCB, the correlation between WE and OCB_I was positive and practically significant ($r = 0.23$; small effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and between WE and OCB_O was positive and practically significant ($r = 0.46$; medium effect; $r \leq 0.05$).

The focus on correlation between IWP overall construct and OCB overall construct revealed a practically significant positive relationship between the two overall constructs ($r = 0.48$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$). With correlation between IWP overall construct and the two sub-constructs of OCB obtaining a practically significant positive correlation (OCB_I; $r = 0.38$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$; OCB_O; $r = 0.44$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$).

The correlation between OCB overall construct and its sub-constructs (OCB-I & OCB-O), showed a highly positive and practically significant correlation of large effect ($r = 0.82$; OCB_I; $p \leq 0.05$; $r = 0.88$; OCB_O; $p \leq 0.05$). The correlations matrix shows the impact of the OCB overall construct and its sub-constructs (OCB_I & OCB_O).

Overall, the correlations matrix results showed a *positive relationship* of medium effect between:

- psychological empowerment and OCB,
- Work engagement and OCB

The correlations matrix results also showed a *significant relationship* between:

- Psychological empowerment and IWP.
- Work engagement and IWP.

These results show the relationships between the above-discussed scales.

7.9 RESULTS OF THE MEDIATED/MODERATED REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Following correlation and structural equation modelling results, mediation and moderation regression analyses was performed to test the following research hypotheses and research aim:

H2: Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) significantly predicts individual work performance (as dependent variable).

H3: Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) significantly predicts organisational citizenship behaviour (as dependent variable).

H4: The relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) and individual work performance (as dependent variable) is mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.

H6: Biographical variables (age, years of service, job level and qualification) moderates the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).

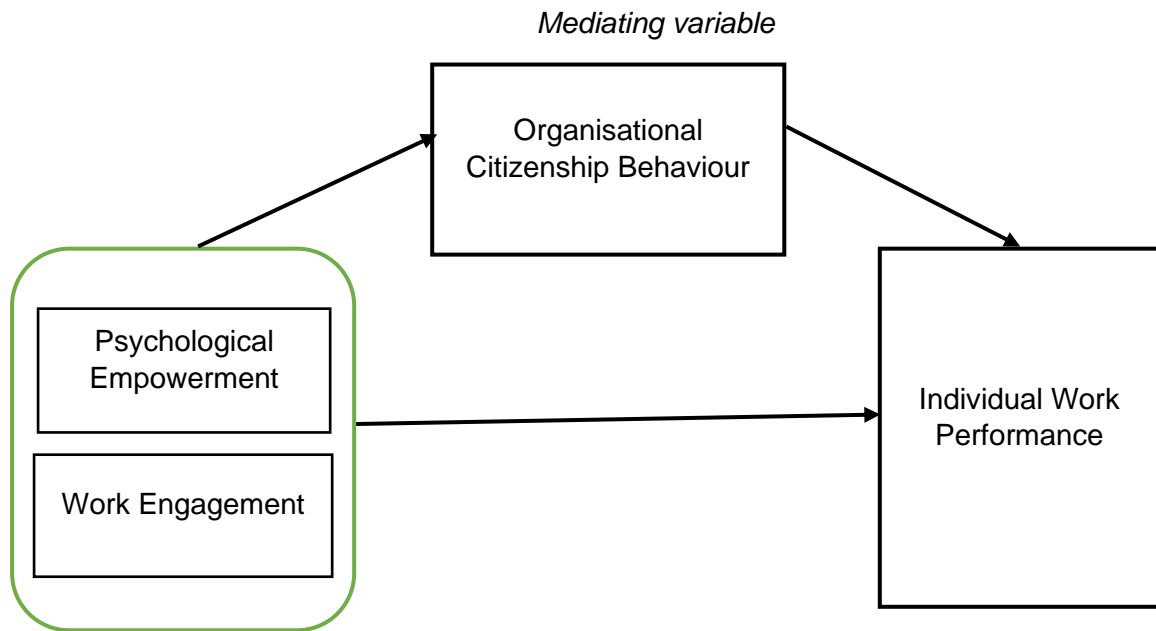
Research aim 3: Determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can significantly predict individual work performance in a steel manufacturing organisations in South Africa.

Research aim 5: Identify significant differences between groups in the levels of the construct measures.

Tredoux and Durrheim (2013) recommend that the F-test be used to determine the significant increase in the added variables. The f^2 provides percentage of systematic variance accounted for by the interaction relative to the unexplained variance in the outcome variable. The IBM SPSS Amos version 28 (2021) was deployed to test the acceptability of the proposed model. The results are presented in the tables below.

Figure 7.5

Mediated Regression Analysis



Analysis of whether organisational citizenship behaviour mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and individual work performance.

This section looks at Hypotheses: H4

7.9.1 Total effect model: individual work performance

Table 7.18 show the total effect model direct relationship results between psychological empowerment (PE) and work engagement (WE) as independent variable and individual work performance (IWP) as dependent variable.

Table 7.18*Total effect model*

Outcome variable: Individual work performance (IWP)							
Model summary							
	R	R 2	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
	.496	.246	.357	50.643	2.000	311.000	0.000
Model							
	Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	
Constant	1.673	.256	6.533	.000	1.169	2.177	
PE	.219	.047	4.664	.000	.127	.312	
WE	.218	.036	5.983	.000	.146	.389	
Standardised coefficient							
item	Coefficient						
PE	.255						
WE	.328						

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at** $p \leq .001$, * $p \leq .05$.

The results reveals that the regression coefficient for psychological empowerment (PE) is ($b = 0.255$) and work engagement (WE) is ($b = 0.328$) respectively, which indicates that PE and WE together correlates with individual work performance. The relationship for both variables is significant at $p \leq 0.001$. These results implies that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of individual work performance and that higher levels of work engagement positively influences higher levels of individual work performance. The total effect model explains about 25% of the variance in individual work performance.

These results provide support for research hypotheses H2: Psychological empowerment and work engagement as independent variables statistically predicts individual work performance as dependent variable.

7.9.2 Total effect model: organisational citizenship behaviour

Table 7.19 results show the total effect model direct relationship between psychological empowerment (PE) and work engagement (WE) as independent variable and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as mediating variable.

Table 7.19*Total effect model*

Outcome variable: Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)						
Model summary						
R	R 2	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
.481	.232	.866	46.899	2.000	311.000	0.000
Model						
	Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	2.142	.399	5.371	.000	1.357	2.927
PE	.362	.073	4.943	.000	.218	.506
WE	.302	.057	5.332	.000	.191	.414
Standardised coefficient						
item	Coefficient					
PE	.273					
WE	.295					

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at** $p \leq .001$, * $p \leq .05$.

The results show that the regression coefficient for psychological empowerment (PE) is ($b = 0.273$) and work engagement (WE) is ($b = 0.295$) respectively, which indicates that PE and WE together have a direct relationship with OCB. The relationship for both constructs is significant at $p \leq 0.001$. These results implies that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour and that higher levels of work engagement positively influences higher levels of OCB. The total effect model explains about 23% of the variance in OCB, suggesting that both PE and WE influences OCB positively.

Consequently, the results presented are align to the research hypotheses H3: Psychological empowerment and work engagement as independent variables statistically predicts organisational citizenship behaviour as dependent variable.

7.9.3 Direct effect model: individual work performance

Table 7.20 highlights the direct effect model correlation results between psychological empowerment (PE) and work engagement (WE) as independent variables, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as mediating variable and individual work performance (IWP) as mediating variable.

Table 7.20*Direct effect model*

Outcome variable: Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)						
Model summary						
R	R 2	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
.568	.323	.322	49.257	3.000	310.000	0.000
Model						
	Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	1.233	.254	4.854	.000	.733	1.733
PE	.145	.046	3.129	.002	.054	.236
WE	.156	.036	4.315	.000	.085	.227
Standardised coefficient						
item	Coefficient					
PE	.169					
WE	.234					
OCB	.317					

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at** $p \leq .001$, * $p \leq .05$.

The results depict the regression coefficient for psychological empowerment (PE) as ($b = 0.169$), work engagement (WE) is ($b = 0.234$) and OCB are ($b = 0.317$). The results show that the three variables, individually have a direct relationship with individual work performance. The relationship for the three variables is significant at $p \leq 0.001$.

These results implies that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of individual work performance and that higher levels of work engagement positively influences higher levels of individual work performance, also that higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour positively influence higher levels of individual work performance. The direct effect model suggests that about 32% of the variance in individual work performance is explained by the three variables of PE, WE and OCB.

7.9.4 Total, direct and indirect effects: psychological empowerment, work engagement and individual work performance

Table 7.21 presents the results of the total, direct and indirect effects of psychological empowerment on individual work performance and work engagement on individual work performance.

Table 7.21

Total, Direct and Indirect Effects Model

Total effect of psychological empowerment (PE) on individual work performance (IWP)						
Effect	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	c'_cs
.219	.047	4.664	.000	.054	.236	.169
Direct effect of psychological empowerment (PE) on individual work performance (IWP)						
Effect	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	c'_cs
.145	.046	3.129	.002	.054	.236	.169
Indirect effect(s) of psychological empowerment (PE) on individual work performance (IWP)						
Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	.074	.025	.039	.130		
Completely standardised indirect effect(s) of PE on IWP						
Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	.087	.028	.039	.250		
Total effect of work engagement (WE) on individual work performance (IWP)						
Effect	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	c'_cs
.218	.036	5.983	.000	.146	.289	.328
Direct effect of work engagement (WE) on individual work performance (IWP)						
Effect	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	c'_cs
.156	.036	4.315	.000	.085	.227	.234
Indirect effect(s) of work engagement (WE) on individual work performance (IWP)						
Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	.062	.021	.026	.108		
Completely standardised indirect effect(s) of PE on IWP						
Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	.093	.031	.041	.160		

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at** $p \leq .001$, * $p \leq .05$.

Table 7.21 results indicates that the total, direct and indirect effects of psychological empowerment on individual work performance is significant at ($b = 0.087$; $p \leq 0.001$). The indirect effect is 95% interval confidence level and as the results values of BootSE (0.028); BootLLCI (.039) and BootULCI (0.150) does not cross a zero. This implies that psychological empowerment (PE) and individual work performance (IWP) is mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

Concerning the total, direct and indirect effects of work engagement on individual work performance, the results reveal a significant relationship at ($b = 0.093$; $p \leq 0.001$). The results show a 95% interval confidence level owing to completely standardised indirect effects results of BootSE (.031), BootLLCI (.041) and BootULCI (0.160). These results do not cross a zero and this mean that WE and IWP are mediated by OCB.

Hence, these results provide support for research hypotheses H6: The relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) and individual work performance (as dependent variable) is mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.

7.10 RESULTS OF MODERATED REGRESSION ANALYSIS

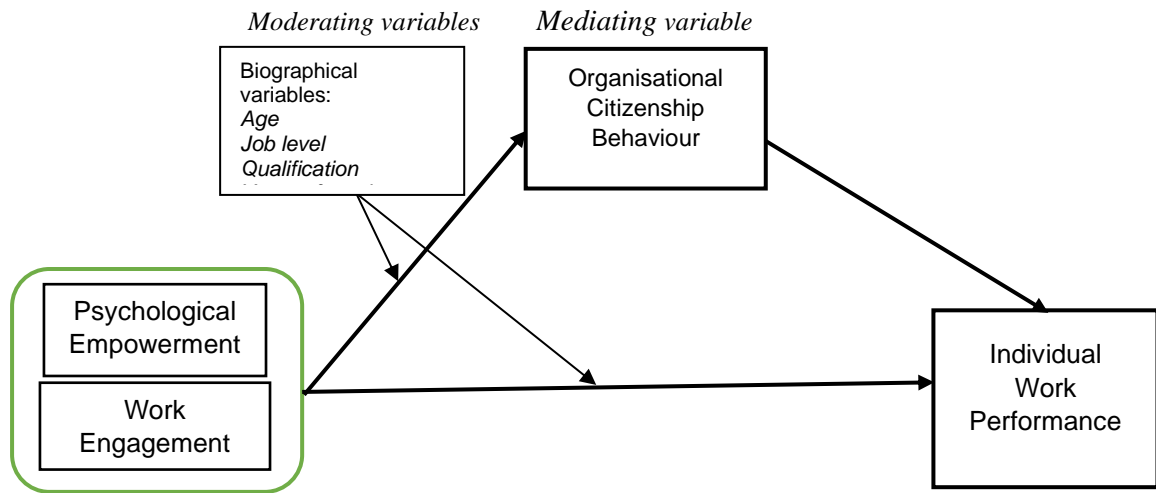
The primary aim of hierarchical moderated regression analyses, also known as cluster analyses, is to test whether a specific biographical group of variables influences the nature of the relationship between independent, dependent, and mediating variables.

In this study, hierarchical moderated regression analyses was used empirically to determine whether the various biographical variables (age, job level, qualification and years of service) significantly moderated the relationship between (i) psychological empowerment (independent variable) and individual work performance (dependent variable), (ii) Psychological empowerment (independent variable) and organisational citizenship behaviour (mediating variable), (iii) Work engagement (intendent variable) and individual work performance (dependant variable), (iv) work engagement (independent variable) and organisational citizenship behaviour (mediating variable). This section tested Hypotheses: H6.

This was achieved by testing Hypotheses: H6: Biographical variables (age, years of service, job level and qualification) moderates the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).

Figure 7.6

Moderated Regression Analysis on biographical analysis



Analysis of whether, biographical variables (age, job level, qualification and years of service) moderate the relationship between PE, WE and OCB.

This section focusses on Hypotheses: H6

7.10.1 Moderated regression analysis: Age

The Table 7.22 presents the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis related to respondents age and individual work performance, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 7.22*Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: Age*Note: N = 314. Standardised regression (b) significant at $p \leq .001$, $p \leq .05$.

Outcome variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)						
Model summary						
R	R 2	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
.496	.246	.867	12.437	8.000	305.000	0.000
Model						
Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	
Constant	.746	.998	.747	.456	-1.218	2.709
PE	.575	.172	3.348	.001	.237	.913
W1	1.278	1.223	1.045	.297	-1.128	3.684
W2	.049	.976	.051	.960	-1.872	1.970
W3	1.352	1.085	1.246	.214	-.783	3.486
Int_1	-.185	.208	-.885	.377	-.595	.226
Int_2	-.018	.166	-.107	.915	-.345	.309
Int_3	-.244	.187	-1.305	.193	-.612	.124
WE	.308	.057	5.394	.000	.196	.420
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):						
18-35	.437	.104	4.204	.000	.233	.642
yrs.						
36-45	.387	.105	3.694	.000	.181	.593
yrs.						
46-55	.265	.096	2.758	.006	.076	.454
yrs.						
55+ yrs.	.073	.120	.611	.541	-.163	.310

The results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis in reference to Table 7.22 of age indicates that, even though, a relationship exist between psychological empowerment (PE), work engagement (WE) and OCB, $p = \leq 0.001$, there is however, no moderation relationship regarding the age groups of the respondents and individual work performance, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour based on age at the 95% interval level ($p \leq 0.05$) following the interaction effects results.

However, when conditional effects were considered, there emerged a moderating relationship between psychological empowerment and individual work performance for respondents at younger age 18-35 years ($b = 0.437$; $p \leq 0.001$), 36-45 years ($b = 0.387$; $p = \leq 0.001$) and 46-55 ($b = 0.265$; $p = \leq 0.001$).

7.10.2 Moderated regression analysis: Qualifications

Table 7.23 presents the results of the Hierarchical moderated regression analysis related to respondents' qualifications and individual work performance, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 7.23

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: Qualifications

Outcome variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)							
Model summary							
	R	R ²	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
	.497	.247	.872	9.921	10.000	303.000	0.000
Model							
	Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	
Constant	2.208	.534	4.133	.000	1.157	3.259	
PE	.344	.098	3.521	.000	.152	.536	
Matric & below	-.382	1.791	-.213	.831	-3.907	3.143	
Trade certificate	1.712	2.032	.843	.400	-2.286	5.710	
Diploma	-1.865	1.434	-1.301	.194	-4.686	.956	
Under & post grad	-.392	1.885	-.208	.835	-4.102	3.317	
Interaction effect_1	.101	.292	.347	.729	-.473	.676	
Interaction effect_2	-.317	.331	-.958	.339	-.968	.334	
Interaction effect_3	.295	.243	1.211	.227	-.184	.774	
Interaction effect_4	.052	.318	.164	.870	-.574	.678	
WE	.308	.059	5.261	.000	.193	.423	

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression (b) significant at $p \leq .001$, $p \leq .05$.

The results of Table 7.23, moderated regression analysis on qualification, confirm a positive relationship between psychological empowerment ($b = 0.344$; $p \leq .001$), work engagement ($b = 0.308$; $p \leq .001$) and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, the interaction effect results show no significant differences in the levels of PE and WE construct considering qualification at the 95% interval level ($p \leq 0.05$). This implies that qualification does not moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and

organisational citizenship behaviour, which implies that qualifications have no influence on the outcomes of the independent (PE & WE) and dependent variables (OCB & IWP).

7.10.3 Moderated regression analysis: Job levels

Table 7.24 presents the results of the Hierarchical moderated regression analysis related to respondent's job levels and individual work performance, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 7.24

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: Job Levels

Outcome variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)							
Model summary							
	R	R ²	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
	.508	.258	.864	8.740	12.000	301.000	.000
Model							
	Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	
Constant	1.744	.842	2.071	.039	.087	3.402	
PE	.415	.160	2.591	.010	.100	.731	
W1	1.615	1.139	1.419	.157	-.625	3.856	
W2	.932	1.894	.492	.623	-2.794	4.659	
W3	-1.093	1.313	-.833	.406	-3.676	1.490	
W4	-.154	1.564	-.098	.922	-3.232	2.925	
W5	1.026	1.200	.855	.393	-1.335	3.387	
Interaction effect_1	-.240	.203	-1.185	.237	-.639	.158	
Interaction effect_2	-.104	.328	-.318	.751	-.750	.541	
Interaction effect_3	.190	.228	.834	.405	-.258	.638	
Interaction effect_4	.031	.281	.109	.914	-.523	.584	
Interaction effect_5	-.122	.210	-.579	.563	-.536	.292	
WE	.285	.057	4.963	.000	.172	.398	

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression (b) significant at $p \leq .001$, $p \leq .05$.

Table 7.24 presents the results of the moderated regression analysis of the respondent's job levels. The results acknowledge the positive relationship between PE ($p = 0.415$; $p \leq 0.001$), WE ($p = 0.285$; $p \leq 0.001$) and OCB. However, the interaction effect results indicates that there are no significant differences between the PE, WE and OCB based on job levels at the 95% interval level ($p \leq 0.05$). This indicates that job levels do not moderate the relationship between PE, WE, OCB and IWP.

7.10.4 Moderated regression analysis: Years of service

Table 7.25 presents the results of the Hierarchical moderated regression analysis related to respondents' years of service and individual work performance, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 7.25

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: Years of service

Outcome variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)							
Model summary							
	R	R 2	MSE	F	df1	df2	P
	.500	.250	.868	0.101	10.000	03.000	0.000
Model							
	Coefficient	se	t	P	LLCI	ULCI	
Constant	2.383	1.710	1.393	.165	-.982	5.748	
PE	.344	.290	1.186	.237	-.227	.915	
W1	-.121	1.862	-.065	.948	-3.786	3.543	
W2	-1.784	1.237	-1.442	.150	-4.218	.651	
W3	.420	1.879	.223	.823	-3.277	4.117	
W4	1.932	1.699	1.137	.256	-1.412	5.276	
Interaction effect_1	.017	.315	.052	.958	-.602	.635	
Interaction effect_2	.268	.214	1.252	.211	-.153	.688	
Interaction effect_3	-.062	.309	-.199	.842	-.669	.546	
Interaction effect_4	-.331	-.276	-1.196	.233	-.874	.213	
WE	.302	.058	5.217	.000	.188	.416	

Note: N = 314. Standardised regression (b) significant at $p \leq .001$, $p \leq .05$.

Table 7.25 presents the results of moderated regression analysis for years of service. The results confirm a relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour ($p = 0.302$ - PE; $p \leq 0.001$ - WE). However, the results of the interaction effects reveals that there is no significant difference between PE, WE and OCB regarding years of service based on outcome results at 95% interval level. This suggests that years of service do not moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour.

7.10.5 Summary of the moderated regression analysis of age, qualifications, job level and years of service.

Table 7.26 reflects the summary of the moderated regression analysis results for biographical variables of the respondents.

Table 7.26

Summary of test of Significant Differences between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypotheses	Biographical variable	Decision
H: 6a	Age	Partially supported
H: 6b	Qualification	Not supported
H: 6c	Job level	Not supported
H: 6d	Years of service	Not supported

In summary, although positive relationship exists between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour, the results of moderated regression analysis showed no significant relationship between age and the three constructs of PE and WE, however, when conditional effects were considered, respondents at younger age showed moderating relationship with the PE and IWP. The moderated regression analysis for qualifications, job levels and years of service, the results indicate no moderating relationship existed with PE, WE, OCB and IWP.

7.11 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This section of the study provides a summary of the empirical research aims and research hypotheses. Table 7:27 shows the empirical research aims and research hypotheses.

Table 7.27*Summary of the study hypotheses and empirical research aims*

Empirical Research Aim	Hypotheses	Hypotheses Statement	Statistical Method	Supported / Not Supported
Research aim 1: explore the empirical relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance	Hypotheses 1	Practically significant linear relationship exists between the levels of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance	Pearson product-moment correlation analysis	Supported
Research aim 2: determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can predict individual work performance in the steel manufacturing organisations in South Africa.	Hypotheses 2	Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) significantly predicts individual work performance (as dependent variable).	Mediated regression analysis (Total effect model)	Supported
Research aim 3: determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can predict organisational citizenship behaviour in the steel manufacturing organisations in South Africa.	Hypotheses 3	Psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) significantly predicts organisational citizenship behaviour (as dependent variable).	Mediated regression analysis (Total effect model)	Supported
Research aim 4: determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement as dependent variables and individual work performance can be mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.	Hypotheses 4	The relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement (as independent variables) and individual work performance (as dependent variable) is mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour.	Mediated regression analysis (Total, direct & indirect effects Model)	Supported

Empirical Research Aim	Hypotheses	Hypotheses Statement	Statistical Method	Supported / Not Supported
Research aim 5: group differences (gender, age, years of service, job level and qualification) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.	Hypotheses 5	group differences (gender, age, years of service, job level and qualification) exists between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.	Group mean differences	Partially supported – gender, job levels, qualifications
Research aim 6: biographical variables (age, job level, qualification and years of service) moderates the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).	Hypotheses 6	Biographical variables (age, job level, qualification and years of service) moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables).	Moderated regression analysis (interaction effects)	Partially supported – age only
Research aim 7: to develop a model that would enhance individual work performance of employees in a steel manufacturing organisation.	General aim	The general aim of this study is to develop a scientific model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviours and individual work performance.	Structural equation modelling, Pearson moment correlation analysis, mediated/moderated regression analysis.	Supported

7.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 7 dealt with the results of the empirical research, as part of research methodology discussed in the earlier sections of this chapter. The chapter discussed statistical results of the empirical study report in terms measuring instruments used, descriptive statistics on biographical information and constructs, assessment of the common method bias (CMB), Scale assessment (CFA), test of mean differences, factor analysis, structural equation modelling, correlations, regression, mediation, moderation and moderated mediation.

The conclusions from the study's findings, its limitations and its recommendations are all covered in the forthcoming and final chapter 8.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter (7) discussed results of the empirical study which followed the research methodology chapter (6). In this chapter, the discussions focused on the conclusions of the study related to the research literature review, empirical study and research hypotheses, followed by limitations and then recommendations for the practical applications of the findings, in relations to the participating organisation, the Industrial and Organisational Psychology discipline and further research in general.

8.2.1 Conclusions related to the literature review

This section of the study addressed the conclusions that are based on the literature review, in keeping with the aims of the study stated in Chapter 1.

The general aim of this study was to develop a scientific model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviours and individual work performance. In addition, to determine whether psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviours predict individual work performance.

In this section, the conclusion regarding the specific research aim was drawn in accordance with literature review.

8.2.1.1 *Research aim 1: conceptualise psychological empowerment and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective*

The first research aim, which was to conceptualise psychological empowerment and its dimensions from a theoretical standpoint, was achieved in Chapter 2 of this study.

This aim was met through a vast information revealed while reviewing literature on psychological empowerment and the following came to light:

- Following literature reading, the concept of empowerment was introduced in the 1980s, and many scholars and researchers were particularly interested in the concept of psychological empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Whetten et al., 1998). Through literature,

we learned that psychological empowerment refers to empowerment at individual level of analysis (Zimmerman, 2000) and regarded as a positive contributor towards productivity, team effectiveness and customer satisfaction (Gardner, Wright, & Moynihan, 2011).

- The literature disclosed that psychological empowerment as constituted by four cognitions (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact), which reflect an active, rather than passive, orientation to individual's work role; when any of these dimensions are missing, the experience of empowerment is limited (Spreitzer, 2007). According to research scholars, the four dimensions of psychological empowerment are critically important in the following ways:
 - Meaningfulness was found to have the strongest theoretical argument to a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Fourie, 2009; Gholifar & Gholami, 2011).
 - About the impact dimension, the feeling of job satisfaction is derived from the direct involvement of individuals in the outcomes that affect organisations (Spreitzer, 1990).
 - With the competence dimension, literature indicates that it is the results of individual high confidence in being able to succeed than those who fear that they may fail. It was found that most important factors that predict competence was attitudes and experience (Miesera & Gebhardt, 2018).
 - Regarding self-determination, it was found that it relates very well to the increased job satisfaction as it provides autonomy and decision-making (Brown & Petersen, 1993).
- Overall, the literature suggests that the four dimensions work together to create psychological empowerment and improve performance. The work conditions that are susceptible to psychological empowerment result in increased performance, job satisfaction, commitment and lower turnover intentions (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011).

8.2.1.2 *Research aim 2: conceptualise work engagement and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective*

The second research aim, namely, to conceptualise work engagement and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective, this aim was also achieved in Chapter 3 of this study.

This aim was achieved through the literature search on work engagement and important revelations follow:

- The literature acknowledges Kahn (1990) as the founder of engagement concept amongst researchers in the discipline of organisational psychology. However, many research scholars followed Kahn (1990) footsteps in the development of the concept further, to what it is today. Kahn (1990) defined work engagement as the connection of organisational members' selves to their work roles, as opposed to personal disengagement, which is the separation of selves from work roles. And many scholars thereafter came with their concept of engagement, such as, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) who conceptualised work engagement as an active, positive work-related state that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption, May et al. (2004) defined work engagement as having three components: physical (energy used to perform the job), emotional (putting one's heart into one's job), and cognitive (being absorbed in a job) and Simpson (2009) concurs that personal engagement is inclusive of physical, cognitive and emotional component during individual work performance.
- Schaufeli et al. (2004) explained that *vigour* as the opposite dimension of burnout which includes exhaustion and refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working. Whereas *dedication*, includes cynicism as the opposite dimension of burnout and refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm and a sense of pride, inspiration and challenge, regarding *absorption* is being fully concentrated and well occupied in work and finding it difficult to disconnect from own work. Barker (2011) concurs that workers who are engaged in their work are enthusiastic, committed to their jobs, completely involved in their everyday tasks and fully connected to their roles.
- Previous research showed that work engagement brought about increased sales, productivity, customer satisfaction, employee retention, job involvement, job commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Barker & Leiter, 2010; Harter et al., 2002; Yeh, 2013). Work engagement evidence as provided by these researchers includes employee's compliance in work activities, teamwork and full contribution to in the team to achieve set goals, discretionary effort, intention to stay, employee and organisation growth, job resources, job performance, job satisfaction and perceived recognition and support.

- Regarding work engagement, Bakker and Demerouti's (2008) Job Demand Resources model sheds light on the relationship between job resources and personal resources on the one hand, and work engagement on the other, and how this relationship leads to work performance, with job demands serving as a mediating variable.
- The literature also showed that work engagement can be measured using a single construct measurement based on several previous research findings (De Bruinet et al., 2013; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2013) and a two-factor structure (Beukes & Botha, 2013).

8.2.1.3 *Research aim 3: conceptualise organisational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions from theoretical perspective*

The third research aim of this study, conceptualising organisational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective, was fulfilled in Chapter 4.

The aim was achieved through a literature search on organisational citizenship behaviour, and the following became apparent:

- From theoretical perspective, it appeared that most researchers agree with the conceptualisation of the OCB that these are discretionary behaviours espoused by individuals without any expectation and do not form part of formal responsibilities and no formal reward system is anticipated (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1988; Organ et al, 2006; Wittag-Berman & Lang, 1990).
- Five types of OCB behaviours which are measurable to form the OCB were evident throughout the literature reading, such behaviours include, helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development and these are grouped into five dimensions (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue). At a later stage these behaviours were sub-divided (Williams & Anderson, 1991) into the behaviour directed at the individual (OCB-I) and those directed at the organisation (OCB-O).
- Following research reading, benefits of the OCB were highlighted by the scholars through their findings, which include, positive influence on performance, empowered employees, overall operating efficiency, customer satisfaction and employee

engagement (Emami et al., 2012; Rich et al., 2010; Spreitzer, 1995; Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

- Furthermore, literature highlighted that OCB plays a critical role in leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, work engagement and psychological empowerment.

Highlighted points above showed that the objectives set out at the beginning of the literature review was met.

8.2.1.4 Research aim 4: conceptualise individual work performance and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective

In Chapter 5 of this study, the fourth research aim - to conceptualise individual work performance and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective, was accomplished.

This aim was achieved through the literature on individual and organisational performance and the observations and conclusions follows:

- Scholars in social sciences have conducted extensive research on the concept of performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguish between task and contextual performance, with task performance referring to an individual's proficiency in performing activities that contribute to the organisation's technical core, and contextual performance referring to activities that do not contribute to the technical core but support the organisational, social, and psychological environment in which organisational goals are pursued. The authors then provided three basic assumptions, which are associated with the differentiation between task and contextual performance as follows:
 - Task-related work activities vary by job, while contextual performance work activities are similar.
 - Contextual performance is influenced by personality and motivation, while task performance is determined by ability.
 - Task performance is planned and constitutes in-role behaviour, while contextual performance is optional and constitutes extra-role behaviour.

- Koopmans (2014) points out the importance of individual work performance to three labour market trends which includes globalisation of the economy, sustainable employability and economic recession. The three labour markets trends are critical in ensuring the sustainability of the individual work output in the shrinking labour market.
- Additionally, research suggests that low levels of work-life balance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction may result from subpar individual performance. Furthermore, there can be no teamwork, unit performance, organisational performance, or performance in the economic sector without individual performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Kim & Ployhart, 2014).
- The literature highlights several factors that influence individual performance, including role perception, character, fairness perception, motivation, leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.
- Demographic variables were found to play a moderating role in the relationship between task performance and job satisfaction, (i.e., age, gender and qualification moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and task performance) (Nasir et al., 2011). Omori and Bassey (2019) found negative relationship between gender and employee's performance, however, obtained a significant relationship between educational qualifications and employee's performance.

It is concluded that this objective was achieved.

8.2.1.5 *Research aim 5: explain the theoretical relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour in predicting individual work performance through a conceptual model with specific reference to a steel manufacturing organisation*

The fifth research aim, namely, to explain a theoretical relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour in predicting individual work performance through a conceptual model with specific reference to a steel manufacturing organisation.

This aim was achieved by creating an integrated theoretical model, which was introduced in Chapter 1 (see Figure 1.1) as a portrayal and illustration of the literature, theories and variables that have been discussed from chapter two through to Chapter 5. The construct of psychological empowerment was discussed in Chapter 2, work engagement followed in Chapter 3, then Chapter 4 was OCB and Chapter 5 discussed individual work performance.

8.2.2 Conclusion regarding the empirical study

This section of the study discusses the following conclusions drawn from the empirical study:

8.2.2.1 Research aim 1: explore the empirical relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. This was achieved by empirically testing (relationship) research hypotheses: H1

Following the correlation results, a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance was found.

- With respect to psychological empowerment, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis conducted and the subsequent structural equation modelling confirmed the construct with four sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact and the four sub-dimensions had a significant relationship. The participants responses showed a high level of psychological empowerment on affirmative statements of strongly agreed. Participants demonstrate that they have control and influence over what happens in their departments.
- Work engagement as a single construct had positive significant relationship with overall psychological empowerment and the sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Structural equation modelling confirmed work engagement as a single construct. Based on participants positive responses on the work engagement, it was evident that the respondents display engagement behaviour frequently in their workplaces, for instance as they indicate that “time flies when they are working” and that “they are proud of the work they do”.

- The two sub-constructs of organisational citizenship behaviour were confirmed through structural equation modelling. Both OCB geared towards the employees (OCB-I) and organisational citizenship behaviour directed at the organisation (OCB-O) had a significant relationship and the overall OCB construct had a significant relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement and individual work performance.
- Individual work performance structural equation modelling confirmed the two sub-dimensions of IWP construct and not the three sub-dimension as per the original construct. However, IWP had a positive relationship with psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- The three constructs, PE, WE and OCB had practically and significantly positive relationship with individual work performance and the relationship was of medium effect.

8.2.2.2 *Research aim 2: determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can predict individual work performance in the steel manufacturing organisations in South Africa. This was achieved by empirically testing (regression) research hypotheses: H2*

- The results of the regression analysis for psychological empowerment (PE) are ($b = 0.255$) and work engagement (WE) are ($b = 0.328$). The relationship for both variables is significant at $p \leq 0.001$. The results indicates that both PE and WE correlate with individual work performance. The individual work performance total effect model indicated that psychological empowerment and work engagement predict individual work performance. These results imply that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of individual work performance and that higher levels of work engagement positively influenced higher levels of individual work performance. As a result, these findings support the research hypotheses $H2$: Psychological empowerment, work engagement as independent variables statistically predicts individual work performance as dependent variable.
- From the correlation results both psychological empowerment and work engagement had practically and significantly positive relationship with individual work performance and the relationship was of medium effect ($r = 0.44$). This also suggests that higher

levels of psychological empowerment correlate with higher levels of individual work performance, and that higher levels of work engagement correlate with higher levels of individual work performance.

8.2.2.3 *Research aim 3: determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement can predict organisational citizenship behaviour in the steel manufacturing organisations in South Africa. This was achieved by empirically testing (regression) research hypotheses: H3*

- The results show that the regression coefficient for psychological empowerment (PE) is ($b = 0.273$) and work engagement (WE) is ($b = 0.295$). The relationship for both constructs is significant at $p \leq 0.001$. The results indicates that both PE and WE correlate with OCB. OCB total effect model indicated that psychological empowerment and work engagement predict organisational citizenship behaviour. These results implies that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour and that higher levels of work engagement are associated with higher levels of OCB. Thus, research hypotheses *H3* is supported by these findings: Psychological empowerment and work engagement as independent variables statistically predicts OCB as dependent variable.
- From the correlation results both psychological empowerment and work engagement had practically and significantly positive relationship with OCB and the relationship was of medium effect. This also indicates that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of OCB and that higher levels of work engagement are associated with higher levels of OCB. Also, the medium effect relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour was also found to be positively and practically significant ($r = 0.40$) and between work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour ($r = 0.41$).

8.2.2.4 *Research aim 4: determine whether psychological empowerment and work engagement as dependent variables and individual work performance can be mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour. This was achieved by empirically testing (mediating variables) research hypotheses: H4*

- The mediated regression analysis, when testing the total, direct and indirect effects of psychological empowerment on individual work performance was significant and indirect effect was at 95% interval confidence level. This implied that psychological empowerment (PE) and individual work performance (IWP) are mediated by organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The total, direct and indirect effects of work engagement on individual work performance, the results reveal a significant relationship as well and indirect effect was at 95% confidence level due to standardised indirect effects results which did not cross a zero and that implies that work engagement (WE) and individual work performance (IWP) are mediated by OCB. Hence this objective was also met.

8.2.2.5 *Research aim 5: Group differences (age, gender, job level, qualification and years of service) exist between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. This was partially achieved by empirically testing biographical group difference and the level of significance. The outcome of this aim addressed research hypotheses H5*

- This aim was partially achieved in that, with gender, the independent *t*-test results showed that there were significant differences between males and females with respect to psychological empowerment impact sub-dimension (PE-impact), with ($p < 0.05$). The impact sub-dimension results for males were slightly higher than that of females suggesting females' participants felt having less impact in psychological empowerment than their male counterparts in the workplace.
- With job levels, there was statistically significant difference found between the participants job levels and the independent variable (psychological empowerment & work engagement, dependent variable (individual work performance) and mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviour). For the following constructs and sub-dimensions, Games-Howell post hoc test was performed to determine where the differences existed between participants job levels and constructs indicated below:

- PE – meaning: The unskilled group were found to be significantly different from Specialist group.
 - PE – competence: The skilled group differed significantly from Specialist group.
 - PE – impact: The unskilled group differed significantly from Manager Junior/middle/senior group.
 - PE – overall scale: The unskilled group differed significantly from Specialist group.
 - IWP-task: The senior specialist group differed significantly from all the other groups.
 - IWP-contextual: The senior specialist group differed significantly from skilled group.
 - OCB-individual: The manager/ junior/middle/senior group differed significantly from senior specialist group.
- There was statistically significant difference in participants' qualifications compared to the independent variable. (psychological empowerment), dependent variable (individual work performance) and mediating variable (organisational citizenship behaviour). For the following constructs and sub-dimensions, Games-Howell post hoc test was conducted to determine where the differences existed between participants qualifications and constructs, the findings are revealed below:
 - PE-competence: Diploma group participants were significantly different from Undergraduate participants and Post Graduate group.
 - PE-self-determination: Undergraduate group participants were significantly different from participants with trade certificate and diploma group.
 - PE-impact: Undergraduate group participants were significantly different from respondents with Trade certificate group.
 - PE overall scale: Matric & below group participants were significantly different to all other group.
 - IWP-task: Undergraduate group participants were significantly different from Matric & below group.
 - IWP overall scale: Undergraduate group participants were significantly different from all other group.

- OCB – organisation: Matric & below and trade certificate group participants were significantly different from Undergraduate group.
- OCB overall scale: Undergraduate group participants were significantly different from Matric & below group.
- Years of service also showed statistically significant difference between the participants years of service and the independent variable (psychological empowerment overall scale, self-determination & impact) and dependent variable (individual work performance overall scale, IWP-task & IWP context). Games-Howell post hoc test was conducted to determine where the differences existed between participants years of service and the above-mentioned constructs, however, no significant differences in the years of service between the variables mentioned above and its sub-dimensions.

8.2.2.6 *Research aim 6: biographical variables (age, job level, qualification, years of service) moderates the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement (as independent variables) and organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance (as dependent variables). This was partially achieved by empirically testing (moderated relationship) research hypotheses H6*

- With reference to biographical variables - the years of service, qualifications and job levels, there were no moderating relationship found with psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance following the moderated regression analysis results. However, there were moderating relationship found for psychological empowerment and work engagement with respondents at younger age (18 – 35). The relationship between psychological empowerment and individual work performance seems stronger with younger respondents than older ones.

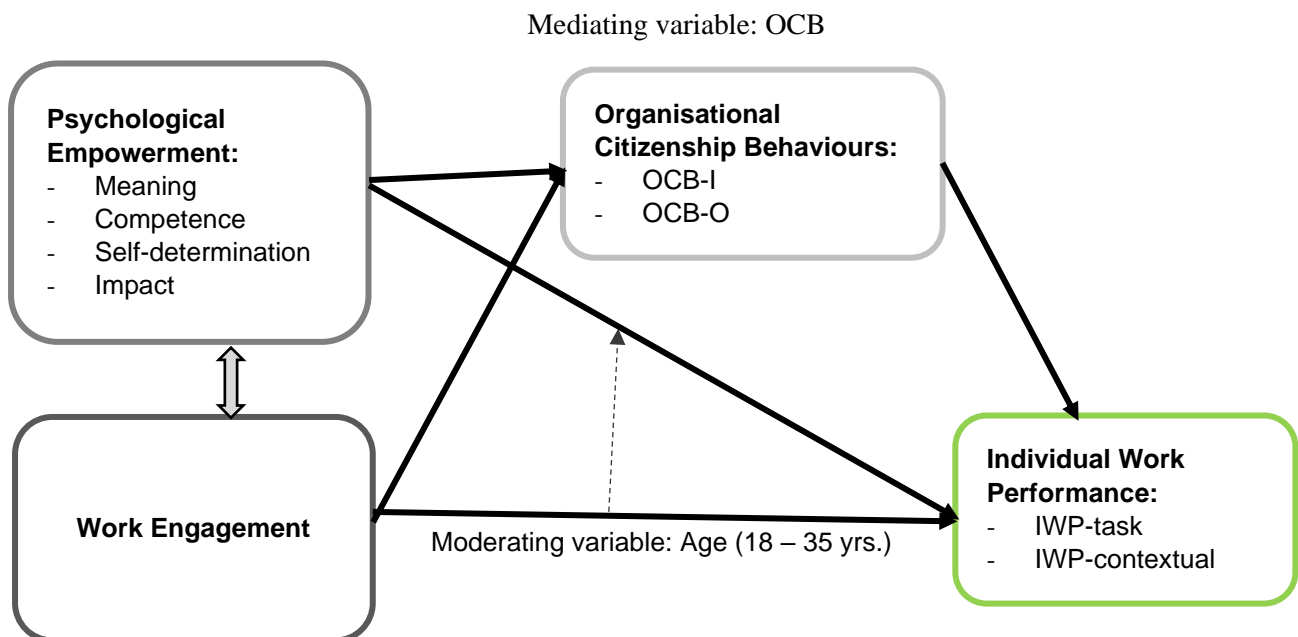
8.2.2.7 *Research aim 7: to develop a model that would enhance individual work performance of employees in a steel manufacturing organisation. This was achieved by empirically testing the proposed conceptual model*

- Conceptual model presented in Chapter 1, Figure 1.1, involves the constructs of psychological empowerment (PE), work engagement (WE), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and individual work performance (IWP), including the biographical variables (age, gender, job level, qualification, years of service).
- The results are reported in the sections of Chapter 7 (group differences, correlation & regression analysis – mediation / moderation).

Further to determine whether psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour predict individual work performance. This aim was achieved by applying and obtaining regression analysis results, which confirmed that PE, WE, and OCB predicted IWP.

Figure 8.1

A developed model of PE, WE, OCB and IWP



Empirically tested model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance, following the results of confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis and the mediated/ moderated regression analysis.

Figure 8.1 depicts the developed model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. The model was created using statistical tools which included confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, and mediated/moderated regression analyses.

1. This study's four scales were validated through structural equation modelling and confirmatory factor analysis based on their goodness-of-fit. The summary of the results is found in Table 7.16 and depicted in figures 7.1 to 7.4, allowing the research study to proceed. The outcomes are as follows:

- Psychological empowerment (PE) was confirmed with four sub-dimensions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact.
- Work engagement (WE) was confirmed as a single construct with no sub-dimensions.

- Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was confirmed with two sub-dimensions: OCB-I and OCB-O.
 - Individual work performance (IWP) was confirmed with two sub-dimensions: individual work performance task related and individual work performance contextual related. The sub-dimension of counterproductive work behaviour did not emerge.
2. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis revealed a significant relationship between psychological empowerment sub-constructs, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, and individual work performance, as shown in the correlation matrix below. This section addressed Hypotheses: *H1*.
- Psychological empowerment and work engagement have a positive and significant relationship ($r = 0.44$), with a medium effect size.
 - Psychological empowerment has a positive and significant relationship with individual work performance ($r = 0.44$), with a medium effect size.
 - Psychological empowerment has a positive and significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour ($r = 0.40$), with a medium effect size.
 - A positive and significant relationship between work engagement and individual work performance ($r = 0.44$), with medium effect size.
 - A positive and significant relationship between work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour ($r = 0.41$), with medium effect size.
 - The study also found a significant positive relationship ($r = 0.48$) between organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance with a medium effect size.

The results of the Pearson moment correlations analysis confirmed the proposed relationship between the four constructs (PE, WE, OCB & IWP); hence supporting the construction of the model.

3. The mediated regression analysis tested the undermentioned research hypotheses and research aims. This section addresses Hypotheses: *H2* (psychological empowerment and work engagement as independent variables statistically predicts individual work performance as dependent variable.) and *H3* (psychological empowerment and work engagement as independent variables) statistically predicts

organisational citizenship behaviour as dependent variable) and the outcomes are presented in the following manner:

- The mediated regression analysis results for total effect model highlighted that psychological empowerment and work engagement are statistically positive and significantly associated with individual work performance at $p = < 0.001$. The total effect model explained 25% of the variance in individual work performance. These results imply that higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of individual work performance and higher levels of work engagement are associated with higher levels of individual work performance. Hypotheses: *H2*.
 - The mediated regression analysis results for total effect model showed that psychological empowerment and work engagement are statistically positive and significantly correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour at $p = < 0.001$. The total effect model explained about 23% of the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour. This implies that both psychological empowerment and work engagement have a positive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour. Hypotheses: *H3*.
4. The mediated regression analysis regarding results for total, direct & indirect effects model produced the statistically significant results between psychological empowerment and individual work performance at ($b = 0.087$; $p \leq 0.001$) and the statistically significant total, direct and indirect effects results between work engagement and individual work performance at ($b = 0.093$; $p \leq 0.001$) with direct effect at 95% interval confidence levels. Total effect results (PE) = 0.255, total effect (WE) = 0.328. Direct effect (PE) = 0.169; direct effect (WE) = 0.234. Indirect effects results (PE) = 0.086; indirect effects results (WE) = 0.094.

According to the findings, organisational citizenship behaviour mediates both psychological empowerment and individual work performance, as well as work engagement and individual work performance. These results support Hypotheses: *H4*.

The results discussed above, further supports the model as proposed.

5. The moderated regression analysis results for interaction effects outcomes indicated no moderation relationship regarding the age groups of the respondents and IWP, PE and OCB based on age at the 95% interval level ($p \leq 0.05$) following the interaction effects results. However, when conditional effects were considered, a moderating relationship between psychological empowerment and individual work performance for respondents at younger age 18-35 years ($b = 0.437$; $p \leq 0.001$), 36-45 years ($b = 0.387$; $p = \leq 0.001$) and 46-55 ($b = 0.265$; $p = \leq 0.001$) emerged.

Based on the findings of this study, it is possible to conclude that psychological empowerment and work engagement have a statistically positive and significant relationship with individual work performance, as well as a statistically positive and significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour.

It is also possible to conclude that organisational citizenship behaviour moderates the relationship between psychological empowerment and individual work performance, as well as the relationship between work engagement and individual work performance.

lastly, the study concludes that biographical variables do not moderate the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, and individual work performance, except for employees aged 18 to 35, who showed a partial relationship between psychological empowerment and individual work performance. The moderation is confirmed among young employees.

In conclusion, employees' work attitudes influence individual work behaviour, which in turn influences individual work outcomes. This implies that a positive attitude causes positive work behaviour, which leads to positive work outcomes.

Thus, the overall aim of this study was accomplished.

8.2.2.8 *Research aim 8: propose recommendations that can be formulated to manage individual work performance, suggest areas that can be pursued for further research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology about individual work performance*

This objective will be met in the recommendation section of this chapter.

8.3.3 The conclusions regarding hypotheses

In Chapter 1, the central hypotheses states that, psychological empowerment and work engagement (work attitudes) predict individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (work behaviour) predicts individual work performance. Furthermore, individuals from different biographical groups will mediate the relationship between empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.

The constructed and tested model explains the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. Also, different levels in the biographical variables for age, gender, qualification, job level and years of service was revealed and discussed in terms of statistical significance for psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. The central hypotheses, as formulated, therefore, was accepted.

Evidence supporting the central hypotheses was presented by both the empirical study and the literature review.

8.3.4 Conclusion regarding the contribution of the study to the field of industrial and Organisational Psychology

Conclusions are drawn with respect to literature review, empirical study and organisational and industrial psychology.

8.3.4.1 *Conclusion with respect to literature review*

- The results of the review of the literature advanced the study of organisational and industrial psychology, especially considering the combination of the construct of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour

and individual work performance. The literature offered fresh perspectives on the relationships between psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact), work engagement (vigour, dedication, absorption), organisational citizenship behaviour (organisational citizenship behaviour directed at individual and organisational citizenship behaviour directed at organisation) and individual work performance (individual work performance – task and individual work performance – contextual).

- The literature review also provided valuable information on the research findings of the previous studies regarding biographical variables. This information assisted the researcher to choose the relevant biographical variables for the study. The literature information gathered with respect to PE, WE, OCB and IWP and biographical information contributed immensely to the study, hence, it contributes to the advancement of organisational and industrial psychology.
- Information gathered from the literature review, for the current study, also provided valuable insights and added value to the study and understanding of individual work performance as influenced by a combination of psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour. A confirmation that individual attitude determines individual behaviour and this behaviour leads to a performance outcome. As a result, the outcome of the literature and the final developed model showed which critical aspects must be considered when designing a model for individual work performance.

8.3.4.2 *Conclusions regarding empirical study*

The statistical relationship revealed between psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact), work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-I) and OCB-O) provided valuable knowledge and insight as determinants of the individual work performance (IWP-task and IWP-context).

- The interrelationship analysis showed that individuals' perception of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact) and work engagement, are positive and significantly related to individual work performance (IWP-task and IWP-context).

- Also, the interrelationship analysis showed that individuals' perception of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact) and work engagement are positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.
- This implies that certain attitudinal and behavioural aspects that relates to psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination, impact) work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-I and OCB-O) should be incorporated into organisation human resources interventions strategies that promote individual work performance in the workplace. Such strategies may include, mentoring and coaching programme, focused development intervention, diversity and inclusion programme.
- The analysis of structural equation modelling helped build the empirical model and determined which model fit the data the best for psychological empowerment and work engagement (independent variables), individual work performance (dependent variable) and organisational citizenship behaviour (mediating variable) that can be used when designing and developing organisation interventions to geared towards dealing with individual work performance, in the form of performance management process, succession planning and talent management strategy in the steel manufacturing organisation, in particular.
- Group differences in psychological empowerment were analysed using independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA tests based on age, gender, qualification, job level, and service years, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. It is important to note that there were significant differences between men and women in terms of psychological empowerment – impact subdimension, with female employees' perception of being less impactful in their workplace than male employees. This revelation prompt management to develop interventions that creates enabling environment for females to freely contribute their ideas to the organisation and such ideas be incorporated into the culture of the organisation to embrace diversity and inclusion.

- The hierarchical regression analysis was able to provide information on which biographical variables were significantly related to psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. As a result, employees of younger ages moderated the relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement. This implies that psychological empowerment has a positive influence on younger employees' work performance.

8.3.4.3 *Conclusion regarding the field of industrial and organisational psychology*

- Regarding psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance the fields of industrial and organisational psychology have benefited from new insights brought to light by both literature and empirical findings. The reviewed literature offered insights into comprehending personal perceptions of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. The correlation between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance provided new knowledge, especially on individual work performance which can contribute to the development of interventions geared towards uplifting individual performance and the performance of different departments and thereby influence the performance of the steel manufacturing organisation.
- Psychological empowerment and work engagement are critical constructs that have been extensively researched and obtained positive correlation results and are associated with employee outcomes and organisational performance. Although, a combination of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance has been extensively researched, however, no research has investigated the relationship amongst psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance constructs simultaneously in a single study within South Africa in a steel manufacturing organisation.
- This study aims to fill a gap in the literature by examining the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, and individual work performance in a steel manufacturing organisation.

- This study fills a knowledge gap by examining the role of psychological empowerment, work engagement, and organisational citizenship behaviour in improving individual workplace performance.
- The results of the current study can assist HR practitioners in developing policy and procedures that will support the model. Academics can build on this available knowledge, including policy makers can align these results to the daily operations of the organisation.

8.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Considering the literature review and empirical investigation, the research study's limitations will be examined.

8.4.1 Limitations of the literature review

The following limitations were highlighted during the literature review:

- One of the limitations in this study is the limited research sources undertaken to assess the relationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance within a South African context. Even though there's an abundance of research on these four constructs, not much in a steel manufacturing industry was evident and thereby making it difficult to make linkages and draw conclusive literature findings within the South African context particularly the steel manufacturing industry.
- The four constructs, that is, psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, and individual work performance have been used as measurement instruments in many research studies, however, the use of all instruments in a single study has been limited in the literature focusing at the steel manufacturing industry.
- More research work on the concept of work engagement is ongoing owing to the different perspectives and approaches in which one definition is agreed upon.

- The literature consulted on psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance are mainly of international origin.
- Any research project is done with good intentions, so is the current study, however, not all the research findings are acceptable to the reader and as such, it encourages debate and further research on the research topic at hand. The findings of the study might trigger different thoughts in the mind of researchers and this may stimulate a need for further investigation of the topic, due to readers understanding of the research results, experiences and objectives. Such an understanding may lead to development of continuous search in different perspectives for new knowledge
- The research findings may be irrelevant to some organisations and may be helpful to others depending on the needs and objectives of those organisations.
- The conceptual model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, and organisational citizenship behaviour aims to help organisations recognise the value of employees who are psychologically empowered, engaged, and exhibit citizenship behaviour, which leads to improved work performance. This would then increase organisation effectiveness.
- For future research consideration, a shorter version of work engagement questionnaire rather than a 17 items version may be relevant given the outcome of the structural equation modelling on work engagement construct.
- Consider biographical variables relevant to the study, such as years of service, qualifications, and job levels. Discard gender and job level. The literature shows that there is often no significant difference between genders, and that years of service and job levels frequently correlate, making it unnecessary to include both in the same study.

8.4.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The limitations of empirical study are highlighted as follows:

- This study's drawback was that it only used online survey questionnaires to collate participant information because of COVID-19 and strict rules to manage it. Although enough representative sample was obtained through the online survey, distribution and administration of questionnaires to complete through pen and paper would have increased more participation from the shopfloor.
- The study was conducted nine months after the organisation undertook restructuring measures which led to the retrenchment of several hundreds of employees losing their jobs. Although restructuring and change has been done from time to time due to the cyclical nature of the steel manufacturing industry, participation in a survey might have brought hesitation and different thoughts in the minds of the participants while completing the e-survey.
- The representative sample was collated from one steel manufacturing organisation which has business units across South Africa, although the plan was to get the downstream organisations within the steel manufacturing to participate in the study, however, the participants responses were insignificant and thereby discarded. Broader participation from the steel industry would have provided the opportunity to generalise the results findings across the industry and not limit it only to the participating organisation.
- The use of a cross-sectional study limits the ability to verify causal relationships between constructs. Future research could consider using a longitudinal survey to investigate the constructs of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour, and individual work performance with two job levels (junior manager and skilled employees), including biographical information such as age, gender and qualifications.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the study's findings, the following recommendations are made for steel manufacturing company, industrial and organisational psychologists, and potential future research.

8.5.1 Recommendation for the steel manufacturing organisation

The study's findings led to the formulation of the following suggestions for the steel manufacturing organisations:

- Following the study results on group mean difference, *t*-test on gender where the results showed females perception that their contribution to their departments is less impactful than their male counterparts. To change this perception, it could be helpful for the organisation to create an enabling environment in the organisation through implementation of diversity and inclusion programme that recognises the input of any employee equally irrespective of gender. This programme may eliminate gender bias within the organisation.
- Again, the ANOVA test results on age showed a statistical difference in the, psychological empowerment, meaning sub-dimension where employees between the age of 56+ felt their job were less meaningful than employees with age 46 – 55. In this instance, to gives older employees meaning in their job, the organisation could use their knowledge and experience to mentor and coach the younger generation. A coaching and mentor committee could be established to recognise the value of the older employees within the organisation.
- Generally, it would be ideal for the organisation to develop programmes that encourages self-training and development in the case of the matric and below matric employees to recognise their input and value within the organisation.
- For managers level, develop a tailor-made management programme to fine-tune junior, middle and senior managers development. For Specialist and Snr specialist, develop a recognition programme to recognise their value and effort within the organisation.

- Based on the positive interrelationship between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance, it would be advisable that the organisation leadership within human resources uses psychometric tools that would assist with the identification of the characteristics that takes into account the psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance elements in order to use it in the recruitment for selection, for development, for talent identification and for performance management and for promotional purposes.

8.5.2 Recommendations for industrial and organisational psychology

The following recommendations were formulated for the industrial and organisational psychologist:

- The results of this study can aid industrial and organisational psychologists in many ways, i.e., during assessments, to identify work behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness, considering the positive correlations result of this study between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance.
- Employees who are psychologically empowered and display organisational citizenship behaviours may benefit organisations during strategic workforce planning and succession planning process. Placing empowered employees with organisational citizenship behaviour as successors in leadership and strategic positions may save time and cost of training and development. Sourcing psychologically empowered employees for an organisation may also lead to high individual work performance. Such a systemic process can easily be executed by the practitioners in the field of I/O Psychology who understand the criticality of employee attitudes and behaviours towards their work performance in the organisation.
- Industrial / Organisational psychologists can use work engagement interventions as means to retain talented employees, hence, contribute to an increase in individual performance outcome. The awareness by I/O psychologists of the biographical variables' role, (i.e.) age, gender, job levels, years of service and qualifications and the influences in the facilitation and/or moderating of employee's work engagement in the

workplace could assist in decision making during recruitment and selection, development, succession planning and talent management.

- Psychological empowerment of female employees is critical for industrial and organisational psychologists to develop programmes that promote diversity and inclusion in the workplace and equality and fairness for all. This will go a long way to affirm women presence in the steel manufacturing organisation, known as a man, dominated industry.
- A psychological empowerment and work engagement psychometric tool to identify candidates that have characteristics that are predictive of individual work performance can assist an organisation a great deal in the recruitment process, performance management process and talent development process.

8.5.3 Recommendations for future research

The following recommendations were formulated for future research:

- Future research could consider using a longitudinal study to determine the causal relationship of the variables currently being studied than the current study preference of cross-sectional study.
- Replicate and undertake this study in different industries as this study were in a steel manufacturing organisation, which is in the steel industry. IT, Chemical industry or FMCG's could be takers of such a study in South Africa.
- This study included participants at all levels of the organisation, the future focus could be limited to management levels which will make possible to implement targeted and focused interventions.
- Future research should consider developing a South African instrument version of work engagement scale as the scale with 17 questions, when the structural equation modelling analysis was conducted, the results did not yield a work engagement with three sub-dimensions of vigour, dedication and absorption but only work engagement as a single construct.

8.6 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

The overall aim of this study was to create a scientific model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviours, and individual work performance. Furthermore, to ascertain whether psychological empowerment, work engagement, and organisational citizenship behaviours predict individual work performance.

The model was consequently developed, which would assist the steel manufacturing organisation in achieving performance outcomes expected by the organisation and the correlation was established for the constructs of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. The findings provided support for the established model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance portrait in Figure 7.7.

The general aim was achieved and this study contributes to the field of industrial and organisational psychology on three levels: theoretical, empirical, and practical, which are discussed further below.

8.6.1 Contribution at theoretical level

The literature review provided valuable information regarding the constructs of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance. These constructs were defined and refined from an industrial and organisational psychology perspective. As a result, a conceptual model was developed, which is a contribution to the research field and knowledge sharing.

The findings of the literature study provided insight into the interrelationships between psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance, although there is less information on the steel manufacturing organisation. The industrial and organisational psychologists can use the empirically tested model to design and develop intervention tools to assist in recruitment, selection, development, succession management and attitude and behavioural change of employees within the organisation.

8.6.2 Contribution at an empirical level

The results of this investigation contributed to create the empirically validated model of psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance, which can be used in the initiation and development of interventions such as in the recruitment, placement, development, performance management, succession and talent management within the steel manufacturing organisations.

The empirical and tested model contributes to the field of industrial and organisational psychology and contributes to the existing knowledge and contributes to the fraternity and research on psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour as determinants of individual work behaviour within an organisation.

The empirically tested model showed the importance of psychological empowerment and sub-dimensions (meaning competence, self-determination, impact), work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and sub-dimensions (organisational citizenship behaviour directed at employee and organisational citizenship behaviour directed at organisation) and individual work performance and subdimensions (individual work performance task related and individual work performance contextual related) in terms of the positive interrelationships amongst these constructs.

The empirically tested model also showed the criticality of the abovementioned constructs of PE, WE, OCB and IWP and job level, qualification and years of service. However, with gender differences, females felt less influential in their workplace than their male counterparts; whereas age acted as a moderator for younger employees (18-35 years) between psychological empowerment and work engagement, which can impact decision-making at recruitment, development, performance and succession level.

The study's conclusions broaden the body of useful knowledge already in existence, for development of strategies and interventions in the organisation value chain to enhance work performance outcomes in the steel manufacturing industry.

8.6.3 Contribution at a practical level

At a practical level, the industrial and organisational psychologist can test empirical model to design interventions geared towards addressing employee' attitudes/behaviours to attain the expected performance outcomes efficiently and effectively. Such interventions/strategies

could include, amongst others, empowering leadership, employee participation in decision affecting their work, easy access to information and resources, skills training, attitude adjustments, recruitment strategy that involves psychometric tools that tap positive and negative work behaviours as well as strategies that advance diversity and inclusion.

With the realisation of scarce skills and technical knowledge within the steel manufacturing organisations, the model could assist a great deal in attracting employees that can be engaged with an organisation for a longer period and feel empowered and thereby contribute immensely to the organisation's long-term plans.

8.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter summarises the study's conclusions, limitations, and recommendations. The literature review conclusions were mapped out, as were the empirical study conclusions, and the contributions to industrial and organisational psychology were highlighted. This chapter discussed the study's limitations regarding the literature review and empirical study. The recommendations included those for steel manufacturing organisation, industrial and organisational psychology, and potential future research.

The following study aims were fulfilled by this chapter:

Research aim 8: To develop a model that would enhance individual work performance of employees in a steel manufacturing organisation.

Research aim 9: Propose recommendations that can be formulated to manage IWP, suggest areas that can be pursuit for further research in the field of IOP about IWP.

This chapter brings this research study to its conclusion.

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ANNEXURE 1: ETHICS CERTIFICATE



UNISA CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

01 March 2022

Dear Mr Mkhambi Shadrack Tjeku,

**Decision: Ethics approval from
01 March 2022 to 01 March 2027**

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : **2022/CEMS/IOP/044**
Name : Mr Mkhambi Shadrack Tjeku
Student # : 38712407
Staff # : N/a

Researcher(s): Name: Mr Mkhambi Shadrack Tjeku
Address: 12 ST Helena Street, Welgelegen, Sasolburg, 1947
E-mail address, telephone: 38712407@mylife.unisa.ac.za, 0833047707

Supervisor (s): Name: Prof Nico Martins
Address: Unisa, Muckleneuk Campus, Preller Street, Pretoria, 0003
E-mail address, telephone: Martinsn@mweb.co.za, 0832666372

**Psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship
behaviour as determinants of individual work performance.**

Qualification: Doctorate (PhD)–Postgraduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for **FIVE** years.

*The low risk application was reviewed by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on the **22nd February 2022** in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was approved on **22nd February 2022**.*

The proposed research may only commence with the provision that:

- 1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa COVID-19 Position Statement on research ethics dated 26 June 2020 which is attached.***



University of South Africa
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2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.
3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **(01 March 2027)**
8. Submission of a complete research ethics progress report will constitute an application for the renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number **2022_CEMS/IOP_044** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.

Yours sincerely,



Signature

Acting Chair of IOP ERC

E-mail : tebelc@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-8809



Signature

Acting Executive Dean : CEMS

E-mail: Mpofurt@unisa.ac.za

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ANNEXURE 2: PERMISSION LETTERS

ArcelorMittal South Africa



MANAGEMENT RESPONSE TO A LETTER REQUESTING ARCELORMITTAL SOUTH AFRICA PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH BY MKHAMBHI SHADRACK TJEKU

Psychological Empowerment, Work Engagement and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as determinants of individual employee performance.

Date: 05 July 2021

Dear Mkhambi,

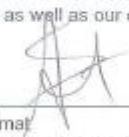
Following your letter requesting ArcelorMittal South Africa to grant you permission to conduct research for your studies, management considered your request and agree to grant you permission to conduct your research across company's Operations and Functional areas. However, all the rules and regulations related to safety and Covid-19 must be strictly observed.

The company will also assist with and grant access to the information you have requested in order to conduct your research subject to adherence to POPIA. Such information includes employees:

- Contact details: email address, cellphone number
- Biographical info: gender, age, tenure, qualifications etc.
- Functional Area, Operating Unit, Department
- Position Grade and level, Position Title
- Availability of employees
- Availability of venue
- Platform to launch the survey

Management expectation of the outcomes of the study

ArcelorMittal South Africa would like to receive a written summary report of the research outcome and the recommendations of the study. The company does not envisage censoring the publication of the study in the public domain should the outcome of the research be problematic. The company however, expect the researcher and the University to treat the information in line with applicable University policies and procedures as well as our country's relevant legislations.



Sedick Achmat
Chief HR Officer and Transformation
ArcelorMittal South Africa

06/09/2021
Date

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Permission Letter from Consolidated Wire Industries



To: MKHAMBHI SHADRACK TJEKU

RE:MANAGEMENT RESPONSE TO A LETTER REQUESTING CONSOLIDATED WIRE INDUSTRIES PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH BY MKHAMBHI SHADRACK TJEKU

Psychological Empowerment, Work Engagement and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as determinants of individual employee performance.

Date: 12 July 2021

Dear Mkhambi,

Following your letter requesting Consolidated Wire Industries to grant you permission to conduct research for your studies, management considered your request and agree to grant you permission to conduct your research across company's Operations and Functional areas. However, all the rules and regulations related to safety and Covid-19 must be strictly observed.

The company will also assist with and grant access to the information you have requested in order to conduct your research subject to adherence to POPIA. Such information includes employees:

- Contact details: email address, cellphone number
- Biographical info: gender, age, tenure, qualifications etc.
- Functional Area, Operating Unit, Department
- Position Grade and level, Position Title
- Availability of employees
- Availability of venue
- Platform to launch the survey

Management expectation of the outcomes of the study

Consolidated Wire Industries would like to receive a written summary report of the research outcome and the recommendations of the study. The company does not envisage censoring the publication of the study in the public domain should the outcome of the research be problematic. The company however, expect the researcher and the University to treat the information in line with applicable University policies and procedures as well as our country's relevant legislations.

Maropeng Sebola
Human Resources Manager
Consolidated Wire Industries

12 July 2021
Date

CONSOLIDATED WIRE INDUSTRIES (PTY) LTD

REG NO.: 1949/033061/07 | VAT NO.: 47301104887

IT +27 (0) 16 980 3111 | IE sales@cwi-wire.co.za | AI 6 Telford Street, Vanderbijl Park, 1911 | P.O. Box 102, Vanderbijl Park, 1900
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ANNEXURE 3: RESEARCHERS' DECLARATION

RESEARCHER'S DECLARATION TO ADHERE TO THE UNISA CODE OF CONDUCT REGARDING THE ETHICS OF THE PROPOSED RESEARCH

The declaration should be signed in a separate document and provided to the ERC in a scanned format as part of the application package. PLEASE DO NOT PDF THE APPLICATION FORM BELOW TO ALLOW THE COMMITTEE TO OPEN ATTACHMENTS.

By signing below, I **Mkhambi Shadrack Tjeku** (full name of the main researcher) declare as follows:

*Double click on text box selected

a) I completed all the sections of this form that are relevant to the proposed research study according to Appendix A.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
b) I have not commenced with fieldwork relating to any data collection in relation to the proposed research.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
c) I have acquainted myself with UNISA's code on research ethics expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. I shall fully comply with it.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
d) I shall conduct the research in an ethically responsible way by demonstrating respect for participants' autonomy, considering a fair risk-benefit analysis and employing fair research procedures.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
e) I shall conduct the research in strict accordance with the approved proposal. I acknowledge that the approval is valid as long as approved procedures are followed.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
f) I shall notify the ERC in writing of any adverse events that occur arising from harm experienced by participants.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
g) I shall notify the ERC in writing if any changes to the research are proposed that may affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants (e.g. methodology, sampling, questionnaire, interview schedule).	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
h) I shall maintain participants' privacy and the confidentiality of records pertaining to the research.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
i) I shall not use the research and information in a manner that is detrimental to human participants or institutions unless it can be scientifically and ethically justified.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
j) I shall store research data securely and in accordance with the data management measures indicated in my application/proposal.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
k) I shall uphold research integrity and refrain from conduct that may taint the integrity of science, including, but not limited to plagiarism, fabrication and falsification of data.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
l) I shall refrain from the use of human participant data that was collected without a valid research ethics approval for the purpose of this research.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
m) I shall take the necessary steps to warrant that co-researchers, if applicable, familiarise themselves with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
n) I accept the privacy information statement set out on page 3.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Applicant: Principal Researcher

Full name in Print: Mkhambi Shadrack Tjeku

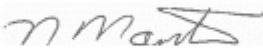
Signature: 

Date signed: 05 September 2021

Approved by supervisor (if applicable):

To my knowledge the student has addressed all aspects in his/her application for research ethics approval set forth in the University of South Africa's Policy for Research Ethics. I confirm that the form is complete according to Appendix A. I will ensure that the student notifies the committee in writing if any changes to the research are proposed that may affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants such as methodology, sampling, questionnaire, interview schedule, etc. Subsequently, I approve the submission and recommend that approval is granted for the research.

Full name in Print: Professor Nico Martins

Signature: 

Date signed: 7 October 2021

Please complete the rest of the form below.

ANNEXURE 4: RESEARCH MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

A. Biographical Questionnaire

Please note that the below biographic information is only for the purposes of the study. Aspects such as confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed. Your responses cannot be traced back to you in any way. Please provide a response for ALL the questions. Please select the option that best describes you.

1. Gender

Male	1
Female	2
Other	3

2. Age group

18-25years	1
26-35years	2
36-45years	3
46-55years	4
56+ years	5

3. Highest level of qualification

Below Matric	1
Matric	2
Trade Certificate	3
Diploma	4
Degree	5
Post-graduate degree	6

4. Job level

Unskilled	1
Skilled	2
Administrator	3
Specialist	4
Snr Specialist	5
Junior Manager	6
Middle Manager	7
Snr Manager	8

5. Years of service with the Company

Less than 2 years	1
2 – 5 years	2
5 – 10 years	3
10 – 15 years	4
15 – 20 years	5
Above 20 years	6

B. Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire (MEQ)

INSTRUCTIONS:

Below are statements that describe how you may think about yourself right now. Please use the following scale to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	The work I do is very important to me (M1)						
2	My job activities are personally meaningful (M2)						
3	The work I do is meaningful to me (M3)						
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job (C1)						
5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities (C2)						
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job. (C3)						
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job. (SD1)						
8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work (SD2)						
9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job (SD3)						
10	My impact on what happens in my department is large (I1)						
11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (I2)						
12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department (I3)						

The Measuring Empowerment questionnaire - MEQ (Spreitzer, 1995)

C. Engagement Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS:

Below are the statements that many people would find desirable, but we want you to answer only in terms of whether the statement describes how you actually live your life (0 = Never, 1 = A few times a year or less, 2 = Once a month or less, 3 = A few times a month, 4 = Once a week, 5 = A few times a week, 6 = Everyday).

Statement	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Everyday
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1	At my work, I am bursting with energy. (VI)						
2	I find my work full of meaning and purpose. (DE)						
3	Time flies when I'm working. (AB)						
4	I feel strong and vigorous in my job. (VI)						
5	I am enthusiastic about my job. (DE)						
6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me. (AB)						
7	My job motivates me. (DE)						
8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (VI)						
9	I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work. (AB)						
10	I am proud of the work that I do. (DE)						
11	I am absorbed in my work. (AB)						
12	In my job, I can continue working for very long periods at a time. (VI)						
13	To me, my work is challenging. (DE)						
14	I get carried away by my work. (AB)						
15	I am very resilient, mentally, in my job. (VI)						
16	It is difficult to separate myself from my job. (AB)						
17	I always persevere at work, even when things do not go well. (VI)						

Source: Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). Note: VI = Vigour scale 6; DE = Dedication scale 5; AB = Absorption scale 6

D. Individual Work Performance Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS:

The following questions relate to how you carried out your work during the past 3 months. In order to get an accurate picture of your conduct at work, it is important that you complete the questionnaire as carefully and honestly as possible. If you are uncertain about how to answer a particular question, please give the best possible answer. The questionnaire will take about 5-10 minutes to complete.

No	In the past 3 months...	Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time. (TP)					
2	I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve. (TP)					
3	I was able to set priorities. (TP)					
4	I was able to carry out my work efficiently. (TP)					
5	I managed my time well. (TP)					
6	On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed. (CB)					
7	I took on challenging tasks when they were available. (CB)					
8	I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up to date. (CB)					
9	I worked on keeping my work skills up to date. (CB)					
10	I came up with creative solutions for new problems. (CB)					
11	I took on extra responsibilities. (CB)					
12	I continually sought new challenges in my work. (CB)					
13	I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations. (CB)					
14	I complained about minor work-related issues at work. (CWB)					
15	I made problems at work bigger than they were. (CWB)					
16	I focused on the negative aspects of the situation at work instead of the positive aspects. (CWB)					
17	I talked to colleagues about the negative aspects of my work. (CWB)					
18	I talked to people outside the organisation about the negative aspects of my work. (CWB)					

Individual Work Performance questionnaire - IWPQ (Koopmans, 2015)

E. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB-I & OCB-O)

INSTRUCTIONS:

Below are the statements that many people would find desirable, but we want you to answer only in terms of whether the statement describes how you actually live your life (0 = Never, 1 = A few times a year or less, 2 = Once a month or less, 3 = A few times a month, 4 = Once a week, 5 = A few times a week, 6 = Everyday).

Statement	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Always
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	Help others who have been absent. (OCB-I)						
2	Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.(OCB-I)						
3	Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off. (OCB-I)						
4	Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. (OCB-I)						
5	Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. (OCB-I)						
6	Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems. (OCB-I)						
7	Assist others with their duties. (OCB-I)						
8	Share personal property with others to help their work. (OCB-I)						
9	Attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image. (OCB-O)						
10	Keep up with developments in the organisation. (OCB-O)						
11	Defend the organization when other employees criticise it. (OCB-O)						
12	Show pride when representing the organisation in public. (OCB-O)						
13	Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation. (OCB-O)						
14	Express loyalty toward the organisation. (OCB-O)						
15	Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems. (OCB-O)						
16	Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation. (OCB-O)						

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002)

ANNEXURE 5: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics												
	n	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		95% CI		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Lower	Upper	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PE_M	314	2.00	7.00	6.10	0.051	6.00	6.20	0.909	-1.805	0.138	4.228	0.274
PE_C	314	1.00	7.00	6.23	0.054	6.13	6.34	0.959	-2.196	0.138	7.171	0.274
PE_S	314	1.00	7.00	5.75	0.068	5.61	5.88	1.208	-1.787	0.138	3.933	0.274
PE_I	314	1.00	7.00	5.15	0.083	4.99	5.31	1.477	-0.840	0.138	0.086	0.274
PE	314	2.92	7.00	5.81	0.045	5.72	5.90	0.798	-0.800	0.138	0.891	0.274
WE	314	1.00	6.00	5.03	0.058	4.91	5.14	1.032	-1.432	0.138	1.890	0.274
IWP_T	314	1.00	5.00	4.10	0.047	4.01	4.19	0.839	-1.062	0.138	1.130	0.274
IWP_C	314	1.00	5.00	3.98	0.045	3.89	4.07	0.795	-0.820	0.138	0.624	0.274
IWP	314	1.83	5.00	4.04	0.039	3.97	4.12	0.686	-0.722	0.138	0.342	0.274
OCB_I	314	1.57	7.00	5.78	0.065	5.65	5.90	1.148	-1.156	0.138	1.199	0.274
OCB_O	314	1.17	7.00	5.75	0.075	5.60	5.90	1.335	-1.398	0.138	1.625	0.274
OCB	314	1.68	7.00	5.76	0.060	5.65	5.88	1.058	-1.255	0.138	1.582	0.274

Mediated regression analysis (Total effect model)

```

Run MATRIX procedure:
***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.0 *****
Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3
*****

Model : 4
Model PE - OCB - IWP
Y : IWP
X : PE
M : OCB
Covariates:
WE
Model WE - OCB - IWP
Y : IWP
X : WE
M : OCB
Covariates:
PE

Sample
Size: 314

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
IWP
Model Summary
R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
,496 ,246 ,357 50,643 2,000 311,000 ,000
Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant 1,673 ,256 6,533 ,000 1,169 2,177
PE ,219 ,047 4,664 ,000 ,127 ,312
WE ,218 ,036 5,983 ,000 ,146 ,289
Standardized coefficients
coeff
PE ,255
WE ,328
*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
OCB
Model Summary
R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
,481 ,232 ,866 46,899 2,000 311,000 ,000
Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant 2,142 ,399 5,371 ,000 1,357 2,927
PE ,362 ,073 4,943 ,000 ,218 ,506
WE ,302 ,057 5,332 ,000 ,191 ,414
Standardized coefficients
coeff
PE ,273
WE ,295

```

Mediated regression analysis (direct effect model)

***** DIRECT EFFECT MODEL *****							
OUTCOME VARIABLE: IWP							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	,568	,323	,322	49,257	3,000	310,000	,000
Model							
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	1,233	,254	4,854	,000	,733	1,733	
PE	,145	,046	3,129	,002	,054	,236	
WE	,156	,036	4,315	,000	,085	,227	
OCB	,205	,035	5,942	,000	,137	,273	
Standardized coefficients							
	coeff						
PE	,169						
WE	,234						
OCB	,317						

Mediated regression analysis (total, direct & indirect effect)

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****							
PE on IWP							
Total effect of X on Y							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c' cs
	,219	,047	4,664	,000	,127	,312	,255
Direct effect of X on Y							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c' cs
	,145	,046	3,129	,002	,054	,236	,169
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	,074	,025	,033	,130			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	,087	,028	,039	,150			
WE on IWP							
Total effect of X on Y							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c' cs
	,218	,036	5,983	,000	,146	,289	,328
Direct effect of X on Y							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c' cs
	,156	,036	4,315	,000	,085	,227	,234
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	,062	,021	,026	,108			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
OCB	,093	,031	,041	,160			
***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****							
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95,0000							
Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000							
----- END MATRIX -----							

ANNEXURE 6: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS RESULTS

PE_M							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
			n		%		
Cases	Valid		314		100.0		
	Excluded ^a		0		0.0		
	Total		314		100.0		
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
Cronbach's Alpha	Alpha Based on Standardized		N of Items				
	0.716	0.716	3				
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
B1. The work I do is very important to me.	6.29	1.114	314				
B2. My job activities are personally meaningful.	5.91	1.226	314				
B3. The work I do is meaningful to me.	6.11	1.068	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	B1. The work I do is very important to me.	B2. My job activities are personally meaningful.	work I do is meaningful to				
B1. The work I do is very important to me.	1.000	0.453	0.400				
B2. My job activities are personally meaningful.	0.453	1.000	0.517				
B3. The work I do is meaningful to me.	0.400	0.517	1.000				
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	6.104	5.914	6.287	0.373	1.063	0.035	3
Item Variances	1.295	1.141	1.504	0.363	1.318	0.035	3
Inter-Item Correlations	0.457	0.400	0.517	0.117	1.292	0.003	3
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
B1. The work I do is very important to me.	12.03	3.999	0.492	0.243	0.677		
B2. My job activities are personally meaningful.	12.40	3.333	0.579	0.340	0.571		
B3. The work I do is meaningful to me.	12.20	3.982	0.541	0.302	0.622		
Scale Statistics							
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items				
18.31	7.429	2.726	3				

PE_C								
Reliability								
Scale: ALL VARIABLES								
Case Processing Summary								
			n					%
Cases	Valid			314			100.0	
	Excluded ^a			0			0.0	
	Total			314			100.0	
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.								
Reliability Statistics								
Cronbach's Alpha		Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items					
0.556		0.560	2					
Item Statistics								
		Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
B4. I am confident about my ability to do my job.		6.22	1.233	314				
B5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.		6.25	1.067	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix								
		B4. I am confident about my ability to do my job.	assured about my capabilities to perform my work					
B4. I am confident about my ability to do my job.		1.000	0.389					
B5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.		0.389	1.000					
Summary Item Statistics								
		Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means		6.232	6.220	6.245	0.025	1.004	0.000	2
Item Variances		1.329	1.138	1.520	0.382	1.336	0.073	2
Inter-Item Correlations		0.389	0.389	0.389	0.000	1.000	0.000	2
Item-Total Statistics								
		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
B4. I am confident about my ability to do my job.		6.25	1.138	0.389	0.151			
B5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.		6.22	1.520	0.389	0.151			
Scale Statistics								
Mean		Variance	Std. Deviation	Items				
12.46		3.681	1.919	2				

PE_S								
Reliability								
Scale: ALL VARIABLES								
Case Processing Summary								
Cases	Valid	314	100.0					
	Excluded ^a	0	0.0					
	Total	314	100.0					
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.								
Reliability Statistics								
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items						
0.825	0.827	3						
Item Statistics								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n					
B7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	5.85	1.296	314					
B8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	5.88	1.384	314					
B9. have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	5.52	1.523	314					
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix								
	B7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	B8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom					
B7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	1.000	0.645	0.571					
B8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	0.645	1.000	0.628					
B9. have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	0.571	0.628	1.000					
Summary Item Statistics								
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items	
Item Means	5.748	5.516	5.879	0.363	1.066	0.041	3	
Item Variances	1.972	1.680	2.321	0.640	1.381	0.105	3	
Inter-Item Correlations	0.615	0.571	0.645	0.074	1.129	0.001	3	
Item-Total Statistics								
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted			
B7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	11.39	6.885	0.672	0.462	0.770			
B8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	11.37	6.258	0.717	0.516	0.721			
B9. have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	11.73	5.911	0.662	0.442	0.783			
Scale Statistics								
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items					
17.25	13.138	3.625	3					

PE_I							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
		n	%				
Cases	Valid	314	100.0				
	Excluded ^a	0	0.0				
	Total	314	100.0				
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items					
0.834	0.832	3					
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
B10. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	5.70	1.573	314				
B11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	4.88	1.777	314				
B12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	4.87	1.758	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	B10. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	B11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	have significant influence over what happens				
B10. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	1.000	0.512	0.581				
B11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	0.512	1.000	0.774				
B12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	0.581	0.774	1.000				
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	5.150	4.869	5.697	0.828	1.170	0.225	3
Item Variances	2.908	2.474	3.159	0.685	1.277	0.143	3
Inter-Item Correlations	0.622	0.512	0.774	0.262	1.512	0.015	3
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
B10. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	9.75	11.088	0.580	0.347	0.873		
B11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	10.57	8.777	0.731	0.605	0.732		
B12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	10.58	8.494	0.785	0.645	0.674		
Scale Statistics							
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items			
	15.45	19.635	4.431	3			

PE									
Reliability									
Scale: ALL VARIABLES									
Case Processing Summary									
		n		%					
Cases	Valid		314		100.0				
	Excluded ^a		0		0.0				
	Total		314		100.0				
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.									
Reliability Statistics									
Cronbach's Alpha		Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		N of Items					
0.629		0.638		4					
Item Statistics									
		Mean		Std. Deviation		n			
PE_M		6.1040		0.90857		314			
PE_C		6.2325		0.95928		314			
PE_S		5.7484		1.20820		314			
PE_I		5.1497		1.47704		314			
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix									
		PE_M		PE_C		PE_S		PE_I	
PE_M		1.000		0.245		0.370		0.230	
PE_C		0.245		1.000		0.340		0.213	
PE_S		0.370		0.340		1.000		0.438	
PE_I		0.230		0.213		0.438		1.000	
Summary Item Statistics									
		Mean		Minimum		Maximum		N of Items	
		Range		Maximum / Minimum		Variance			
Item Means		5.809		5.150		6.232		1.083	
Item Variances		1.347		0.825		2.182		1.356	
Inter-Item Correlations		0.306		0.213		0.438		0.224	
Item-Total Statistics									
		Scale Mean if Item Deleted		Scale Variance if Item Deleted		d Item-Total Correlation		Squared Multiple Correlation	
		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted							
PE_M		17.1306		7.515		0.373		0.158	
PE_C		17.0021		7.460		0.347		0.136	
PE_S		17.4862		5.578		0.554		0.308	
PE_I		18.0849		5.233		0.412		0.200	
Scale Statistics									
Mean		Variance		Std. Deviation		Items			
23.2346		10.199		3.19358		4			

WE															
Reliability															
Scale: ALL VARIABLES															
Case Processing Summary															
		n		%											
Cases	Valid		314		100.0										
	Excluded ^a		0		0.0										
	Total		314		100.0										
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.															
Reliability Statistics															
Cronbach's Alpha		Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		N of Items											
0.821		0.826		7											
Item Statistics															
		Mean		Std. Deviation		n									
C1. At my work, I am bursting with energy.		4.89		1.555		314									
C2. I find my work full of meaning and purpose.		5.38		1.170		314									
C4. I feel strong and vigorous in my job.		5.05		1.494		314									
C5. I am enthusiastic about my job.		5.24		1.280		314									
C7. My job motivates me.		4.99		1.532		314									
C8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.		4.89		1.572		314									
C9. I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work.		4.77		1.727		314									
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix															
		C1. At my work, I am bursting with energy.		C2. I find my work full of meaning and purpose.		feel strong and vigorous in my job.		C5. I am enthusiastic about my job.		C7. My job motivates me.		When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to		feel happy when I am engrossed in	
C1. At my work, I am bursting with energy.		1.000		0.303		0.345		0.360		0.313		0.409		0.249	
C2. I find my work full of meaning and purpose.		0.303		1.000		0.390		0.360		0.533		0.467		0.278	
C4. I feel strong and vigorous in my job.		0.345		0.390		1.000		0.517		0.331		0.488		0.289	
C5. I am enthusiastic about my job.		0.360		0.360		0.517		1.000		0.483		0.483		0.379	
C7. My job motivates me.		0.313		0.533		0.331		0.483		1.000		0.558		0.371	
C8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.		0.409		0.467		0.488		0.483		0.558		1.000		0.574	
C9. I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work.		0.249		0.278		0.289		0.379		0.371		0.574		1.000	
Summary Item Statistics															
		Mean		Minimum		Maximum		Range		Maximum / Minimum		Variance		N of Items	
Item Means		5.029		4.771		5.382		0.611		1.128		0.046		7	
Item Variances		2.208		1.368		2.982		1.615		2.180		0.294		7	
Inter-Item Correlations		0.404		0.249		0.574		0.325		2.309		0.009		7	
Item-Total Statistics															
		Scale Mean if Item Deleted		Scale Variance if Item Deleted		d Item-Total Correlati		Squared Multiple Correlation		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted					
C1. At my work, I am bursting with energy.		30.31		40.790		0.451		0.220		0.816					
C2. I find my work full of meaning and purpose.		29.82		42.513		0.544		0.355		0.802					
C4. I feel strong and vigorous in my job.		30.15		39.702		0.544		0.372		0.800					
C5. I am enthusiastic about my job.		29.96		40.532		0.614		0.412		0.791					
C7. My job motivates me.		30.21		38.358		0.604		0.450		0.790					
C8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.		30.32		35.942		0.730		0.557		0.766					
C9. I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work.		30.43		38.489		0.499		0.345		0.811					
Scale Statistics															
Mean		Variance		Std. Deviation		Items									
35.20		52.174		7.223		7									

IWP_T							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
		n	%				
Cases	Valid	314	100.0				
	Excluded ^a	0	0.0				
	Total	314	100.0				
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items					
0.732	0.736	3					
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
D1. I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.	3.91	1.148	314				
D3. I was able to set priorities.	4.24	0.993	314				
D4. I was able to carry out my work efficiently.	4.16	0.968	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	D1. I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.	D3. I was able to set priorities.	was able to carry out my work efficientl				
D1. I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.	1.000	0.483	0.463				
D3. I was able to set priorities.	0.483	1.000	0.500				
D4. I was able to carry out my work efficiently.	0.463	0.500	1.000				
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	4.102	3.914	4.236	0.322	1.082	0.028	3
Item Variances	1.081	0.937	1.318	0.381	1.407	0.043	3
Inter-Item Correlations	0.482	0.463	0.500	0.037	1.079	0.000	3
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
D1. I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.	8.39	2.884	0.546	0.299	0.667		
D3. I was able to set priorities.	8.07	3.286	0.573	0.331	0.627		
D4. I was able to carry out my work efficiently.	8.15	3.406	0.557	0.314	0.647		
Scale Statistics							
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items			
	12.31	6.334	2.517	3			

IWP_C							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
		n	%				
Cases	Valid	314	100.0				
	Excluded ^a	0	0.0				
	Total	314	100.0				
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items					
0.751	0.749	5					
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
D7. I took on challenging tasks when they were available.	4.02	1.113	314				
D9. I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.	4.20	1.047	314				
D10. I came up with creative solutions for new problems.	3.93	1.088	314				
D11. I took on extra responsibilities.	3.99	1.156	314				
D12. I continually sought new challenges in my work.	3.77	1.204	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	D7. I took on challenging tasks when they were available.	D9. I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.	came up with creative solutions for new	D11. I took on extra responsibilities.	D12. I continually sought new challenges in my work.		
D7. I took on challenging tasks when they were available.	1.000	0.295	0.415	0.363	0.380		
D9. I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.	0.295	1.000	0.254	0.269	0.329		
D10. I came up with creative solutions for new problems.	0.415	0.254	1.000	0.370	0.471		
D11. I took on extra responsibilities.	0.363	0.269	0.370	1.000	0.586		
D12. I continually sought new challenges in my work.	0.380	0.329	0.471	0.586	1.000		
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	3.982	3.771	4.204	0.433	1.115	0.024	5
Item Variances	1.261	1.096	1.449	0.353	1.322	0.019	5
Inter-Item Correlations	0.373	0.254	0.586	0.332	2.308	0.009	5
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
D7. I took on challenging tasks when they were available.	15.89	10.915	0.496	0.255	0.715		
D9. I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.	15.71	11.959	0.379	0.149	0.753		
D10. I came up with creative solutions for new problems.	15.98	10.869	0.523	0.294	0.705		
D11. I took on extra responsibilities.	15.92	10.320	0.558	0.373	0.692		
D12. I continually sought new challenges in my work.	16.14	9.642	0.630	0.441	0.662		
Scale Statistics							
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items			
	19.91	15.800	3.975	5			

IWP							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
		n					%
Cases	Valid	314					100.0
	Excluded ^a	0					0.0
	Total	314					100.0
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items					N of Items	
	0.580	0.581					2
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation					n
IWP_T	4.1019	0.83894					314
IWP_C	3.9822	0.79499					314
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	IWP_T	IWP_C					
IWP_T	1.000	0.409					
IWP_C	0.409	1.000					
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	4.042	3.982	4.102	0.120	1.030	0.007	2
Item Variances	0.668	0.632	0.704	0.072	1.114	0.003	2
Inter-Item Correlations	0.409	0.409	0.409	0.000	1.000	0.000	2
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
IWP_T	3.9822	0.632	0.409	0.167			
IWP_C	4.1019	0.704	0.409	0.167			
Scale Statistics							
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items			
	8.0841	1.881	1.37162	2			

OCB_I							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
		n	%				
Cases	Valid	314	100.0				
	Excluded ^a	0	0.0				
	Total	314	100.0				
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items				
	0.790	0.796	7				
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
E1. Help others who have been absent.	5.64	1.900	314				
E2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	6.18	1.449	314				
E3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	5.19	2.012	314				
E4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	6.03	1.730	314				
E5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	6.10	1.492	314				
E6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	5.51	1.795	314				
E7. Assist others with their duties.	5.80	1.633	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	E1. Help others who have been absent.	E2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other	of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or	up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	E7. Assist others with their duties.
E1. Help others who have been absent.	1.000	0.427	0.346	0.288	0.350	0.279	0.349
E2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	0.427	1.000	0.379	0.393	0.483	0.311	0.430
E3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	0.346	0.379	1.000	0.356	0.348	0.304	0.385
E4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	0.288	0.393	0.356	1.000	0.428	0.301	0.275
E5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	0.350	0.483	0.348	0.428	1.000	0.344	0.282
E6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	0.279	0.311	0.304	0.301	0.344	1.000	0.458
E7. Assist others with their duties.	0.349	0.430	0.385	0.275	0.282	0.458	1.000
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	5.777	5.191	6.175	0.984	1.190	0.126	7
Item Variances	2.981	2.100	4.046	1.946	1.927	0.505	7
Inter-Item Correlations	0.358	0.275	0.483	0.208	1.758	0.004	7
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
E1. Help others who have been absent.	34.79	48.011	0.491	0.259	0.769		
E2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	34.26	50.194	0.597	0.389	0.751		
E3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	35.25	46.365	0.516	0.273	0.765		
E4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	34.41	49.590	0.492	0.270	0.767		
E5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	34.34	50.737	0.545	0.342	0.759		
E6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	34.93	49.222	0.481	0.277	0.770		
E7. Assist others with their duties.	34.64	49.547	0.537	0.341	0.759		
Scale Statistics							
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items			
	40.44	64.560	8.035	7			

OCB_O								
Reliability								
Scale: ALL VARIABLES								
Case Processing Summary								
			n	%				
Cases	Valid		314	100.0				
	Excluded ^a		0	0.0				
	Total		314	100.0				
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.								
Reliability Statistics								
	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items					
	0.790	0.798	6					
Item Statistics								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n					
E10. Keep up with developments in the organisation.	5.40	2.011	314					
E12. Show pride when representing the organisation in public.	5.70	1.995	314					
E13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	5.37	2.092	314					
E14. Express loyalty toward the organisation.	6.26	1.595	314					
E15. Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	5.96	1.820	314					
E16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.	5.82	1.916	314					
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix								
	E10. Keep up with developments in the organisation.	E12. Show pride when representing the organisation in public.	Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the	E14. Express loyalty toward the organisation	E15. Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	Demonstrate concern about the image of the		
E10. Keep up with developments in the organisation.	1.000	0.281	0.311	0.353	0.373	0.389		
E12. Show pride when representing the organisation in public.	0.281	1.000	0.190	0.433	0.343	0.373		
E13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	0.311	0.190	1.000	0.411	0.436	0.436		
E14. Express loyalty toward the organisation.	0.353	0.433	0.411	1.000	0.627	0.482		
E15. Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	0.373	0.343	0.436	0.627	1.000	0.510		
E16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.	0.389	0.373	0.436	0.482	0.510	1.000		
Summary Item Statistics								
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items	
Item Means	5.753	5.373	6.258	0.885	1.165	0.114	6	
Item Variances	3.654	2.543	4.375	1.832	1.720	0.426	6	
Inter-Item Correlations	0.397	0.190	0.627	0.436	3.292	0.010	6	
Item-Total Statistics								
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted			
E10. Keep up with developments in the organisation.	29.11	47.256	0.465	0.220	0.777			
E12. Show pride when representing the organisation in public.	28.81	48.243	0.431	0.235	0.785			
E13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	29.14	46.027	0.485	0.277	0.773			
E14. Express loyalty toward the organisation.	28.26	47.278	0.654	0.479	0.738			
E15. Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	28.56	45.110	0.644	0.475	0.734			
E16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.	28.70	44.653	0.619	0.386	0.739			
Scale Statistics								
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items				
	34.52	64.161	8.010	6				

OCB							
Reliability							
Scale: ALL VARIABLES							
Case Processing Summary							
			n		%		
Cases	Valid		314		100.0		
	Excluded ^a		0		0.0		
	Total		314		100.0		
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.							
Reliability Statistics							
	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items				
	0.616	0.621	2				
Item Statistics							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	n				
OCB_I	5.7766	1.14784	314				
OCB_O	5.7527	1.33501	314				
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix							
	OCB_I	OCB_O					
OCB_I	1.000	0.450					
OCB_O	0.450	1.000					
Summary Item Statistics							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	5.765	5.753	5.777	0.024	1.004	0.000	2
Item Variances	1.550	1.318	1.782	0.465	1.353	0.108	2
Inter-Item Correlations	0.450	0.450	0.450	0.000	1.000	0.000	2
Item-Total Statistics							
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	d Item-Total Correlati	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		
OCB_I	5.7527	1.782	0.450	0.203			
OCB_O	5.7766	1.318	0.450	0.203			
Scale Statistics							
	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Items			
	11.5293	4.480	2.11668	2			

ANNEXURE 7: LANGUAGE EDITED CERTIFICATE

 <p>LINDA SCOTT DEVELOPMENTS PROMOTING LINGUISTIC & CULTURAL INCLUSIVITY</p>	<p>Dr Linda Scott 083 654 4156 lindascott1984@gmail.com www.justedit.co.za</p>
<p>15 Shannon Close The Circus Three Rivers 1929</p>	
<p><i>English language editing</i> SATI membership number: 1002595</p>	
<p>14 December 2023</p>	
<p>To whom it may concern</p>	
<p>This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the dissertation of</p>	
<p>Mkhambi S Tjeku</p>	
<p>for the degree</p>	
<p>Doctor of Literature and Philosophy</p>	
<p>entitled</p>	
<p><i>Psychological empowerment, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour as determinants of individual employee performance</i></p>	
<p>The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the document.</p>	
<p>Yours truly,</p>	
	
<p>Dr Linda Scott</p>	
<p>SATI membership number: 1002595 SACE membership number: 1299887 ORCID ID: 0000-0001-2011-0132 ETDP SETA Assessor/Moderator: JOR number: 46607</p>	<p>PhD, Language Director BA, Intercultural Communication BA (Hons) Language Practice MPDE and ACE</p>

ANNEXURE 8: TURNITIN ORIGINALITY REPORT

Psychological empowerment, work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and individual work performance

ORIGINALITY REPORT

30%	24%	23%	12%
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