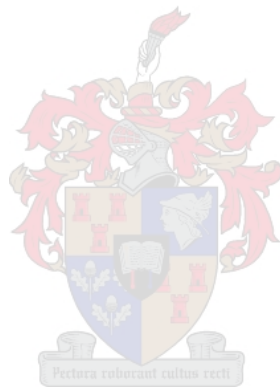


Exploring the Antecedents of Extra-role Behaviour: Becoming an Empowered Consultant

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Master of Commerce (Industrial Psychology) in the Faculty of Economic and
Management Sciences at Stellenbosch University

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DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third-party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

South African organisations are continuously challenged by fast-paced changes in their operating environments. Consulting firms are expected to be among the fastest adaptors, with their superior diagnostic and problem-solving skills. With the survival of organisations being threatened, consulting firms are presented with opportunities to provide innovative and forward-thinking solutions to their organisational clients. For them to prosper from these opportunities, they also must adapt to changing conditions and dynamically seek new competitive advantages in the value proposition that they offer to clients.

In order to consistently provide tailor-made solutions to clients' context-specific needs, consultants must deviate from prescribed roles and standard approaches. These necessary deviations, which enable consultants to add significant value to clients through a higher quality service, are referred to as extra-role behaviours. To unlock and elicit the potential value added by extra-role behaviours, organisations should appoint and develop leaders who enable consultants to engage in these behaviours. This study aims to explore the antecedents of extra-role behaviour, with a specific focus on the influence of empowering leadership and an empowered psychological state. The extra-role behaviours that are of interest in this study are organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and proactive behaviour (PB).

The present study aimed to answer the following research-initiating question – what causes *variance in the extra-role behaviours (i.e. OCB and PB) of South African consultants?* Subsequently, an in-depth analysis was conducted of the existing literature on OCB, PB, psychological empowerment, and empowering leadership. Hypotheses were formulated from the extensive literature review, substantiating the relationships between the constructs of interest.

An ex post facto correlational research design was used. A non-probability, snowball convenience sampling technique was utilised to recruit potential research participants (i.e. South African consultants who report to a manager). Quantitative data was collected by means of an online survey, which comprised the following measurements: a 24-item OCB scale, a 10-item taking charge PB questionnaire, a 12-item psychological empowerment scale, and a 38-item empowering leadership questionnaire (ELQ). The final sample comprised 174 responses. The empirical data was analysed by means of various statistical analyses.

A reliability analysis was performed to determine whether the measurements that were used to collect the empirical data were valid and reliable. Based on the results of the PB scale, additional analyses were conducted, and it was found that PB has a two-factor structure. The revised PB structure was utilised for the subsequent analyses. The reliability analysis results indicated that each measurement model reproduced the empirical data reasonably well. Further analyses were performed to determine the goodness of fit between the hypothesised structural model and the

empirical data. Path coefficients were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$) for the hypothesised positive influence of psychological empowerment on OCB, the hypothesised positive influence of psychological empowerment on PB, as well as the hypothesised positive influence of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment. Furthermore, the structural model explained a significant portion of variance in the extra-role behaviours of consultants. An additional mediation analysis confirmed that psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB, and also fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and PB ($p = .00$).

The present study has made a significant contribution to the available knowledge on extra-role behaviours in consultants, and thus offers important insight into South African industrial psychology.

OPSOMMING

Suid-Afrikaanse organisasies word voortdurend uitgedaag deur die vinnige veranderings in hulle bedryfsomgewings. Konsultasie firmas sal na verwagting een van die vinnigste aanpassers wees, met hul uitstekende diagnostiese en probleemoplossingsvaardighede. Met dié dat die oorlewing van organisasies bedreig word, word konsultasie firmas die geleentheid gebied om innoverende en vooruitdenkende oplossings aan hul organisatoriese kliënte te bied. Om voordeel te kan trek uit hierdie geleenthede, moet konsultasie firmas ook aanpas by veranderende omstandighede en op 'n dinamiese manier nuwe mededingende voordele soek in die waardeproposisie wat hulle aan kliënte bied.

Konsultante moet afwyk van voorgeskrewe rolle en standaardbenaderings om konsekwent pasgemaakte oplossings aan kliënte se konteksspesifieke behoeftes te bied. Hierdie noodsaaklike afwykings, wat konsultante in staat stel om deur middel van 'n diens van hoër gehalte aansienlike waarde aan kliënte te voeg, word na verwys as buite-rol gedrag. Om die potensiële waardetoevoeging van buite-rol gedrag te ontsluit en te ontlok, moet organisasies leiers aanstel en ontwikkel wat konsultante in staat stel om aan hierdie gedrag deel te neem. Hierdie studie het ten doel om die antesedente van buite-rol gedrag te ondersoek, met spesifieke fokus op die invloed van bemagtigende leierskap en 'n bemagtigde sielkundige toestand. Die buite-rol gedrag wat in hierdie studie van belang is, is *organisational citizenship behaviour* (OCB) en *proactive behaviour* (PB).

Die huidige studie het ten doel gehad om die volgende navorsingsvraag te beantwoord - wat veroorsaak variansie in die buite-rol gedrag (d.w.s., OCB en PB) van Suid-Afrikaanse konsultante? 'n Diepgaande analise is gedoen van die bestaande literatuur oor OCB, PB, sielkundige bemagtiging en bemagtigende leierskap. Op grond van hierdie oorsig van die bestaande literatuur is hipoteses geformuleer om die verwantskappe tussen die konstrakte te staaf.

'n Ex post facto korrelasie-navorsingsontwerp was gebruik. 'n Nie-waarskynlikheid-steekproefnemingstegniek is gebruik om potensiële deelnemers (d.w.s., Suid-Afrikaanse konsultante wat aan 'n bestuurder rapporteer) te werf. Kwantitatiewe data is deur middel van 'n webgebaseerde opname ingesamel, wat uit die volgende metings bestaan het: 'n 24-item OCB-skaal, 'n 10-item PB-vraelys, 'n 12-item sielkundige bemagtigingskaal, en 'n 38-item *empowering leadership questionnaire* (ELQ). Die finale steekproef het uit 174 respondente bestaan. Die empiriese data is aan 'n reeks statistiese analyses onderwerp.

'n Betroubaarheidsanalise is uitgevoer om te bepaal of die metings wat gebruik is om die empiriese data te versamel, geldig en betroubaar was. Op grond van die resultate van die PB-skaal is aanvullende ontledings uitgevoer, en daar is gevind dat die PB-skaal eerder 'n tweefaktorstruktuur het. Die hersiene tweefaktor-PB-struktuur is gebruik vir die daaropvolgende ontledings. Die resultate van die betroubaarheidsanalise het aangedui dat elke meetmodel het die empiriese data

bevredigend weerspieël. Dus is verdere ontledings uitgevoer om die geskiktheid tussen die hipotese strukturele model en die empiriese data te bepaal. Al die bane is statisties beduidend en betekenisvol bevind ($p < .001$) vir die hipotese positiewe invloed van sielkundige bemagtiging op OCB, die hipotese positiewe invloed van sielkundige bemagtiging op PB, sowel as die hipotese positiewe invloed van bemagtigende leierskap op sielkundige bemagtiging. Verder het die strukturele model 'n beduidende gedeelte van variansie in die buite-rol gedrag van konsultante verklaar. 'n Bykomende bemiddelingsanalise het bevestig dat sielkundige bemagtiging die verhouding tussen bemagtigende leierskap en OCB asook die verhouding tussen bemagtigende leierskap en PB ten volle bemiddel ($p = .00$).

Die studie het 'n betekenisvolle bydrae gemaak tot die bestaande kennis van buite-rol gedrag in konsultante, en bied dus aan Suid-Afrikaanse bedryfsielkundiges belangrike insigte.

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*“Take pride in how far you’ve come. Have faith in how far you can go.
But don’t forget to enjoy the journey!”*

– Michael Josephson

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

South African organisations operate in an environment characterised by high levels of competition, ever-changing customer demands, economic troughs, and political turmoil (Hong, Liao, Raub, & Han, 2016; Muduli, 2016). This hypercompetitive environment demands that organisations place a greater focus on certain aspects, such as service delivery, cost-effective practices, and closer relationships with customers (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Globalisation further demands flexibility and flat organisational structures to enable organisations to respond to the ever-changing customer demands and volatile market conditions (Ahearne et al., 2005; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Houghton & Yoho, 2005). From the aforementioned, it is evident that organisations in South Africa have no alternative but to make drastic changes and continuously adapt to the changes in the environment (Ahearne et al., 2005; Hong et al., 2016; Muduli, 2016).

It has become increasingly difficult for organisations to survive, let alone to succeed (Ahearne et al., 2005; Hong et al., 2016; Muduli, 2016). In order for organisations to react and respond to the external pressures, it is of crucial importance to understand the internal dynamics within the workplace. A significant part of this involves a deeper understanding of the people within the organisation. The field of industrial psychology developed from this need for understanding the human factor in the working environment.

1.2 Industrial Psychology

Industrial psychology is defined as the scientific study of human behaviour in the dynamic working environment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010; Van Vuuren, 2010). Van Zyl, Nel, Stander, and Rothmann (2016) describe this discipline as "... a specialised field of professional practice aimed at diagnosing, understanding, predicting, and managing human behaviour within work contexts" (p. 9). The discipline is concerned with identifying work-related problems and finding solutions, with the objective of enhancing and optimising the well-being and performance of organisations and their employees (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010; Van Zyl et al., 2016).

Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) have called for an increase in research in the field of industrial psychology to ensure practices that promote sustainable well-being, performance and growth for South African organisations. The field strives to provide rich insights into the optimal utilisation of an organisation's most valued asset – its human capital (De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Denton &

Vloeberghs, 2003). Industrial psychology has become an established discipline and profession in South Africa (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010; Van Vuuren, 2010; Van Zyl et al., 2016).

The proper and effective management of human capital can enable organisations to achieve long-term competitive advantages that are not only sustainable, but that can be strengthened over time (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003). The optimal utilisation of an organisation's human capital is not possible without thorough and accurate insights into the behaviours of employees. Industrial psychology provides this information and adds value through the development of interventions that could assist organisations to survive and thrive within the complex competitive working environment. It is for this reason that industrial psychology, as a field of study, adds unique value to South African organisations.

In essence, the aim of industrial psychology is to study the behaviour of the working man, with the purpose of adding value. It is important to note that, in order for the discipline to add value, continuous research must be conducted on real-world challenges that threaten the survival of South African organisations. This study aims to contribute to research in industrial psychology in order to facilitate the survival of organisations in South Africa.

The long-term survival of South African organisations is necessary for the economic stability and growth of the country. The organisations provide goods and services, as well as job opportunities. With the ever-changing and volatile global environment, it has become increasingly difficult for South African organisations to properly diagnose work-related problems and to respond promptly to arising challenges and opportunities. This difficulty provides a unique opportunity for consulting firms, whose primary function is to offer diagnostic expertise and problem-solving skills as a service to other organisations (Srinivasan, 2014).

1.3 The Importance of Consulting Firms

Consulting firms provide services to other organisations, also referred to as their clients. This puts consulting firms in a unique position to add value by influencing and assisting their clients in their struggle to overcome their challenges. Organisations contract consulting firms with the intention to utilise the consulting firm's expertise to overcome challenges and find solutions to complex organisational problems (Momparler, Carmona, & Lassala, 2015; Treichler, 2019). Moreover, organisations may choose to approach consulting firms to assist them in their pursuit of new opportunities (Momparler et al., 2015). Consulting firms provide this assistance and expertise in return for a service fee (Momparler et al., 2015).

The challenges, both internal and external, have driven organisations to seek aid and assistance. Consequently, the global consulting industry has experienced tremendous growth over the past few

years (Consultancy UK, n.d.). From the increased growth, it is evident that this mutually beneficial, exchange relationship between the consultancy firm and the client has become increasingly popular.

The primary goal of all organisations is to ensure the survival of the firm, and this is no different for South African consulting firms. The consulting landscape is extremely competitive and fragmented (Treichler, 2019). In order to survive, consulting firms need to attract, obtain and retain clients. Consulting firms' service offerings and client relationships need to supersede that of their competition. Consultants are the frontline employees employed by the consultancy firms to provide service to clients (Jauhari, Singh, & Kumar, 2017). These consultants are appointed to provide knowledgeable advice and expertise that is not easily acquired or readily available within an organisation (Momani, 2013; Momparler et al., 2015; Srinivasan, 2014). Although several factors contribute to satisfactory client relationships, the success of the interaction will depend primarily on the individual consultant's behaviour and ability. As stated by Treichler (2019), less emphasis is being placed on the variety of service offerings of consulting firms, but the emphasis is rather on the way in which consultants engage with and serve their organisational clients.

It is well established in research that a service employee's behaviour directly affects customer satisfaction and the perceptions of the organisation as a whole (Berry & Lampo, 2004; Crick & Spencer, 2011; Hartline, Maxham, & McKee, 2000; Jauhari et al., 2017; Lai, Lui, & Hon, 2014; Liao & Chuang, 2007; Winsted, 2000). This is truer for consultants who frequently engage with their clients during the provision of service. Consultants can therefore either add value to client organisations or diminish the service brand of the consulting firm (Jauhari et al., 2017; Raub & Robert, 2013; Singh, 2000). Due to the aforementioned, it is of vital importance for consultancy firms to focus on eliciting the consultant behaviours that will better serve the clients and, subsequently, the consultancy firm.

Organisations contract consultancy firms for various reasons, and the contextual factors are almost never the same. These different contextual factors create the need for consultants to deviate from narrow, formally prescribed roles and tasks, which are referred to as the in-role behaviours of a given job (Azmi, Desai, & Jayakrishnan, 2016; Raub & Robert, 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). By providing tailored services to their clients, consultants ensure that each client's unique context is taken into consideration during the consultation process (Hon, 2013; Lai et al., 2014). Furthermore, this enables consultants to accurately diagnose and solve clients' problems, as well as properly assist clients in pursuing market opportunities.

Given the atypical and complex nature of service delivery, consultants must use their own discretion and engage in behaviours that will not only satisfy individual client needs, but will lead to overall satisfactory service delivery for the consulting firm (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Frese & Fay, 2001; Humphrey & Ashforth, 1994; Jauhari et al., 2017; Lyu et al., 2016; Rank, Carsten, Unger, & Spector,

2007; Raub & Liao, 2012; Sonnentag, 2003; Treichler, 2019). These behaviours are known as extra-role behaviours.

1.4 The Extra-Role Behaviours of Consultants

Extra-role behaviours are known as positive discretionary behaviours that deviate from formally prescribed roles and tasks, which employees willingly engage in to benefit and better serve their organisations (Azmi et al., 2016; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Raub & Robert, 2010; Yoo, 2017). In contrast, in-role behaviours are required and expected by the organisation (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). If an employee does not engage in the required in-role behaviours, it may result in negative financial consequences for the employee (e.g. not qualifying for a merit increase), reprimand and punishment by the organisation (e.g. dereliction of duties), and/or the possibility of job loss (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

While in-role behaviours are evidently important, extra-role behaviours have been found to have unique and fundamentally different relationships with important employee-related and organisation-related outcomes that cannot be accounted for by in-role behaviours (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Ahearne, 1998). Accordingly, extra-role behaviours have been included in a broader definition of performance (MacKenzie et al., 1998). This inclusion fuelled the interest to explore performance-related behaviours that go beyond assigned roles and tasks (Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002). Of the several different types of extra-role behaviours (MacKenzie et al., 1998), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and proactive behaviour (PB) have been identified as hugely beneficial. These extra-role behaviours are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

It has been established through research that it is essential for consultants to engage in these extra-role behaviours to satisfy the ever-changing client demands (Bester, Stander, & Van Zyl, 2015; Cheong, Spain, Yammarino, & Yun, 2016; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2013; Stander & Rothmann, 2010). These behaviours are the 'little extras' and the 'spontaneous attention' that consultants direct at their clients during client-consultant interactions (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Raub & Robert, 2010). Although research findings support the importance of extra-role behaviours in consultants, not all consultants engage in these behaviours (Jauhari et al., 2017; Miles et al., 2002). It is therefore vital to ask the question: *why do some consultants engage in extra-role behaviours, while others do not?* This variance can possibly be addressed by investigating which antecedents within a working environment (i.e., consulting firms) are conducive to the promotion of extra-role behaviours in consultants.

Research has found that an empowering work environment promotes extra-role behaviours in employees (Ahearne et al., 2005; Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014; Huang, 2017; Muduli, 2016). Employee empowerment is commonly found in organisations where employees engage directly with

customers or clients, and where they need flexibility and freedom to adapt their behaviour (Burke, 2016). Empowering work environments enable employees to depart from standard and defined roles in a way that is beneficial to their organisation (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007). Service organisations, such as consulting firms, are increasingly shifting responsibility downwards and empowering their employees because they require their employees to go beyond the narrowly defined roles and work tasks to best service their clients (Crant, 2000; Jauhari et al., 2017; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Research strongly supports this top-down approach for ensuring that the necessary processes and structures that support employee empowerment are in place (Appelbaum, Karasek, Lapointe, & Quelch, 2015).

Leaders of organisations ultimately shape the structures and processes that will influence the working experience of employees (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Krishnan, 2012). They are in a unique position to influence, facilitate and mobilise employees to achieve organisational goals (Ahearne et al., 2005; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Erkutlu, 2012; Han, Seo, Yoon, & Yoon, 2016). Numerous studies have found that leaders constitute one of the key organisational agents that influence employee behaviour outcomes (Bass, 1985, 1999; Jauhari et al., 2017; Joo & Lim, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). Bearing in mind that extra-role behaviours are behavioural outcomes elicited from empowering organisational environments, it is evident that leaders should then be the frontrunners who drive empowerment in an organisation (Fuller, Marler, Hester, & Otondo, 2015; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Jha, 2014). Empowering leadership is a distinct leadership style that is dedicated to the empowerment of employees.

1.5 Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership can be described as an enabling leadership style in which the leader delegates authority, resources, and information to employees (Auh et al., 2014; De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). As a result, employees experience positive feelings of competence, control, and meaningfulness in their work (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011). This leadership style is conducive to flat and flexible structures, where decision-making power must be shifted downwards and shared with employees (Crant, 2000; Jauhari et al., 2017; Parker et al., 2006; Wat & Shaffer, 2005).

Empowering leaders increase employees' level of autonomy. This enables employees to proactively address service-related problems and allows them the freedom to make service decisions independently (Ahearne et al., 2005; Auh et al., 2014; Cheong et al., 2016; Jha, 2014; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Martin et al., 2013; Namasivayam, Guchait, & Lei, 2014; Raub & Robert, 2013; Spreitzer, 1995). Empowering leaders also initiate and employ practices in which employees are encouraged to participate in a manner that may improve the organisations' service offering and

provision (Ahearne et al., 2005; Auh et al., 2014; Cheong et al., 2016; Jha, 2014; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Martin et al., 2013; Namasivayam et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2013; Spreitzer, 1995). Moreover, the argument that empowering leaders create working environments in which employees want to engage in extra-role behaviours is substantiated by research (Ahearne et al., 2005; Auh et al., 2014; Huang, 2017; Muduli, 2016).

It is for this reason that this study regards empowering leadership as the appropriate leadership style to ensure that consultants engage in the necessary extra-role behaviours that will add value to their clients – viz. South African organisations. The aforementioned was tested with the aim of contributing to knowledge and insights within the domain of industrial psychology.

1.6 Research-initiating Question, Aims and Research Objectives

Given the argument, the following research-initiating question was formulated:

What causes variance in the extra-role behaviours (i.e. OCB and PB) of South African consultants?

Given the research-initiating question, the overarching aim of this study was to develop an extra-role behavioural model that accounts for variance in the extra-role behaviours of consultants in South African consultancy firms. The research-initiating question was addressed by attempting to achieve the following research objectives:

- To develop a conceptual model that depicts salient aspects of the variables proposed to explain variance in the complex psychological processes underlying extra-role behaviours;
- To test the hypothesised structural model fit;
- To evaluate the significance of the hypothesised paths in the model; and
- To highlight the results and managerial implications of the research findings.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to Research Approach

Traditional research in the fields of psychology and industrial psychology has made use of the disease model, with the aim of understanding and improving the behaviour of employees (Seligman, 2002). The disease model relies on a diagnosis of the problem of interest with the intention to repair the damage (Seligman, 2002). Seligman (2002) criticises this model's exclusive emphasis on the pathological dimensions, arguing that it neglects the idea of a fulfilled individual and a thriving community. In line with Seligman's (2002) criticisms, recent developments in the field of scientific research have placed more emphasis on a positive psychology model.

Positive psychology is the study of strengths, possibilities, potentials and virtues that enable individuals and communities to prosper and thrive (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). The shift in research towards a positivistic approach has shed more light on the building and fostering of positive outcomes that lead to health and vitality (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Sadegh, 2015). This focus on positive psychological outcomes has led to the emergence of the field of positive organisational behaviour (POB) (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). In essence, POB is positive psychology applied to the workplace (De Klerk & Stander, 2014).

Luthans (2002, p. 59) defines POB as "... the study and application of positively orientated human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace". From this definition, it is evident that a few criteria need to be met for constructs to be considered as POB. These criteria are as follows: a) the construct must be grounded in theory and research, b) the construct must have a valid measurement, c) the construct must be state-like or open to development, and d) the construct must have a positive impact on the performance of employees and organisations (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). During the literature review, it will become evident to the reader that this study's constructs of interest meet the aforementioned inclusion criteria.

This study takes a positive psychological approach to research and will subsequently contribute to the field of POB. The constructs of interest are discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

2.2 Consulting Firms – The Context of the Study

Organisations are finding it increasingly difficult to accurately diagnose and solve business-related problems, as well as to seize market opportunities. This is due to the atypical and ever-changing

nature of the modern working environment (Ahearne et al., 2005; Hong et al., 2016; Muduli, 2016). While these globalised conditions threaten the survival of many organisations, the consulting industry has experienced tremendous growth worldwide (Consultancy UK, n.d.). This growth can be attributed to the consultancy firms' ability to offer superior diagnostic and problem-solving skills, along with guidance and assistance in the pursuit of market opportunities. Through their service offering, consulting firms add value to organisations that operate in a hypercompetitive and volatile environment (Consultancy UK, n.d.; Srinivasan, 2014).

2.2.1 The consultation process

The basic business model of a third-party consultancy firm is to send an external specialist, i.e., a consultant, into the client's organisation for a finite period of time to recommend solutions for complex organisational problems (Block, 2011; Christensen, Wang, & Van Bever, 2013). The fresh outside perspective, free from internal agendas, is one of the key benefits of contracting a consulting firm (Srinivasan, 2014). This business model can also be referred to as a solution shop model, where the consulting firm is structured towards diagnosing and solving client problems that are of an undefined scope (Christensen et al., 2013). The added value is in the consultant's judgement and recommendation (Christensen et al., 2013). The success of this business model is largely dependent on the consulting firm's ability to provide custom solutions to complex problems.

Clients will always face unique and/or new challenges (Christensen et al., 2013). It therefore is of paramount importance for consulting firms to understand the evolving pressures on clients, and to be able to clarify and skilfully fulfil the clients' needs (Christensen et al., 2013). These critical consulting skills are reflected in the competent execution of the five consulting phases (Block, 2011). It is widely recognised that all consulting projects go through five distinct phases (Block, 2011), as depicted in Figure 2.1.

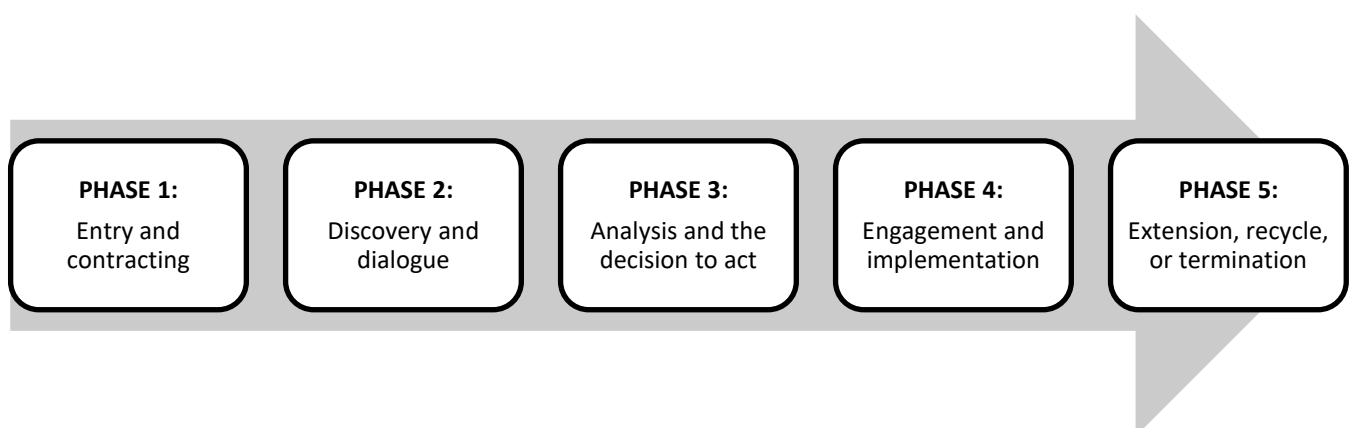


Figure 2.1. Phases of the consultation process. Adapted from Flawless consulting: A guide to getting your expertise used (p. 6-8), by P. Block, 2011, New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

As seen in Figure 2.1, the phases are presented in a sequential format (Kurpius, Fuqua, & Rozecki, 1993). The only common deviation from the sequence is recycling, which may occur between the other phases (Kurpius et al., 1993). According to Block (2011), it is imperative that all consulting projects progress through these phases to ensure superior client service.

The entry and contracting phase involve setting up the first meeting, exploring the problem, and dealing with the expectation of the client and the consultant (Block, 2011). Congruence between the consultant and the client's expectations and needs will lead to the building of rapport. Establishing rapport with the client is a crucial part of the consulting process, as it assists in gaining the client's trust and confidence (Vosburgh, 2007). Clients may have different preferences concerning the client-consultant interactions, and it is vital for the consultant to understand and adopt the client's preferred interpersonal style. Some clients might prefer informal interactions, closeness and friendliness, while others prefer professional and formal interactions (Karantinou & Hogg, 2001). Consultants need flexibility in their interpersonal styles so that they can engage with diverse clients in ways that facilitate the development of trust and good long-term relationships (Karantinou & Hogg, 2001).

The second phase, discovery and dialogue, is when the consultant and the client assess the problems and/or the opportunities (Block, 2011). According to Schein (1997), one of the essential principles of consulting is the consultant's ability to recognise and understand the reality of the current client system. Every contact session with the client should be used to identify diagnostic information that could shed light on the current state of the client system (Schein, 1997). An engaged period of exploratory inquiry is required for the consultant to accurately diagnose and satisfy the client's needs. Block (2011) outlines common ways in which consultants approach the discovery phase, i.e., the way consultants gather the necessary information to address the client's needs. These include, but are not limited to, the problem-based and asset/strength-based approaches (Block, 2011). A problem-based discovery approach comprises a diagnosis of the problem, generating a prognosis, and then offering a prescription/recommendation to the client. An asset/strength-based discovery approach focuses more on the client's possibilities and opportunities than problems. This approach considers what is working (the strengths and gifts) and seeks to assist the client in taking advantage of those assets. A hybrid approach is often utilised, as it allows the consultant to recommend comprehensive solutions that incorporate positive and negative aspects of the client's current system.

During the analysis and decision-to-act phase, the consultant and client will analyse what has been discovered and decide how to act on the information. During this phase, the consultant must present the diagnostic information to the client. This phase also involves the planning of the project, during which goals are set and the best-suited action plan is selected (Block, 2011). A consultant can present feedback or diagnostic information to a client in many ways. Block (2011) outlines five typical roles that a consultant can play when presenting information to a client, namely judge, jury,

prosecutor, defendant, and witness. First, a judge is there to interpret the law and/or corporate policy by informing the client when he/she is out of line. When the client makes a mistake, the judge consultant decides on the relevant penalty to rectify the transgression. These consultants are often feared and rarely approached voluntarily. Second, the jury consultant feels responsible for ultimately determining whether the client is wrong or right. This stance is very remote and parental. Third, a prosecutor is there to present evidence in a fool-proof package by developing irrefutable data and statistics. This approach often creates distance between the client and the consultant in that it carries the message that the success is ultimately in the hands of the consultant – not by means of a joint effort. Fourth, a defendant consultant feels as though he/she is on trial, by over-explaining and making promises to get more data, even when it is not possible. A consultant should never act as a defendant. If he/she is treated as such, the client is likely resisting the information being presented. Fifth, a witness has no direct stake in the outcome of the deliberations and is there to present accurate information. A witness consultant gives a clear, specific picture of what was observed. While a defendant role is usually discouraged, the chosen role's appropriateness will be determined by the situation. Block (2011), however, firmly recommends a witness consultant approach to presenting information to a client. He believes that the consultant's role should be one of a fair witness, where a mere presentation is being given of what has been discovered. It is very important for a consultant to choose the most appropriate role when presenting diagnostic information to a client, as it will influence the client's willingness to properly address the problem and/or pursue an opportunity. If the consultant conveys information to the client in the wrong manner, the value that could have been added to the client's firm diminishes. Flexibility and adaptability in consulting style are therefore essential.

The fourth phase, engagement and implementation, involves the implementation of the action plan that was developed during the previous phase. Clients often resist consultants when change has to be implemented (Block, 2011). This resistance is a predictable, natural reaction to the process of being helped and having to face difficult organisational change (Block, 2011). Resistance is regarded as a normal part of the process of implementing any type of change. It is important for consultants to note early signs of resistance and to adapt the consultancy style and/or the action plan accordingly. When the consultant skilfully acknowledges the client's resistance by reassuring the client that the change is necessary and in the client's best interest, this may increase the client's faith and confidence in the consultant's ability to produce satisfactory outcomes. A challenge that may confront third-party consultants is the separation between the discovery and the doing (Block, 2011). The action plan often has to be sold to the client and, when the necessary buy-in lacks, this can be experienced as frustrating by the consultant. The consultant must continuously assess the client's commitment to the project, and adjust the consultancy style as required, to ensure the highest return on investment for both parties.

The final phase is when the client and the consultant reflect on the implementation phase and decide whether to extend the project, recycle the project and discuss a new contract, or terminate further involvement altogether (Block, 2011). During this phase, it is important to get as much feedback from the client as possible. This serves as a learning opportunity for the consultant to gain useful inputs on how to improve his/her interpersonal style with the client for future projects. Moreover, the post-project feedback provides the consulting firm with the opportunity to reflect on performance and to evaluate the current service offering. The most important part of this phase is to ensure that the client is satisfied with the consulting firm's service. Satisfied clients will continue contracting the consulting firm and potentially increase the firm's client base through referral and word of mouth.

The consultant must ensure that each phase of the consulting process has been completed successfully. The consultant plays the most crucial role throughout the entire consultation process.

2.2.2 The role of the consultant

Consultants are considered to be the face of consulting firms because they engage and interact directly with existing and potential clients (DeVecchio, Deeter-Schmelz, & Anselmi, 2013; Lai et al., 2014; Momparler et al., 2015). A consultant is responsible for two key functions. Firstly, the consultant has to offer his/her diagnostic expertise and superior problem-solving skills as a service to clients. Secondly, the consultant must maintain satisfactory client relationships.

Clients contract consulting firms because they believe that the consultants can offer specialised knowledge and expertise that they themselves lack (Block, 2011). Clients therefore rely on the expertise and educational pedigrees of the consultants (Christensen et al., 2013). A consultant's knowledge includes the information that was acquired through education, training, experiences and judgement, which assists the consultant in delivering superior client service (Momparler et al., 2015; Morris & Empson, 1998). Both technical and interpersonal skills are of vital importance in consulting, as the technical skills will affect the "what" and the interpersonal skills will affect the "how" of the service (Vosburgh, 2007). A consultant's technical skills are also an important source of power and prestige that can build the consulting firm's brand and reputation (Morris & Empson, 1998). The consultant's knowledge, skills and professional competencies form the basis of the advisory service (Creplet, Dupouet, Kern, Mehmanpazir, & Munier, 2001; Momparler et al., 2015).

During the consulting process, the consultant must continuously assess the client's needs and engage in behaviours that will maintain satisfactory client relationships. To do this, a consultant must adopt the client's preferred interpersonal style and engage in behaviours that are congruent with the client's needs. For consultants to satisfy the different needs of diverse clients, they must engage in extra-role behaviours (Bester et al., 2015; Cheong et al., 2016; Griffin et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2013; Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

The consulting milieu is volatile and fluctuates with the economic tides. In order for consulting firms to survive and succeed, they need to attract, obtain and retain clients. As stated previously, consulting firms can achieve this by differentiating themselves on the basis of superior client service and good client relationships. The individual role of the consultant is vital to the provision of services and the maintenance of satisfactory client relationships. This is emphasised by the key role that consultants play throughout the entire consultation process. The manner in which consultants engage and interact with diverse clients can therefore be seen as the centrepiece of the consultation process.

2.3 Latent Variables

The purpose of a literature review is to provide an in-depth analysis of the existing literature on the latent variables of interest. This study's latent variables are two extra-role behaviours (viz., OCB and PB), psychological empowerment and empowering leadership. This analysis will allow for a more elaborate and theoretically sound representation of the research-initiating question.

2.3.1 Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Due to the ever-changing nature of the marketplace, there has been a growing need for employees to engage in broader work roles and to depart from merely carrying out their narrowly-defined core tasks (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Fay & Sonnentag, 2012; Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Joo & Ready, 2012; Maden, 2015; Qiu, Hu, Xu, & Li, 2015; Shin & Kim, 2015). The need for employees to engage in extra-role behaviours has directed researchers to study the construct of OCB. The term OCB was formally introduced by Bateman and Organ in 1983 and has since received considerable attention from organisational scholars (Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004).

2.3.1.1 Definition and multi-dimensionality of OCB

OCB comprises pro-social discretionary behaviours that promote the effective and smooth functioning of an organisation (Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). Organ (1988) identified three important characteristics of OCB, which he refers to as the nature of OCB. First, OCB refers to anything that employees choose to engage in that exceeds role requirements as stipulated in the formal job description - the behaviour is discretionary and voluntary (Organ, 1988). These patterns of behaviour are different from the required technical skills of the job (Han et al., 2016; Lin & Hsiao, 2014). Second, OCB is not formally recognised by the organisational reward system. The employee therefore engages in the behaviour of his/her own free will, with no expectation of gratuity (Organ, 1988). Third, OCB must promote and contribute to the effective functioning of an organisation (Organ,

1988). These characteristics describe the nature of OCB. Given the nature of OCB, the construct has been found to manifest in various observable behaviours.

OCB can manifest in a variety of observable behaviours, of which some are similar and can be grouped together. The groups of observable behaviours can be referred to as the dimensions of OCB. Organ (1988) identifies five dimensions of OCB, namely altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. These dimensions serve as descriptors of how OCB manifests within the workplace and the different ways in which it improves organisational effectiveness (Azmi et al., 2016; Organ, 1988).

The altruistic dimension refers to voluntary behaviours in which the employee would assist fellow employees with work-related tasks (Azmi et al., 2016; Bagraim & Werner, 2007). This dimension includes behaviours such as the sharing of information that colleagues might not have access to, as well as assisting a colleague with a difficult task. These behaviours will stimulate the formation of an organisational learning climate (Hsien, Pei, Yung, & Sheng, 2014; Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006; Sadegh, 2015). An organisational learning culture is vital for consulting firms, which are knowledge-based organisations. These firms place great value on the acquisition of new skills and the sharing of vital information. Furthermore, it is evident in the research that altruistic knowledge-sharing behaviours promote excellent client service (Han et al., 2016; Lin & Hsiao, 2014).

Courtesy behaviours are directed at the prevention of work-related problems, such as disputes with colleagues, clients, and other stakeholders (Bagraim & Werner, 2007; Kernodle & Noble, 2013). These considerate behaviours prevent problems from arising and/or attempt to resolve problems as soon as they occur (Azmi et al., 2016). Courteous employees would notify their colleagues and managers when engaging in activities that might affect others' or the organisation's overall performance. For example, the employee would inform others when he/she is running late for a meeting, or when an important deadline cannot be met (Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006). Courteous behaviour promotes effective problem solving and conflict resolution, which will assist the consultant during the consulting process.

Sportsmanship refers to an employee's willingness to tolerate less-than-ideal circumstances or uncontrollable inconveniences that are inherently part of the job (Allison, Voss, & Dryer, 2001; Kernodle & Noble, 2013; Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006). These behaviours are aimed at lifting the spirits of colleagues, as well as aiding with the acceptance of circumstances that could otherwise lead to grievances within the organisation. This behaviour can be of particular benefit to consulting firms, which are continuously challenged with polarised client needs and unpredictable work environments. Furthermore, sportsmanship behaviour may also assist consultants in overcoming resistance from clients.

The conscientious dimension refers to behaviour that far exceeds the minimal requirements of the job. These behaviours include arriving early at work, being willing to work overtime without expecting

remuneration, volunteering to do extra tasks, and making constructive suggestions to management (Kernodle & Noble, 2013; Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006; Tayyab, 2005). Conscientious employees are happy to dedicate extra time, money, and effort to ensure that the organisation achieves its goals. These behaviours also include the acceptance of and adherence to organisational rules and procedures (Azmi et al., 2016). These behaviours are important during consultation, as the consultant will be willing to go the extra mile to ensure satisfactory outcomes for the client.

Civic virtue refers to behaviours that are directed at protecting the organisation's image and ensuring that its best interests are met (Azmi et al., 2016; Kernodle & Noble, 2013; Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006). This would include attending social events to represent the company, providing inputs and making suggestions to better the organisation, participating in policy-making, and attending non-compulsory company meetings (Azmi et al., 2016; Kernodle & Noble, 2013; Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006). Employees engage in these selfless, discretionary behaviours to ensure that the organisation's image is protected in the public eye. When consultants engage in these behaviours, they ensure that they interact with clients in a manner that strengthens client relationships and builds the firm's reputation.

In essence, OCB is a multi-dimensional construct that manifests in organisationally beneficial pro-social behaviours.

2.3.1.2 The dark side of OCB

Research consistently reveals that OCB has tremendous benefits for an organisation and its employees. However, to gain a holistic perspective of OCB as an extra-role behaviour, the arguments critical of OCB need to be considered as well.

Individual performance can be divided into in-role and extra-role behaviours. Morrison (1994) argues that the line between in-role and extra-role work behaviours can become blurred, which may lead to role ambiguity, conflict between the leader and the employee, and enhanced employee stress levels (Bolino et al., 2004; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Conflict may arise when the employee chooses to engage in behaviours that are not required of him/her and, because of this, neglects the job duties as outlined in the job description. Stress levels may be enhanced by role ambiguity, where the expected and chosen work roles do not coincide. Additionally, escalating citizenship is a term used to describe employees who continuously feel the need to increase their acts of OCB (Bolino et al., 2004). This may further contribute to role overload, stress and frustration (Bolino et al., 2004). OCB may therefore increase role ambiguity and role overload, and enhance stress levels in employees (Bolino et al., 2004; Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Morrison, 1994).

Work may interfere with family life when employees go out of their way to perform work duties that are not required of them (Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). Work-family interference may result when the employee invests most of his/her time, energy and resources in work, which subsequently

leaves less time available for home and family lives (Bolino et al., 2004; Halbesleben et al., 2009). This could lead to neglect of family responsibilities and the deterioration of family relationships. This may negatively affect the employee's emotional well-being, and then negatively spill over to the employee's performance at work. Research reveals that OCB has been found to be positively related to work-family interference (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Daljeet, 2013).

Although OCB is not formally recognised by an organisation's reward system, leaders often consider such behaviours when evaluating employees' performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Organ, 1988). The evaluation of OCB in the performance review process could lead to a good soldier vs. good actor problem (Donia, Johns, & Raja, 2016). Good soldiers are the employees who engage in the true nature of OCB (Donia et al., 2016). Good actors are those employees who perform behaviours that appear very similar to OCB; however, the motive or intent is to receive recognition (Donia et al., 2016). That motive is contrary to the very nature of OCB. The challenge therefore arises for leaders to accurately distinguish between good soldiers and good actors. There is evidence that a self-serving orientation (i.e. good actor) can pay off in the form of personal advancement and promotions in the short run (Azmi et al., 2016). However, the research conducted by Donia and co-authors (2016) fortunately reveals that leaders know with relative accuracy when employees are engaging in OCB selflessly or self-servingly.

Despite the arguments against OCB, it is evident in research that organisations with higher levels of OCB continually outperform their competitors (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

2.3.1.3 The desirable outcomes of OCB

Many companies strive to enhance their levels of OCB, as this would lead to several desirable outcomes for the organisation and its employees (Azmi et al., 2016). The most relevant of the beneficial outcomes are outlined and discussed briefly below.

The attraction and retention of talented employees is an important function for any organisation. It is well established in research that OCB improves an organisation's ability to attract top candidates and retain valuable employees (Azmi et al., 2016; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Organisations with high levels of OCB establish positive, helping and learning cultures and, as a result, they are perceived as attractive employers (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Additionally, employees who display civic virtue and are conscientious speak favourably of their employers. This attracts talented candidates and helps to keep valuable members in the organisation. A consulting firm's success is largely dependent on the consultants' skills, knowledge and competencies. OCB therefore contributes to organisational success by attracting and retaining talented employees who can competently serve clients.

Change can be regarded as the only constant in today's unpredictable and turbulent working environment. When employees are resistant to change, it can be detrimental to any organisation's

competitiveness and, subsequently, its survival. A study conducted by Msweli-Mbanga and Potwana (2006) found support for a negative relationship between OCB and resistance to change. Hence, individuals who display high levels of OCB are more accepting and positive towards change (Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006). OCB has been found to enhance and strengthen team spirit, morale, and cohesion through sportsmanship and courtesy behaviours (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Organ, 1988, 1997; Organ et al., 2006; Yoo, 2017). Furthermore, research supports that OCB increases an organisation's ability to adapt to environmental changes (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This is of significant value to organisations that desire to create cultures in which employees accept and embrace an ever-changing work environment. Consultants who engage in OCB will thereby promote the acceptance of change and assist clients in overcoming their resistance to change.

OCB leads to improved service quality (Auh et al., 2014; Hui, Lam, & Schaubroeck, 2001; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). According to Auh and colleagues (2014), employees who engage in OCB are more willing to accommodate clients with varying needs. Additionally, these employees are willing to work after hours to continue to serve clients (Auh et al., 2014). The speedy and skilful completion of consulting projects is very important to consulting firms. If a client is displeased with the progression of a project, or if the client's needs are not properly met, it could result in the loss of a client and potential damage to the firm's reputation. Hence, when consultants engage in OCB, these risks are minimised.

OCB has been found to enhance and foster a knowledge-sharing culture within an organisation (Han et al., 2016; Lin & Hsiao, 2014). This is very valuable in organisations in which client satisfaction is dependent on front-line service employees. The deliberate sharing of knowledge will improve the workforce's shared client knowledge base and enable front-line service employees to better serve a diverse range of clients. Through this knowledge-sharing process and engagement in OCB, service quality is improved. Superior client service is extremely important in consulting firms, as it leads to increased client satisfaction and, subsequently, it ensures continued business.

Organisational resources are rarely in abundance and therefore must be used wisely and sparingly. OCB has been found to free up organisational resources for more productive purposes by reducing the unnecessary spending of scarce resources on maintenance/support functions (Azmi et al., 2016; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). For example, costly induction programmes and formal training can be sidestepped with new appointees being brought up to speed and assisted by altruistic co-workers who are willing to share their knowledge (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Han et al., 2016; Lin & Hsiao, 2014; Organ, 1997; Organ et al., 2006; Sadegh, 2015). In addition, the resources and time devoted to conflict management and resolution may decrease drastically due to OCB that builds interpersonal relationships and reduces inter-group conflict (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; George & Bettenhausen,

1990; Organ, 1997; Organ et al., 2006). Leaders are therefore able to devote the greater part of their valuable time and resources to the strategic imperatives of the organisation. What is more, consultants who engage in OCB during the consulting process will be able to assist clients in reducing unnecessary expenditure on maintenance/support functions.

In summary, OCB is a widely researched topic because it leads to numerous positive outcomes for organisations and their employees (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). OCB is desired by many organisations, but very few can foster it (Azmi et al., 2016). Leaders are encouraged to promote OCB within organisations, as it leads to organisational effectiveness and improved performance (Farh et al., 2004; Kernodle & Noble, 2013). Leaders can achieve this by fostering organisational environments in which employees will be willing and able to engage in OCB.

2.3.2 Proactive behaviour (PB)

There has been a growing need for organisations to create their futures proactively, given today's ever-changing and uncertain work environment (Fuller et al., 2015; Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker et al., 2006). This need has fuelled interest in the concept of PB (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Fay & Sonnentag, 2012). The passive compliance with instructions and routine tasks is no longer adequate to achieve superior client service (Jauhari et al., 2017; Strauss, Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2015). Service organisations have grown dependent on employees who initiate and drive meaningful change, as well as deal with challenges proactively (Campbell, 2000; Fuller et al., 2015; Grant, Gino, & Hoffman, 2011; Griffin et al., 2007).

PB is a challenging extra-role behaviour through which employees affect, change and improve their immediate work environments (Grant & Ashford, 2008). This behaviour is regarded as extra-role because it is discretionary, self-directed, self-initiated and typically falls beyond the routine core tasks of a specified job (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Fay & Sonnentag, 2012; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Instead of anticipating change only in an uncertain environment, PB is concerned with creating change that will ultimately improve the work environment (Bateman & Crant, 1999).

2.3.2.1 Conceptualisation of PB

There has been confusion in the proactivity literature on the appropriate conceptualisation of the PB construct (Sonnentag, 2003; Tornau & Frese, 2013). As a result, two theoretical clusters have developed – a personality cluster and a behavioural cluster (Sonnentag, 2003; Tornau & Frese, 2013). Since the two views have different conceptualisations of the construct, it is important to distinguish between them when conducting research on PB (Tornau & Frese, 2013).

Traditionally, researchers conceptualised PB as a relatively stable individual disposition (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Sonnentag, 2003). This research studied proactive personality and the individual

differences that affect the manifestation of PB (Tornau & Frese, 2013). PB concepts that stemmed from the personality cluster of research include proactive personality and personal initiative personality (Tornau & Frese, 2013).

The more recent stream of research studied the observable behavioural concepts of PB and focused on developing behavioural measures (Tornau & Frese, 2013). These findings revealed that PB also has a situational component and that it cannot be viewed as a completely stable trait (Sonnentag, 2003). Environmental factors therefore also predict proactive orientations and PB (Fay & Frese, 2001; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997; Sonnentag, 2003). PB concepts that stem from the behavioural cluster of research include taking charge and personal initiative behaviour (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Tornau & Frese, 2013).

This study conceptualises PB as a behavioural concept that can be influenced by situational antecedents. Hence, the study contributes to the behavioural cluster of proactivity literature.

2.3.2.2 Definition of PB

PB can be defined as self-initiated, anticipatory action that is aimed at changing oneself, changing the current situation for the better (i.e. improving), or intentionally creating new circumstances (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Bindl & Parker, 2011; Crant, 2000; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin et al., 2007; Mallin, Ragland, & Finkle, 2014). Proactive employees seek and identify opportunities that will improve the overall functioning of work. They then take persistent action to implement the necessary change.

When an employee engages in PB, he/she takes the initiative to alter conditions in an intended direction, as opposed to passively adapting to them (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Tummers, Kruijven, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, 2015). In order to understand PB, it is important to distinguish between adaptive behaviours and proactive behaviours (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004).

Adaptive behaviours are reactive responses to environmental changes and refer to the adjustments and modifications that individuals make in response to changes that have occurred (Griffin et al., 2007; Strauss et al., 2015). This would include, for example, adapting to new technology or adjusting to a firm restructure (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000; Strauss et al., 2015). PB, on the other hand, refers to individuals' active efforts to bring about change in the environment (Strauss et al., 2015). Instead of just reacting to changes that are beyond the individual's control, proactive individuals initiate and act as catalysts for discernible change (Grant, 2007). PB therefore differs from adaptive behaviour in two important ways, namely acting in advance and acting with intended impact in mind (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Grant, 2007; Grant & Ashford, 2008).

According to Strauss and colleagues' (2015) study, adaptivity and proactivity are distinct, but related, constructs. They propose that adaptivity likely precedes proactive initiatives. They are of the opinion that it is unlikely that one would fail to adapt to ongoing environmental changes (adaptivity), but then go about initiating changes in the future (proactivity) (Strauss et al., 2015). Based on this reasoning, a certain level of adaptive ability is therefore required to think and act proactively.

Today's organisations require employees to adapt to ongoing changes but, moreover, to contribute positively to organisational change by engaging in the process of proactivity (Ghitulescu, 2013; Strauss et al., 2015).

2.3.2.3 The proactivity process

Proactivity is a motivated, conscious and goal-driven process (Hong et al., 2016; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). This process consists of three key phases – anticipation, planning, and action (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

The first phase, anticipation, is concerned with acting in advance of a future circumstance (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Maden, 2015; Parker & Collins, 2010). This is the initial phase, during which proactive individuals think ahead and envision possible future circumstances and potential outcomes (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Shin, Ellinger, Mothersbaugh, & Reynolds, 2017; Weick & Roberts, 1993; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2008). PB is therefore future-focused (Frese & Fay, 2001; Shin et al., 2017). During this phase, the individual decides what the envisioned future or future outcome could look like (Frese & Fay, 2001; Shin et al., 2017). The benefits and costs of pursuing different future scenarios are weighed up and compared, before the individual moves on to the other phases of the proactivity process (Grant & Ashford, 2008). This risk analysis will dictate the planning and the kind of action, if any, that will be taken to initiate the planned change.

The second phase, planning, involves the development of action plans that will favourably influence the envisioned future (Grant & Ashford, 2008). During this preparation phase, the individual connects what was anticipated in the initial phase with concrete steps and plans (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Alternative strategies and backup plans are also developed to prepare the individual for possible failed attempts (Fiol & O'Connor, 2003; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008). It is of crucial importance for individuals to devote time and energy to this phase, as it will enable them to persevere and remain committed to their goals when initial courses of action might not succeed.

The third phase, action, is directed towards achieving the envisioned future (Grant & Ashford, 2008). This phase represents the behavioural manifestation of the first two psychological phases (Grant & Ashford, 2008). PB is about taking control and actively creating change (Maden, 2015; Parker & Collins, 2010; Shin et al., 2017; Tummers et al., 2015). The key components of a proactive individual

include being action-oriented, change-oriented and future-focused (Parker et al., 2010; Tornau & Frese, 2013). This phase of the proactivity process is outward-focused and observable, because the individual engages actively in PB (Bindl & Parker, 2011).

Bindl and Parker (2011) proposed a fourth phase in the proactivity process, which is known as the reflective phase. They view this phase as a retrospective thought process, in which individuals evaluate and consider the consequences that have resulted from their successful and unsuccessful action plans. For the purposes of this study, the reflective phase is viewed as a continuous feedback loop throughout the proactivity process. The proactivity process is therefore continuously influenced by successes and setbacks (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Even though employees engage in the proactivity process to improve the working environment, it may also result in unanticipated, undesirable outcomes. This can be referred to as the dark side of PB.

2.3.2.4 The dark side of PB

Proactivity for the sake of change is not always needed, nor is it welcomed (Sandberg, 2007). Engaging in PB can involve certain risks for the employee and the organisation (Bateman & Crant, 1999).

In a working environment that greatly values and encourages proactivity, employees may feel pressured to engage in PB. According to research, this pressure may lead to increased stress levels, role overload, work-family conflict and, eventually, decreased proactivity (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Grant & Ashford, 2008). These are some of the negative individual outcomes that may be associated with PB (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Alternatively, in a working environment that does not particularly value and appreciate proactivity, proactive employees may be met with resistance to change, resentment from colleagues, and may encounter increased interpersonal conflict (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Harvey, Blouin, & Stout, 2006; Shin et al., 2017). In this kind of work environment, managers may misinterpret PB in one of the following ways: as a challenge to the manager's authority; as the transgression of set boundaries and expectations; or as criticism of the manager's performance (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Raub & Robert, 2010). These interpretations may result in negative performance reviews, which could negatively impact promotion opportunities and rewards (Fuller et al., 2015). Furthermore, according to research, an employee will be less likely to engage in PB if he/she perceives that others will not view it favourably (Crant, 2000). This might discourage employees from engaging in PB.

Proactive employees have been found to neglect important core tasks when they prefer to rather engage in extra-role behaviours (Bateman & Crant, 1999). This kind of proactivity is

counterproductive, as it detracts from work that must be done. Additionally, proactive employees often have such a strong bias towards action and change that sufficient forethought and good execution are no longer prioritised (Bateman & Crant, 1999). This may result in the execution of unintegrated activities (Bateman & Crant, 1999). If PB is not assessed realistically against the organisation's mission and purpose, these unintegrated activities could result in underperformance and decreased productivity (Bateman & Crant, 1999).

PB may be motivated and driven by bad intentions (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Examples include premeditated corporate crimes (e.g., theft and fraud) and premeditated acts of aggression and violence (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). These behaviours are considered proactive in that they involve anticipation, planning (i.e., premeditation), and action (Grant & Ashford, 2008). This type of PB is often referred to as antisocial PB, because the behaviours are unethical, self-serving, and rebellious in nature (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Antisocial proactive employees may cause irreversible harm to colleagues and to entire organisations (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

In order to curb the dark side of PB, Bateman and Crant (1999) propose three management imperatives that should be implemented. To begin with, it is important for leaders to ensure that their employees know and understand the core activities for which they are personally responsible. The employee also needs to be held accountable for an acceptable standard of performance in the execution of core activities. Next, leaders must ensure that their employees have a clear understanding of the outer boundaries that affect and limit their everyday execution of tasks. This would include legislation, company policies and procedures, organisational norms, ethical boundaries, and disciplinary guidelines. Finally, leaders must encourage employees to engage in PB without crossing the outer boundaries, while still ensuring that they tend to their core activities. Hence, it is the leader's responsibility to provide the freedom, flexibility and guidance that will allow employees to work the space between specified core tasks and the prohibited outer boundaries.

These management imperatives may help organisation to reduce the dark sides of PB, and instead to foster the countless positive outcomes.

2.3.2.5 The desirable outcomes of PB

PB leads to beneficial outcomes for individuals, groups and organisations (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Bolino et al., 2004; Chan, 2006; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Because of its positive influence on organisations and their employees, it is regarded as an important determinant of overall organisational success (Crant, 2000; Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; Fuller et al., 2015; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin et al., 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010; Seiling, 2001; Shin & Kim, 2015).

Organisational performance is enhanced when employees engage in PB (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Bindl & Parker, 2011; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Hong et al., 2016). The enhanced performance is indicated by various performance indicators, such as increased profitability (Baer & Frese, 2003; Strauss et al., 2015), sales and entrepreneurial growth (Mallin, 2016; Mallin et al., 2014; Rauch & Frese, 2007; Tornau & Frese, 2013), and higher-rated task performance ratings (Thompson, 2005; Tornau & Frese, 2013; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). PB also contributes to more efficient and effective work environments by identifying and correcting problematic procedures and work methods (Frese & Fay, 2001; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Shin & Kim, 2015; Tornau & Frese, 2013). Consequently, proactivity is associated with superior organisational performance (Bindl & Parker, 2011).

Improved client service and lasting client relationships can be achieved through proactive interactions with clients (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Jauhari et al., 2017; Mallin, 2016). Proactive employees are willing to take the necessary actions that will solve client problems (Mallin, 2016; Sandberg, 2007). Proactive employees also anticipate potential client-related problems and then take the necessary steps to prevent service failure from occurring (Shin et al., 2017). This is done by proactively making suggestions and proposing solutions for potential client-related problems (Jauhari et al., 2017; Rank et al., 2007). Additionally, proactive employees attempt to resolve recurring service failure by applying unusual or nonstandard problem-solving methods (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990; Parker et al., 2006). Since proactive employees have a client-welfare mentality (Jauhari et al., 2017), they initiate more efforts and make use of additional resources to deliver exceptional client service (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Lyu et al., 2016). It is for this reason that proactive employee initiatives contribute to higher levels of client satisfaction and client delight (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Wels-Lips, Van der Ven, & Pieters, 1998).

Proactive employees engage in behaviours that increase knowledge-sharing among co-workers (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Jauhari et al., 2017). Proactive knowledge-sharing involves the active dissemination of tacit, on-the-job information to better equip co-workers for future service delivery (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Jauhari et al., 2017; Rank et al., 2007). The collaborative sharing of client-specific information enables consultants to optimally serve clients, because they are better equipped to deal with different client-interaction scenarios (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Sergeant & Frenkel, 2000). This frequent exchange of client-related knowledge serves as peer-based learning (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Scott & Bruce, 1994). The sharing of knowledge is critical for consultants to satisfy different client needs (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Jauhari et al., 2017).

Firms are often expected to shape and lead the competitive landscape. PB can instil innovative organisational cultures that enable firms to achieve this (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Huang, 2017; Tornau & Frese, 2013). An innovative culture may result in: new products, services and processes

(Bateman & Crant, 1999); improved work procedures (Tummers et al., 2015); the reduction of barriers and resistance to change (Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke, 2006; Tornau & Frese, 2013; Tummers et al., 2015); and the development of new markets based on anticipated client needs (Sandberg, 2007). PB is therefore a crucial element in the entire innovation process – influencing the transition from idea generation to idea implementation (Frese & Fay, 2001; Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004; Strauss et al., 2015; Tornau & Frese, 2013). High levels of proactivity are of great benefit in uncertain work environments that are faced with constant change (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007; Tummers et al., 2015).

On the individual level, proactivity has been found to contribute to career advancement and overall career success in numerous ways (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008). PB can contribute to career advancement and career success through positive evaluations by peers and managers (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant et al., 2009; Tornau & Frese, 2013). These positive evaluations may result in promotions (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001), monetary rewards (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant et al., 2009), and better work relationships (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Fuller et al., 2015; Parker & Collins, 2010). In addition, proactive employees' career success may result from their engagement in career-management activities (Crant, 2000), proactive self-development (Jauhari et al., 2017), and their ability to craft better jobs for themselves (Bindl & Parker, 2011). This proactive crafting ability also contributes to feelings of personal control (Crant, 2000; Fuller et al., 2015), job satisfaction (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Mallin et al., 2014; Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010), competence (Fay & Sonnentag, 2012), and overall positive work attitudes (Crant, 2000; Fuller et al., 2015; Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Based on the aforementioned, it is evident that PB benefits employees who engage in it and the organisations to which the employees belong. These beneficial PB have been studied under different labels (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). For the purposes of this study, taking charge was identified as a form of PB that is of particular benefit to consulting firms.

2.3.2.6 Taking charge PB

Taking charge can be defined as "... voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). Morrison and Phelps (1999) introduced this concept, which conceptualises an employee's willingness to challenge the status quo and to bring about constructive change in an organisation (Crant, 2000).

Taking charge behaviours may stem from a desire to restructure and optimise organisational systems (Thomas et al., 2010), or they can be triggered by discontentment with current practices (Li,

Chiaburu, & Kirkman, 2017; Zhou & George, 2001). These desires or triggers can be present in the employer organisation, or in the client's organisation.

Consultants must engage in taking charge behaviours to benefit the consulting firm. These are employees who proactively take charge, identify redundant or unnecessary procedures in the consulting firm, and then engage in actions that will remove these procedures (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Li et al., 2017; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). These employees may also challenge counterproductive routines and company rules (De Jong & De Ruyter, 2004; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Alternatively, the proactive consultant could introduce new approaches to work methods to improve efficiency (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Li et al., 2017; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Consultants are in unique positions where they can directly solicit feedback and suggestions from clients, and then communicate this information to their leaders. This will provide the consulting firm with unique information on how to improve their service delivery. What is more, consultants would be responsible for the active implementation of changes within the consulting firm. If consultants are not change-oriented and future-focused, they may resist change or neglect to persistently see the process through. The common underlying theme is the proactive employee's inclination to take charge of the situation, challenge the status quo, and initiate change.

Most importantly, consultants must also engage in taking charge PB to satisfy clients' needs. The taking charge behaviours should be engaged in throughout the consulting process to detect problems, identify opportunities, and to make valuable suggestions to clients. These behaviours are necessary for the consultant to add value to the client's organisation. This will influence overall client service and, subsequently, client satisfaction and client relationships. It therefore is valuable to study how taking charge PB can be fostered in consulting firms.

2.3.2.7 Taking charge PB and OCB

To date, OCB has been the most researched extra-role behaviour (Crant, 2000). Although it offers many benefits to organisations, Morrison and Phelps (1999) strongly believe that OCB is not sufficient to ensure the continued viability of an organisation. Accordingly, they introduced the concept of taking charge PB (Crant, 2000).

Taking charge PB and OCB are both discretionary extra-role behaviours (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Even though they are related, they remain distinct constructs. Taking charge PB is proactive, anticipatory and future-oriented, whereas OCB is more reactive and present-focused (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Taking charge PB challenges the status quo and drives change, while OCB is mostly concerned with facilitating change and ensuring that the organisation runs smoothly. Despite their differences, both constructs offer unique benefits to organisations that operate in challenging and ever-changing work environments. It is for this reason that both OCB and taking charge PB are included in this study.

Consulting firms should encourage their employees to engage in the extra-role behaviours of OCB and taking charge PB, as these will enable them to better serve their clients. The empowerment of consultants will enable them to take charge of their work environments, to improve the consulting firm, and to add value to their clients' organisations.

Consulting firms must establish and foster working environments in which leaders empower consultants to go above and beyond what is required of them. It is important to note, however, that empowering leadership behaviours and practices are not sufficient to realise the benefits of an empowered workforce – a cognitive motivational state of empowerment is necessary (Boudrias, Gaudreau, Savoie, & Morin, 2009; Menon, 2001; Raub & Robert, 2007; Raub & Robert, 2010; Spreitzer, 1995).

2.3.3 Psychological empowerment

In order to understand the manner in which empowering leadership influences employees' behaviours, the crucial role of psychological empowerment must be discussed. In essence, psychological empowerment reflects the psychological reactions to empowering practices and leader-empowering behaviours (Raub & Robert, 2010; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Psychological empowerment acts as a mediating mechanism through which empowering leadership influences employee behaviours (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Menon (2001) proposes that this is because followers must experience empowerment on a psychological level for empowering leadership to have its anticipated positive impact (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). It is for this reason that researchers have referred to psychological empowerment as the pivotal mindset that is required for empowering practices to generate valuable employee behaviours (Boudrias et al., 2009).

Empowerment was originally conceptualised as the sharing of power (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Conger and Kanungo (1988) argue that this conceptualisation is incomplete, as it fails to acknowledge the impact that power sharing has on employees' psychological and motivational levels (Srivastava et al., 2006). They view empowerment as a process of enhancing and enabling, which is much more than the mere sharing of power (Appelbaum, Karasek, Lapointe, & Quelch, 2014).

Modern views of empowerment involve the implementation of organisational practices that increase employees' sense of control and feelings of self-efficacy, while at the same time removing practices that foster a sense of powerlessness (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Hakimi, Van Knippenberg, & Giessner, 2010). As a result, employees will experience a state of empowerment that is known as psychological empowerment.

2.3.3.1 Definition and dimensionality of psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment can be defined as a set of motivational cognitions that reflect an employee's active orientation towards work (Joo & Lim, 2013; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). According to Spreitzer (1995), psychological empowerment is a single construct that manifests in four task-related dimensions. These dimensions are meaning, competence, self-determination/choice, and impact (Appelbaum et al., 2014; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000; Tuuli & Rowlinson, 2009). Together, these four dimensions form the construct of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).

Meaning refers to the harmony between an employee's personal value system and the work or organisational values (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). This dimension describes the extent to which an employee is fulfilled in the job. It also reflects the individual's intrinsic interest in a task (Sadegh, 2015). If an employee's personal interests and values coincide with the predominant activities of a given job, then the employee will experience the work activities as meaningful and fulfilling. Personal and organisational values therefore play a key role in determining the fit between the employee and the organisation. A good person-job fit may result in increased motivation, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (Berings, De Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004; Majid & Cohen, 2015). An employee can only be psychologically empowered if he/she experiences meaning and fulfilment in the job.

The competence dimension refers to the confidence and belief that an employee possesses the skill set that is required to complete work tasks successfully (Tuuli & Rowlinson, 2009). Bandura's (1982) concept of self-efficacy is related to the competence dimension of psychological empowerment. According to him, self-efficacy can be defined as the judgement of how well one can execute courses of action that are required to deal with expected situations. An employee will only feel psychologically empowered if he/she feels competent in carrying out the job duties and tasks assigned to the position. This confidence stems from the certainty that the employee has the ability to perform a variety of tasks. Leaders play a crucial role in ensuring that employees possess the required skill set to perform, as well as reassuring employees of their competencies and capabilities to execute tasks successfully.

Self-determination/choice can be defined as a sense of autonomy in initiating and regulating work (Sadegh, 2015). This dimension refers to an employee's perceived freedom to determine how work activities will be performed (Tuuli & Rowlinson, 2009). Psychological empowerment is enhanced when employees are provided with greater flexibility and freedom to make work-related decisions independently (Greasley et al., 2005). When this dimension of psychological empowerment is stimulated, employees will perceive that they can exercise decisive action and determine how to go about their everyday tasks. According to Appelbaum and colleagues (2014), employees will likely

accept more responsibility for work-related outcomes if they perceive that decisive action is encouraged and supported by management.

Impact can be described as an employee's ability to influence administrative, operational, and strategic decisions and outcomes within the organisation (Ashforth, 1989; Spreitzer, 1997). Hence, this dimension refers to an employee's perception of being able to influence the system in which the job is ingrained. This belief has been found to enhance an employee's internal motivation to do the job (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Furthermore, it enables employees to use their own judgement in the interest of the organisation (Kasekende, Munene, Otengei, & Ntayi, 2016; Rioux, Bernthal, & Wellins, 2000). A psychologically empowered employee will therefore feel that he/she can influence the working environment.

The aforementioned dimensions will only lead to enhanced levels of psychological empowerment if the dimensions are enhanced simultaneously and reinforced by each other (Appelbaum et al., 2014; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Spreitzer, 1995). It is well established in research that the work environment ultimately shapes motivational cognitions (Joo & Lim, 2013; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). This is significant in that the entire working environment has to contribute to empowerment on a structural level (i.e., work practices and systems) so that it can reinforce and enhance empowerment on a psychological level. Employees can only experience heightened psychological empowerment if the work environment enables them to experience meaning in their jobs, feel competent in their jobs, experience freedom and autonomy in making work-related decisions, and influence and alter their immediate working environment (Javed, Khan, Bashir, & Arjoon, 2017; Spreitzer, 1997; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Tuuli & Rowlinson, 2009).

When employees experience a state of enhanced psychological empowerment, they are motivated to engage in desirable behaviours that contribute to positive outcomes for the organisation and its employees. This is because psychological empowerment acts as a unique source of internal autonomous motivation (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Farzaneh, Farashah, & Kazemi, 2014; Raub & Robert, 2010).

2.3.3.2 Psychological empowerment as a source of autonomous motivation

Internal autonomous motivation is a unique source of motivation in that it drives behaviour that is voluntary and aligned with one's perception of self (DelVecchio et al., 2013; Raub & Robert, 2010). Employees perceive that they have a sense of choice when they engage in these behaviours (DelVecchio et al., 2013; Raub & Robert, 2010). According to Bindl and Parker (2011), psychological empowerment motivates employees by means of two fundamental cognitive-motivational processes, namely "can-do" motivation and "reason-to" motivation (Jauhari et al., 2017). The "can-do" motivation refers to one's perceived capability to engage in certain behaviour, while the "reason-to" motivation reflects one's desire to engage in certain behaviour (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Jauhari et al., 2017).

The psychological dimensions of competence, impact and self-determination/choice contribute and develop the “can-do” motivation (Jauhari et al., 2017). Employees need to believe that they can and are able to engage in certain behaviours and actions (Hong et al., 2016; Parker et al., 2010). Perceived competence would increase the employee’s belief that he/she has the ability and required competencies to perform certain tasks (Bandura, 1986; Hong et al., 2016). Perceived impact would enable the employee to feel that his/her personal contribution is considered, and may make a difference (Hong et al., 2016). A sense of self-determination/choice enables the employee to believe that he/she has control over the situation and can determine the course of action (Hong et al., 2016). An increase in these three psychological empowerment dimensions will lead to a valuable source of “can-do” autonomous motivation that may motivate employees to engage in desirable behaviours.

Even though “can-do” motivation is necessary, employees need to have compelling reasons to want to engage in desirable behaviours, such as extra-role behaviours (Hong et al., 2016; Parker et al., 2010). The psychological dimension of meaning contributes to the “reason-to” motivation (Jauhari et al., 2017). Being interested in or finding meaning in a work activity can serve as a reason to engage in self-starting actions, and to persevere in the activities when faced with challenges (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hong et al., 2016; Jauhari et al., 2017).

Psychological empowerment, as an active motivational orientation, is essential for employees to engage and persist in desirable behaviours, especially the behaviours that go above and beyond formal job descriptions (Auh et al., 2014; De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Ritter, Venkatraman, & Schlauch, 2014). Raub and Robert (2010) suggest that psychological empowerment fills the motivational void that is required for employees to pursue and persevere in their extra-role behaviours. If an employee’s level of psychological empowerment is low, he or she will unlikely engage in challenging behaviours that involve possible risk and potential violation of organisational norms (Raub & Robert, 2010).

2.3.3.3 Summary of psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment is a vital part of this study, as it reflects the psychological reactions to employee empowerment (Raub & Robert, 2010; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). More importantly, psychological empowerment is a conceptualisation of the mechanism that underlies empowerment, and thus explains how empowering leadership influences employees’ behaviours. A workforce’s level of psychological empowerment is therefore indicative of whether empowering work practices are indeed empowering employees.

Employee empowerment will not bear fruit if it is imposed on employees (Raub & Robert, 2007, 2013; Spreitzer, 1995). Instead, employees must perceive and internalise it – become psychologically empowered (Raub & Robert, 2007, 2013; Spreitzer, 1995). If organisational leaders wish to achieve the desirable outcomes that stem from an empowered state of being, it is of crucial

importance for them to ensure that the working environment enhances employees' psychological empowerment.

2.3.4 Empowering leadership

Empowering leadership is regarded as one of the most relevant and most effective leadership styles in service industries (Ahearne et al., 2005; Auh et al., 2014). This leadership style is built on the premise that employees should be provided with resources, support and autonomy so that they can achieve and sustain optimal functioning in an organisation (Ahearne et al., 2005; Fong & Snape, 2015).

An empowering leader acts in a facilitative and enabling capacity within an organisation (Hakimi et al., 2010). It is well established that empowering leaders encourage their followers to take control of their work environment and work-related behaviours (Srivastava et al., 2006). Arnold and co-authors (2000) believe that this is the fundamental difference between traditional leaders and empowering leaders – a shift in the source of control from the leaders to the employees. In essence, these leaders support, guide and lead others so that they can lead themselves (Arnold et al., 2000; Manz & Sims, 1987).

2.3.4.1 Five-factor conceptualisation of empowering leadership

Empowering leaders engage in distinct behaviours to shift control from themselves to their employees. Arnold and co-authors (2000) introduced a five-factor conceptualisation of empowering leadership to highlight the defining characteristics of the leadership style. Based on this conceptualisation, empowering leadership consists of five sub-dimensions, namely leading by example, participative decision-making, coaching, informing, and showing concern.

Leading by example refers to a leader's ability to exhibit appropriate organisational and affiliative social behaviours that employees can emulate (Raub & Robert, 2010). The leader acts as a behavioural model in that he/she exhibits organisationally desired behaviours that are expected of all employees (Raub & Robert, 2010). This behavioural dimension includes an element of integrity, where leaders "walk the talk" before they expect others to follow their example. In consulting firms, leaders often engage with clients from a senior consultant capacity. The manner in which they engage with potential and existing clients will be indicative of how they want their subordinates to interact with clients.

Participative decision-making takes place when leaders rely on the inputs of team members and employees when making important decisions and solving problems (Srivastava et al., 2006). Participation is highly encouraged and valued in an empowering work environment, because it demonstrates to employees that they can influence the organisational processes and outcomes

(Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Jones, Katak, Futrell, & Johnston, 1996). According to Ritter and co-authors (2014), perceptions of leader fairness will improve when employees are asked to participate in the decision-making process of important organisational decisions. Empowering leaders encourage employees to solve problems together, thereby creating opportunities for collaboration and the sharing of knowledge (Arnold et al., 2000; Raub & Robert, 2010). This will encourage consultants to tap into the knowledge and expertise of their colleagues when necessary. Additionally, employee participation in problem solving promotes self-directed decision-making and, subsequently, independent thinking in employees (Carson & King, 2005; De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Hakimi et al., 2010; Kim, Losekoot, & Milne, 2013). This is very important for third-party consulting, where consultants are required to assist clients in a relatively independent capacity. Participation also helps employees to feel entrusted with genuine responsibility and accountability for the company's operations and objectives (Auh et al., 2014; Carson & King, 2005; Kim et al., 2013). This will encourage consultants to voice their opinions about the organisation's current systems, processes and service offering.

Coaching is a facilitative leadership behaviour in which a leader creates growth, training, and developmental opportunities for employees (De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000; Pearce & Sims, 2002). This will increase employees' competencies and skills, which will subsequently improve their performance (Hakimi et al., 2010; Srivastava et al., 2006). In a coaching capacity, empowering leaders provide guidance and clarification, positively reinforce correct behaviour, give feedback on performance, encourage calculated risk-taking, and provide employees with enough room to learn from their mistakes (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Hakimi et al., 2010; Jones et al., 1996; Raub & Robert, 2010). Coaching also signals to employees that the organisation is willing to invest in employees' long-term careers (Maden, 2015; Schwochau, Delaney, Jarley, & Fiorito, 1997). Coaching is an important element of a consulting firm. Consultants need to be provided with growth and developmental opportunities so that they can improve their skills and competencies. Coaching also provides consultants with the opportunities to seek advice from leaders, whilst taking personal ownership of the solving of problems.

Informing leadership behaviours refer to frequent and timely communication with employees to ensure that they are informed of important job-related and/or organisation-related information (Arnold et al., 2000; Maden, 2015; Wood & Wall, 2007). This form of communication involves the sharing of knowledge, wisdom, and task-relevant information (Arnold et al., 2000; Maden, 2015; Raub & Robert, 2010; Wood & Wall, 2007). This enhances employees' knowledge base and expertise. Empowering leaders inform their employees of any organisational or market changes that may affect the way tasks are executed (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Jones et al., 1996). Informing also involves the sharing of client-related information, client feedback, and business results (Arnold et al., 2000; Maden, 2015; Raub & Robert, 2010; Wood & Wall, 2007). The accessibility of information has been identified as an important requirement for frontline employees, such as

consultants, to be effective. The frequent sharing of information is a way of delegating authority, which allows employees to maintain satisfactory performance levels during times of uncertainty and change (Arnold et al., 2000; Chughtai & Buckley, 2008; De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000; Maden, 2015; Pearce & Sims, 2002). This is of paramount importance, given the hypercompetitive and turbulent environment in which South African consulting firms operate.

Showing concern for others refers to a leader's genuine care for employees' well-being (Srivastava et al., 2006). A typical empowering leader-employee relationship is characterised by trust, respect and support (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Srivastava et al., 2006). According to research, when a leader shows genuine concern, he/she can positively influence employees' behaviours, attitudes, and work lives (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Jones et al., 1996). From a reciprocal perspective, employees may be more willing to engage in behaviours that are valued by the leader if they perceive the leader to be caring, supportive and trustworthy. In addition, when employees see their leaders showing genuine concern for others, they may be more willing to show genuine concerns for their clients. This is very important, as Block (2011) believes that consulting can only be done well if the consultant exhibits genuine care for the client.

The five-factor conceptualisation of empowering leadership was utilised for the purposes of this study. The aforementioned empowering behaviours are therefore regarded as distinct characteristics of an empowering leader. While empowering leadership behaviours are generally beneficial to organisations and their employees, the empowering literature reveals a dark side to this leadership style.

2.3.4.2 The dark side of empowering leadership

The too-much-of-a-good-thing (TMGT) effect comes about when a generally beneficial antecedent reaches an inflection point after which its impact on desired outcomes becomes undesirable (Lee, Cheong, Kim, & Yun, 2017; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). The relationships are no longer linear and positive (Lee et al., 2017; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). Beyond the inflection point, the generally beneficial antecedent may lead to wastage, with no additional value being added, or it may even lead to undesirable outcomes (Lee et al., 2017; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). The TMGT effect can also be explained in terms of enabling and burdening effects. The antecedent has an enabling effect (adding value) until the inflection point has been reached, after which the presence of the variable turns into a burdening effect (diminishing value) (Cheong et al., 2016). As soon as the TMGT/burdening effect occurs, the positive effect of the antecedent diminishes, often beyond repair (Cheong et al., 2016). These contrasting notions are also applicable to the construct of empowering leadership (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Wang & Lee, 2009).

A curvilinear relationship has been found to exist between empowering leadership and some desirable outcomes (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Wang & Lee, 2009). During the enabling

process, empowering leadership would enhance desirable employee outcomes. However, once the inflection point has been reached, the burdening process sets in and the positive effects may diminish. What is more, the presence of empowering leadership may then contribute to other undesirable outcomes on an organisational and individual level. The undesirable outcomes that are relevant to this study will be discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

Empowering leadership enhances employees' overall level of autonomy (Ahearne et al., 2005; Fong & Snape, 2015). Even though this promotes a variety of desirable outcomes, such as creativity and accountability, it may lead to negative and inhibiting outcomes when individual autonomy is too high (Cheong et al., 2016; Chua & Iyengar, 2011; Langfred & Moya, 2004; Lee et al., 2017; Wang & Lee, 2009). This effect is often referred to as the cost of autonomy (Cheong et al., 2016; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Langfred & Moya, 2004; Lee et al., 2017; Wang & Lee, 2009). Some of the undesirable outcomes that may result due to the cost of autonomy include heightened job-induced tension, increased role and work stress, and lack of direction (Cheong et al., 2016; Kahn et al., 1964; Langfred & Moya, 2004; Lee et al., 2017; Wang & Lee, 2009).

Job-induced tension refers to feelings of strain and nervousness that are associated with one's job (Cheong et al., 2016). Job-induced tension may increase when leaders depend too greatly on employees' inputs (Cheong et al., 2016). This places additional pressure on employees to participate in and to make valuable contributions during decision-making processes. Furthermore, when there is an over-reliance on employees to solve their own problems, it may lead to heightened job-induced tension (Cheong et al., 2016). In the absence of collaborative problem-solving and management inputs, employees can only rely on their own experience and competence to solve problems. This can lead to additional strain and anxiety. When individual autonomy is too high and leader support and decisiveness are lacking, employees may experience heightened job-induced tension. Consultants can experience heightened job-induced tension when they feel solely responsible for the solving of complex client-related problems.

Employees may experience increased role and work stress when leaders increase individual autonomy by means of delegating extra tasks and responsibilities. Role theory explains that employees' role perceptions may become blurred and unclear when leaders with higher positional power share and delegate additional tasks and responsibilities to them (Cheong et al., 2016; Kahn et al., 1964). When a leader shares and delegates additional tasks, it may be interpreted by the employee as an abdication of the leader's duties (Lee et al., 2017). Additionally, when a leader increases an employee's responsibilities, it may be interpreted as a way for the leader to avoid potential criticism in the case of failure (Lee et al., 2017). These negative interpretations may interfere with the employee's previously constructed role perceptions (of the self and of the leader) and, subsequently, lead to uncertainty and increased role stress (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970). If the employee's workload is increased because of the

additional tasks and responsibilities, it may further lead to increased work stress (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017).

Employees may experience a lack of direction when leaders provide too much individual autonomy (Cheong et al., 2016; Langfred & Moye, 2004; Wang & Lee, 2009). In the absence of leadership support and coaching, excessive individual autonomy may be interpreted as the leader being disinterested and uninvolved in employees' work tasks (Lee et al., 2017; Mills & Ungson, 2003). This interpretation and a lack of direction may decrease employees' motivation and willingness to exert effort towards the completion of important job tasks. When leaders provide employees with high levels of individual autonomy, but fail to provide the necessary guidance and support, it may result in a workforce that lacks direction and motivation. Consultants can experience a lack of motivation and direction in consulting projects if the leader is not available for guidance and assistance. This can be detrimental to the success of the consulting project.

The cost of autonomy can seriously undermine and hinder the positive effects that empowering leadership could have on desirable employee outcomes (Chua & Iyengar, 2011; Lee et al., 2017). Besides the cost of autonomy, failure on the part of the leader to properly regulate empowering work practices could also lead to an overconfident workforce and inefficient work practices (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017).

Employee overconfidence may occur when an empowering leader promotes unregulated employee empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Lee et al., 2017). When employees are empowered to the extent that they rely solely on their own judgements and expertise, an overconfident workforce can develop. This is undesirable because employees become too confident in their own capabilities and in their individual contribution to the company (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Lee et al., 2017). Although self-confidence is an important antecedent of performance, overconfidence leads to frequent tactical and strategic errors (Lee et al., 2017). Additionally, overconfidence could overshadow the employee's realistic assessment of skills shortages and lack of experience when dealing with client-related problems. This may lead to unsolved client problems, dissatisfied clients, and the subsequent deterioration of client relationships.

Empowering work practices require a certain degree of control and structure. When leaders overly engage in employee empowerment, employees may perceive their newfound freedom as permissive (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017). This could lead to unintended counterproductive work behaviours, which negatively affect the organisation's level of efficiency. Unregulated employee empowerment may also invite a loss of control, which further reduces efficient task completion (Mills & Ungson, 2003). When empowering work practices are not accompanied by enough structure, it often creates places within the organisation where unproductive resources can hide. Considering this problem, Muduli (2016) stresses the importance of striking a balance between empowerment and a structured work environment to ensure efficient work practices.

Although several scholars have identified undesirable outcomes that may result from unregulated employee empowerment (Cheong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Mills & Ungson, 2003; Muduli, 2016; Wang & Lee, 2009), it remains well established in research that the overall enabling effect of empowering leadership is stronger than its burdening effect (Cheong et al., 2016). Nonetheless, to harness the positive effects of empowering leadership, the leader must be cognisant of these dark sides and continuously monitor the influence that empowerment has on the organisation and its employees (Argyris, 1998; Cheong et al., 2016).

Primarily, it is the leader's responsibility to establish an empowering work environment that will lead to the enhancement of desirable outcomes. To create such a work environment, and to curb most of the aforementioned dark sides, an empowering leader should strongly promote knowledge-sharing and the building of trust within the organisation. The manner in which an empowering leader achieves this, and its importance to consulting firms, will be discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

2.3.4.3 Empowering leadership and knowledge-sharing

Knowledge-sharing can be defined as the process in which an individual or group of individuals exchange knowledge, ideas and suggestions through discussions (Sadegh, 2015; Srivastava et al., 2006). This is done to create new knowledge within an organisation (Sadegh, 2015; Srivastava et al., 2006). The accumulation and sharing of knowledge is of the utmost importance to consulting firms, because the firm's competitive advantage lies in the utilisation and application of knowledge in a manner that surpasses the ability of the client. It therefore is fitting that consulting firms are referred to as knowledge-based organisations (Morris & Empson, 1998).

The knowledge of consultants includes the information acquired through education, training, and experiences, which assists them in delivering effective client services (Momparker et al., 2015; Morris & Empson, 1998). Their knowledge and professional competencies form the basis of the advisory service. Consultants learn and grow by experiencing client problems, and they develop client-handling skills under the guidance of senior consultants and leaders (Morris & Empson, 1998). The continuous development of the consultants' knowledge and technical skills is crucial to ensure that the solutions or advice given to clients is applicable and up to date (Morris & Empson, 1998).

When consultants deal with unique client problems and needs, they acquire new knowledge and experiences that can and should be transferred to the other consultants in the firm (Morris & Empson, 1998). One potential obstacle is that consultants often spend most of their time at the client's premises (Karantinou & Hogg, 2001). Leaders therefore need to initiate and drive participative and collaborative attempts in which knowledge will be shared amongst consultants. Leaders need to lead by example by taking responsibility for the acquisition and sharing of knowledge and expertise.

Empowering leaders promote and foster corporate cultures that accumulate and share knowledge. Empowering leadership behaviours that encourage the sharing of knowledge include participative decision-making, participatory problem-solving, coaching, and fair recognition of ideas and suggestions (Arnold et al., 2000; Srivastava et al., 2006). When a leader informs and gives sufficient autonomy to employees, a greater collaborative attempt is achieved to solve complex problems (Srivastava et al., 2006).

Merely the presence of an empowering leader has been found to facilitate the sharing of knowledge (Srivastava et al., 2006). An empowering leader prioritises the transference of knowledge and can therefore be expected to facilitate and foster a work environment that enables consultants to provide superior service to clients.

2.3.4.4 Empowering leadership and trust

Within a leader-employee relationship, there is rarely an equal distribution of power, control, authority, and information (Nienaber, Romeike, Searle, & Schewe, 2015). The leader is generally in a position where these factors are in excess, while the employee is in an uncertain and dependent position (Nienaber et al., 2015). There is always risk involved when leaders decide to share their power and responsibilities with employees (Hakimi et al., 2010). Trust between the leader and the employee is therefore of paramount importance.

Trust can be defined as the willingness to be vulnerable to the behaviours and actions of another individual or party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Employees often find themselves in vulnerable positions, where they have to trust that leaders will meet their needs and aspirations. On the other hand, leaders put themselves in vulnerable positions when they share their power and responsibilities with employees (Hakimi et al., 2010). Since trust is reciprocal, it is vital for both parties to build and foster trust (Nienaber et al., 2015). However, for the purpose of this study, the focus was placed only on two important antecedents of trust – the leader's attributes, and the interpersonal processes between the leader and the employee (Nienaber et al., 2015).

Benevolence, competence and integrity are key attributes that a leader must possess for a trusting relationship to be present (Mayer et al., 1995). Benevolence refers to the degree to which the leader takes the employee's needs and well-being into consideration, regardless of whether the leader's personal outcomes will be negative (Mayer et al., 1995). A benevolent leader has pure and good intentions towards employees. Competence refers to the leader's abilities and skills within a certain domain. This serves as a powerful indicator of whether the leader will hold his/her end of the bargain (e.g. having jurisdiction to promote the employee). There is a general assumption that competence increases with seniority in consulting firms (Morris & Empson, 1998). It is therefore important for leaders to possess competence and to appear competent to employees. The integrity of the leader is of crucial importance, since it gives an indication of the leader's moral behaviour and overall

character. Employees will trust a leader who shows genuine concern for employees; is knowledgeable and shares said knowledge through support, guidance and coaching; and leads by example by acting as a behavioural model. Empowering leaders exhibit all three of the aforementioned key attributes of a trusting leader (Srivastava et al., 2006).

Interpersonal processes largely contribute to the level of trust that is present in a leader-employee relationship. Studies conducted by Cho and Park (2011) found empirical evidence for significant positive relationships between high levels of open communication, steady information flow, and trust. A study conducted by Burke and co-authors (2007) revealed that a leader's active support through encouragement, intellectual stimulation and coaching has a significant impact on the leader-employee trust relationship. These interpersonal processes are congruent with empowering leadership behaviours, in particular informing, coaching and support. These findings therefore provide support for the capability of empowering leaders, and their preferred interpersonal processes, to establish and maintain trusting relationships with employees.

It goes without saying that trust forms an integral part of a healthy and flourishing organisation, especially in consulting firms, where the level of trust in leader-employee relationships will affect the bottom-line business. Leaders must trust that their consultants will serve clients to the best of their abilities, and that the consultants will seek guidance and support when these are required. At the same time, consultants must trust that their leader is competent, well intentioned, trustworthy, and available when guidance, support and coaching are needed. Without trust, neither party will be able to successfully execute its role. What is more, trusting leader-employee relationships lead to increased motivation, satisfaction, and performance by employees (Burke et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006), and enhanced satisfaction and improved effectiveness for leaders (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000).

Empowering leaders create and foster working environments that are characterised by mutual trust. This is important, because trust is a key antecedent for the successful implementation of an empowering culture and empowering work practices (Appelbaum et al., 2014).

2.3.4.5 Summary of empowering leadership

Leaders play a key role in the successful implementation and regulation of employee empowerment (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Krishnan, 2012). Employee empowerment is vital for organisational success, as it improves the organisation's ability to compete favourably in the local and global marketplace (Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Ugwu, Onyishi, & Rodríguez-Sánchez, 2014).

In consulting firms, employee empowerment is necessary for consultants to identify opportunities and to solve client-related problems in a manner that will lead to superior client service (De Jong &

De Ruyter, 2004). An empowering leadership style can therefore be advocated as the appropriate leadership style for South African consulting firms.

2.4 Relationships Between the Latent Variables

A literature review was conducted on the constructs of OCB, PB, psychological empowerment and empowering leadership. Existing literature was reviewed to study the constructs in isolation, and to examine the relationships that exist between the constructs of interest. Based on the review, proposed relationships are motivated and discussed to provide clarity on the relationships between the constructs of interest, as pertaining to this study.

2.4.1 Psychological empowerment and OCB

Psychological empowerment has been identified as a key antecedent of OCB (Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Farzaneh et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2013; Ugwu et al., 2014; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Psychologically empowered employees feel less constrained by their work environments and feel encouraged to deviate from formal roles and prescribed job descriptions so as to better serve the organisation (Alge, Ballinger, Tangirala, & Oakley, 2006; Bandura, 1999). Employees are therefore more willing to go above and beyond their call of duty, because they perceive the workplace freedom to do so (Farzaneh et al., 2014; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Furthermore, empowered employees often experience enhanced identification with their organisations, which promotes the helping behaviours that form part of OCB (Alge et al., 2006). In this manner, psychological empowerment motivates employees to engage in OCB (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Farzaneh et al., 2014; Morrison, 1996; Raub & Robert, 2010).

Research findings support the positive relationship between psychological empowerment and OCB. First, Azeem, Abrar, Bashir, and Zubair (2015) found a significant and positive relationship between psychological empowerment and OCB ($r = .51$). Second, Sadegh's (2015) study found a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and OCB ($r = .50$). Third, Jha's (2014) research found a significantly positive relationship between psychological empowerment and OCB.

Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on OCB.

2.4.2 Psychological empowerment and PB

Research strongly supports the link between psychological empowerment and employees' willingness to engage in PB, such as taking charge behaviour (Boudrias et al., 2009; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Huang, 2017; Jauhari et al., 2017; Joo & Lim 2013; Lashley, 1999; Li et al., 2017;

Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Muduli, 2016; Spreitzer, 1995, 1997; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Ugwu et al., 2014). All four of the dimensions of psychological empowerment play equally important roles in positively influencing PB.

The meaning dimension of psychological empowerment contributes to PB in that employees will increasingly view proactive initiatives as something worthwhile in which to invest extra effort, time and resources (Mallin, 2016; Parker et al., 2010; Sonnentag, 2003). Employees must find their work-related tasks intrinsically meaningful and enjoyable in order for them to want to exert extra effort to improve them proactively (Mallin, 2016; Parker et al., 2010; Sonnentag, 2003). This dedication and enthusiasm will drive employees to persist in their proactive initiatives, despite the possible risks (Sonnentag, 2003). The competence dimension of psychological empowerment has been found to be a crucial antecedent of PB (Huang, 2017; Jauhari et al., 2017; Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker et al., 2006; Tornau & Frese, 2013). This heightened self-efficacy will motivate employees to engage in taking charge extra-role behaviours, because they believe that they will succeed and make a difference (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Huang, 2017; Jauhari et al., 2017; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker et al., 2006; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The self-determination dimension of psychological empowerment is stimulated by increased autonomy and allows employees to feel like they can exercise choice (Bindl & Parker, 2011; Wu & Parker, 2017). This will motivate employees to engage in self-starting discretionary PB that is in line with their perception of self. The impact dimension of psychological empowerment contributes to PB by enhancing an employee's perception of being able to make a difference and affect the current work environment (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

If employees do not believe that they can challenge and improve the status quo, they will not engage in PB. Since taking charge initiatives require challenging the status quo and overcoming barriers (Hong et al., 2016; Parker et al., 2010), psychological empowerment plays a crucial motivational role.

Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on PB.

2.4.3 Empowering leadership and psychological empowerment

Empowering leaders affect the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment through a variety of behaviours and practices.

Empowering leaders can stimulate and contribute to the meaning that employees experience in their jobs. Experienced meaningfulness and fulfilment may increase when leaders help employees understand the importance of their individual contribution to the achievement of organisational goals

(Boudrias et al., 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010). Meaning can be enhanced when leaders personally tend to and care for their employees, which is a distinct characteristic of empowering leaders (Raub & Robert, 2013). Empowering leaders allow employees to create their own meaning through innovative ways of carrying out their tasks (Ritter et al., 2014). When employees can craft their own jobs within specified parameters, they can find meaning in everyday, mundane tasks.

Empowering leaders can enhance employees' perceived competence. This is achieved when leaders invest in employees' competencies and skill sets, through coaching, training and development initiatives (Namasivayam et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2010). Leaders who lead by example will contribute to their employees' competence by modelling appropriate and desired behaviours (Bandura, 1986; Raub & Robert, 2010, 2013). Thereby, employees will know what is expected of them and behave accordingly in future situations. The competence dimension is also enhanced when leaders share knowledge and inform employees of important information, as it makes them feel more informed and prepared (Namasivayam et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2010). Empowering leaders build employees' perceived competence by expressing confidence in their abilities, by means of encouragement, recognition and praise (Ahearne et al., 2005; Bandura, 1986; Raub & Robert, 2013; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Empowering leaders can increase employees' perceptions of self-determination/choice and control. Empowering leadership behaviours of mentoring, coaching, and inspiring have been found to enhance employees' perceptions of control and self-determination (Menon, 1995; Namasivayam et al., 2014; Pearce et al., 2003; Sims & Manz, 1996; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). These leadership behaviours provide guidance and support, whilst encouraging employees to take control of their work lives. Empowering leaders also increase employees' level of autonomy. Increased individual autonomy will provide the flexibility and freedom that are necessary for employees to determine how they want to execute their tasks. The delegation of decision-making authority further empowers employees to make work-related decisions independently (Raub & Robert, 2010).

Empowering leaders can improve employees' perceptions of impact. When empowering leaders encourage employee participation in decision-making and problem-solving, employees are granted opportunities to influence their immediate working environments (Raub & Robert, 2013; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). This enhances employees' perceptions of impact.

Research studies confirm the positive relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment (Boudrias et al., 2009; De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Greco, Laschinger, & Wong, 2006; Li et al, 2017; Namasivayam et al., 2014; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011; Shahab, Sobari, & Udin, 2018; Ugwu et al., 2014; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). First, a study conducted by Boudrias and co-authors (2009) found a significantly positive relationship between supervisors' empowering management practices and psychological empowerment ($r = .40$). Second, Greco and co-authors' (2006) study reveals a significantly positive relationship between leader empowering behaviours and

psychological empowerment ($r = .71$) (Greco et al., 2006). Third, a study conducted by Zhang and Bartol (2010) found support for a statistically significant relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment ($r = .81$). Fourth, Raub and Robert (2010) examined the impact of empowering leadership behaviours, psychological empowerment, and individual-level power values on a broad range of employee behaviours. Their findings confirm a significant relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment ($r = .39$) (Raub & Robert, 2010). Fifth, Albrecht and Andreetta's (2011) research reveals a significant positive relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment ($r = .44$). Sixth, in De Klerk and Stander's (2014) study, they found that leadership empowering behaviours correlated statistically significantly with psychological empowerment ($r = .61$). Seventh, Li and colleagues (2017) found that team-directed empowering leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment ($r = .45$). Eighth, Fong and Snape (2015) conducted a study to examine the effects of empowering leadership on employees' psychological empowerment in a customer service organisation. Their findings reveal that individual-level and group-level empowering leadership behaviours were positively associated with psychological empowerment, with significant correlation coefficients ($r = .32$ and $r = .30$) (Fong & Snape, 2015). Ninth, Shahab and colleagues (2018) conducted a study to investigate the effect of empowering leadership on OCB through psychological empowerment and emotional intelligence. Their findings reveal that empowering leadership has a significant and positive effect on psychological empowerment ($p < .05$).

Empowering leaders foster a work environment in which employees can experience heightened levels of psychological empowerment (Boudrias et al., 2009; Joo & Lim, 2013; Konczak et al., 2000; Namasivayam et al., 2014; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Empowering leaders enhance employees' experienced meaningfulness, convey confidence in employees' abilities, provide opportunities for participation in decision-making, and provide individual autonomy (Ahearne et al., 2005; Auh et al., 2014; Park, Kim, Yoon, & Joo, 2017; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Empowering leaders therefore stimulate all four dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Empowering leadership has a positive influence on psychological empowerment.

2.4.4 Psychological empowerment as a mediator

Mixed results are found in the literature regarding the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationships between leadership behaviours and employees' behaviours (Boudrias et al., 2009). Boudrias and co-authors (2009) offer two explanations for the inconsistent mediation results. Their first explanation is that the small magnitude of the relationship between

managerial practices and employee's behaviours strongly limits the possibility to demonstrate a mediation effect, which may lead to inconsistencies. Their second explanation is that previous studies made use of different outcome measures to test mediation effects, which were not necessarily specifically indicative of employee empowerment. The use of a more integrative behavioural measure of employee empowerment might have resulted in more consistent mediation results (Boudrias et al., 2009). An additional explanation for inconsistent results could be the manner in which researchers define the constructs that have been found to have mediation effects on the relationships between leadership behaviours and employees' behaviours. For example, in Harris and co-authors' (2009) study, psychological empowerment is defined as a personal resource based on the Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model, and not as an enabling state (Ugwu et al., 2014). Because of this conceptualisation, psychological empowerment was found to moderate the relationships between various leader-related independent variables and employee-related dependent variables (Ugwu et al., 2014).

While it is important to take note of the research findings that contradict the proposed mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationships between leadership behaviours and employee behaviours, there are numerous research findings that corroborate this study's view on the mediating effect of psychological empowerment. First, in Boudrias and colleagues' (2009) study, the structural equation analysis supports the complete mediation effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between leadership empowering behaviours and employee's behavioural empowerment. The indirect effect was found to be statistically significant for the single-source data, explaining about 74% of the variance of the relationship between leadership empowering behaviours and employee's behavioural empowerment. Second, De Klerk and Stander (2014) found that empowering leadership had a statistically significant, indirect effect on work engagement via psychological empowerment. Third, Meng, Zou, He, and Luo's (2015) study found support for the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and the dependent variable of intrinsic motivation. Fourth, Namasivayam and co-authors (2014) found a significantly positive indirect effect of empowering leadership on employee satisfaction via psychological empowerment. Fifth, Auh and colleagues (2014) found a positive and statistically significant indirect effect of empowering leadership on service-oriented citizenship behaviours, as mediated by psychological empowerment. Sixth, Raub and Robert's (2007) study tested the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and organisational commitment, and the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB. The full mediation model was considerably more parsimonious than the partial mediation model, which means that the full mediation model provided a reasonable description of the data (Raub & Robert, 2007).

Furthermore, psychological empowerment has also been found to mediate the relationships between desirable employee outcomes and various independent variables such as transformational

leadership (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Jauhari et al., 2017; Joo & Lim, 2013; Krishnan, 2012; Ugwu et al., 2014), ethical leadership (Javed et al., 2017), and leader-member exchange (Schermulu, Meyer, & Dämmer, 2013; Wang, Gan, & Wu, 2016). Empowering leadership shares common characteristics with the three leadership styles. Support for these mediated relationships therefore serves as additional, secondary evidence for the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviours.

In summary, psychological empowerment has been found to act as a mediator for the relationship between empowering leadership and employee behavioural and psychological outcomes (Auh et al., 2014; Boudrias et al., 2009; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Meng et al., 2015; Namasivayam et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2007, 2013; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Zhang & Sims, 2005). This is supported by numerous studies that tested for direct relationships, but instead found that empowering leadership does not have direct relationships with dependent variable employee behaviours (Boudrias et al., 2009). Despite the mixed results that have been found on the mediating effect of psychological empowerment, this study proposes a fully mediated relationship between empowering leadership and the extra-role behaviours via psychological empowerment.

2.4.5 Empowering leadership and OCB, as mediated by psychological empowerment

Empowering leadership behaviours have been identified as one of the key antecedents of employees' OCB (Arnold et al., 2000; Auh et al., 2014; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Kasekende et al., 2016; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Li et al., 2017; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Raub & Robert, 2013). Empowering leaders foster working environments that enhance employees' levels of psychological empowerment, which then acts as the mechanism through which empowering leadership positively influences employees' OCB.

Empowering leaders encourage employee participation in decision-making and problem-solving (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011; Jones et al., 1996). When employees are encouraged to participate in these processes, they feel that they have an impact in the organisation and will be more likely to engage in OCB (Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006). Empowering leadership has also been associated with enhanced trust levels in organisations (Burke et al., 2007; Srivastava et al., 2006). Employees are more likely to engage in OCB if they have trusting relationships with their supervisors, where the employees' inputs are valued and they are trusted to perform their tasks competently (Kernodle, 2007; Nienaber et al., 2015; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Furthermore, empowering leaders actively promote knowledge-sharing in organisations (Maden, 2015; Srivastava et al., 2006). Knowledge-sharing, especially top-down initiatives, has been found to promote OCB in employees (Msweli-Mbanga & Potwana, 2006; Sadegh, 2015). These empowering leadership behaviours,

among others, will create a working environment in which employees experience a psychological state of empowerment, which motivates them to engage in OCB.

There is support in the literature for the positive relationship between empowering leadership and OCB, via psychological empowerment. First, Li and co-authors (2017) found support for the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and affiliative OCB. Second, Auh and co-authors (2014) found support for positive relationships between both individual-level and group-level empowering leadership and OCB, as mediated by psychological empowerment.

Based on these findings, and to test for the mediation effect, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB.

2.4.6 Empowering leadership and PB, as mediated by psychological empowerment

Leadership has been identified as one of the key antecedents of PB (Crant, 2000; Erkutlu, 2012; Lyu et al., 2016; Rank et al., 2007). It is important to note that, for employees to engage in taking charge PB, they must perceive themselves as competent and autonomous workers who are not limited by rigid work rules (Choi, 2007; Li et al., 2017; Raub & Robert, 2010; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowering leadership, through the mechanism of psychological empowerment, can stimulate and foster these beliefs and the organisational conditions that are necessary for employees to engage in challenging proactive initiatives (Ahmed & Khalid, 2019; Hong et al., 2016; Joo & Lim 2013; Li et al., 2017; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Muduli, 2016; Raub & Robert, 2010).

Numerous empowering leadership behaviours and practices have been found to contribute to an increase in PB. Leaders should support their employees and foster supportive work environments that encourage employees to take risks (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Shin & Kim, 2015; Strauss et al., 2015; Tornau & Frese, 2013; Wu & Parker, 2017). The frequent sharing of knowledge and information, as well as the provision of feedback, empowers employees to engage in PB (Muduli, 2016; Strauss et al., 2015; Tummers et al., 2015). Empowering leaders increase their employees' job autonomy and accountability, which enables them to actively take charge of their working environments (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Frese et al., 1996; Muduli, 2016; Parker et al., 2006; Shin & Kim, 2015; Tummers et al., 2015). Through training and coaching, employees are encouraged to take initiative and to think independently (Muduli, 2016; Tummers et al., 2015). These empowering practices will lead to an enhanced state of psychological empowerment, which will enable and motivate employees to engage in desired extra-role behaviours.

Research findings support the relationship between empowering leadership and PB, as mediated by psychological empowerment. First, Raub and Robert (2010) found that psychological empowerment fully mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and challenging extra-role behaviours. Second, Choi's (2007) study found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between supportive, innovative working environments and change-oriented behaviours. Third, according to Raub and Robert's (2013) study, psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behaviour (defined as identifying problems and suggesting improvements). The mediated model fit the data well (Raub & Robert, 2013). Fourth, Li and colleagues (2017) found support for the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relationships between empowering leadership and taking charge, where psychological empowerment positively predicted taking charge ($r = .18$).

Based on these findings, and to test for the mediation effect, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and PB.

2.5 The Proposed Conceptual Model

Based on the review of the existing literature, a proposed conceptual model was formulated. The proposed conceptual model is depicted in Figure 2.2.

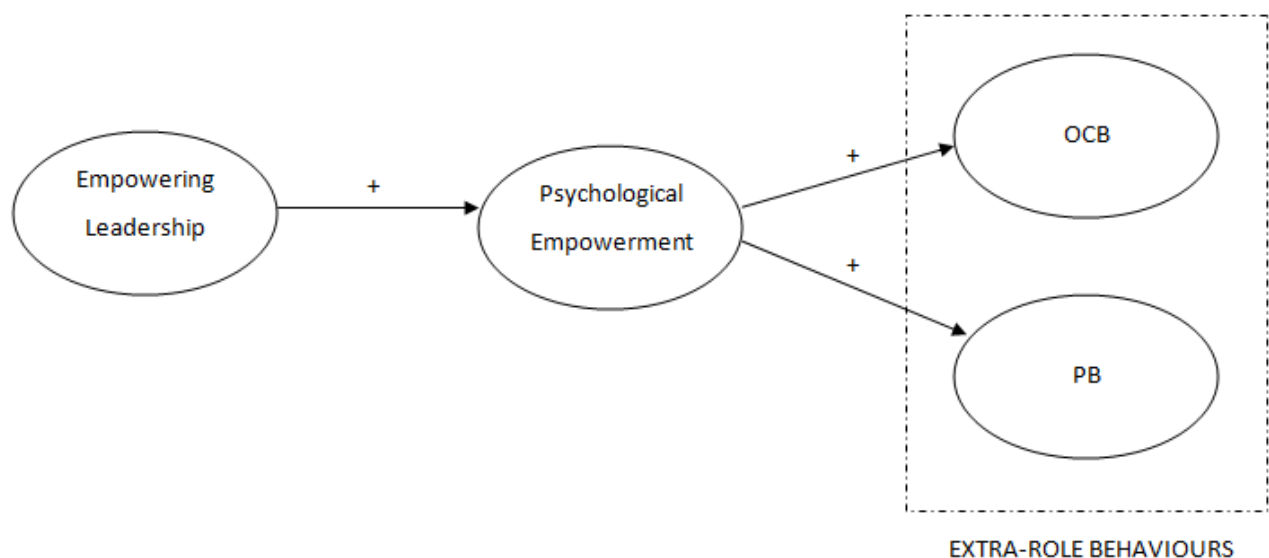


Figure 2.2. Proposed conceptual model

The proposed conceptual model depicts the proposed relationships between the constructs of interest.

2.6 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to conduct an analysis of the existing literature on OCB, PB, psychological empowerment, and empowering leadership. The review was conducted to provide a theoretically sound representation of the research-initiating question. Hypotheses were formulated from the literature review, substantiating the relationships between the constructs of interest, as depicted in Figure 2.2.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology of the study, which includes a discussion of the statistical hypotheses, the measurement instruments that were utilised to conduct the research, the data collection process, and the statistical analyses that were done to test the proposed hypotheses.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The study is guided by the following research-initiating question: *What causes variance in the extra-role behaviours (viz., OCB and PB) of South African consultants?* The literature review provided an overview of the existing theory on the constructs of interest and the relationships that exist between the constructs. To provide a fruitful answer to the research-initiating question, a conceptual model was developed. The model will only serve the purposes of this study, and subsequently contribute to the field of industrial psychology, if it provides a valid account of the psychological process underlying extra-role behaviours in consultants. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the conceptual model could be considered permissible and valid to the extent that the structural model closely fits the available empirical data and the multiple regression analyses returns acceptable results. To test the proposed conceptual model, a specific methodological approach is required.

Research should purposefully serve the epistemic ideal, which is concerned with finding valid and credible explanations for phenomena in nature (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The validity and credibility of the explanations will depend on the methodology used (Langenhoven, 2015). Research serves the epistemic ideal through the scientific characteristics of objectivity and rationality (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Objectivity refers to the conscious focus to carefully reflect on and reduce potential error at critical points in the research process (Smuts, 2011). Appropriate steps need to be taken throughout the research process to optimise the likelihood of valid findings (Van der Westhuizen, 2015). Rationality refers to the peer review process in which experienced researchers are provided the opportunity to assess and critically evaluate the validity of the research findings. During this process, subject matter experts evaluate the methodological stringency of the research process that was used to arrive at the conclusions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). For this reason, it is important to accurately describe and thoroughly motivate the chosen methodological approach.

The study's methodological approach is outlined and discussed in this chapter. The following will be discussed: substantive research hypotheses, research design, structural model, statistical research hypotheses, measurement instruments, sampling, data collection, missing values and statistical analyses.

3.2 Substantive Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses represent tentative predictions or propositions concerning the relationship(s) between two or more variables (Theron, 2015). The formulation of hypotheses is an essential part of research,

as it allows the researcher to empirically test predicted relationships (Theron, 2015). The development of substantive research hypotheses is the first step towards empirically testing a proposed model.

The proposed conceptual model, as depicted in Figure 2.2, schematically portrays the hypotheses that were developed through theorising. The overarching substantive research hypothesis of the study (Hypothesis 1) states that the structural model provides a valid account of the relationships that exist between the latent variables. The overarching substantive research hypothesis can be dissected into five more detailed path-specific substantive research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on OCB.

Hypothesis 2: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on PB.

Hypothesis 3: Empowering leadership has a positive influence on psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB.

Hypothesis 5: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and PB.

3.3 Research Design

A research design can be defined as the plan, guideline or layout concerning how the proposed research study will be conducted (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The research design is determined by the research problem and its associated research-initiating question. The function of the research design is to ensure that empirical evidence can be construed unambiguously for or against the hypotheses being tested (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Smuts, 2011). According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), this function is achieved by controlling for dependent variable variance. The credibility of a study and the interpretation of the results are determined by the degree to which the research design maximises systematic variance, minimises error variance, and controls for extraneous variance (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Myburgh & Theron, 2014).

For the purposes of this study, the appropriate research design was an explanatory research design, in which the operational research hypotheses exist as tentative relational statements, hypothesising specific relationships (Myburgh & Theron, 2014). These hypothesised relationships exist between at least one independent observed variable (X) and at least one dependent observed variable (Y), and would therefore take on the form “If X changes in a specific way then Y will change along with it in a specific way” (Myburgh & Theron, 2014). An ex post facto correlational design was utilised, since

the researcher could not directly manipulate and control the various independent variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Myburgh & Theron, 2014). Further justification for the correlational design is the fact that more than two exogenous and endogenous latent variables were present.

With this research design, the researcher could measure observed variables (at least two observed variables per latent variable) and calculate the covariance matrices between the observed variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The researcher could obtain estimates for freed structural and measurement model parameters in an iterative fashion in order to reproduce the observed covariance matrix as closely as possible (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000).

If the parameter estimates are indeed able to replicate the observed covariance matrix, the model may be regarded as plausible, which means it provides a possible description of the process that underpins the phenomenon of interest (e.g. OCB) (Theron, 2015). If it fails to accurately replicate the observed covariance matrix, the hypothesised structural model is believed not to present a satisfactory explanation for the observed covariance matrix (Theron, 2015). It then can be derived that the structural relationships, depicted and hypothesised by the structural model, did not present an accurate and satisfactory representation of the psychological process that shapes the phenomena of interest (Theron, 2015). However, the opposite does not imply that, if the covariance matrix derived from the structural and measurement model parameters closely agrees with the observed covariance matrix, the psychological dynamics depicted by the structural model necessarily produced the observed covariance matrix (Theron, 2015).

Based on this argument, a researcher cannot conclude that the psychological process that is depicted by the model consequently yielded the levels of the endogenous latent variables. Instead, it can be concluded that a high degree of fit between the observed and the estimated covariance matrices would merely suggest that the psychological processes depicted in the structural model provide one credible explanation for the observed covariance matrix (Theron, 2015). However, this inference is only justified if prior evidence would exist that the measurement model indeed fits closely (Theron, 2015).

The ex post facto correlational design is not without limitations. These include, but are not limited to, the inability to manipulate independent variables, the lack of power to randomise, and the risk of erroneous interpretations (Myburgh & Theron, 2014). It is imperative that the researcher treat the results and interpretations with caution and care in order to minimise and/or eliminate the chances of erroneous interpretations (Myburgh & Theron, 2014). Despite the shortcoming of this research design, it is still appropriate and widely used, since most research on variables in the field of industrial psychology cannot be manipulated (Langenhoven, 2015).

3.4 The Proposed Structural Model

A structural model is a schematic representation of hypotheses that have been construed as an answer to a research-initiating question. This study's proposed structural model is depicted as a path diagram in Figure 3.1, which portrays the hypothesised relationships between the relevant endogenous (η) and exogenous (ξ) latent variables.

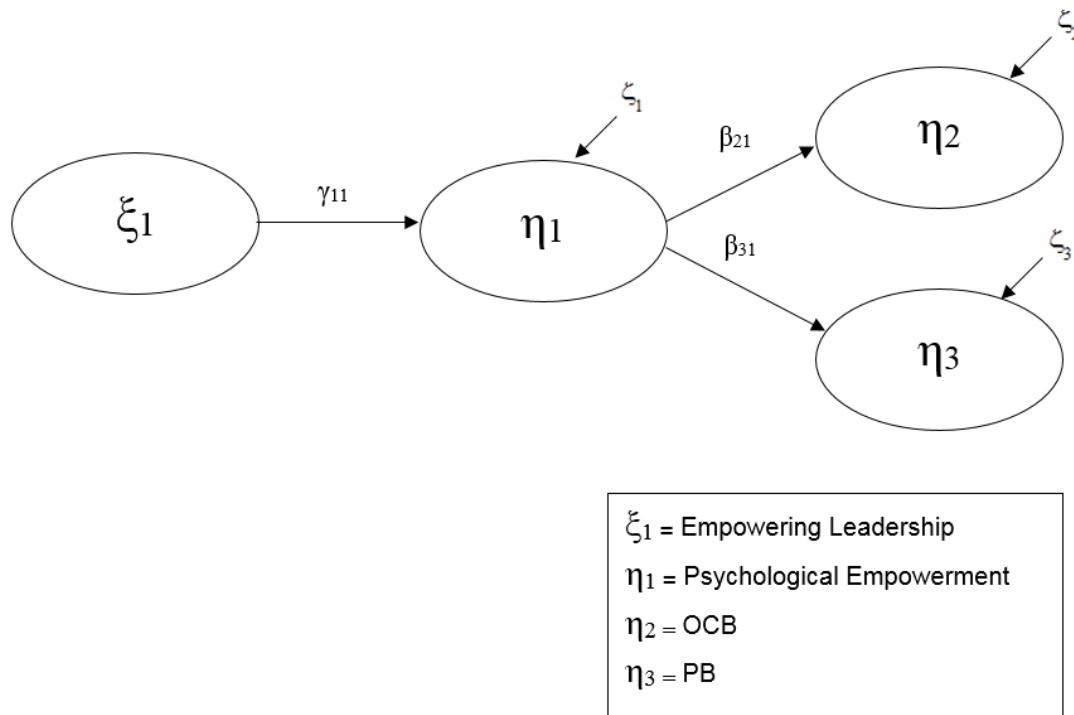


Figure 3.1. Proposed structural model

The aim was for the structural model to be tested to determine whether the hypothesised relationships, as discussed in the literature review, were indeed significant. As mentioned, the proposed structural model displays the SEM notational system that is also used in the formulation of the statistical hypotheses.

3.5 Statistical Research Hypotheses

The statistical hypotheses are a representation of the logic underlying the structural model, the research design, and the nature of the statistical analysis techniques that are associated with an ex post facto correlational design (i.e. SEM) (Theron, 2015). A discussion of the formulated statistical hypotheses, as derived from the structural model, follows.

3.5.1 Statistical hypothesis of exact model fit for structural model

The overarching substantive research hypothesis states that the structural model provides a valid account of the psychological process that determines the extra-role behaviours by consultants. If the overarching substantive research hypothesis would be interpreted as denoting that the structural model provides a faultless explanation of the manner in which empowering leadership affects OCB and PB via psychological empowerment, the substantive research hypothesis translates into the following exact-fit null hypothesis:

$$H_{01}: \text{RMSEA} = 0$$

$$H_{a1}: \text{RMSEA} > 0$$

3.5.2 Statistical hypothesis of close model fit for structural model

If the overarching substantive research hypothesis would be interpreted as denoting that the structural model provides a relative explanation of the manner in which empowering leadership impacts OCB and PB via psychological empowerment, the substantive research hypothesis translates into the following close-fit null hypothesis:

$$H_{02}: \text{RMSEA} \leq .05$$

$$H_{a2}: \text{RMSEA} > .05$$

3.5.3 Statistical hypotheses for each causal effect

Hypothesis 3: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on OCB.

$$H_{03}: \beta_{21} = 0$$

$$H_{a3}: \beta_{21} > 0$$

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on PB.

$$H_{04}: \beta_{31} = 0$$

$$H_{a4}: \beta_{31} > 0$$

Hypothesis 5: Empowering leadership has a positive influence on psychological empowerment.

$$H_{05}: \gamma_{11} = 0$$

$$H_{a5}: \gamma_{11} > 0$$

Hypothesis 6: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB.

$$H_{06}: \gamma_{11}\beta_{21} = 0$$

$$H_{a6}: \gamma_{11}\beta_{21} > 0$$

Hypothesis 7: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and PB.

$$H_{07}: \gamma_{11}\beta_{31} = 0$$

$$H_{a7}: \gamma_{11}\beta_{31} > 0$$

3.6 Measurement Instruments

Measurement instruments operationalise constructs by making them measurable (Langenhoven, 2015). The use of measurement instruments that accurately measure the latent variables of interest is therefore essential. Moreover, it is crucial to measure the latent variables of interest with measurement instruments that can provide empirical evidence against which the proposed hypotheses can be tested (Nell, 2015).

To test the hypotheses, and to come to valid and reliable conclusions, the measurement instruments must possess the psychometric qualities of validity and reliability. Brief discussions will follow on the selected measurement instruments and their psychometric qualities.

3.6.1 OCB measurement instrument

The measurement instrument that was selected to measure the construct of OCB is the OCB scale. This scale was originally developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989). The scale incorporates and measures the five OCB dimensions, namely altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue (Moorman, 1991). The scale consists of 24 items and is often completed by the employee's manager (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). For the purposes of this study, the items were adapted to serve as a self-rated measure of OCB. The participant therefore rated his/her own level of OCB for each item by making use of a five-point Likert scale, which ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

The psychometric properties of the scale have been tested in several different studies. Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) reported on some of the psychometric properties of the scale. According to their study, the confirmatory factor analysis provided evidence for a five-factor model, with a Tucker-Lewis fit index of .94, and all the items used to measure the five factors of OCB loaded significantly onto their intended targets. The reliabilities for each factor ranged from .70 for civic virtue to .85 for altruism (Moorman, 1991). The alpha reliability coefficients of the scale, for all dimensions, have been found to be .91 (Polat, 2009).

The OCB scale was used to measure the effect that empowering leadership has on the extra-role behaviour of OCB in consultants.

3.6.2 Taking charge PB measurement instrument

The extra-role behaviour of PB was measured by the taking charge questionnaire that was developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999). The questionnaire consists of 10 items that can be completed either by the employee (self-rated) or by co-workers (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). For the purposes of this study, the questionnaire was adapted and utilised as a self-rated measure of taking charge PB. Morrison and Phelps (1999) worded the items in such a manner that individual differences in behavioural tendencies, rather than specific proactive incidents, can be evaluated. An item, for example, would include: "I often try to correct a faulty procedure or practice." The items are rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The scale was developed in a multistage process (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). During the preliminary assessment of the measurement's psychometric properties, the scale showed strong reliability and adequate convergent and discriminant validities (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). When the authors assessed the internal consistency of the items, the scale was found to be unidimensional and highly reliable, with an alpha coefficient of .92. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) provided strong evidence that the taking charge measure is distinct from in-role behaviours and two other forms of extra-role behaviours, namely civic virtue and altruism. Fritz and Sonnentag (2009) utilised the taking charge scale in their study to measure proactive behaviour in the morning and in the afternoon. According to their study, the respective reliabilities ranged between .90 and .91 in the morning, and between .90 and .92 in the afternoon.

The PB scale was used to measure the effect that empowering leadership has on the extra-role behaviour of PB in consultants.

3.6.3 Psychological empowerment measurement instrument

Psychological empowerment was measured by Gretchen Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment scale. Spreitzer's scale measures the four dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Sadegh, 2015). The self-rating scale consists of a total of 12 items, with each dimension being measured by three items (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011). A sample item would include: "the work I do is very important to me" (Azeem et al., 2015). Participants rated the items on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

The instrument has been used and validated in over 50 different studies (Spreitzer, n.d.). The test-retest reliabilities of the dimensions have proved to be strong, with the dimensions' validity estimates

typically around .80 (Spreitzer, n.d.). According to Spreitzer (1995), the Cronbach reliability coefficients for the overall empowerment construct ranges between .62 and .72, and reasonable model fit was obtained. In Avolio and colleagues' (2004) study, the authors reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of .84 and .75 for the full 12-item scale. Furthermore, the study conducted by Fong and Snape (2015) provided evidence for the four-factor model with a marginal fit, and the reliability for the overall scale was .69.

Spreitzer's psychological empowerment scale was used to measure the level of psychological empowerment that is experienced by consultants.

3.6.4 Empowering leadership measurement instrument

Empowering leadership was measured by the empowering leadership questionnaire (ELQ), which was developed by Arnold and co-authors (2000). The ELQ is one of the few validated measures of empowering leadership (Raub & Robert, 2010).

The ELQ consists of 38 items, which assess the five dimensions of empowering leadership, namely leading by example (five items), participative decision-making (six items), coaching (11 items), informing (six items), and showing concern (10 items) (Arnold et al., 2000; Fong & Snape, 2015). Each of the items describes specific behaviour of an empowering leader (Goldstein, Beers, & Hersen, 2004). Subordinates were asked to rate their managers' behaviour by scoring the frequency with which the manager exhibited each of the behaviours (Goldstein et al., 2004). Items were rated by means of a five-point Likert scale, which ranged from never (1) to always (5).

Various researchers studied the ELQ's psychometric properties. Arnold and colleagues (2000) assessed the dimensionality of the ELQ and found support for the five-factor model. A study conducted by Fong and Snape (2015) substantiated these findings. The subscales were found to be highly correlated (Arnold et al., 2000). During the initial study and cross-validation study, coefficient alphas for all five the subscales were above .85 (Goldstein et al., 2004). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the full scale was .94 (Fong & Snape, 2015). According to Arnold and co-authors (2000), the deattenuated correlations were high, suggesting that the behaviours that are assessed by the scales are indeed highly correlated (Goldstein et al, 2004).

The ELQ was used to measure how frequently consulting firms' managers engage in empowering leadership behaviours, and whether they can be considered empowering managers/leaders.

3.7 Sampling

The purpose of sampling is to select a portion of individuals from the population that best represent the target population (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Van Deventer, 2015). According to Salkind (2010), a

sample would be representative to the extent that it adequately reflects the characteristics and properties of the target population of interest. To ensure the selection of a representative sample, the target population would have to be operationalised in the form of a sample population (Van Deventer, 2015). Sampling therefore directly influences the extent to which observations can be generalised to the target population (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

The sampling population can be referred to as those final sampling units (FSU) in the target population that have a zero probability chance of being selected (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Van Deventer, 2015). The sampling population should largely overlap with the target population if a representative sample wants to be achieved (Van Deventer, 2015). Accordingly, Babbie and Mouton (2001) are of the opinion that the gap between the sample population and the target population needs to be small to ensure maximum representation. The type of sampling method chosen can greatly affect the size of the sampling gap.

3.7.1 Sampling method and procedure

Sampling methods can be classified into two broad categories, namely probability and non-probability sampling procedures (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Van Deventer, 2015).

In probability sampling, the total sampling population is known, and each individual in the target population has an equal chance of being selected for the sampling population (Van Zyl, 2016). These sampling methods are regarded as the best way to select a sample that is representative of the target population (Van Zyl, 2016). Probability sampling methods include, amongst others, random sampling, stratified sampling, systematic sampling, and cluster sampling (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014).

Non-probability sampling takes place when the total sampling population is not entirely known and, as a result, it is a less representative approach (Van Zyl, 2016). The probability of selection is unknown for each element of the sampling population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003; Van Deventer, 2015). These sampling methods are based on factors such as common sense and ease, but active efforts can be made to maintain representation of the target population and to avoid bias (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Non-probability sampling methods include, amongst others, purposive sampling, convenience/accidental sampling, and quota sampling (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014). For the purpose of this study, a non-probability sampling method was utilised – specifically, convenience sampling.

Salkind (2010) defines a convenience sampling method as a sampling procedure that makes use of individuals who are readily available. The researcher therefore selects readily available FSU into the samples (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Van Deventer, 2015). Convenience sampling is considered the weakest sampling method because the sample groups' representation may be low. However, proper

knowledge and care taken by the researcher can enhance the sample group's representation of the target population (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Despite this weakness, it is the most frequently used sampling method because of its convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Snowball sampling is a specific convenience sampling method that was utilised for the purposes of this study. This sampling method relies on existing participants to recruit more subjects from among their acquaintances to participate in the research study (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). A benefit of this sampling method is that the researcher can take advantage of the social networks of existing participants to select a representative sample (Atkinson & Flint, 2001; Thompson, 1997). A disadvantage of this sampling method is selection bias, which may affect the quality of the data and the generalisability of the research findings (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). However, the use of a larger sample and the use of sample selection criteria could mitigate against some of the disadvantages of this approach (Atkinson & Flint, 2001).

Given the nature of the proposed structural model, one sample was utilised to test the model. The sampling selection included consultants in South Africa. In order to enhance the sample group's representation of the target population, two selection criteria were utilised. The two selection/inclusion criteria were as follows: firstly, the participant must be employed in a consulting capacity in South Africa; secondly, the participant must report to a direct manager. These selection criteria were crucial for the purposes of this study, as the research participants were asked to respond to the statements from a consulting perspective, and the participants were asked to rate their direct managers' leadership style.

The sample assessed their direct managers' standings on empowering leadership, and their own standings on OCB, PB and psychological empowerment. To determine the appropriate sample size for the respective sample, various factors were considered to minimise the risks and to maximise representation of the target population.

3.7.2 Sampling size

The appropriate sample size was determined by a variety of factors. As outlined by Van Deventer (2015), a sample that is too small runs the following risks: not accurately reflecting the target population; failing to find a real effect due to inadequate statistical power; and finding apparent effects that cannot be replicated in subsequent experiments. These risks will greatly affect the generalisability of conclusions to the target population. Although a larger sample size increases the chances of accurate and representative conclusions, Salkind (2010) is of the opinion that the use of a sample size that is larger than is necessary may drain financial resources and likely slow the completion of studies.

Since this study intended to make use of structural equation modeling (SEM) applications, three additional aspects were considered regarding the appropriateness of the sample size (Burger, 2012; Smuts, 2011; Van der Westhuizen, 2015). The first consideration was to consider the ratio of sample sizes to the number of parameters to be estimated. A recommended sample-size-to-estimated-parameter ratio is between 5:1 and 10:1 (Smuts, 2011). The second consideration was the statistical power associated with the close-fit null hypothesis ($RMSEA < .05$) against the hypothesis of average/mediocre fit ($RMSEA > .05$). MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) compiled power tables that can be utilised to derive appropriate sample sizes. The third consideration was the practicality and logistical ease of obtaining samples. This includes the costs involved, as well as the availability of suitable respondents (Smuts, 2011). Given these considerations, a sample size of at least 200 observations is seemingly satisfactory for most SEM applications (Kelloway, 1998; MacCallum et al., 1996). In addition to these considerations, it was important to take into consideration the fact that the testing of a mediation effect required a larger sample size. Taking all the considerations into account, it was planned that a sample size of 200 or more research participants would be selected for the purpose of testing the proposed structural model.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

To safeguard the rights, dignity, safety and well-being of the research participants involved in the study, it was necessary to consider the potential ethical risks associated with the proposed research study (Langenhoven, 2015). Since empirical behavioural research requires the passive or active involvement of research participants, it is the researcher's responsibility to consider the ethical risks to which the participants might be exposed. The most critical question that had to be considered was whether this compromise, and potentially incurred costs, could be justified in terms of the purpose of the research and any potential benefits (Du Toit, 2014).

After careful consideration, it was apparent there were no potentially detrimental risks or discomforts related to this study. Research participants were asked to set aside time to complete the online survey. While completing the survey, participants may have contemplated their current discrepant reality, which may have aroused minor discomfort and minor dissatisfaction. At worst, the participant's reflection on reality could have stimulated awareness of dissatisfaction with the current reality. At best, the participant's reflection on reality could have initiated positive changes. This minor discomfort did not require referral. In the event that a participant may have experienced discomfort while completing the online survey, or while reflecting on the statements, the participant was encouraged to contact the researcher and/or the research supervisor.

In terms of potential conflicts of interest, this study presented no opportunities for financial gain and/or career advancement, nor were participants coerced into participating in the research study. Good processes were followed throughout the research process to maintain research integrity.

The principle of voluntary participation was upheld throughout the research process. By avoiding the organisationally-driven approach in which contacted organisations would have been expected to recruit their employees as prospective participants, employees may have felt obliged to participate in the research study. Furthermore, employees may have feared negative repercussions if they responded to statements in a manner that reflected badly on their superiors. Prospective participants were also asked to give their informed consent before they could participate in the research study to ensure that their participation was voluntary.

In order for the research participants to give their informed consent, they had to be informed of the following: who the researcher is; what the researcher's association is; the purpose of the research study; what participation in the research will entail; what their rights as participants are and where they can obtain more information on their research rights; how the research will be published and used; and where participants can make further inquiries about the research, if they wish to do so (Du Toit, 2014). Additionally, Annexure 12 of the Ethical Rules of Conduct for Practitioners Registered under the Health Professions Act (Act no. 56 of 1974) (as cited in Republic of South Africa, 2006) requires of a psychologist conducting research to enter into an agreement with participants on the nature of the research, as well as the participants' responsibilities and those of the researcher. The agreement in terms of which the research participant provides informed consent should meet the following requirements according to Annexure 12 (Republic of South Africa, 2006, p. 42):

- a) A psychologist shall use language that is reasonably understandable to the research participant concerned in obtaining his/her informed consent;
- b) Informed consent referred to in sub-rule a) shall be appropriately documented, and in obtaining such consent the psychologist shall –
 - Inform the participant of the nature of the research;
 - Inform the participant that he/she is free to participate or decline to participate in or to withdraw from the research;
 - Explain the foreseeable consequences of declining or withdrawing;
 - Inform the participant of significant factors that may be expected to influence his/her willingness to participate (such as risks, discomfort, adverse effects or exceptions to the requirement of confidentiality); and
 - Explain any other matters about which the participant enquires.

Participants were provided with the abovementioned information at the onset of the online survey. This was followed by an option to tick that informed consent was given and to continue with the online survey or, alternatively, to withdraw and to opt out of the research study. Participants merely had to tick that they give their informed consent to participate in the study, and no identifiable information was requested from the participants.

The online survey was completely anonymous, and no confidential information was collected. By assuring complete anonymity throughout the entire research process, where no link could be made between the data and the participants who supplied it, any concerns regarding possible negative repercussions were eliminated. The following steps were taken to ensure full anonymity: no identifiers linked specific participants to their specific responses to the survey statements; the data remained completely anonymous; the data was stored in an electronic password-protected file; and the study results were disseminated in the thesis.

Once the research participants had completed the online surveys, only the researcher and the research supervisor had access to the online responses. The electronic file will be stored securely for five years, after which the data will be safely destroyed, if necessary.

3.9 Data Collection

The proposed research study was submitted for ethical clearance to the Departmental Ethics Committee of the Department of Industrial Psychology at Stellenbosch University. An ethical clearance letter, as depicted in APPENDIX 1, was obtained from the departmental ethics screening committee and the Research Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University. Thereafter an online survey was constructed on the Survey Checkbox platform. After numerous pilot tests, the online survey was launched, and South African consultants were invited to participate in the study. As discussed, two selection/inclusion criteria applied. South African consultants who met the two selection criteria, and who were willing to participate in the study, formed the sampling group.

Prospective participants were invited to participate in the study by means of a research invitation. A research invitation, containing a survey link, was sent to prospective participants via email and/or social media (e.g. LinkedIn). The research invitation included an explanatory cover letter, which provided the prospective participants with a brief summary of the purpose of the study, anonymity and informed consent. The informed consent cover letter can be found in APPENDIX 2. If the participant wanted to participate in the study, then he/she clicked on the survey link. The participant was then redirected to an online survey platform where informed consent was explained, and the participant could tick the informed consent box to continue with the survey. Clear instructions were provided on how the online survey should be completed.

The online survey consisted of two sections: the first section comprised the OCB, PB and psychological empowerment measurement items; and the second section comprised the empowering leadership measurement items. The online survey consisted of a total of 86 items, and it took participants between eight and 20 minutes to complete. On completion of the online survey, the research participants were requested to forward the research invitation to other prospective

participants within their personal network of contacts, provided that the prospective participants met the inclusion criteria and voluntarily shared their contact details with the research participants.

During the data collection phase, approximately 900 research invitations were distributed to potential participants. The data collection phase was initially planned to be conducted over a period of one month, but the period had to be extended due to a low response rate. After the first month, those who were invited to participate in the research study were reminded and encouraged to participate in the study. After a period of two months and one week, a total of 438 potential participants had clicked on the survey link, but only 176 participated in the online survey. When considering the total number of research invitations distributed, the overall response rate was 19.55%. However, when considering only the potential participants who clicked on the survey link, it translates to a response rate of 40.18%. After consultation with the research supervisor and a professor from the Department of Statistics and Actuarial Sciences, it was decided to conclude the data collection due to the poor prognosis of soliciting more responses.

As the study collected survey data, and the participants were not forced to respond to each statement, the probability of missing values was great. Missing values is a common problem in statistical analysis (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004), and had to be treated before the data could be analysed.

3.10 Missing Values

Missing values occur when participants do not respond to certain items. Their inability or unwillingness to respond can be due to a variety of reasons. Nonetheless, it is important to note the effect that missing values can have on the data, as well as how the potential implications should be addressed. Missing values can have a negative effect on the efficiency of the indicator variables, and therefore must be addressed before the analysis of the data can commence (Beretta & Santaniello, 2016; Theron, 2015). Once the data was collected, the nature and the extent of the missing-values problem was established.

There are a variety of missing-values techniques that can be utilised to rectify the potential effects that they could have on the data. The appropriate missing-values technique is determined by the number of missing values within a given dataset, and the nature of the data (Switzer & Roth, 2002). A well-known class of missing-values techniques is known as imputation. These techniques provide a valuable solution to the problem of missing values, as they aim to replace the missing values with plausible estimated values, based on information available in the dataset (Batista & Monard, 2002; Beretta & Santaniello, 2016). More specifically, the k-nearest neighbour (KNN) imputation method makes use of an algorithm to replace a missing value by a value obtained from related cases in the dataset (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004; Beretta & Santaniello, 2016). The main benefits of the KNN

imputation method are as follows: it can predict both discrete attributes and continuous attributes (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004; Batista & Monard, 2002); there is no need for it to create a predictive model for each attribute with missing data (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004; Batista & Monard, 2002); it can easily treat instances with multiple missing values (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004; Batista & Monard, 2002); and it takes into consideration the correlation structure of the data (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004).

After establishing the missing-values problem, the KNN imputation technique was utilised to treat the missing values. Two cases' missing values could not be treated, and they subsequently were discarded from the dataset. Therefore, the total dataset consisted of 174 complete cases. Even though the resultant sample size was smaller than planned, a minimum sample size of 100 is considered sufficient for models containing less than five constructs (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009).

3.11 Statistical Analyses

Several statistical analysis techniques were utilised to analyse the data and to test the hypothesised relationships. These techniques included item analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), structural equation modeling (SEM), and the Sobel test for mediation.

3.11.1 Item analysis

Measurement instruments are developed with the aim to accurately measure an individual's standing on a given construct. Measurement instruments should therefore consist of items that measure actual constructs, or the dimensions of constructs that are supposed to be measured (Maingard, 2019). A measure's items act as stimuli that aim to elicit participants' responses in terms of the behaviour underlying the construct (Maingard, 2019). The item responses record the behaviour that underlies the construct, and consequently makes the behaviour "observable" in the form of data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Theron, 2015). For this reason, behaviour is regarded as a relatively uncontaminated expression of a specific underlying latent variable (Smuts, 2011; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014).

If a measurement instrument's design intention is indeed successful (i.e., accurately measuring an individual's standing on a given construct), several item statistics should indicate this. Item analysis is a statistical analysis process that can test and indicate whether a scale is reliable, while also providing suggestions for the improvement of the scale's measurement characteristics (Maingard, 2019). Item analysis can also be referred to as scale reliability analysis (Van Heerden & Theron, 2014), as it determines the quality and internal consistency reliability of the items of measures (Smuts, 2011).

The objective of item analysis is to create one-dimensional sets of items that explain variance in each of the latent variables (Wilbers, 2015). Item analysis serves to flag those items that do not successfully portray the intended latent variable (Van Deventer, 2015). It allows for bad items to be removed from the subscales to ensure that all the items in the subscales contribute to a valid and reliable description of the latent dimension in question (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). These bad/poor items can therefore be described as items that do not reflect the latent dimension that the items have been tasked to reflect (the common underlying latent variable); are not sensitive to relatively small differences in the latent dimension; and do not respond in unison with other items attributed to a specific subscale (Van Heerden & Theron, 2014). Items that do not contribute to an internally consistent description of the subscales of the measurement instruments will be flagged accordingly and their removal will be considered (Henning, Theron, & Spangenberg, 2004; Smuts, 2011).

Item analysis was performed on the four measurement instruments using Statistica version 13.5, to ensure that their items were a consistent and reliable representation of the latent variables of interest. Furthermore, as proposed by Van Heerden and Theron (2014), item analysis was performed separately for the subscales, where latent variables were defined constitutively in terms of two or more dimensions. Accordingly, Cronbach's alphas, average inter-item correlations for each subscale, and item total correlations were evaluated for the purpose of the scale reliability analysis. Once the scale reliability analysis had been completed, it was necessary to examine the internal factor structure of the measurement instruments. This was done by means of CFA.

3.11.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

CFA is a statistical analysis technique that investigates whether the measurement model successfully operationalises the structural model. This is done by formulating and testing hypotheses regarding the underlying factor structure of a construct – i.e., the relationships between the observed measures or indicators and the latent variables (Brown, 2006; Maingard, 2019).

CFA produces a series of SEM model-fit indices, which aid the researcher in determining how the observed data fits the proposed measurement model (Kelloway, 1998). The comprehensive SEM model-fit indices can only be interpreted unambiguously for or against the fitted structural model if it can be demonstrated that the indicator variables accurately portray the latent variables that they were assigned to represent (Van Heerden & Theron, 2014). For this reason, the fit of the measurement model that was used to operationalise the structural model had to be evaluated prior to the fitting of the comprehensive SEM model.

CFA was performed to confirm the factor structure of the latent variables of interest. The measurement model was fitted by analysing the covariance matrix in R Package lavaan version 0.6-3. If the multivariate normality assumption is satisfied, maximum likelihood (ML) estimation is used

(Mels, 2003; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014). If the multivariate normality assumption is rejected, robust maximum likelihood (RML) estimation or diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimation is used (Mels, 2003; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014). The fit of the measurement model was tested by evaluating the goodness-of-fit statistics to determine whether the model fit was exact, good or poor. If the CFA results suggested poor fit between the observed data and the theoretical understanding of the factor structure of a given latent variable, then EFA was performed. Due to the resultant poor model fit of the taking charge PB scale, EFA was performed to determine its factor structure.

3.11.3 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

Measurement instruments and their respective subscales are designed with the intention to reflect essentially unidimensional sets of items. As discussed, items are intended to act as stimulus sets to which the participants respond with behaviour that is essentially a manifestation of a specific unidimensional underlying latent variable, or a latent dimension of a multi-dimensional latent variable (Van Deventer, 2015). EFA is a statistical procedure that determines the interrelationships that exist among the indicator variables of each latent variable scale (Vermooten, 2018).

EFA involves a four-stage process, namely decide which factor analysis method will be used to extract factors, identify an appropriate factor rotation method, determine how many factors will be extracted, and, if necessary, calculate the factor loadings (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006; Vermooten, 2018).

EFA was performed with Statistica version 13.5. In the case that latent variables were constitutively defined in terms of two or more (p) dimensions, the success with which the multi-dimensional latent variable was operationalised in terms of p homogenous subscales was then evaluated by means of CFA (Van der Westhuizen, 2015; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014).

3.11.4 Structural equation modeling (SEM)

SEM is used for analysing multivariate data (Savalei & Bentler, 2010). It refers to a number of statistical techniques that can be performed to evaluate the hypothesised relationships between latent variables (Vermooten, 2018). In this study, SEM was used to specify the causal relationships that exist between the latent variables, to assess the explained variance, and to describe the causal effects.

There are two main approaches to SEM, namely covariance-based SEM and partial least squares (PLS) SEM (Brink, 2014; Vermooten, 2018). Covariance-based SEM predominantly makes use of maximum likelihood estimations and is viewed as a hard modelling approach, while PLS-SEM makes

use of PLS and is considered a softer modelling approach (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Vermooten, 2018). For the purpose of this study, variance-based SEM is referred to as PLS-SEM.

Both SEM approaches were utilised for the purposes of analysis and will be discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

3.11.4.1 Covariance-based SEM

Covariance-based SEM aims to replicate the theoretical covariance matrix (Brink, 2014). The covariance-based SEM matrix is based on a particular set of structural equations, and emphasis is placed on model parameter estimates that minimise the variance between the theoretical and estimated parameter estimates (Brink, 2014).

The covariance-based SEM analyses were performed using R Package lavaan version 0.6-3. The comprehensive SEM model, which comprised the measurement model and the structural model, was fitted by analysing the covariance matrix. The inappropriate analysis of continuous non-normal variables in SEM models can produce false standard errors and chi-square estimates, which could have significant negative effects on model fit (Theron, 2015; Van der Westhuizen, 2015). If the multivariate normality assumption was satisfied, ML estimation was used (Mels, 2003; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014). If the multivariate normality assumption was rejected, RML estimation or DWLS estimation was used (Mels, 2003; Van Heerden & Theron, 2014).

3.11.4.2 PLS-SEM

PLS models can be defined as two sets of linear equations, referred to as the inner model and the outer model (Langenhoven, 2015). The PLS outer model is similar to the measurement model used in SEM, as it analyses the relationships between the latent variables and their observed variables (Henseler et al., 2009; Langenhoven, 2015). The PLS inner model can be compared to the structural model used in SEM, as it analyses the relationships between latent variables (Henseler et al., 2009; Langenhoven, 2015). A series of analyses is associated with the PLS statistical method, and it is usually conducted in a two-step process. The PLS-SEM analyses were performed using SmartPLS version 3.2.8.

During the first step, the outer model was assessed. The initial analysis involved the systematic evaluation of the reliabilities of the latent variables in order to estimate the measurement model fit (Langenhoven, 2015). The evaluation of the PLS estimates revealed the validity and reliability of the measurement model (Van der Westhuizen, J., 2019). Once the calculated latent variable scores of the measurement model indicated sufficient reliability and validity, the inner path model could be evaluated (Chin, 1998).

The second step of the process was the assessment of the inner model – the structural model that relates latent variables to each other. During this step of the process, the structural model estimates were evaluated (Chin, 1998).

A bootstrapping sampling procedure was performed to assess whether the main effects and mediating effects are significant (Langenhoven, 2015). More specifically, a nonparametric bootstrap procedure was used to provide confidence intervals for all the parameter estimates, as it builds a more reliable basis for statistical inference (Davison & Hinkley, 2003; Van der Westhuizen, J., 2019). Upon completion of the bootstrapping procedure, the accuracy of the path estimates to the true effects was assessed (Langenhoven, 2015).

While covariance-based SEM is usually the preferred method, it requires a relatively large sample size, whereas PLS-SEM has been found to have high statistical power with smaller sample sizes (Chin, 1998; Esterhuyse, 2017; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2012; Van der Westhuizen, J., 2019). What is more, the PLS method is often recommended during the early stages of theoretical development, to test and validate exploratory models (Henseler et al., 2009). The PLS-SEM approach is, however, not ideal for explanatory theory-testing studies, and it cannot produce goodness-of-fit indices (Van der Westhuizen, J., 2019).

Despite the limitations of the approaches, both covariance-based SEM and PLS-SEM were utilised for the purpose of this study.

3.11.5 Sobel test for mediation

The purpose of the Sobel test is to test whether a mediator carries the influence of the independent variable to the dependent variable. The Sobel test is a specialised t-test that determines whether the reduction in the effect of the independent variable, after including the mediator in the model, is a significant reduction and whether the mediation effect is statistically significant (Du Preez, 2017).

The Sobel test was performed in Statistica version 13.5, to test whether psychological empowerment mediates the relationships between empowering leadership and the dependent variable extra-role behaviours of OCB and PB.

3.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the methodological choices that were made throughout the research process in order to obtain answers to the research-initiating question and, subsequently, to test the proposed hypotheses. The discussion included sub-sections on the substantive research hypotheses, research design, proposed structural model, statistical research hypotheses, measurement

instruments, sampling procedures, ethical considerations, data collection procedure, and the statistical analysis techniques relevant to this study.

In summary, an ex post facto correlational research design was used for the purposes of this research study. A non-probability snowball convenience-sampling technique was utilised to recruit potential research participants and, subsequently, to select an appropriate sample (i.e., South African consultants who report to a manager). After careful consideration of the ethical risks associated with the research study, quantitative data was collected by means of an online survey that was sent via research invitations to potential research participants. The online survey comprised the following measurements: a 24-item OCB scale, a 10-item taking charge PB questionnaire, a 12-item psychological empowerment scale, and a 38-item empowering leadership questionnaire (ELQ). Over a period of two months and one week, more than 900 research invitations were sent to potential research participants, but only 176 individuals participated in the research study. After treating for missing values, the complete dataset comprised 174 responses. The dataset was analysed, and the hypothesised relationships were tested by means of item analysis, CFA, EFA, SEM, and the Sobel test. The following software packages were utilised to perform the aforementioned statistical analyses: Statistica version 13.5, SmartPLS version 3.2.8, and R Package lavaan version 0.6-3.

Chapter 4 presents and discusses the research findings derived from the statistical analyses, and their interpretation.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the statistical results that were obtained after performing the statistical analyses, as discussed in Chapter 3. Firstly, item analysis, CFA and EFA were performed to determine whether the latent variable scales that were used to collect the quantitative data were indeed valid and reliable. Thereby, the psychometric integrity of the measurement instruments was investigated in order to validate the measurement model. Covariance-based SEM was then performed to determine the structural model fit, followed by a PLS-SEM analysis. An additional Sobel test was performed to test the mediation effect. Lastly, the final scores and the hypotheses were interpreted.

4.2 Item Analysis of Measurement Instruments

The measurement model's design had to be validated to ensure that it accurately measured an individual's standing on the constructs of interest. To this end, item analysis was performed on all the scales and subscales to evaluate the psychometric integrity of the indicator variables of the latent variables. This involved the evaluation of each subscale's Cronbach's alphas, average inter-item correlations, and the item total correlations.

The literature suggests that reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) of .70 or higher are sufficient (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Inter-item correlations were investigated to evaluate the consistency between items in the subscales of the measures. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), inter-item correlations with values between .50 and 1.00 are considered excellent, and values between .00 and .50 are considered acceptable reliabilities. These guidelines were applied for the purpose of validating the measurement model.

Table 1 presents a summary of the results of the item analysis for each of the sub-dimensions of the constructs of interest. The summary includes the mean, standard deviation, Cronbach's alpha, and average inter-item correlation for each subscale measuring the latent variables.

Table 1

Summary of Item Analysis Results

Measure	Subscale of measure	Sample size	Number of items	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach's alpha	Average inter-item correlation
OCB	Altruism	174	5	21.43	2.39	.73	.35
	Courtesy	174	5	21.77	2.26	.75	.38
	Sportsmanship	174	5	19.94	3.18	.79	.44
	Conscientiousness	174	5	20.36	3.24	.77	.40
	Civic virtue	174	4	15.95	2.54	.77	.46
PB	N/A	174	10	40.56	5.91	.91	.52
Psychological empowerment	Meaning	174	3	12.24	2.52	.92	.79
	Competence	174	3	12.70	1.96	.86	.69
	Self-determination	174	3	11.94	2.55	.88	.72
	Impact	174	3	10.43	3.02	.89	.76
Empowering leadership	Leading by example	174	5	20.53	4.72	.93	.74
	Participative decision-making	174	6	22.82	5.30	.92	.69
	Coaching	174	11	41.57	9.56	.94	.61
	Informing	174	6	21.28	6.07	.93	.69
	Showing concern	174	10	38.73	9.13	.95	.66

The item analysis results, as depicted in Table 1, are discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

4.2.1 Item analysis: OCB measure

The OCB measure consists of five subscales, which were discussed in Chapter 3. The first subscale, altruism, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .73, indicating acceptable reliability, and an average inter-item correlation of .35, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .46 to .55, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the altruism subscale measured what it intended to measure.

The second subscale, courtesy, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .75, which indicates high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .38 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .40 to .58, which is acceptable. None of the items affected the Cronbach's alpha negatively. These results indicate that the courtesy subscale of OCB measured what it was supposed to measure.

Sportsmanship, the third subscale, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .79, indicating high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .44 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .40 to .66, which is acceptable. Most of the items did not improve the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted, except for an item named 'sportsmanship 4'. If this item would be deleted, the Cronbach's alpha would increase to .80. However, since the Cronbach's alpha was $> .70$ and very close to .80, the deletion of the item was not warranted. These results indicate that the sportsmanship subscale of OCB measured what it intended to measure.

Conscientiousness is the fourth subscale of OCB. This subscale obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .77, indicating high reliability, and an average inter-item correlation of .40, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .46 to .62, which is considered acceptable. None of the items affected the Cronbach's alpha negatively. These results indicate that the conscientiousness subscale measured what it was supposed to measure.

The fifth subscale, civic virtue, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .77, indicating high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .46 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .53 to .66, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the civic virtue subscale of OCB measured what it was supposed to measure.

In summary, the OCB measure, with its five subscales, produced satisfactory internal consistency reliability scores – all the Cronbach's alphas were $> .70$. Hence, the OCB measure measured the participants' standings on the latent variable.

4.2.2 Item analysis: PB measure

The PB measure obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .91, indicating excellent reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .52 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were

positive, ranging from .61 to .74, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the PB measure measured what it intended to measure.

In summary, the PB measure produced satisfactory internal consistency reliability scores and accurately measured the participants' standings on the latent variable.

4.2.3 Item analysis: Psychological empowerment measure

The psychological empowerment measure consists of four subscales, which were discussed in Chapter 3. The first subscale, meaning, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .92, indicating very high reliability, and an average inter-item correlation of .79, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .82 to .85, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the meaning subscale measured what it intended to measure.

The second subscale, competence, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .86, which indicates high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .69 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .65 to .78, which is acceptable. Most of the items did not improve the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted, except for an item named 'competence 3'. If this item would be deleted, the Cronbach's alpha would increase to .89. However, since the Cronbach's alpha was $> .80$, the deletion of the item was not warranted. These results indicate that the competence subscale of psychological empowerment measured what it was supposed to measure.

Self-determination, the third subscale, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .88, indicating high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .72 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .71 to .82, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the self-determination subscale of psychological empowerment measured what it intended to measure.

Impact is the fourth subscale of psychological empowerment. This subscale obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .89, indicating high reliability, and an average inter-item correlation of .76, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .69 to .88, which is considered acceptable. Most of the items did not improve the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted, except for an item named 'impact 1'. If this item would be deleted, the Cronbach's alpha

would increase to .93. However, since the Cronbach's alpha was $> .80$, the deletion of the item was not warranted. These results indicate that the impact subscale measured what it was supposed to measure.

In summary, the psychological empowerment measure, with its four subscales, produced satisfactory internal consistency reliability scores – all the Cronbach's alphas were $> .80$. Hence, the psychological empowerment measure measured the participants' standings on the latent variable.

4.2.4 Item analysis: Empowering leadership measure

The empowering leadership measure consists of five subscales, which were discussed in Chapter 3. The first subscale, leading by example, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .93, indicating excellent reliability, and an average inter-item correlation of .74, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .78 to .86, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the first subscale of empowering leadership measured what it intended to measure.

The second subscale, participative decision-making, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .92, which indicates very high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .69 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .47 to .85, which is acceptable. Most of the items did not improve the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted, except for an item named 'PDM 6 (reversed)'. If this item would be deleted, the Cronbach's alpha would increase to .94. However, since the Cronbach's alpha was $> .90$, the deletion of the item was not warranted. These results indicate that the second subscale of the empowering leadership measure measured what it was supposed to measure.

Coaching, the third subscale, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .94, indicating excellent reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .61 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .67 to .82, which is acceptable. None of the items affected the Cronbach's alpha negatively. These results indicate that the coaching subscale of empowering leadership measured what it intended to measure.

Informing is the fourth subscale of empowering leadership. This subscale obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .93, indicating very high reliability, and an average inter-item correlation of .69, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .76 to .83, which is

considered acceptable. None of the items affected the Cronbach's alpha negatively. These results indicate that the informing subscale measured what it was supposed to measure.

The fifth subscale, showing concern, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .95, indicating excellent reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .66 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item total correlations were positive, ranging from .60 to .86, which is acceptable. None of the items improved the Cronbach's alpha if they were to be deleted. These results indicate that the fifth subscale of empowering leadership measured what it was supposed to measure.

In summary, the empowering leadership measure, with its five subscales, produced satisfactory internal consistency reliability scores – all the Cronbach's alphas were $> .90$. Hence, the empowering leadership measure accurately measured the participants' standings on the latent variable.

4.2.5 Concluding remarks regarding the item analysis results

The item analysis results offered satisfactory evidence to support the inclusion of all the individual items of the measurement instruments. All the subscales' Cronbach's alphas were above .70, indicating acceptable internal consistency. While the deletion of a few items would have improved the Cronbach's alphas of certain subscales, this would have been a marginal improvement and did not warrant the deletion of any items. It therefore was decided that all the items would be retained. The average inter-item correlations of the subscales ranged between .35 and .79. Although some of the values were lower than .50, they were still considered acceptable.

As the item analysis results were satisfactory, CFA subsequently was performed to investigate whether the sub-scales measured the latent variables well.

4.3 CFA of Measurement Instruments

CFA was performed to evaluate the quality of the measurement models implied by the scales – i.e. the measurement model fit. Four separate measurement models were constructed and evaluated for each latent variable scale. The multivariate normality assumption was rejected for each of the scales and, as a result, DWLS estimation was used to obtain the model parameter estimates.

CFA produced several goodness-of-fit statistics that were evaluated to determine the measurement model fit. These were the Satorra-Bentler chi-square (S-B χ^2), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI). Additionally, the factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), and construct reliability were investigated to determine measurement model fit.

S-B χ^2 serves as a traditional measure of evaluating overall model fit (Vermooten, 2018). RMSEA is an informative absolute-fit index that can be interpreted to show good fit (RMSEA < .05), reasonable fit (.05 < RMSEA < .08), mediocre fit (.08 < RMSEA < .10), or poor fit (RMSEA > .10) (Hair et al., 2006). GFI measures the goodness of fit between the observed covariance matrix and the hypothesised model, while AGFI serves as a correction of the GFI values (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Vermooten, 2018). GFI and AGFI values that are greater than .95 and closest to 1.00 show good fit (Hooper et al., 2008). Regarding the evaluation of factor loadings, standardised loading estimates should be higher than .50, and ideally higher than .70 (Hair et al., 2009). AVE is a summary indicator of convergence, and values greater than .50 suggest adequate convergence (Hair et al., 2009). Lastly, construct reliability values of .70 or higher indicate adequate internal consistency of the measured variables representing the construct of interest (Hair et al., 2009). These guidelines were utilised to evaluate the CFA results.

4.3.1 OCB measurement model

CFA was conducted to evaluate the OCB scale. Table 2 presents a summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the OCB measurement model.

Table 2

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the OCB Measurement Model

Measure	S-B χ^2	P-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
OCB	384.98	.10	.06	.97	.95

As indicated in Table 2, the S-B χ^2 value was 384.98 ($p < .01$). Subsequently, the exact-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA = 0) had to be rejected ($p < .05$). The RMSEA value of .06 indicated reasonable model fit, and the p-value for the test of close model fit was .10. The close-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA < .05) was therefore not rejected ($p > .05$), which implies that there is insufficient evidence to support the stance that the reproduced covariance model is inconsistent with the observed covariance model in the population. The GFI value of .97 and the AGFI value of .95 corroborate the good model fit.

The standardised loading estimates were greater than .50 and were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). The factor loadings therefore converge on a common factor. The AVE of the five subscales of OCB was considered satisfactory ($> .50$). The altruism and conscientiousness subscales extracted variances of .45 and .48, but this did not warrant concern, as they were not significantly below the .50 cut-off value. The extracted variances of the other subscales ranged from .54 to .57, suggesting adequate convergence. The OCB subscales had excellent construct reliability

(> .70). The altruism subscale had the lowest construct reliability (.80), and the sportsmanship subscale had the highest construct reliability (.86).

The correlations between the OCB subscales ranged from .22 to .62. This suggests that the subscales were correlated with each other, but not too strongly, which is expected of subscales of a larger scale.

Based on the overall goodness-of-fit statistics, good/close model fit was indicated for the OCB measurement model.

4.3.2 PB measurement model

CFA was conducted to evaluate the PB scale. Table 3 presents a summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the PB measurement model.

Table 3

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the PB Measurement Model

Measure	S-B χ^2	P-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
PB	168.46	.00	.15	.98	.96

As indicated in Table 3, the S-B χ^2 value was 168.46 ($p < .01$). Subsequently, the exact-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA = 0) had to be rejected ($p < .05$). The RMSEA value of .15 indicated poor model fit, and the p-value for the test of close model fit was .00. The close-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA < .05) was therefore rejected ($p < .05$), indicating unacceptable RMSEA. The GFI value of .98 and the AGFI value of .96, on the other hand, indicated good model fit.

The standardised loading estimates were greater than .70 and were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). The factor loadings therefore converged on a common factor. The AVE was considered satisfactory (> .50), with a value of .64. The PB measure had excellent construct reliability (> .70), with a value of .95.

Since the unidimensional structure of the PB measure resulted in a relatively poor fit with the observed data, EFA was conducted to evaluate the factor structure of the construct. This analysis is discussed in Section 4.4.

4.3.3 Psychological empowerment measurement model

CFA was conducted to evaluate the psychological empowerment scale. Table 4 presents a summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the psychological empowerment measurement model.

Table 4

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the Psychological Empowerment Measurement Model

Measure	S-B χ^2	P-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Psychological empowerment	38.45	.99	.00	.99	.99

As indicated in Table 4, the S-B χ^2 value was 38.45. Its associated p-value was .83. Subsequently, the exact-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA = 0) was not rejected ($p > .05$), indicating exact model fit. The RMSEA value of .00 indicated perfect model fit (Chikampa, 2013; Mulaik & Millsap, 2000), and the p-value for the test of close model fit was .99. By implication, the close-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA < .05) was therefore also not rejected ($p > .05$). As the exact-fit and close-fit null hypotheses were not rejected, it indicates acceptable RMSEA. The GFI value of .99 and the AGFI value of .99 further corroborated good model fit.

The standardised loading estimates were greater than .80 and were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). The amount of variance extracted by the four subscales of psychological empowerment was considered satisfactory ($> .50$). The subscales' extracted variances ranged from .78 to .90. The subscales had excellent construct reliability ($> .70$). The self-determination subscale had the lowest construct reliability (.91) and the meaning subscale had the highest construct reliability (.96).

The correlations between the psychological empowerment subscales ranged from .36 to .70, which suggests that the subscales were correlated with each other. It is generally expected that subscales of a larger scale would correlate with each other.

Based on the overall goodness-of-fit statistics, exact model fit was indicated for the psychological empowerment measurement model.

4.3.4 Empowering leadership measurement model

CFA was conducted to evaluate the empowering leadership scale. Table 5 presents a summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the empowering leadership measurement model.

Table 5

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the Empowering Leadership Measurement Model

Measure	S-B χ^2	p-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Empowering leadership	1079.12	.00	.06	.99	.99

As indicated in Table 5, the S-B χ^2 value was 1 079.12 ($p < .01$). Subsequently, the exact-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA = 0) had to be rejected ($p < .05$). The p-value for the test of close model fit was .00. The close-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA < .05) was therefore also rejected ($p < .05$). However, the RMSEA value of .06 indicated reasonable model fit. This was corroborated by the GFI value of .99 and the AGFI value of .99, which indicated good model fit.

All the standardised loading estimates were greater than .70, except for one loading that had a value of .45. All the loadings were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). While the .45 loading was below the recommended cut-off value, it is very close to .5 and did not warrant concern. The amount of variance extracted by the five subscales of empowering leadership was considered satisfactory ($> .50$). The subscales' extracted variances ranged from .71 to .80. The subscales had excellent construct reliability ($> .70$). The participative decision-making subscale had the lowest construct reliability (.94), and the showing-concern subscale had the highest construct reliability (.97).

The correlations between the empowering leadership subscales ranged from .69 to .91. This suggests that the subscales were highly correlated with each other, as would be expected from subscales of a larger scale.

Based on the overall goodness-of-fit statistics, reasonable model fit was indicated for the empowering leadership measurement model.

4.3.5 Concluding remarks regarding the CFA results

CFA was performed to evaluate the goodness of fit between the measurement models and the empirical data. The CFA results produced a basket of evidence that was found to be satisfactory for the OCB measurement model (i.e., close fit), psychological empowerment measurement model (i.e., exact fit), and the empowering leadership measurement model (i.e., reasonable fit). The measurement models' acceptable fits were indicative of discriminant validity. The observed data therefore support and confirm the theoretical understandings of the factor structures underlying the constructs of interest.

The CFA results of the PB measurement model, on the other hand, did not provide overall support for a unidimensional PB factor structure (i.e., poor fit). Subsequently, EFA was performed to further analyse the factor structure.

4.4 EFA of PB Measure

EFA was performed to establish the factor structure of the taking charge PB scale. As discussed, EFA involves a four-stage process. Throughout these stages, the researcher must make decisions regarding how EFA will be performed and what the construct's most accurate factor structure should look like. Some of these decisions include selecting a factor-extraction method, choosing the appropriate factor-rotation technique, and determining how many factors to extract.

Principal component analysis was selected as the factor-extraction method. This extraction method is used to reduce the number of factors that may be correlated with each other to a smaller number of uncorrelated factors, referred to as principal factors (Hair et al., 2006; Vermooten, 2018). Factor rotation is a technique used to discriminate between factors (Field, 2005), and oblimin rotation was used in the case of factor fission. To determine how many factors should be extracted, the EFA results can be evaluated against several different criteria. For the purpose of this study, the following factor-extraction criteria were selected: Cattell's (1966) scree test, Kaiser's (1960) eigenvalues greater-than-one criterion, the cumulative percentage of variance extracted, and Horn's (1965) parallel analysis (Vermooten, 2018).

The EFA results pertaining to the four factor-extraction criteria are discussed in the sub-sections that follow. The results were evaluated as a basket of evidence when it was determined how many factors should be extracted.

4.4.1 Cattell's scree test

According to Cattell (1966), the eigenvalues scree plot can be used to determine the optimal number of factors to retain. The scree test entails drawing two lines through the data points on the eigenvalues scree plot of the PB measure, as depicted in Figure 4.1. A horizontal line was drawn through the smaller eigenvalues (indicated by a red dotted line), and a vertical line was drawn through the larger eigenvalues. The point where the two lines cross acts as the elbow of the scree plot, and only the number of factors that fall to the left of the elbow should be retained as significant.

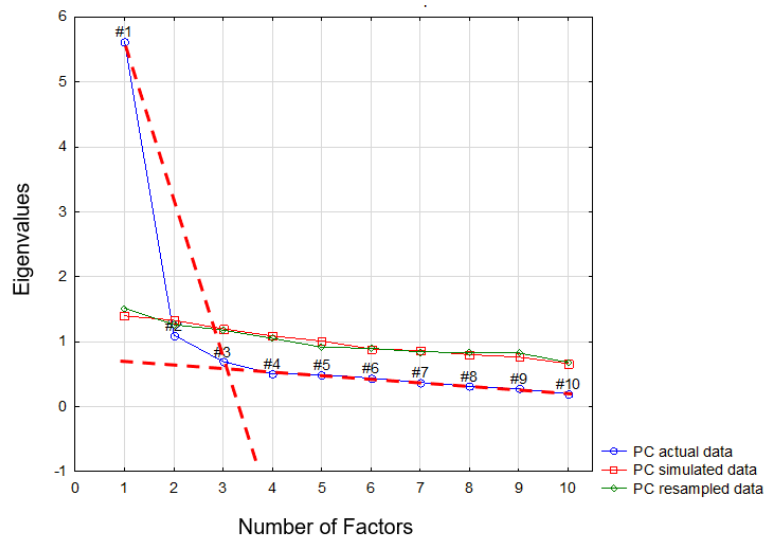


Figure 4.1. Eigenvalues scree plot of the PB measure – Cattell's scree test

Based on Cattell's scree test, the scree plot suggested a two-factor structure for analysing the data. It is important to be cognisant of the fact that the interpretation of this test is inherently subjective (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For that reason, other criteria were also considered.

4.4.2 Kaiser's criterion

Eigenvalues represent the amount of variance in all the variables that each factor explains (Vermooten, 2018). These values therefore reveal the explanatory significance of each factor (Vermooten, 2018). Kaiser's (1960) criterion regards eigenvalues > 1.00 as significant. So, factors with eigenvalues that exceeded 1.00 were considered for inclusion in the subsequent statistical analysis. Figure 4.2 provides a graphical depiction of Kaiser's criterion, where the eigenvalue of 1 is clearly indicated as the cut-off value (indicated by a red dotted line).

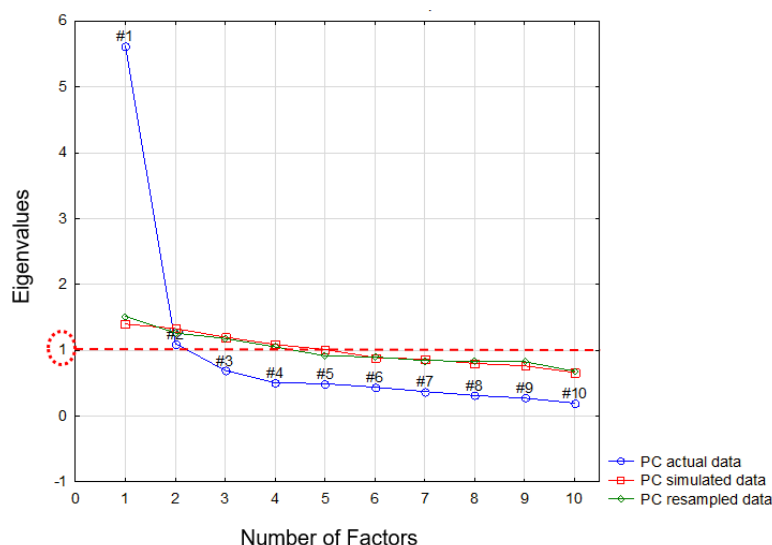


Figure 4.2. Eigenvalues scree plot of the PB measure – Kaiser's criterion

Figure 4.2 clearly indicates that two factors have eigenvalues greater than 1. Table 6 presents the eigenvalues of these two factors.

Table 6

Eigenvalues of the PB Measure – Kaiser's Criterion

Identified factors	Eigenvalues
Factor 1	5.62
Factor 2	1.10

Table 6 also reveals that two factors had eigenvalues > 1.00. Factor 1 had the highest eigenvalue, with a value of 5.62. Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 1.10. Based on Kaiser's (1960) criterion, two factors should be extracted.

4.4.3 Cumulative percentage of variance explained

The total percentage of variance measures the percentage of variance in all the variables explained by a given factor (Vermooten, 2018). The cumulative percentage of variance measures the total percentage of variance in all the variables that are jointly explained by the factors (Vermooten, 2018). It has been recommended that research studies in humanities should have cumulative percentage-of-variance values that range between 50% and 60% (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). This guideline was used for the purpose of determining how many factors should be extracted.

Table 7 presents the total percentage of variance and the cumulative percentage of variance of the two-factor structure.

Table 7

Total % and Cumulative % of Variance of the Revised PB Measure

Identified factors	Total % of variance	Cumulative % of variance
Factor 1	56.20	56.20
Factor 2	11.01	67.21

Table 7 indicates that the two-factor structure explained 67.21% of the total shared variance. This cumulative percentage-of-variance value was greater than 50%, thereby providing support for the two-factor structure of PB.

4.4.4 Horn's parallel analysis

The parallel analysis method is based on random data simulation to determine the number of factors (Çokluk & Koçak, 2016). A simulation technique is utilised to generate a random simulated dataset, besides the actual dataset, and then estimated eigenvalues are calculated that are compared to the actual eigenvalues (Çokluk & Koçak, 2016). Those factors for which the eigenvalues in the actual dataset are higher than in the simulated dataset are considered significant (Çokluk & Koçak, 2016).

Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 provide graphical presentations of the actual data points, as well as the simulated data points. Based on this comparison, only one factor can be considered significant with great certainty. However, since the second simulated eigenvalue was very close to the second actual eigenvalue, it warranted the investigation of a two-factor structure. What is more, the results of the other factor-extraction criteria supported a two-factor structure.

Based on these results, a two-factor solution was conducted. The results of the two-factor solution are depicted in Table 8.

Table 8

Results of Horn's Parallel Analysis – Two-Factor PB Solution

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
PB 1	-.87	-.09
PB 2	-.90	-.05
PB 3	-.82	.04
PB 4	-.75	.15
PB 5	-.19	.69
PB 6	.06	.83
PB 7	-.03	.79
PB 8	.06	.80
PB 9	-.03	.79
PB 10	-.53	.36

Table 8 reveals that items PB 1, PB 2, PB 3, PB 4 and PM 10 loaded significantly on Factor 1, while items PB 5, PB 6, PB 7, PB 8, PB 9 and PB 10 loaded significantly on Factor 2.

4.4.5 Concluding remarks regarding the EFA results

The results obtained from the EFA analysis provided support for a two-factor structure for the PB measure. While the EFA results are important, it is imperative that the two-factor solution makes sense from a theoretical and conceptual point of view.

In order to develop this theoretical and conceptual understanding, the multi-stage scale-development process of the original taking charge PB measure was evaluated. Morrison and Phelps (1999) developed the taking charge PB scale as a distinct measure of extra-role behaviour that is unique and separate from other measures of in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. Their CFA results provide strong evidence that the taking charge PB measure is distinct from both in-role behaviour and two commonly assessed forms of extra-role behaviour (civic virtue and altruism). To establish discriminant validity, they tested a series of hierarchically nested models and found support for their proposed four-factor model. Based on their findings, taking charge PB is a unidimensional construct that is considered distinct from other forms of extra-role behaviour. If they conducted further analyses on the taking charge scale in isolation, they might have discovered that the construct is not unidimensional after all. In addition to evaluating the original version of the taking charge OB measure, the researcher also investigated the items' descriptions to gain an understanding of the two-factor solution. The PB item descriptions and their respective loadings are depicted in Table 9.

Table 9

PB Measure – Item Descriptions and Item Loadings

Items	Item descriptions	Factor 1	Factor 2
PB 1	<i>I often try to adopt improved procedures for doing my job.</i>	-.87	-.09
PB 2	<i>I often try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective.</i>	-.9	-.05
PB 3	<i>I often try to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department.</i>	-.82	.04
PB 4	<i>I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.</i>	-.75	.15
PB 5	<i>I often try to change organisational rules or policies that are non-productive or counterproductive.</i>	-.19	.69
PB 6	<i>I often make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organisation.</i>	.06	.83
PB 7	<i>I often try to correct a faulty procedure or practice.</i>	-.03	.79
PB 8	<i>I often try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.</i>	.06	.8
PB 9	<i>I often try to implement solutions to pressing organisational problems.</i>	-.03	.79
PB 10	<i>I often try to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.</i>	-.53	.36

As depicted in Table 9, the following items loaded onto Factor 1: PB 1 (-0.87), PB 2 (-0.9), PB 3 (-0.82), and PB 4 (-0.75). All of these were considered high-factor loadings and they shared the same symbol (-). The following items loaded onto Factor 2: PB 5 (0.69), PB 6 (0.83), PB 7 (0.79), PB 8 (0.8), and PB 9 (0.79). All of these were considered high-factor loadings and they shared the same symbol (+). One of the items (PB 10) loaded onto Factor 1 (-0.53) and Factor 2 (0.36).

After careful consideration of the descriptive nature of the items, the cross-loaded item (PB 10) was allocated to Factor 1, which is also measured by PB 1 to PB 4. The grouping of Factor 1's items made theoretical and conceptual sense, as they measure an individual's positive taking charge behaviours aimed at improving procedures and overall efficiency. Factor 2's items, on the other hand, measure an individual's positive taking charge behaviours aimed at correcting or removing that which is redundant/faulty/non-productive. Based on these groupings, it made theoretical and conceptual sense for a two-factor structure for taking charge PB.

4.5 Supplementary Item Analysis of PB Measure

Supplementary item analysis was performed on the revised version of the PB measure. Table 10 presents a summary of the results of the supplementary item analysis for each of the sub-dimensions of the construct of interest. The summary includes the mean, standard deviation, Cronbach's alpha, and average inter-item correlation for each subscale measuring the latent variable.

Table 10

Item Analysis Results of the Revised PB Measure

Measure	Subscale of measure	Sample size	Number of items	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach's alpha	Average inter-item correlation
PB	Factor 1	174	5	20.79	3.12	.89	.62
	Factor 2	174	5	19.78	3.30	.86	.55

As indicated in Table 10, the first subscale of the revised PB measure, Factor 1, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .89, indicating high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .62 was obtained, which is considered acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item-total correlations were positive, ranging from .67 to .78, which is acceptable. None of the items affected the Cronbach's alpha negatively. These results indicate that the first subscale measured what it was supposed to measure.

Factor 2, the second subscale of the revised PB measure, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .86, indicating high reliability. An average inter-item correlation of .55 was obtained, which is considered

acceptable. These correlations indicate that the subscale's internal consistency reliability was satisfactory. All the item-total correlations were positive, ranging from .63 to .71, which is acceptable. None of the items affected the Cronbach's alpha negatively. These results indicate that the second subscale measured what it was supposed to measure.

In summary, the revised PB measure, with its two subscales, produced satisfactory internal consistency reliability scores – all the Cronbach's alphas were $> .80$. No poor items were identified during the supplementary item analysis of the revised PB measure. Hence, all the items that are subsumed under the two subscales of the revised PB measure were retained for the subsequent statistical analyses.

4.6 Supplementary CFA of PB Measurement Model

CFA was conducted to evaluate the revised PB scale. Table 11 presents a summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the revised PB measurement model.

Table 11

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the Revised PB Measurement Model

Measure	S-B χ^2	p-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Revised PB	68.35	.05	.07	.99	.98

As indicated in Table 11, the S-B χ^2 value was 68.35 ($p < .01$). Subsequently, the exact-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA = 0) had to be rejected ($p < .05$). The RMSEA value of .07 indicated reasonable model fit, and the p-value for the test of close model fit was .05. The close-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA $< .05$) was therefore not rejected ($p \geq .05$), which implies acceptable RMSEA. The GFI value of .99 and the AGFI value of .98 corroborated the good model fit.

All the standardised loading estimates were greater than .70 and were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). The AVE values of the two subscales of the revised PB measure were considered satisfactory ($> .50$). The extracted variances of the subscales were .66 and .75. The PB subscales had excellent construct reliability ($> .70$). The first subscale had construct reliability of .94, and the second subscale had construct reliability of .91.

It would be expected for subscales of a larger scale to be correlated with each other. The correlation between the PB subscales was .81, which indicates that the subscales were highly correlated with each other.

The supplementary CFA results were found to be satisfactory for the revised PB measurement mode (i.e., close fit). The observed data therefore supported and confirmed the two-factor structure underlying the PB construct.

4.7 Covariance-Based SEM

Covariance-based SEM was conducted to fit the structural model. The purpose of fitting the structural model was to evaluate the goodness of fit between the structural model and the empirical data, before examining the strength and the significance of the hypothesised relationships. The individual items were used as indicators for testing the overarching model. As the multivariate normality assumption was rejected, RML estimation was used to obtain the parameter estimates of the model.

Covariance-based SEM produced several goodness-of-fit statistics that were evaluated to determine the structural model fit. These are the S-B χ^2 , RMSEA, GFI, and AGFI. Additionally, the factor loadings, path coefficients, AVE values, and the construct reliabilities were also investigated to determine structural model fit. The recommended guidelines, as outlined in Section 4.3, were applied for the purpose of evaluating the structural model fit. Table 12 presents a summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the comprehensive SEM model.

Table 12

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the Comprehensive SEM Model

Model	S-B χ^2	P-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
SEM model	226.17	.00	.09	.85	.80

As indicated in Table 12, the S-B χ^2 value was 226.17 ($p < .01$). Subsequently, the exact-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA = 0) had to be rejected ($p < .05$). The RMSEA value of .09 indicated mediocre model fit, and the p-value for the test of close model fit was .00. The close-fit null hypothesis (RMSEA $< .05$) therefore had to be rejected ($p < .05$). The GFI value of .85 and the AGFI value of .80 indicated reasonable model fit.

All the standardised loading estimates were greater than .50, except for the sportsmanship (OCB) loading, which had a value of .38. All the loadings were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). While the .38 loading was below the recommended cut-off value, it was very close to .5 and did not warrant concern. All the path coefficients were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$).

The AVE values of PB and empowering leadership were considered satisfactory ($> .50$). OCB and psychological empowerment extracted variances of .30 and .44. These values were still relatively

close to the cut-off value of .50, so they did not warrant concern. PB, psychological empowerment and empowering leadership had excellent construct reliabilities ($> .70$). OCB had a construct reliability of .68, which was no cause for concern.

In summary, based on the overall goodness-of-fit statistics, reasonable model fit was indicated for the comprehensive SEM model (i.e., structural model). It was expected that the close-fit null hypothesis for the structural model would not be rejected ($p > .05$) and that acceptable RMSEA would have been found. To ensure that the interpretation of the hypothesised relationships with regard to strength and significance were accurate and consistent, a PLS-SEM analysis was also conducted.

4.8 PLS-SEM Analysis

The PLS-SEM analysis was conducted to determine the accuracy and consistency of the covariance-based SEM results. As discussed, the PLS-SEM analysis comprised a two-stage process. First, the outer model was assessed to determine the reliability and validity of the outer model estimations (i.e., measurement model). Once reliable and valid outer model estimates were established, the second stage commenced, whereby the inner model was evaluated (i.e., structural model).

4.8.1 Evaluation of the outer model

The outer model was evaluated to determine the quality of the constructs used for the evaluation of the inner model. In order to evaluate the reliability of the latent variables, the following outer model estimates were investigated: composite reliability coefficients, AVE values, HTMT ratios, and outer loadings. The results of the outer model are discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

4.8.1.1 Composite reliability

Composite reliability measures the internal consistency reliability of latent variable scales (Vermooten, 2018). Values equal to or greater than .70 are considered satisfactory (Esterhuyse, 2017). Table 13 contains the composite reliability values for the respective measures.

Table 13

Composite Reliabilities of the Measures

Measure	Composite reliability
OCB	.66
PB	.83
Psychological empowerment	.73
Empowering leadership	.94

As depicted in Table 13, the composite reliabilities of the following scales were found to be satisfactory ($> .70$): PB (.83), psychological empowerment (.73), and empowering leadership (.94). The OCB scale, on the other hand, had a composite reliability value of .66. While this value is below the generally recommended cut-off value of .70, Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011) suggest that a composite reliability value of greater than .60 can be regarded as satisfactory in exploratory research. Hence, the OCB scale's value of .66 does not warrant concern. The results indicate that the measures indeed measure what they were intended to measure.

4.8.1.2 AVE values

AVE is a measure of convergent validity, which measures the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated (Hair et al., 2009). These values indicate the amount of variance in the indicator variables, as explained by the common factors (Esterhuysen, 2017). It is suggested that support is found for convergent validity when AVE values are greater than .50 (Hair et al., 2009, 2011). AVE values greater than .50 were therefore regarded as satisfactory. Table 14 contains the AVE values of the respective measures.

Table 14

AVE Values of the Measures

Measure	AVE values
OCB	.29
PB	.70
Psychological empowerment	.41
Empowering leadership	.74

As depicted in Table 14, the PB and empowering leadership measures had satisfactory AVE values that exceeded the cut-off value of .50. The OCB and psychological empowerment measures had

AVE values of .29 and .41, which were lower than the cut-off value. This means that these constructs only explained 29% (OCB) and 41% (psychological empowerment) of the variance in the measure's items. Since AVE is a stricter assessment of reliability, these findings were considered when interpreting the results, but statistical investigation continued.

4.8.1.3 HTMT ratios

The HTMT ratio is a sophisticated measure of discriminant validity, which measures the extent to which a particular construct is empirically distinct from other constructs (Vermooten, 2018). With this analysis, correlations should be low to demonstrate that the measure is sufficiently different from other, similar measures (Hair et al., 2009). In other words, high correlations could suggest that the constructs can be regarded as one construct, and not as separate constructs (Van der Westhuizen, A., 2019).

HTMT ratio values smaller than .90 are considered satisfactory, and hence indicate that discriminant validity has been established (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). Furthermore, a bootstrapping procedure was utilised to construct confidence intervals for the HTMT ratio. Table 15 provides the HTMT ratios for all the constructs.

Table 15

HTMT Ratios of the Measures

Path between Measures	HTMT ratio	Confidence intervals		Discriminate
		95 % Lower	95% Upper	
PB → Empowering leadership	.10	.04	.04	Yes
OCB → Empowering leadership	.34	.02	.19	Yes
OCB → PB	.62	.01	.42	Yes
Psychological empowerment → Empowering leadership	.39	0	.22	Yes
Psychological empowerment → PB	.63	0	.47	Yes
Psychological empowerment → OCB	.61	.01	.47	Yes

As depicted in Table 15, all the HTMT values were smaller than the .90 cut-off value, and the values ranged from .10 to .63. Based on these results, each latent variable was found to be distinct, and thereby measures what it is supposed to measure.

4.8.1.4 Outer loadings

To conclude the evaluation of the reliability of the items, the outer loadings were examined by means of a PLS bootstrapping analysis. A 95% confidence interval was used to determine whether the item loadings were indeed significant. If zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval, the item loading was regarded as significant. As an additional assessment, the p-value for the t-test was also evaluated. A p-value of less than .05 is statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval (Boos, 2003). These guidelines were utilised to evaluate the significance of the outer loadings, as depicted in Table 16.

Table 16

Outer Loadings of the Measures

Construct	Path	Loading	Confidence intervals		Significant	P-value from t-test
			95 % Lower	95% Upper		
OCB	Altruism → OCB	.52	.30	.70	Yes	0
	Civic virtue → OCB	.77	.59	.91	Yes	0
	Conscientiousness → OCB	.51	.33	.67	Yes	0
	Courtesy → OCB	.39	.19	.56	Yes	0
	Sportsmanship → OCB	.43	.17	.61	Yes	0
PB	Factor 1 → PB	.88	.80	.96	Yes	0
	Factor 2 → PB	.79	.68	.90	Yes	0
Psychological empowerment	Competence → Psychological empowerment	.59	.44	.73	Yes	0
	Impact → Psychological empowerment	.61	.45	.75	Yes	0
	Meaning → Psychological empowerment	.73	.61	.84	Yes	0
	Self-determination → Psychological empowerment	.61	.46	.76	Yes	0
Empowering leadership	Coaching → Empowering leadership	.84	.71	.95	Yes	0
	Informing → Empowering leadership	.89	.67	1.07	Yes	0
	Leading by example → Empowering leadership	.81	.49	1.07	Yes	0
	Participative decision-making → Empowering leadership	.93	.93	1.11	Yes	0
	Showing concern → Empowering leadership	.84	.84	.97	Yes	0

The information in Table 16 explains the strength of the relationships between the latent variables, as well as the relevant items measuring the latent variables. All the outer loadings were found to be statistically significant – zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval, and all the p-values were < .05. Consequently, the results confirm that the latent variable scales are reliable.

4.8.1.5 Decision regarding the outer model

After careful evaluation of the outer model estimates (i.e. composite reliability values, AVE values, HTMT ratios, and outer loadings), it was concluded that the latent variables had satisfactory validity and reliability. The inner-model measurement fit was found to be satisfactorily high. Subsequently, the inner path model estimates were evaluated.

4.8.2 Evaluation of the inner model

The inner model fit was evaluated to determine the quality of the relationships between the latent variables in the structural model. The following inner model estimates were examined accordingly: multicollinearity, coefficient of determination, and the path coefficients of hypothesised relationships. The inner model results are discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

4.8.2.1 Test for multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when an independent variable is highly correlated with a set of other independent variables (Hair et al., 2009). High levels of multicollinearity are generally viewed as harmful, as they may reduce the overall R^2 that can be achieved, may confound estimations of the regression coefficients, and may negatively affect the statistical significance tests of coefficients (Hair et al., 2009). Considering this, the variance inflation factor (VIF) coefficients were calculated and evaluated to test for multicollinearity.

The VIF coefficients indicate the correlation between predictors in a regression analysis (Van der Westhuizen, A., 2019). Large VIF values indicate a high degree of collinearity or multicollinearity between predictors (Hair et al., 2009). The common cut-off threshold for VIF values is 10 (Hair et al., 2009). However, with a smaller sample size, it is recommended that the researcher apply a more stringent VIF cut-off value due to increases in the standard errors due to multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2009). Garson (2016) recommends a VIF cut-off value of 4, where VIF values of less than 4 are regarded as satisfactory. Garson's (2016) guideline was utilised for the purpose of testing for multicollinearity.

The results of the test for multicollinearity indicate a complete lack of multicollinearity, as all VIF values were equal to 1. These values are well below the VIF cut-off value, hence there were no problems of multicollinearity in the model.

4.8.2.2 Coefficient of determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is a measure of the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable about its mean that is explained by the independent variable (Hair et al., 2009). It is the most commonly used measure of predictive accuracy for a regression model (Hair et al., 2009). The higher

the value of R^2 (i.e. closer to 1.00), the greater the explanatory power and the better the predictive accuracy (Hair et al., 2009).

The adjusted R^2 is a modified measure that takes into account the number of independent variables and the sample size (Hair et al., 2009). As independent variables are added, the R^2 values increase, which means that in order to account for such bias, the adjusted R^2 values also had to be calculated. The R^2 and the adjusted R^2 values are displayed in Table 17.

Table 17

R^2 and Adjusted R^2 Values of the Measures

Construct	R^2	Adjusted R^2
OCB	.41	.41
PB	.39	.39
Psychological empowerment	.16	.15

As depicted in Table 17, the dependent variables obtained R^2 values of .41 (OCB), .39 (PB), and .16 (psychological empowerment). The adjusted R^2 values were no different for OCB and PB, but dropped slightly for psychological empowerment (.15). This indicates that 41% of the variance in OCB can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables, 39% of the variance in PB can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables, and 15% to 16% of the variance in psychological empowerment can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables. The low R^2 value for psychological empowerment indicates that there possibly are other variables that could have had an impact on the variable that were not measured in this study.

4.8.2.3 Path coefficients

The PLS-SEM analysis produced path coefficients that indicate the strength and significance of the hypothesised relationships between the latent variables. A PLS bootstrapping analysis was conducted to examine the path coefficients. A 95% confidence interval was used to determine whether the path coefficients were indeed significant. If zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval, the path coefficient was regarded as significant. As an additional assessment, the p-value for the t-test was also evaluated. A p-value of less than .05 is regarded as statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval. Table 18 indicates the path coefficients between the latent variables of the inner model.

Table 18

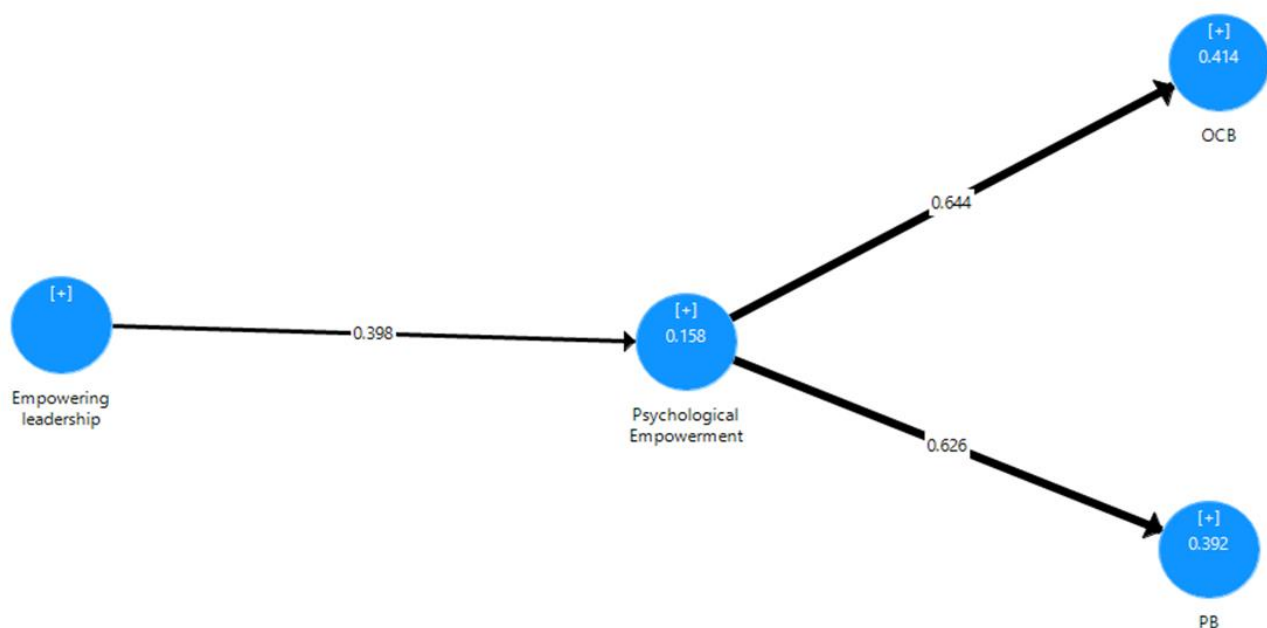
Path Coefficients of the Inner Model

Path	Path coefficient	Confidence intervals		Significant	P-value from t-test
		95 % Lower	95% Upper		
Empowering leadership → Psychological empowerment	.40	.21	.57	Yes	0
Psychological empowerment → PB	.63	.48	.77	Yes	0
Psychological empowerment → OCB	.64	.52	.79	Yes	0

As depicted in Table 18, all the path coefficients were statistically significant – zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval and all the p-values were < .05. All the hypothesised paths were therefore found to be statistically significant.

4.8.2.4 Decision regarding the inner model

After careful evaluation of the inner model fit, the hypothesised relationships were found to be statistically significant. Figure 4.3 illustrates the path diagram of the emerging structural model, which provides a summary of the inner model fit.

*Figure 4.3. Path diagram of the emerging structural model*

As illustrated in Figure 4.3, the structural model explained a significant portion of variance in the extra-role behaviours of consultants, and all the path coefficients in the emerging structural model were significant. The interpretation of the hypothesised relationships is discussed in Section 4.10.

An additional analysis was conducted to evaluate the mediation effects, as proposed by the structural model. This analysis is a statistically rigorous method that is known as the Sobel test (Du Preez, 2017). The results of the Sobel test are discussed in the next section.

4.9 Test for Mediation

The results of the Sobel test are displayed in Table 19.

Table 19

Sobel Test for Mediation

Mediation effect	Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	P-value	Description
1	Empowering leadership	Psychological empowerment	OCB	.00	Significant
2	Empowering leadership	Psychological empowerment	PB	.00	Significant

As depicted in Table 19, the Sobel test results reveal that psychological empowerment has a statistically significant mediation effect ($p = .00$) on the relationships between empowering leadership and the dependent variables of OCB and PB.

4.10 Interpretation of the Hypothesised Relationships

The proposed structural model was based on hypothesised relationships that stemmed from the in-depth literature review of the constructs of interest (see Chapter 2). The various statistical analyses produced path coefficients that were utilised to determine the strength, significance and direction of these hypothesised relationships. With reference to the results of the path coefficients, each of the hypothesised relationships, as listed in Section 3.2, are discussed in this section.

Hypothesis 1: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on OCB.

The hypothesised positive influence of psychological empowerment on OCB was found to be statistically significant in both covariance-based SEM ($p < .001$) and PLS-SEM (path coefficient = .64; $p < .05$). These findings support previous research findings, as discussed in Section 2.4.1.

Therefore, as consultants become more psychologically empowered, they will be more prone to engage in OCB.

Hypothesis 2: Psychological empowerment has a positive influence on PB.

The hypothesised positive influence of psychological empowerment on PB was found to be statistically significant in both covariance-based SEM ($p < .001$) and PLS-SEM (path coefficient = .63; $p < .05$). These findings support previous research findings, as discussed in Section 2.4.2. Consequently, as consultants become more psychologically empowered, they will be more prone to engage in taking charge PB.

Hypothesis 3: Empowering leadership has a positive influence on psychological empowerment.

The hypothesised positive influence of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment was found to be statistically significant in both covariance-based SEM ($p < .001$) and PLS-SEM (path coefficient = .40; $p < .05$). These findings support previous research findings, as discussed in Section 2.4.3. Hence, consultants who report to managers who exhibit empowering leadership behaviours will experience high levels of psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB.

The hypothesised relationship between empowering leadership and OCB, as mediated by psychological empowerment, was found to be statistically significant in the Sobel test ($p = .00$). Furthermore, support was found for the full mediation of this relationship, as the indirect path was found to be statistically significant in both covariance-based SEM ($p < .001$) and PLS-SEM ($p < .05$). These findings support previous research findings, as discussed in Section 2.4.5. Consequently, it was shown that empowering leadership behaviours enhance the psychological empowerment levels of consultants, and that the latter will enhance the consultants' exhibition of OCB. Hence, empowering leaders foster working environments that enhance consultants' levels of psychological empowerment, which in turn motivates them to engage in OCB.

Hypothesis 5: Psychological empowerment fully mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and PB.

The hypothesised relationship between empowering leadership and PB, as mediated by psychological empowerment, was found to be statistically significant in the Sobel test ($p = .00$). Furthermore, support was found for the full mediation of this relationship, as the indirect path was found to be statistically significant in both covariance-based SEM ($p < .001$) and PLS-SEM ($p < .05$).

These findings support previous research findings, as discussed in Section 2.4.6. Therefore, it was shown that empowering leadership behaviours enhance the psychological empowerment levels of consultants, and that the latter will enhance the consultants' exhibition of PB. Stated differently, empowering leadership, through the mechanism of psychological empowerment, can stimulate and foster the beliefs and organisational conditions that are necessary for consultants to engage in taking charge PB.

In summary, the research findings provide support for the hypothesised relationships. All the path coefficients were found to be statistically significant. It therefore can be concluded that empowering leadership enhanced the levels of psychological empowerment in consultants, and the latter enhanced consultants' levels of OCB and PB.

4.11 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present and discuss the statistical results of the various analyses. As an initial step, item analysis and CFA were performed to determine whether the latent variable scales that were used to collect the empirical data were indeed valid and reliable. Based on the initial CFA results of the PB scale, an EFA analysis was conducted to determine the factor structure of the construct. It was found that the PB scale was not unidimensional, as proposed by the original authors, but rather has a two-factor structure. After careful consideration of the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the construct, the revised two-factor PB structure was utilised for the subsequent analyses. The reliability analysis results indicated that each measurement model, including the revised PB measurement model, reproduced the empirical data reasonably well.

Once the reliability and validity of the latent variable scales had been confirmed, covariance-based SEM was performed. This analysis was performed to determine the goodness of fit between the structural model and the empirical data. The comprehensive SEM model was fitted and produced reasonable model fit. Subsequently, PLS-SEM was performed as an additional analysis to determine the accuracy and consistency of the structural model fit. The PLS outer model and inner model fits were assessed, and the path coefficients were evaluated to determine the strength and significance of the hypothesised relationships between the latent variables in the structural model.

All the path coefficients were found to be statistically significant in both covariance-based SEM and PLS-SEM. The path-specific hypotheses, as indicated by the proposed structural model, were supported by the results as obtained from the analyses. Furthermore, the structural model explained a significant portion of variance in the extra-role behaviours of consultants.

An additional mediation analysis was performed, known as the Sobel test, to test whether psychological empowerment fully mediated the relationships between empowering leadership and

the extra-role behaviour of OCB and PB. The Sobel test results provided support for the proposed full mediation effect.

Following this, Chapter 5 discusses the practical and managerial implications of the study. The research limitations of the study are also discussed, and recommendations are made for future research.

CHAPTER 5

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

The present study argued the need for consultants to engage in extra-role behaviours to best serve their organisational clients. The main purpose of the present study was to test an extra-role behavioural structural model, which examined the variance in extra-role behaviours of South African consultants. This present study explored some of the antecedents of extra-role behaviour in order to gain insights into how consultants can become empowered.

The extra-role behavioural model proposes that an empowering work environment, fostered by an empowering leader, will enhance the levels of psychological empowerment of consultants, and thereby enhance their willingness to engage in extra-role behaviours. As discussed in Chapter 4, the proposed relationships in the extra-role behavioural model were found to be statistically significant.

Considering these findings, this chapter outlines the practical and managerial implications of the research findings. The research limitations of the present study are also discussed, and recommendations for future research endeavours are proposed.

5.2 Practical and Managerial Implications

The research findings, as discussed in Chapter 4, provide industrial psychologists with insights into some of the antecedents of extra-role behaviours. Accordingly, South African industrial psychologists should develop and implement appropriate interventions that are based on the theoretical reasonings behind the extra-role behavioural model.

The extra-role behavioural model accounted for a substantial amount of variance observed in psychological empowerment (.16) and the extra-role behaviours of OCB (.41) and PB (.39). It can therefore be concluded that the extra-role behavioural model signifies important avenues that industrial psychologists could pursue to enhance the levels of extra-role behaviours of South African consultants. As it was shown that empowering leadership behaviours enhance the psychological empowerment levels of consultants, and that the latter, in turn, are positively related to extra-role behaviours, it provides some justification for the diagnostic assessment of these variables in South African consulting firms.

Diagnostic assessments can be conducted in the form of annual empowerment surveys. The survey could comprise a battery of assessments, as utilised for the purposes of this study, or it could solely measure psychological empowerment. As an initial diagnosis, it is recommended that consulting

firms at least measure the level of psychological empowerment of its workforce, as this acts as the pivotal mindset that is required for empowering practices to generate valuable employee behaviours. The annual empowerment survey will then provide organisations with information on the psychological empowerment state/health of its workforce. The level of psychological empowerment, or the lack thereof, will subsequently inform the level of interventions required to achieve and maintain an empowered workforce.

5.2.1 Recruitment and selection

It is essential that South African consulting firms adjust their recruitment and selection procedures to reflect the importance of empowering leadership behaviours at a managerial level and extra-role behaviours at a consultant level.

Consulting firms should employ managers and leaders who exhibit empowering leadership behaviours. By appointing empowering managers and leaders, the organisation can ensure that a top-down commitment to empowerment will be upheld. For those firms that make use of psychometric assessment as part of their recruitment and selection procedure, a psychometrically sound self-report measure of empowering leadership could be added to the existing battery of measures. This will provide the recruiters with an indication of the candidates' leadership style and general exhibition of empowering leadership behaviours. For those firms that do not make use of psychometric assessments, the recruiters/interviewers should be trained in the importance of these behaviours, and how to identify the manifestation of empowering leadership behaviours in the candidates that are being considered for management positions. These behaviours could be expected to manifest during role-plays, and/or when candidates are asked to describe their reactions to various employee-manager scenarios.

Central to this study was the impact that leadership behaviour has on the extra-role behaviours of consultants. The present study therefore did not consider the impact that personality has on these extra-role behaviours. Nonetheless, there is research available on the personality antecedents of extra-role behaviour that industrial psychologists could consider when reviewing the recruitment and selection procedures for appointing consultants.

It is of crucial importance that candidates should not be regarded as successful or unsuccessful based solely on their exhibition of empowering leadership behaviours and/or extra-role behaviours. A basket of evidence and selection criteria should be reviewed against the inherent requirements of the job. Even so, it is important for recruiters/interviewers to ensure that all appointees' beliefs and values match the organisational culture of empowerment.

5.2.2 Training and development

Training and development programmes should be introduced to inform managers and leaders of the importance of creating an empowering work environment. These managers and leaders should be taught how to foster empowerment in the workplace and how to engage with their direct reports in an empowering manner. Management development programmes can be introduced that cover modules on “becoming an empowering leader”. Manager workshops can be introduced that cover the dimensions of empowering leadership, with practical examples of implementation.

The essence of extra-role behaviours is that employees willingly engage in these behaviours to better serve their organisations. Interventions aimed at teaching consultants about the importance of extra-role behaviours and how to engage in them might not have the desired effect. Consequently, consultants might feel obliged to engage in these behaviours, which undermines the authenticity of the behaviour. Alternatively, consultants should be trained on important organisational values that may promote extra-role behaviours (e.g., trust, knowledge, helping, integrity, empowerment), as well as the positive consequences of engaging in behaviours that are aligned with the organisational values (e.g., better relationships with colleagues, more efficient ways of working, superior client service). Considering this, it is very important for the organisational values to foster an empowering work environment. Training programmes related to client service could also incorporate desirable client outcomes that are associated with extra-role behaviours, such as providing clients with tailored solutions to their problems.

Self-awareness training could be introduced for both managers and consultants. For managers and leaders, it should be focused on enhancing their awareness of their empowering leadership behaviours. This awareness may lead to improved empowering leadership behaviours, as they will reflect on their interactions with subordinates and attempt to improve their behaviour. For consultants, it should be focused on enhancing their awareness of their levels of psychological empowerment. By creating this awareness, consultants might take active steps to improve their own level of psychological empowerment by finding meaning in their jobs, improving their competencies and skill sets, exercising more control over their work life, and making attempts to affect the work environment.

5.2.3 Organisational development (OD) initiatives

Organisational development (OD) projects can be implemented that are geared towards an empowering organisational culture. OD projects target the entire organisation. These interventions can include the removal or redesign of existing work practices, systems and procedures that act as obstacles to employee empowerment. The OD interventions could also include the introduction of new systems and practices that are conducive to an empowering work environment.

The OD initiatives will affect the organisational culture and the values that underlie the day-to-day operations of the consulting firm. The new practices, systems and procedures should support the premises underlying the extra-role behavioural model – i.e., increase levels of psychological empowerment and enable consultants to engage in extra-role behaviours. Considering that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviours, OD initiatives can target the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment to foster an empowering work environment.

Meaning can be enhanced by ensuring that consultants find their work life fulfilling. While not all work tasks can be experienced as meaningful and fulfilling, organisations can take active steps to ensure that meaning is still experienced at work. The organisation can host social events during which colleagues can get together, socialise and build meaningful relationships. The firm can become involved in the community and host events where employees can get involved and have meaningful interactions (e.g. CV-writing workshops for the unemployed). As mentioned, it is important for recruiters/interviewers to ensure that there is a cultural fit between the consultant and the organisational values. When an employee's personal values correspond with the organisation's value system, then meaning is enhanced at work. These initiatives will enhance the meaning that consultants experience in their work and will enhance their levels of psychological empowerment.

Competence can be enhanced through the promotion of a knowledge-sharing organisational culture. The firm can conduct frequent training-needs assessments to identify any training gaps. Workshops on continuous professional development can be held, based on the identified training needs, to ensure that consultants are equipped to provide superior service to organisational clients. Managers need to provide consultants with feedback and reassure them of their capabilities and competencies to successfully execute tasks. These initiatives will improve the consultants' perceived level of competence and enhance their levels of psychological empowerment.

Self-determination can be enhanced by increasing the consultants' level of autonomy. This can be done by allowing consultants to make their own decisions regarding the day-to-day execution of tasks. Consultants should be in charge of prioritising and managing their tasks, and they should not be micro-managed by their managers. Managers should implement structured feedback/update sessions on a weekly or bi-weekly basis during which goals are established, and progress is discussed. Flexible work arrangements could also provide the consultant with the freedom to plan and work around other non-work obligations. These initiatives will improve the consultants' perceived level of self-determination and enhance their levels of psychological empowerment.

Impact can be enhanced by clearly communicating how the consultants' deliverables are linked to the strategic objectives of the organisation. Consultants should be provided with opportunities to submit and follow-up on leads to actively grow the business' clientele. They should be provided with feedback (e.g., quarterly) on the financial position of the firm, and the contribution that their various

projects have made. Managers should have monthly check-ins with their direct reports to discuss the various projects on which they are working and how they are experiencing their job. These feedback sessions will provide consultants with a platform to talk freely, feel heard and discuss matters that they want to change. These initiatives will improve the consultants' perceived level of impact and enhance their levels of psychological empowerment.

The dimensions of psychological empowerment must be enhanced simultaneously and must reinforce each other to have the desired effect. OD initiatives that target empowerment on a structural level (i.e., work practices, systems and procedures) will significantly change the work environment and shape motivational cognitions that enhance psychological empowerment. Employees will only experience heightened psychological empowerment if the work environment enables them to experience meaning, feel competent, experience freedom and autonomy in making work-related decisions, and influence their immediate working environment.

The abovementioned interventions could be expected to enhance the consultants' levels of psychological empowerment and thereby enhance the extra-role behaviours of consultants in South African consulting firms. As a result, these consultants will be able to deliver superior value-adding services to their organisational clients.

5.3 Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

A few research limitations were identified and are discussed in this section. It is important to note that these limitations do not detract significantly from the research findings, as discussed in Chapter 4.

First, the low response rate of 19.55%, and subsequent sample size, was identified as a research limitation. The desired sample size was 200 South African consultants, and it was planned that the data would be collected over a period of one (1) month. Due to the low response rate, over 900 research invitations were distributed over an extended period of two (2) months and one (1) week. Due to time constraints and the poor prognosis of soliciting more responses, the data collection phase had to be concluded. The resultant final sample consisted of 174 participants. With this smaller sample size, it raises concerns about the representativeness of the target population, as well the generalisability of the research findings. A potential contributor to the low response rate could be that no monetary or material reward was offered to the participants. Fortunately, although the final sample size was smaller than the desired sample size, research suggests that a sample of 100 would have sufficed to test the proposed extra-role behavioural model. Nonetheless, a larger sample would have increased the statistical power of the results and increased the credibility of the study. For future research, more time should be allocated to the data collection phase to ensure that a larger

sample size is obtained. Additionally, future researchers could consider offering a material or monetary reward to participants to improve the response rate.

Second, the study made use of a non-probability snowball convenience sampling technique to recruit potential participants. A limitation of this sampling technique is that it may lead to skewed representation, where the researcher is unable to manage the representation of the sample relative to the target population. Another contributor to this problem was the use of an online survey that was anonymised. While this encouraged participants to participate voluntarily without any feelings of being coerced, the researcher was unable to monitor whether the participants met the inclusion criteria. Considering this, the researcher clearly communicated the inclusion criteria (viz., South African consultant who reports to a manager) throughout the data collection process. Additionally, the researcher only distributed the research invitation to South African consultants in order to secure South African consultants as the front-line recruiters of potential research participants. Future researchers could consider sampling techniques that better enable the researcher to manage the representation of the sample relative to the target population.

Third, the present study only made use of one sample. The research participants were asked to respond to statements concerning their roles as consultants, as well as statements concerning their managers. Hence, the participants responded to the statements based on their actual standings on the constructs of OCB, PB and psychological empowerment (i.e., self-report measures). However, when they responded to the statements concerning their managers, the responses were based on their perceptions of their managers (i.e., other reports), not the managers' actual standings on the construct of empowering leadership. Factors that contributed to the researcher's decision to make use of only one sample included the high value placed on securing participants' anonymity and ensuring voluntary participation. For future research, it is recommended that two samples are recruited – one sample comprising South African consultants, and the second sample comprising the South African consultants' (the first sample's) direct managers. This means of obtaining empirical data will more accurately reflect both the consultants' and their respective managers' actual standings on the constructs of interest.

Fourth, a potential limitation of the present study was the sole use of self-reports to measure the variables of OCB, PB and psychological empowerment. A limitation is that common-method bias may occur, where the variations in responses are caused by the measurements rather than the actual predispositions of the participants. Considering this, reliability analysis was performed to ensure that the measures did indeed measure what they were intended to measure. An additional limitation of self-report measures is that participants may engage in response bias, in terms of which they provide responses that are in line with their intentions or deemed socially appropriate, more so than their actual behaviours. Hence, there was a possibility that participants did not provide honest responses to some of the statements. While anonymity was guaranteed, participants might have

wanted to present themselves in a positive light. For example, it can generally be agreed that a socially appropriate response would be to “willingly help others who have work-related problems”. These dishonest responses could limit the credibility of the findings. In an attempt to limit these biases, future research should include both self-report and other-report measures of the constructs of interest. Other-report measures may include co-workers’ and/or managers’ reports. It is important to note, however, that other-report measures pose their own threats and biases. It therefore is recommended that both types of measures be utilised to conduct further research.

Fifth, the online survey was only available in English, which may have caused a potential language barrier. This is a potential limitation to the study, as language barriers could lead to misinterpretation of statements, and then the responses could be inaccurate and invalid. The online survey contained reverse-scored items, which were negatively phrased. This could have inflated the potential risk of misinterpretation due to a language barrier. What is more, the fact that the online survey was only available in English might have deterred non-proficient English speakers from participating in the research study. Future researchers should consider rewriting the reverse-scored items into positively scored items that would avoid the problem of reversed scoring and potential misinterpretation of items. Additionally, future research should consider further development and validation of the measures within a South African context. Subsequently, the measures could be translated into more indigenous languages.

Sixth, the present study did not request identifiable information from research participants. While this enhanced anonymity of the study, the result was a lack of descriptive statistics of the sample. This reduces the generalisability of the research findings. It is recommended that future research should collect at least some identifiable information from research participants (e.g. gender, age, race, work experience within the industry).

Seventh, the occurrence of missing values was a limitation of the present study. The online survey was constructed in such a manner as to provide participants with the opportunity to refuse to respond to certain statements and still remain in the study. This resulted in missing values. After treating for missing values, two cases could not be restored and were subsequently removed from the final sample ($n = 174$). While the researcher apprehended the occurrence of missing values, greater value was placed on not forcing participants to respond to statements they do not want to. Future researchers should consider remedies to avoid the occurrence or associated problems of missing values.

Eighth, the R^2 values were found to be satisfactory (.15 to .41), but the probability that other important variables could explain additional variance in the hypothesised relationships is high. It is therefore recommended that future research should include additional variables in the extra-role behavioural structural model that make theoretical sense in explaining extra-role behaviours. The extra-role behavioural model could therefore be expanded in future research.

Ninth, the present study made use of a cross-sectional design, which studies the phenomenon at a single point in time. It is recommended that future research conduct a longitudinal study with multiple data collection phases. This will enable the researcher to draw causal relationships, to analyse changes over time, and to identify recurring behavioural patterns among South African consultants and their managers.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that future researchers further develop and validate the two-factor structure of the PB construct. Furthermore, it is also proposed that the extra-role behavioural model could be applied to other work environments and categories of employees.

5.4 Chapter Summary

The main purpose of the present study was to test an extra-role behavioural structural model that examined the variance in extra-role behaviours of South African consultants. The extra-role behavioural model proposed that an empowering work environment, fostered by an empowering leader, will enhance the levels of psychological empowerment of consultants, and thereby enhance their willingness to engage in extra-role behaviours (i.e., OCB and PB). All the proposed relationships in the extra-role behavioural model were found to be statistically significant.

The research findings contribute to the field of industrial psychology by providing industrial psychologists with insight into why there is variance in the extra-role behaviours of South African consultants. These findings shed light on possible interventions that could foster extra-role behaviours in consulting firms.

Considering these findings, this chapter has outlined the practical and managerial implications of the research findings. The research limitations of the present study were discussed, and recommendations were made for future research endeavours to ensure that further fruitful research is conducted in the field of industrial psychology in South Africa.

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APPENDIX 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER



NOTICE OF APPROVAL

REC Humanities New Application Form

16 January 2019

Project number: 8798

Project Title: Exploring the Antecedents of Extra-Role Behaviour: Becoming an Empowered Consultant

Dear Miss Uanne De Vos

Your REC Humanities New Application Form submitted on **10 December 2018** was reviewed and approved by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following for your approved submission:

Ethics approval period:

Protocol approval date (Humanities)	Protocol expiration date (Humanities)
16 January 2019	15 January 2022

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (**8798**) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary)

Included Documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Data collection tool	Consolidated Survey Questionnaire	18/11/2018	1
Default	OCB instrument - pg. 121	06/12/2018	1
Default	Taking Charge PB instrument - pg. 410	06/12/2018	1
Default	Empowering Leadership instrument - pg. 268	06/12/2018	1
Default	Psychological Empowerment instrument - pg. 1464	06/12/2018	1
Research Protocol/Proposal	Revised Research Proposal - U. de Vos 06 12 18	07/12/2018	2
Informed Consent Form	Revised Electronic Informed Consent Form 06 12 18	07/12/2018	2

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

APPENDIX 2: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOURAL SURVEY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is Uanne de Vos, a student at the Department of Industrial Psychology at Stellenbosch University, and I would like to invite you to take part in a survey, the results of which will contribute to a research project in order to complete my MCom Industrial Psychology degree. Please take some time to read the information presented here, which will explain the details of this project.

You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are employed in a consulting capacity at a South African organisation and you report to a manager. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you are free to decline to participate. If you say no, this will not affect you negatively in any way whatsoever. If you say yes, you may refuse to provide responses to certain statements and still remain in the study. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any point, even if you do initially agree to take part, and your given responses will not be included in the study. You may withdraw from the study by simply closing the browser window.

The purpose of this study is to develop an extra-role behavioural model for consulting firms in South Africa. Extra-role behaviours are known as positive discretionary behaviours that deviate from formally prescribed roles and tasks, which employees willingly engage in to benefit and better serve their organisations. This study aims to determine why there is variance in the extra-role behaviours of consultants in South Africa – i.e. why do some consultants engage in extra-role behaviours, while others do not.

The online survey will take approximately 15 – 20 minutes to complete and will contain a combination of statements covering your behaviour at work and your perception of your manager's behaviour at work. Upon completion of the survey, please forward this research invitation to other prospective participants within your personal network of contacts (i.e. family, friends) that meet the inclusion criteria. Please ensure that you only forward the research invitation to individuals that have voluntarily shared their contact details with you.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS:

You have the right to decline answering any questions and you can exit the survey at any time without giving a reason. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact Mrs Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

Your information and responses to the survey will be protected by ensuring full anonymity throughout the entire research process. No identifiable information will be requested from you, so it will not be possible to link you to any of your responses. The raw data will be completely anonymous and will be stored in a password-protected file, which is only accessible by the Researcher and the Supervisor.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact the Researcher, Uanne de Vos (Contact Details – 071 179 7975; uannedevos@gmail.com), and/or the Supervisor, Mrs. Michèle Boonzaier (Contact Details – 081 047 0699; mib@sun.ac.za).

1. *I confirm that I have read and understood the information provided for the current study.

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

2. *I agree to take part in this survey, and I agree that the data may be used for future research purposes.

- ☐ Yes
☐ No