

Chapter One

Introduction

Background

Increased competition has forced companies to revise their management of resources for purposes of revitalizing competitive advantage (Schyns, Torka & Gossling, 2007). In Uganda, organizations are now being forced to merge, downsize, restructure, as well as expand operations and acquire new technologies in order to stay competitive. To this effect therefore, organizational change is bringing about prominent dyadic relationships between the supervisor and subordinate. They are increasingly relying more on supervisors as their agents who are supposed to discharge their legal, moral and financial responsibilities (Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

Supervisors and middle-level managers thus are key to the motivation and empowerment of employees when it comes to their productivity and performance (Wat & Shaffer, 2005). However, the quality of interaction between the supervisor and subordinate is responsible for subordinates' behaviors and attitudes such as organizational commitment, empowerment and organizational citizenship behaviors (Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 1997).

Among the organizations in Uganda that have faced major restructuring are those in the power sector. In 2005, the power distribution company was concessioned to private owners and consequently a new organization - Umeme was formed. Umeme's main strategy of creating a matrix organization means that it depends heavily on the effectiveness of supervisors, and this especially implies that many human resource functions have been devolved to direct supervisors. This has increased supervisors' importance regarding employees' attitudes towards their jobs and the company (Schyns et al., 2007). The quality of interaction between the supervisors and subordinates is contributing to the nature of

individual attitudes which affect organizational performance and productivity. Such attitudes include; organizational commitment, empowerment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Many of the supervisors have not realized the importance of team leadership where mentoring and coaching are paramount. Instead they impose their designate authority and status on the subordinates. This has made subordinates feel uncomfortable to freely express their views and ideas for fear of being punished. As a result, the rising role of the supervisor is being viewed with skepticism and resentment by the subordinates. And so, the organization's change efforts like improved billing systems and technology are not being appreciated by the subordinates. Many of these subordinates have begun to perceive the organization as oppressive. Because of lack of voice, they have resorted to negative behaviors like absenteeism. For example (memo: to billing officials, October 26, 2005), in one of the company's departments, it was discovered that staff tend to arrive late and depart earlier than the official closing time.

Poor quality relationships between supervisors and subordinates pose risk of failure to address problems of poor performance among workers due to apathy. For that matter, if organizations are not conscious of the dynamics and importance of leader-member exchange, the expected benefits of organizational change may take long to be reaped.

Problem

There is a lack of consciousness among some supervisors about the fact that their supervisory roles involve both consideration for subordinates and concern for tasks. They are unaware of the dynamics in the relationships between themselves and their subordinates and the impact of such dynamics on organisational attitudes like organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. They do not take into consideration subordinates' feelings and perceptions and this eventually affects organizational performance. As a result,

organizational initiatives that are meant for competitiveness are unsuccessful when subordinates do not feel empowered nor committed to pursue the laid down missions and objectives.

Purpose

The study sought to investigate the relationship between leader-member exchange, empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior among junior officers.

Objectives

Objectives of the study were to;

1. Establish the relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment.
2. Establish the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment.
3. Establish the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior.
4. Establish the relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior.
5. Establish the relationship between organisational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Scope

The study was conducted among junior officers who work in Umeme and Eskom located in Kampala and Jinja Districts respectively. This is because these organizations in the power sector have recently undergone significant changes in as far their operations and mandates are concerned, having been formed out of the privatization process in the Uganda power sector.

The research was mainly focused on the following variables; Leader-member exchange, psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Significance

The study will outline the impact of leader-member exchange on subordinates' attitudes and behaviors. This will give managers insight into poor performance of subordinates who are supervisees in organizations. The study will also give insight into employees' attitudes in as far as the organizations are concerned and what can be done to improve them.

The results of the study will also add to the current body of knowledge that exists on leader-member exchange and its impact on individuals' attitudes and behaviors. This can form a basis for future scholars in research.

Conceptual Framework

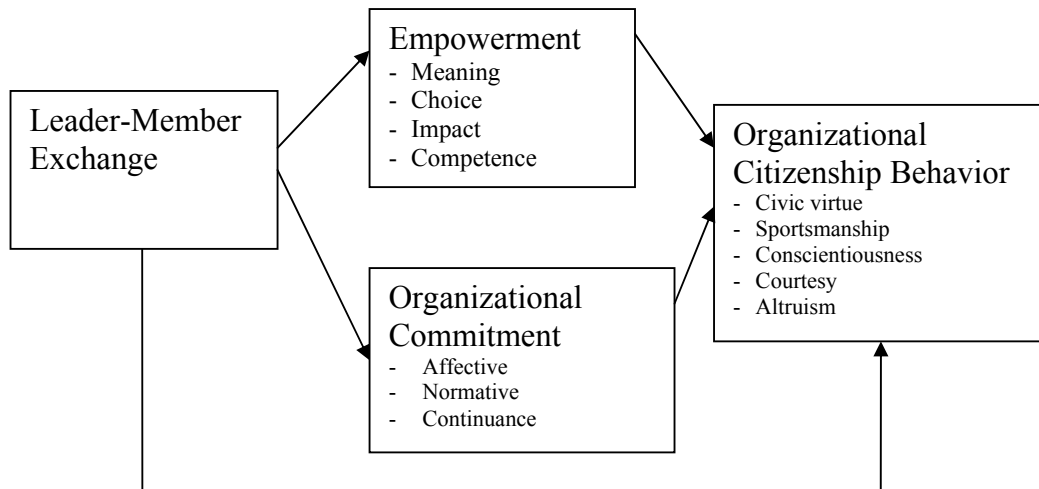


Figure 1: Relationships between leader-member exchange, empowerment, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behavior

Figure 1 on the previous page describes the relationships between the variables; leader-member exchange, empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The model reveals that when leader-member exchange is poor, there is reduced empowerment and organisational commitment among employees and eventually a demonstration of poor organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the literature review about the relationships between Leader-member exchange (LMX), Empowerment, Organisational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The Chapter is divided into five sections. The first section gives a review of the literature on the relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment. The second section has the literature review on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. The third section has the literature review on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. The fourth section has the literature review on the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. The fifth section has the literature review on the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Leader-member exchange and Empowerment

Jawahar and Carr (2007) argue that exchange relationships with the organization and with one's immediate supervisor are of great significance to employees. With respect to employees' exchange relationship with one's supervisor, perceptions of unspecified obligations could develop through the quality of the exchange experience with their leader/supervisor. The development of LMX may be dependent factors like how regular the contact is between leader and member, the length of time spent together, and the number resources a leader can pass on to his/her subordinates (Schyns & Wolfram, 2008).

It is expected that in high quality relations, supervisors can provide opportunities for mastery experience, serve as role models, and verbally support the members with whom they have a positive relationship (Schyns et al., 2007). This would subsequently give subordinates

a feeling of efficacy and empowerment. Empowerment has a dimension of competence and this closely aligned with the concept of self-efficacy. Empowerment is “a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information” (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Self-efficacy in regard to handling tasks has been described as a belief in one’s ability and competence to perform successfully and effectively in situations and across different tasks in a job” (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002). In the same vein, Dansereau (1995) argues that leaders provide support for followers’ self-worth. Empowerment has been embraced as a way to encourage and increase decision making at lower levels in an organization, and concurrently, enrich the work experience of employees (Liden et al., 2000).

Earlier research in leadership focused on the leader alone but eventually developed a new approach that took into account that leaders and members always interact and that both contribute to the respective relationship (Schyns & Wolfram, 2008). Kang and Stewart (2007), argue that understanding of organizational outcomes through leadership research has progressed from consideration of leader attributes to recognition of the importance of the relationships that leaders have within a situation or with subordinates.

Leader-member exchange is a theory of exchange in leadership (Schyns et al., 2007) that focuses on the relationship between a supervisor and each individual subordinate. The relationship may positive and supportive for in-group members or may be characterised by formal rules for out-group members. The LMX model focuses upon the leader–subordinate dyad and explains the methods by which a leader and a member develop various behavioural interdependencies between their respective roles (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Graen (2003) argued that leadership is complex concept that includes at least a team leader, a team member, and an exchange relationship between the leader and the member. The LMX

approach puts emphasis on the exchange that takes place between leaders and members and assumes that leaders and members are involved in dyadic relationships. Research on LMX theory shows that supervisees in high quality exchanges enjoy a better relationship with their supervisor (Jawahar & Carr, 2007). The supervisees are likely to feel obligated to reciprocate in kind by engaging in contextual performance directed toward the supervisor (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang & Chen, 2005). It is further contended that subordinates in high quality exchanges are more likely to reciprocate by engaging in contextual performance that directly benefits the supervisor than in contextual performance directed toward the organization.

Jawahar and Carr (2007) investigated leader-member exchanges from the angle of social exchange theory. The Social Exchange theory was developed by Blau (1964) and it is based on the basic premise that relationships providing more rewards than costs will yield enduring mutual trust and attraction. Central to both social exchange theory is the concept of unspecified obligations. That is, when one party does a favour for another, there is an expectation of some future return.

According to Uhl-Bien and Graen (1995), the development of the leader-member exchange relationship is based on the characteristics of the working relationship as opposed to a personal relationship, and this trust, respect and mutual obligation refer specifically to the individual's assessments of each other in terms of their professional capabilities and behaviors. Kang and Stewart (2007) argue that LMX theory of leadership focuses on the degree of emotional support and exchange of valued resources between the leader and members. The assertion is that LMX leadership theory's main focus is to analyse the sort of relationship between leader and member so a higher quality can be developed and eventually enable improved performance.

Proponents of the LMX theory posit that leaders and followers develop dyadic relationships and leaders treat individual followers differently, resulting in two groups of

followers: an in-group and an out-group (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975). The in-group is described as consisting of a number of trusted followers to whom the leader entrusts negotiated role responsibilities. On the other hand, the authors describe the out-group as consisting of followers with whom the relationship of the leader remains more formal.

Scandura, Graen and Novak (1986) defined LMX as a system of components and their relationships involving both members of a dyad, involving interdependent patterns of behavior, sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities, producing conceptions of the environment, cause maps and value. Graen and Scandura (1987) suggested a three-phase model of LMX development including role taking, role making and role routinisation. For example, supervisors test subordinates with various work assignments in a series of role making episodes. In this process, the degree to which subordinates comply with task demands and demonstrate a worthiness to be trusted influences the type of LMX relationship they form.

Uhl-Bien (1991), classified the LMX concept into 2 factors or dimensions. The first dimension being ‘consideration & coaching by the leader’ includes paying attention to the job-related problems and needs of a subordinate, investing in subordinates’ careers, helping to solve job-related problems and giving performance-related feedback to a subordinate. The second dimension is ‘filling an assistant role’ and it contains items about investing extra work effort, being available in emergency situations and thinking along with the leader about important issues. In their meta-analytic review of LMX, Gestner and Day (1997) further emphasise that the development of the LMX theory hinge on the discovery of two different kinds of dyads.

The LMX model developed by Scandura and Graen (1984) puts emphasis on the fact that supervisors determine the work roles assigned to subordinates and those individuals whom supervisors like or trust will be afforded better roles and opportunities. In the end, it is

believed that subordinates assigned these key roles will develop closer, higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors and receive more support from those supervisors (Morrows, et al., 2005).

However, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) proposed that LMX is comprised of 3 dimensions; mutual respect for each other's capabilities; a deepening sense of reciprocal trust; and a strong sense of obligation to one another in the working relationship. They asserted that these dimensions are focused mostly on the formal job relationship with sub-dimensions of respect, trust and obligation.

Regarding LMX dimensions, Liden and Maslyn (1998) proposed four dimensions of LMX relationships; labeled contribution, affect, loyalty and professional respect basing on the fact that LMX is not based solely on job-related elements but also includes socially-related currencies. And so, while the contribution dimensions belong to the work-related currency, the affect, loyalty and professional respect dimensions belong to more social currencies. Professional respect refers to the acknowledgment of the other's occupational competence; the affect-dimension addresses the more emotional side of the co-operation; Loyalty involves the willingness to defend the other's actions; and finally, perceived contribution refers to the employee's willingness to work hard for the supervisor.

Morrows, Suzuki, Crum and Pautesh (2005) assert that relationships can be characterized as high in quality or 'good' (i.e. trust, respect and loyalty) or low quality or 'bad' (i.e. reflecting mistrust, low respect and a lack of loyalty). This is because supervisors tend to differentially grant subordinates emotional support, decision-making responsibility, and task challenges. LMX includes supervisory social support in which a manager shows consideration, acceptance and concern for the needs and feelings of other people. In this way, it means that each party in the exchange has particular expectations. As such, the role

expectations of a supervisor and the extent to which the subordinate meets these expectations make up the relational context of the exchange process.

Honold (1997) argues that perspectives on employee empowerment have changed over time to focus on how the leader alters the context of the workplace to allow employees to take power. She further asserts that interventions provided by leaders to achieve empowerment deal with systemic, structural, and programmatic issues as well as individual and managerial responsibilities. There is also an assertion that once subordinates model their behavior after that of the leader, they later begin to develop an understanding of empowerment themselves and act accordingly (Greasley, 2005). McLagan and Nel (1997) provide a multi-dimensional perspective on employee empowerment that includes facilitating leadership.

Menon (1995) found that consulting, recognizing, inspiring, and mentoring behaviors of the immediate supervisor lead to greater perceived control and greater empowerment and can even moderate the effect of poor contextual factors of empowerment. Greasley, et al., (2005) notes that it was found that one of the key factors that impacts upon the level of empowerment is the type of leadership style exhibited by their immediate supervisor. The authors further argue that the impact of the immediate supervisor can play a crucial role in empowering operatives and that supervisors are able to influence whether or not employees are offered the opportunity to become empowered and the form that this may take.

Wat and Shaffer (2005) argued that if employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their supervisors, they will be more likely to reciprocate by holding positive attitudes about their work, their work outcomes and their supervisors. Egley (2005) carried out a research on teacher-principal relations revealed that teachers who perceived that they were empowered in their work environments had higher levels of interpersonal trust in their

principals. The results further showed that teachers who found their work personally meaningful, and who reported significant autonomy and substantial influence in their work environments had higher levels of interpersonal trust in principals. The crux of the argument is that in order to feel empowered, subordinates need to have confidence that the supervisors understand the special commitments and circumstances that make their contributions valuable.

Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) found that high quality manager-employer relationships led to greater perceptions of empowerment. Spreitzer (1996) asserts that individuals who perceive that they have high levels of socio-political support (for example from their immediate supervisor) report higher levels of empowerment than do individuals who perceive low levels of support. This is further supported by Wat and Shaffer (2005) who argue that the quality of relationships between employees and supervisors will affect the extent to which employees trust their supervisors and perceive that they are empowered.

Lawler (1986) emphasized the importance of supervisory social support, explaining how “good leadership gives people direction, energy and a sense of competence – in other words ‘empowerment’”. Empowerment techniques that provide emotional support for subordinates and create a supportive atmosphere can be more effective in strengthening self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Empowerment is described as a state of mind and as an extent that an employee with an empowered “state mind” experiences the following qualities: feelings of control over how the job shall be performed; awareness of the context in which the work is performed; accountability for personal work output; shared responsibility for unit and organizational performance; and equity in the rewards based on individual and collective performance (Bowen & Lawler, 1995). Siegel and Gardner (2000) argued that empowerment in its wider sense takes on more than task-related authority and latitude and so concluded that empowerment is closely aligned with the thrust to gain organizational effectiveness.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggested that empowerment not only results from individuals' assessments of their work tasks, but also depends on contextual factors such as employees' interactions with their superiors, peers, and subordinates. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) developed a model that describes empowerment as based on four tasks assessments, which are influenced by individual differences in cognitive interpretations. They identified meaning, competence, choice and impact as the task assessments which suggest an active, rather than passive approach to a work role. Meaning has been described as the 'engine' of empowerment (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997) which gives the feeling that one is doing something that is worth one's time and effort. Competence is the confidence one feels in his or her ability to work well. Choice refers to the freedom to choose how to do work. Impact involves the sense that the task is proceeding and that one is actually accomplishing something and making a difference in the organization. Spreitzer (1995) argued that the four cognitions of meaning, competence, choice and impact reflect an active, rather than a passive, orientation to a work role. She further contended that an "active orientation" is manifest in individual desires and feelings that she/he is able to influence his or her work role and context. Spreitzer (1995) argued that the four cognitions, or dimensions, can be combined to create an overall construct of psychological empowerment where the lack of any one dimension will reduce, though not entirely eliminate, the overall extent of empowerment.

In high quality exchanges, subordinates have greater decision latitude, influence and autonomy, and this influences the extent to which they can control their own destiny. Subordinates who are given increased freedom to perform their job and who receive support from their superiors have greater perceptions of empowerment and control (Gomez & Rosen, 2001).

Empowerment is viewed as a continuous rather than a dichotomous variable where employees may perceive different degrees of empowerment, rather than simply feel like

they are, or are not empowered (Spreitzer; 1995). In a related argument, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggested that the organizational environment can have a strong influence on empowerment. Spreitzer (1996) hypothesized that the following six characteristics of work unit social structures create an environment that facilitates empowerment: low role ambiguity, working for a manager who has a wide span of control, sociopolitical support, access to information, access to resources, and a participative unit climate. In her investigations, Spreitzer (1996) found out that a wide span of control, sociopolitical support, access to information, and unit climate as evaluated by manager's subordinates were positively related to empowerment.

Leader member exchange (LMX) and Organizational Commitment

Morrows, Suzuki, Crum and Pautesh (2005) assert that supervisory support which may be viewed as a result of LMX is positively associated with affective commitment towards the organization and negatively associated with turnover intentions. The meaning of this is that in-group members have stronger organizational commitment. LMX is then further tied to low turnover which is an indicator of the degree of affective commitment an employee has towards his / her organisation. Morrows et al., (2005) further contend that achieving good relations between supervisors and subordinates helps to embed employees within organizations, and thereby provides a disincentive for employees to quit. This means that poor LMX may contribute to poor organisational commitment and ultimately lead to voluntary turnover.

In a related view, Schyns and Wolfram (2008) posit that for followers, attitudes such as commitment are a correlate of LMX. Followers will tend to commitment in return for a good relationship. If followers do not feel committed to their organization they may hold their supervisor responsible for that and thus evaluate their LMX as low (Schyns & Wolfram,

2008). Similarly, well-being will be important for how the followers view their relationship with their leader. Schyns and Wolfram (2008) go on to argue that in a work context, once leaders are perceived as not living up to a known reputation, they will be blamed for follower experiences of stress. This eventually makes followers poorly evaluate LMX since stress is perceived at the work place.

Lee (2005) found out that LMX quality mediates the relationship between leadership and organisational commitment. Wat and Shaffer (2005) asserted that quality leader-member relationships appear to be constructive because they foster interactions that help employees feel committed and motivated to contribute to the organization. The more managers and employees develop a high quality relationship and interact effectively, the more likely the employees perform well (Wang et al., 2005). Wat and Shaffer (2005) argued that if employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their supervisors, they are more likely to reciprocate by holding positive attitudes about their work, their work outcomes and their supervisors. Organizational commitment reflects positive feelings towards the organization and its values. In essence, measuring organizational commitment is an assessment of the congruence between an individual's belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the organization and a strong desire to remain in an organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974).

Organizational commitment is characterized as the employees' willingness to contribute to organizational goals. It is influenced differentially by the nature of their commitment – those wanting to belong being more likely to exert effort to perform than those obligated to belong (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Identification with organizational goals as evidenced by a person's affective reactions to one's organization influences the level of effort exerted in activities supporting those goals. Indications for organizational commitment are concerned with feelings of attachment to the goals and values of the organization, one's role

in relation to this, and attachment to the organization for its own sake rather than for strictly instrumental values.

Commitment can be classified in 3 dimensions; affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment refers to feelings of belongingness and sense of attachment to the organization, is considered to be a more effective measure of organizational commitment than the other two types of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment is based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization and normative commitment refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to stay with the organization. Research also provides evidence that employees with higher levels of affective commitment to their work, their job and their career exhibit higher levels of continuance and normative commitments (Cohen, 1996).

Employees may remain with the organization and exhibit passive withdrawal behaviors such as putting forth less effort (neglect). Zhou and George (2001) suggest that within the context of job dissatisfaction, leaving a job is a real option for dissatisfied employees and when employees respond to dissatisfaction with exit, their potential to be creative in the focal organization is negated. Zhou and George (2001) further argue that exit will not be a viable option for employees when high costs are associated with leaving and they are aware of these. These costs can include inability to find alternative employment opportunities and being tied to a limited geographical area. When the costs of quitting are considered to be too high, dissatisfied employees often feel that staying in the organization is a better choice. Under these conditions, the employees are committed to their organization, not on the basis of affective attachment or identification with organizational values and goals, but rather because of necessity. This type of commitment has been referred to as continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Continuance commitment ensures that employees do

not resort to exit in response to their dissatisfaction and ensures that organizational members remain in their organizations despite being dissatisfied or discontented.

The quality of interaction between supervisors and subordinates has been shown to predict subordinate outcomes like use of upward influence tactics (Krishan, 2004) and absenteeism (Dierendonck, Blanch & Breukelen, 2002), amongst other affective outcomes like satisfaction and commitment. The impact of low quality leader-member relationships on subordinates has been shown to have undesirable consequences, for example lower objective performance, satisfaction, organizational commitment, role clarity and strong turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) and Organisational Citizenship Behavior

Bhal (2006) asserts that one way in which subordinates can reciprocate relationships with their superiors is by either enlarging or limiting their roles so that they either follow only the contract or extend their behaviours beyond normal role requirements which essentially means engaging in citizenship behaviours. Bhal (2006) defines organizational citizenship behaviour as those organizationally beneficial acts that are rooted neither in the formal roles nor in any contract of compensation and are moreover purposeful and determined and need not be treated as random acts of goodwill and kindness.

Podsakoff, McKenzie, Paine and Bacharach (2000) argue that the immediate leader for the subordinate is the representation of the organization and plays a key role in influencing citizenship behaviours. Similarly, leader support has been reported as a predictor of OCB (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Wat and Shaffer (2005) argued that if employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their supervisors, they will be more likely to reciprocate by holding positive attitudes about their work, their work outcomes and their supervisors. As such, it has been asserted that outcomes of LMX are associated with

followers' work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as increased commitment, satisfaction, performance and OCB.

Regarding conscientiousness, Jawahar and Carr (2007) contend that conscientious individuals are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviours especially when success at work depends on interdependence, smooth interpersonal relationships, working hard, and showing initiative to solve a problem at work. Research has shown that high quality relationships result in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), where employees perform useful tasks even though they are not prescribed by their roles (Bauer & Green, 1996).

OCB is typically categorized in a number of dimensions and behavior (Organ, 1988). These dimensions include; conscientiousness, altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy. Altruism as a form of OCB is often directed toward co-workers but even when aimed at outsiders as long as the interaction can still be qualified as OCB. Civic virtue implies a sense of involvement in what policies are being adopted. It takes forms like attending meetings, voting and speaking up in the proper fora with the appropriate tone. Conscientiousness is the extent to which a person goes beyond the acceptable level in work performance. Sportsmanship consists of the willingness of the employees to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining. Sportsmanship may be demonstrated in behaviors such as avoiding petty grievances. Courtesy includes such actions such as being in touch with those whose work would be affected by one's decisions or commitments. Advance notices, reminders, passing along information, consultations and briefing all suggest the intrinsic quality of courtesy.

Rugyema (2008) argued that a cordial relationship between supervisors and subordinates enhances exhibition of organisational citizenship behavior. Baijuka (2008) also argued that if subordinates trust in management, they are more likely to practice extra role behavior.

In the context of LMX, a high quality of interaction is characterized with a relationship that goes beyond the contract and is likely to lead to extra role or citizenship behaviors (Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Conversely, those having poorer quality interaction are likely to indulge only in contractual or role-based behaviors. Results of empirical studies of LMX have commonly shown that followers in high quality LMX relations have more positive behaviors than those in low quality relationships (Bhal, 2006). Lower quality exchanges are characterized by the exercise of formal organizational authority.

Followers in high quality relationships interact frequently with their leaders' support, confidence, encouragement and consideration. The immediate leader for the subordinate is the representation of the organization and plays a key role in influencing citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). Lepine, Erez and Johnson (2002) in a meta-analysis of literature on organisational citizenship behavior reported leaders' support as its strongest predictor. When subordinates perceive that their supervisors support them they are less likely to both be concerned about making mistakes and resentful about having additional responsibilities. Conversely, it is perceived that low quality LMX leads to poor subordinate outcomes because the leader is seen as unfair in treating different members of the work group (Bhal, 2006).

Empowerment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Greasley, et al, (2005) argue that empowerment can provoke a strong emotional response, which may affect employees' attitudes to their work. They further assert that if employees feel that they are empowered and are able to take pride in their work, they can feel a high level of self esteem, which goes well beyond the boundaries of their working world.

Honold (1997) notes that higher empowerment leads to higher internal work motivation and greater the job involvement that is beyond the defined job of the individual

(OCB), and the greater the organizational commitment. It has also been noted that in an empowered organization, employees are able to fully participate as partners and take initiative. In order to tap into the benefits of an empowered workforce, management ought to create a culture of participation – that is an empowering environment.

Organizational behavior literature shows that there is a greater likelihood that employees will engage in positive deviant behaviors once they are psychologically empowered in the working environment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005). Psychological empowerment is defined in terms of intrinsic motivation and Conger and Kanungo (1988) argued that it is a conducive social exchange explanation of OCB. Lind and Earley (1991) suggested that OCB occurs in organisations where there is strong emphasis on group concerns and cognitions. Morrison (1996) proposed that empowered employees are encouraged and enabled to exercise initiative and perform OCB. Many managers and scholars recognize that an organization's only true sustainable competitive advantage is its people, and that all organizational members need to be involved and active for the firm to succeed (Lawler, 1992) and as such, the concept of empowerment is closely aligned with this thrust to gain organizational effectiveness (Siegall & Gardner, 2000).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggested that meaningfulness represents an investment of psychic energy and that individuals with lower levels of meaningfulness tend to be apathetic and detached. Therefore, individuals with higher levels of meaningfulness may engage in behaviors that prevent work-related problems from occurring because of their commitment to and involvement with specific goals. Empowered employees have a high sense of self-efficacy and when given significant responsibility and authority over their jobs, engage in upward influence and see themselves as innovative (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Empowered employees view themselves as more effective in their work and are evaluated as more effective co-workers (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997). Empowerment increases

organizational effectiveness and employees well-being. Empowered employees have been shown to improve efficiency and reduce costs on the assembly line in a transmission plant (Suzik, 1998). Furthermore, empowering employees affects employee satisfaction, loyalty, performance, service delivery and concern for others among service employees in private clubs.

Baijuka (2008) found a moderate correlation between empowerment and OCB. He argued that an empowering atmosphere at the work place is likely to get subordinates engaged in extra role behavior and also contended that empowerment is a vital tool if extra role outcomes are to be characteristic of subordinate staff. Similarly, Arinaitwe (2005) found out empowerment to be a statistical predictor of OCB. Once staff are empowered, they are likely to exhibit extra role behaviour on their free will.

Wat and Shaffer (2005) found that the competence dimension of psychological empowerment was significantly related to both conscientiousness and sportsmanship. The influence of competence on conscientiousness was explained by the fact that individuals who believe they have capability to achieve goals do what is required to achieve them. It is unlikely that those who lack self-confidence will go beyond minimum role requirements.

Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Meyer, Bartunek and Lacey (2002) asserted that organizational commitment predicts helping behavior. Kasule (2008) found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and OCB, and then asserted that an improvement in organisational commitment leads to a real improvement in OCB. Correlation and regression findings revealed that commitment is significantly related to OCB and that commitment is a predictor of OCB (Angom, 2006).

Organ (1998) defines OCB as the individual behavior, that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. OCB is discretionary behavior that is not part of an employees' formal job requirement but nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organization. OCB has also been referred to as extra-role behavior. Organisational citizenship behavior is considered to be vital for the survival of an organization (Murphy, Anthanasou & King, 2002) and is considered to maximize the efficiency and promote the effectiveness of the organization. Wagner and Rush (2000) argue that organizational citizenship behaviors have a cumulative effect on the functioning of the organization.

Katz and Khan (1978) described extra-role behavior as actions that are above and beyond formal role requirements. They argued that extra-role behavior arises from feelings of 'citizenship' with respect to the organization. Hence the employee-citizen performs certain activities on behalf of the organization to which he or she is committed without being formally required to do so. OCB derives its practical importance from the premise that it represents contributions that are not as a result of formal role obligations. The presumption is that many of these contributions aggregate over time, and persons enhance organizational effectiveness.

According to Robbins (2001), employees with OCB engage in the following formal behavior: i) make constructive statements about their work group and the organization; ii) help others in their team; iii) volunteer for extra-role job activity; iv) respect spirit and letter rules and regulations; and v) gracefully tolerate occasional work-related impositions and nuisances. Citizenship behaviors improve the ability of coworkers and managers to perform their jobs through more efficient planning, scheduling and problem solving. Workers with OCBs contribute to service quality (Hui, et al., 2001). Organizations that foster good

citizenship behaviors are more attractive places to work and are able to hire and retain the best people.

According to Morrison (1996), socialization research suggests that employees who perform one type of behavior (OCB) are likely to perform other types of behaviors like customer-oriented behaviors due to personal values acquired through the socialization process. Organizational commitment is characterized as employees' willingness to contribute to organizational goals. It is influenced differentially by the nature of their commitment – those wanting to belong being more likely to exert effort to perform than those obligated to belong (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A committed person is willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. He or she puts in more effort in the organization and exerts high level of extra role behavior. Some of the outcomes of organizational commitment include organizational citizenship behavior and improved performance by employees, thereby relating positively with productivity.

Hypotheses

The research was guided by the following null hypotheses.

1. There is no relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment
2. There is no relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment
3. There is no relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviors
4. There is no relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior
5. There is no relationship between commitment and organizational citizenship behavior

Chapter Three

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological aspects (procedures and methods that were used in conducting the study. It describes the research design, target population, sampling design, sample size, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments, research procedure and data analysis methods adopted in the study are presented.

Research design

The study adopted cross-sectional survey design. In addition, the quantitative method of data collection was used with the help of self-administered questionnaires. A correlation design was adopted to establish the relationships between leader-member exchange, empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Target population

The target population was composed of individuals who are supervisees in organizations in Umeme and Eskom. These were supervisees who occupy the Officer rank / Higher Level Operative Employees in the respective hierarchies. Umeme has 1200 employees, 400 of which occupy the Officer rank. Eskom has 119 employees, out of which 50 of them occupy the Officer rank.

Sampling design

The research used the random sampling and purposive sampling methods to collect data from the respondents within two organizations. A convenience sample of 140 supervisees was used. Convenience sampling was used because it enabled the researcher

obtain many respondents on time and fit into time constraints in the two districts of Kampala and Jinja.

Target Sample Size

Considering the nature of the work and geographical scope (Kampala and Jinja districts), the population sample was restricted to a sample of 140. Out of 100 supervisees from Umeme that were consulted in five departments, only 73 returned the questionnaires. Out of 40 supervisees from Eskom that were consulted, only 32 returned the questionnaires.

Research instruments

The research instrument was a self-administered questionnaire with items to measure separately the variables: leader-member exchange, empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

LMX was measured using an instrument developed by Vatanen (2003). The responses were based on a five-point Likert scale (1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree”) comprising of 21 items.

Empowerment was measured using an instrument developed by Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) comprising of 22 items. The responses were based on a five-point Likert scale (1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree”).

Organizational commitment was measured using an instrument comprising of 18 items developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) to operationalise the three dimensions of commitment: continuance, normative and affective. The responses were based on a five-point Likert scale (1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree”).

Self-rated OCB were measured using a scale comprising of 22 items developed by Podsakoff, et al., (1990) to operationalise the five dimensions of OCB identified by Organ

(1988): conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and altruism. Responses were based on a five-point Likert scale (1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree”).

Validity of the instruments

The validity of the survey used for this study is supported by the fact that all of the items were derived from established instruments. The items of the instruments had already been used by other researchers and were based on existing theory and as such were considered to be valid (Baijuka, 2008; Angom, 2006; Arinaitwe, 2005; Rugyema, 2008). All of the measures used to construct this instrument had been shown to possess acceptable levels of construct validity in previous studies.

Reliability of the instruments

The reliability of the instrument was conducted to test the consistency of the variables. This was done using the Cronbach’s alpha to test each section of the questionnaire. The following results were obtained.

Table 1

Reliability Analysis

Variable	No of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha
Leader-member exchange	21	.95
Empowerment	22	.78
Organizational Commitment	18	.87
Self-rated Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	22	.90

The instrument gave the reliability alpha coefficient above .70 for the different variables meaning that it was very reliable and therefore had been suitable for use.

Research procedure

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Institute of Psychology introducing her to the respondents. The questionnaires were hand-delivered to the chosen respondents and the researcher explained to them the purpose of the research before they filled the questionnaire. The researcher then agreed with each individual respondent on the time to complete the questionnaire. Participants received assurances that their participation in the study was voluntary and confidential, that individual respondents would remain anonymous, and that the data would be reported in the aggregate. No administrative personnel had access to the study data at any point in the data collection process.

Data Management

After the data collection, each received questionnaire was given a case number. The data from all compiled questionnaires were then sorted, edited and coded for consistency, accuracy and completeness.

Data Analysis

The coded quantitative data were entered into a computer following the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 15.0 programme guidelines. The data were then analyzed. Descriptive statistics using cross-tabulations were used to describe the sample. For inferential statistics, Pearson–moment correlation was used to establish the relationships between the variables. Pearson–moment correlation was the preferred choice because the questionnaire responses were based on the Likert Scale (Sarantakos, 2005). Pearson–moment correlation was used to answer all the objectives of the study.

Regression analysis was carried out to establish which of the predictor variables had the highest influence on the dependent variable (OCB). T-tests and ANOVA-tests were carried out to establish the differences between the mean scores of the various groups that characterize the sample.

Chapter four

Results

Introduction

This Chapter presents the results from the data analysis in three sections. Section one presents the descriptive information about the respondents. Section two presents the study in relation to the hypotheses of the study and the last section presents other findings of the study.

Descriptive statistics

To describe the sample, cross tabulations were run and chi-square results obtained to document the demographic factors of respondents of the study. The demographic factors in the sample included sex, job title, name of organization, academic qualifications and time worked in the organization.

Table 2

Distribution of Sex by Organization

Organization	Sex			Total
		Females	Males	
X	Count	25	48	73
	Row %	34.2	65.8	100.0
	Column %	64.1	72.7	69.5
	Total %	23.8	45.7	69.5
Y	Count	14	18	32
	Row %	43.8	56.3	100.0
	Column %	35.9	27.3	30.5
	Total %	13.3	17.1	30.5
Total	Count	39	66	105
	Row %	37.1	62.9	100.0
	Column %	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total %	37.1	62.9	100.0
$\chi^2 = .86$ df=1 Sig=.39				

There is no significant difference between respondents of the two organizations in their sex composition ($\chi^2 = .86$, $df=1$, $Sig = .39$). The data further shows that organization X registered the highest number of respondents with a percentage of 69.5% while organization Y registered 30.5% due to the sampling size.

Table 3

Distribution of Sex by Job Title

Job Title	Sex			Total
		Females	Males	
Billing Officers	Count	12	17	29
	Row %	41.4	58.6	100.0
	Column %	30.8	25.8	27.6
	Total %	11.4	16.2	27.6
Finance Officers	Count	5	16	21
	Row %	23.8	76.2	100.0
	Column %	12.8	24.2	20.0
	Total %	4.8	15.2	20.0
Auditors	Count	5	2	7
	Row %	71.4	28.6	100.0
	Column %	12.8	3.0	6.7
	Total %	4.8	1.9	6.7
Administrators	Count	7	8	15
	Row %	46.7	53.3	100.0
	Column %	17.9	12.1	14.3
	Total %	6.7	7.6	14.3
Engineers	Count	5	12	17
	Row %	29.4	70.6	100.0
	Column %	12.8	18.2	16.2
	Total %	4.8	11.4	16.2
Customer care Officers	Count	5	9	14
	Row %	35.7	64.3	100.0
	Column %	12.8	13.6	13.3
	Total %	4.8	8.6	13.3
Technicians	Count	0	2	2
	Row %	.0	100.0	100.0
	Column %	.0	3.0	1.9
	Total %	.0	1.9	1.9
Total	Count	39	66	105
	Row %	37.1	62.9	100.0
	Column %	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total %	37.1	62.9	100.0
$\chi^2=7.59$ $df=6$ $Sig.=.27$				

The sample had more male respondents (62.9%) than females (32.7%). Billing Officers registered a higher percentage of male respondents with 16.2% while the lowest percentage was registered by Technicians with 1.9%. The data further revealed that there was no significant difference between respondents of the different job titles in their sex composition ($\chi^2=7.59$, $df= 6$, $p=.27$). Therefore there was uniformity in the sample across sex and job titles.

Table 4

Distribution of sex by level of education

Level of education	Sex			Total
		Females	Males	
Degree	Count	27	46	73
	Row %	37.0	63.0	100.0
	Column %	69.2	69.7	69.5
	Total %	25.7	43.8	69.5
Diploma	Count	2	7	9
	Row %	22.2	77.8	100.0
	Column %	5.	10.6	8.6
	Total %	1.9	6.7	8.6
Masters Degree	Count	3	8	11
	Row %	27.3	72.7	100.0
	Column %	7.7	12.1	10.5
	Total %	2.9	7.6	10.5
Post graduate diploma	Count	7	5	12
	Row %	58.3	41.7	100.0
	Column %	17.9	7.6	11.4
	Total %	6.7	4.8	11.4
Total	Count	39	66	105
	Row %	37.1	62.9	100.0
	Column%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total %	37.1	62.9	100.0
$\chi^2 = 3.63$ $df=3$ $Sig = .31$				

Majority of the respondents (69.5%) have degrees. The minority of respondents (8.6%) have Diplomas. The data revealed there is no significant between respondents of different levels of education in their sex composition ($\chi^2 = 3.63$, $df=3$, $Sig = .31$).

Table 5

Distribution of sex by number of years in the position

Number of years in position	Sex			Total
		Females	Males	
Less than one year	Count	5	20	25
	Row %	20.0	80.0	100.0
	Column%	12.8	30.3	23.8
	Total %	4.8	19.0	23.8
1-2 years	Count	9	12	21
	Row %	42.9	57.1	100.0
	Column%	23.1	18.2	20.0
	Total %	8.6	11.4	20.0
2-4 years	Count	11	18	29
	Row %	37.9	62.1	100.0
	Column %	28.2	27.3	27.6
	Total %	10.5	17.1	27.6
4-6 years	Count	12	15	27
	Row %	44.4	55.6	100.0
	Column %	30.8	22.7	25.7
	Total %	11.4	14.3	25.7
Above 6 years	Count	2	1	3
	Row %	66.7	33.3	100.0
	Column %	5.1	1.	2.9
	Total %	1.9	1.0	2.9
Total	Count	39	66	105
	Row %	37.1	62.9	100.0
	Column %	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total %	37.1	62.9	100.0
$\chi^2 = 5.19$ $df=4$ $Sig = .27$				

According to the table on the previous page, there is no significant difference between respondents of different job tenure in their sex composition ($\chi^2 = 5.19$, $df=4$, $Sig = .27$). Majority of the respondents (25.6%) have spent 4 – 6 years in their respective positions.

Correlation Results

In order to determine the relationships between the predicting variables and the dependent variable, Pearson–moment correlations were run. The Pearson moment correlation was used to measure: the relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment; the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment; the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior; the relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior; and the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The results are summarized in the table below.

Table 6

Pearson Correlation between major study Variables (n=105)

	Leader-member exchange	Empowerment	Organizational Commitment	Self-rated OCB	Colleague-rated OCB
1. Leader member exchange	1				
2. Empowerment	.58**	1			
3. Organizational Commitment	.48**	.42**	1		
4. Self-rated OCB	.40**	.62**	.44**	1	
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)					

The Relationship between leader-member exchange and Empowerment

The first null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment. According to the correlation results in table 6, a positive relationship exists between leader-member exchange and empowerment ($r = .58$, $p \leq 0.01$). The statistic implies that when there is positive leader member exchange, psychological empowerment is likely to be high. It implies that an improvement in leader member exchange is likely to lead to an improvement in subordinates' empowerment. On the other hand, a decline in leader member exchange may lead to a decline in subordinates' empowerment. The null hypothesis which stated that there is no relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment is therefore rejected.

The Relationship between Leader-member exchange and Organisational Commitment

The second null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. The results however reveal that a positive relationship exists between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment ($r = .48$, $p \leq 0.01$). The statistic implies that when there is positive leader member exchange, organizational commitment is likely to be high. It implies that an improvement in leader member exchange is likely to lead to an improvement in subordinates' organizational commitment. On the other hand, a decline in leader member exchange may lead to a decline in subordinates' organizational commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The Relationship between Leader-member exchange and Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

The third null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no relationship between Leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). However, the analysis results reveal that a positive relationship exists between leader-member exchange and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .40, p \leq 0.01$). The statistic implies that when there is a high quality exchange between leaders and their followers, organizational citizenship behavior is likely to be high. It implies that an improvement in leader member exchange is likely to lead to an improvement in subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. On the other hand, a decline in leader member exchange may lead to a decline in subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The Relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

The fourth null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). However, results reveal that a positive relationship exists between empowerment and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .62, p \leq 0.01$). The statistic implies that when individuals are empowered, they are likely to exhibit good citizenship behaviors. The statistic implies that an improvement in subordinates' empowerment is likely to lead to an improvement in their organizational citizenship behavior. On the other hand, a decline in subordinates' empowerment may lead to a decline in subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The Relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

The fifth null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). According to the study results, a positive relationship exists between organizational commitment and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .44$, $p \leq 0.01$). The statistic implies that when individuals are committed to the organization, they are likely to exhibit good citizenship behaviors. The statistic also implies that an improvement in organizational commitment is likely to lead to an improvement in subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. On the other hand, a decline in subordinates' organizational commitment may lead to a decline in subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Regression Analysis

Linear regression analysis was used to establish which study variable (Leader member exchange, empowerment and organizational commitment) has the most influence on the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behavior). The results presented in Table 7 on the next page were obtained.

Table 7

Regression Analysis table for self-rated OCB

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		Std. Error				
1	(Constant)	1.36	.28		4.82	.00	.43	.41	24.22	.00 ^a
	Leader-member exchange	-.01	.07	-.01	-.12	.91				
	Empowerment	.53	.09	.54	5.65	.00				
	Commitment	.19	.07	.22	2.51	.01				

a Dependent Variable: self-rated OCB

According to the Adjusted R-Square results, Leader-member exchange, empowerment and organizational commitment were found to predict 41% of the variance in self-rated OCB. In the last column (sig) in the table, it shows that the level of significance is 0.00 which is below 0.05, thus implying that the independent variables worked together to predict self-rated OCB. However, when taken singly, empowerment was the highest predictor of variance in self-rated OCB with the magnitude of Beta Coefficient (Beta =.54, t=5.65) followed by organizational commitment (Beta = .22, t=2.51). When taken singly, leader member exchange did not significantly predict self-rated OCB.

Other Findings

Analysis of t-tests

An independent t-test was carried out on the data to identify differences between two groups for variables measured on a Likert scale. The results are summarized in the tables below.

Table 8

t-test for Sex

	Sex	N	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Leader-member exchange	Males	66	3.06	1.26	103	.21
	Females	39	3.25			
Empowerment	Males	66	3.65	2.50	102	.01
	Females	38	3.37			
Commitment	Males	66	2.94	1.55	103	.12
	Females	39	2.74			
Self-rated OCB	Males	65	3.84	2.67	101	.01
	Females	38	3.56			

The independent t-test results showed no significant difference between the male and female respondents in their ratings for leader-member exchange ($t = 1.26$, $p = .21$). There was a significant difference between the male and female respondents in their ratings for empowerment ($t = 2.50$, $p = .01$) with males rating the value higher than females. This means that the males feel more empowered than the females. There was no significant difference between the male and female respondents in their ratings for organizational commitment ($t = 1.55$, $p = .12$). There was a significant difference between the male and female

respondents in their self-rated OCB ($t = 2.67$, $p = .01$) with males rating the value higher than the females. This means that males have better OCBs than their female counterparts.

Table 9

t-test for differences between Organizations

	Name of organization	N	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Leader- member exchange	X	32	3.41	2.18	103	.03
	Y	73	3.07			
Empowerment	X	32	3.68	1.65	102	.10
	Y	72	3.49			
Commitment	X	32	2.92	.58	103	.56
	Y	73	2.84			
Self-rated OCB	X	30	3.88	1.69	101	.09
	Y	73	3.68			

There was a significant difference between respondents of the two organizations in their ratings for leader-member exchange ($t = 2.18$, $p=.03$) with respondents from organization X rating the value higher than respondents from organization Y. This means that people in different organizations may perceive LMX differently. There was no difference between the respondents from the two organizations in their ratings for empowerment ($t = 1.65$, $p = .10$). There was no significant difference between the respondents of the two organizations in their ratings for organizational commitment ($t = .58$, $p = .56$). There was no significant difference between respondents of the two organizations in their self-rated-rated OCB ($t = 1.69$, $p = .09$).

ANOVA Test

The ANOVA Test was carried out to compare the differences in more than two groups for variables measured on a Likert scale. The results are presented in the tables below.

Table 10

ANOVA test for Job Titles

Variables	Job Title	N	Mean	df	F	Sig.
Leader Member Exchange	Billing officer	29	3.01	6	2.92	.01
	Finance Officer	21	3.47			
	Auditor	7	3.14			
	Administrator	15	2.68			
	Engineer	17	3.53			
	Customer care officer	14	3.16			
	Technician	2	3.55			
Empowerment	Billing officer	29	3.40	6	1.88	.09
	Finance Officer	21	3.73			
	Auditor	6	3.69			
	Administrator	15	3.24			
	Engineer	17	3.65			
	Customer care officer	14	3.68			
	Technician	2	3.74			
Commitment	Billing officer	29	2.81	6	.47	.83
	Finance Officer	21	2.89			
	Auditor	7	2.96			
	Administrator	15	2.71			
	Engineer	17	2.86			
	Customer care officer	14	3.08			
	Technician	2	2.94			
Self-Rated OCB	Billing officer	29	3.70	6	.43	.86
	Finance Officer	21	3.85			
	Auditor	7	3.67			
	Administrator	13	3.62			
	Engineer	17	3.84			
	Customer care officer	14	3.68			
	Technician	2	3.66			

There was a significant difference between the respondents of the various job categories in their ratings of leader member exchange ($p=.01 < 0.05$). Engineers had the

highest mean of 3.53 and Administrators had the least mean of 2.68. This means that people in different positions may perceive LMX differently. There is no significant difference between the respondents of the various job titles in their rating of empowerment ($p=.09 > 0.05$). There is no significant difference between the respondents of the various job titles in their rating of organizational commitment ($p=.83 > 0.05$). There is no significant difference between the respondents of the various job titles in their self-rated OCB ($p=.86 > 0.05$).

Table 11

ANOVA test for length of time worked

Variable	Length of time	N	Mean	df	F	Sig.
Leader-member exchange	less than one year	25	3.13	4	3.25	.02
	1-2 years	21	3.60			
	2-4 years	29	2.91			
	4-6 years	27	3.13			
	6+	3	3.64			
Empowerment	less than one year	24	3.74	4	4.44	.00
	1-2 years	21	3.76			
	2-4 years	29	3.46			
	4-6 years	27	3.26			
	6+	3	3.91			
Commitment	less than one year	25	2.99	4	3.46	.01
	1-2 years	21	3.21			
	2-4 years	29	2.59			
	4-6 years	27	2.78			
	6+	3	2.96			
Self-Rated OCB	less than one year	25	3.85	4	1.98	.10
	1-2 years	21	3.95			
	2-4 years	29	3.61			
	4-6 years	25	3.60			
	6+	3	3.77			

There was a significant difference between the respondents of different job tenure in their rating of leader-member exchange ($p=.01 < 0.05$). Respondents who have spent 2-4

years had a lower rating of LMX than their counterparts who have spent less or more time working in the respective job positions. This means that people with different job tenure may perceive LMX differently. There was a significant difference between the respondents of different job tenure in their rating of empowerment ($p=.00 < 0.05$). Respondents who have spent 4-6 years working in a respective position had a lower rating of empowerment followed by their colleagues who have spent 2-4 years. This means that people of different job tenure may perceive empowerment differently. There is a significant difference between the respondents of different job tenure in their rating of organizational commitment ($p=.01 < 0.05$). This means that people of different job tenure may perceive organizational commitment differently. There is no significant difference between respondents of different job tenure in their self-rated OCB ($p=.10 > 0.05$).

Table 12

ANOVA test for Level of Education

Variables	Level of Education	N	Mean	df	F	Sig.
Leader Member Exchange	Degree	73	3.1546	3	1.06	.37
	Diploma	9	3.5132			
	Masters	11	2.9437			
	Post Graduate Diploma	12	3.2659			
Empowerment	Degree	73	3.5509	3	.44	.73
	Diploma	8	3.7011			
	Masters	11	3.5415			
	Post Graduate Diploma	12	3.4130			
Commitment	Degree	73	2.8942	3	2.05	.11
	Diploma	9	3.2284			
	Masters	11	2.5707			
	Post Graduate Diploma	12	2.7130			
Self-Rated OCB	Degree	72	3.7513	3	.56	.64
	Diploma	9	3.7778			
	Masters	10	3.8318			
	Post Graduate Diploma	12	3.5606			

There was no significant difference between the respondents of the different levels of education in their rating of leader-member exchange ($p=.37 > 0.05$). There was no significant difference between the respondents of the different levels of education in their rating of empowerment ($p=.73 > 0.05$). There was no significant difference between the respondents of the different levels of education in their rating of organizational commitment ($p=.11 > 0.05$). There was no significant difference between respondents of the different levels of education in their self-rated OCB ($p=.64 > 0.05$).

Chapter Five

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings obtained in chapter four in relation to the hypotheses of the study and literature review. It is divided into three sections. The first section is on the discussion of the findings, the second section provides the conclusion and the third section provides the recommendations and areas for further research.

Discussion

The presentation follows the order in which the hypotheses of the study were stated in chapter two. It considers possible explanations for the results with various views from other scholars. Below are the hypotheses.

1. There is no relationship between Leader-member exchange and empowerment
2. There is no relationship between Leader-member exchange and organizational commitment
3. There is no relationship between Leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior
4. There is no relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior
5. There is no relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior

Leader-member exchange and empowerment

The findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between leader- member exchange and empowerment. This implies that when there is high leader-member exchange, psychological empowerment is likely to be high. Conversely, the findings imply that a low quality relationship leads to low psychological empowerment.

These findings are line with the findings of Wat and Shaffer (2005) who found positive correlations of LMX and the several dimensions of empowerment. Wat and Shaffer (2005) assert that supervisors differentially grant subordinates with emotional support, decision responsibility and task challenges. As such, this leads to case-scenarios where some groups of subordinates emerge experiencing high quality relationships and the others emerging with low quality relationships. The findings are also in line with Spreitzer (1996) who asserted that individuals who perceive that they have high levels of social-political support (for example from their immediate supervisor) report higher levels of empowerment than do individuals who perceive low levels of support. The assertion here is that the quality of relationships between employees and their supervisors does impact the levels of empowerment among subordinates.

The research findings are also in line with Greasley et al., (2005) who noted that the type of leadership style exhibited by immediate supervisors impacts on subordinates' empowerment. They further argued that the impact of the immediate supervisor can play a crucial role in empowering operatives and that supervisors are able to influence whether or not employees are offered the opportunity to become empowered and the form that this may take. Empowered employees are as a result of the confidence that they get if they perceive that their supervisors understand the circumstances that make their contributions valuable.

Leader- member exchange and organizational commitment

The findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. The findings imply that when there is high leader-member exchange, organization commitment is likely to be high. Conversely, the findings imply that low leader-member exchange brings about poor organizational commitment. The point here is that high-quality followers tend to feel they have received some sort of informal benefits and so in return become committed and dedicated followers (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975).

The above findings are in line with those of Lee (2005) who carried out a study on the effects of leadership and leader member exchange on commitment. Her findings revealed that LMX quality was found to mediate the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment. Lee (2005) further asserts that for exchanges that have evolved beyond pure transactional exchanges to social exchanges, followers may have a sense of commitment to the organization. The argument that the author posits is that the followers come to a point where they outgrow their attachments to the leaders and members of the organization and then they reciprocate their feelings to the whole organization since these leaders and members represent the organization. The findings also support the assertions that have been made that outcomes of LMX are associated with followers' work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as increased commitment.

The findings are in line with Morrows et al., (2005) who assert that supervisory support which may be viewed as a result of LMX is positively associated with affective commitment towards the organization and negatively associated with turnover intentions. The meaning of this is that in-group members have stronger organizational commitment. LMX is then further tied to low turnover which is an indicator of the degree of affective commitment an employee has towards his / her organisation. Morrows et al., (2005) further contend that

achieving good relations between supervisors and subordinates helps to embed employees within organizations, and thereby provides a disincentive for employees to quit. This means that poor LMX may contribute to poor organisational commitment and ultimately lead to voluntary turnover.

The results further confirm Dierendonck, Blanch and Breukelen (2002) who asserted that the quality of interaction between supervisors and subordinates has been shown to predict subordinate outcomes absenteeism amongst other affective outcomes like satisfaction and commitment. The impact of low quality leader-member relationships on subordinates has been shown to have undesirable consequences, for example lower objective performance, satisfaction, organizational commitment, role clarity and strong turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior

The findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between leader member exchange and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior. These findings imply that high leader-member exchange influences organizational citizenship behavior positively. As such, outcomes of LMX are associated with followers' work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as OCB.

The results confirm the findings by Bhal (2006) who argued that high quality LMX relations have more positive behaviors than those in low quality relationships. Wat and Shaffer (2005) asserted that a high quality interaction is characterized with a relationship that goes beyond the contract and is likely to lead to extra role behavior. Conversely, those having poorer quality interaction are likely to indulge only in contractual or role-based behaviors.

The research findings confirm that high quality relationships result in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), where employees perform useful tasks even though they are not

prescribed by their roles (Bauer & Green, 1996). In the same view, Rugyema (2008) argued that a cordial relationship enhances exhibition of organizational citizenship behavior.

The research findings are also in line with Podsakoff et al., (2000) who argue that the immediate leader for the subordinate is the representation of the organization and plays a key role in influencing citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, Lepine, Erez and Johnson (2000) also assert that leader support has been reported as a predictor of OCB. In a meta-analysis of literature on organizational citizenship behavior, the authors reported leaders' support as its strongest predictor. When subordinates perceive that their supervisors support them they are less likely to both be concerned about making mistakes and resentful about having additional responsibilities. Conversely, it is perceived that low quality LMX leads to poor subordinate outcomes because the leader is seen as unfair in treating different members of the work group (Bhal, 2006).

Empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior

The findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between empowerment and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior. The findings imply that when employees are empowered, they are likely to exhibit good citizenship behaviors. Conversely, when employees are not empowered, they will have poor citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the regression analysis findings reveal empowerment to be the greatest predictor of self-rated OCB.

These findings are in line with Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) who argued that there is a greater likelihood that employees will engage in positive deviant behaviors once they are psychologically empowered. The research findings confirm the fact that once staff are empowered, they are likely to exhibit extra role behavior on their free will. Honold (1997) notes that higher empowerment leads to higher internal work motivation and greater the job

involvement that is beyond the defined job of the individual (OCB), and the greater the organizational commitment (Honold, 1997). It has been noted that in an empowered organization, employees are able to fully participate as partners and take initiative. Organizational behavior literature shows that there is a greater likelihood that employees will engage in positive deviant behaviors once they are psychologically empowered in the working environment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005).

The findings confirm Baijuka (2008) who argued that an empowering atmosphere at the work place is likely to get subordinates engaged in extra role behavior and also contended that empowerment is a vital tool if extra role outcomes are to be characteristic of subordinate staff. Similarly, the findings are in line with Arinaitwe (2005) who found out that empowerment to be a statistical predictor of OCB. It is likely that once staffs are empowered, they are likely to exhibit extra role behavior on their free will.

Organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior

The findings revealed a positive correlation between organizational commitment and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior. The findings also revealed a positive correlation between organizational commitment and colleague-rated organizational citizenship behavior. The findings imply that when employees are committed to their organizations, they are likely to exhibit good citizenship behaviors. Conversely, when employees are not committed to their organizations, they will have poor citizenship behavior. The regression findings also reveal that commitment is a significant predictor of self-rated OCB.

Organizational commitment is characterized by employees' willingness to contribute to organizational goals and part of this effort is performing extra role behavior. The research

findings also imply that organizational commitment predicts helping behavior (Meyer, Bartunek & Lacey, 2002).

The findings confirm the findings of Kasule (2008) who found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and OCB, and then asserted that an improvement in organisational commitment leads to a real improvement in OCB. Correlation and regression findings of Angom (2006) revealed that commitment is significantly related to OCB and that commitment was a predictor of OCB.

Results from the Regression Analysis Test

The results from the regression analysis test show that Leader-member exchange, empowerment and organizational commitment work together to predict variance in OCB.

The results state that 41% of improved organizational citizenship behavior can be attributed to leader member exchange, empowerment and organizational commitment. However the study further shows that leader member exchange alone could not account for increased organizational citizenship unless it is complemented with empowerment and organizational commitment.

In this respect, it means that in exchange relations between leader and subordinates, there must be deliberate efforts by the leaders to deal with systemic, structural and programmatic issues (Honold, 1997). Only then, will the subordinates feel empowered. Such feelings of empowerment are then eventually translated into organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression findings further support Greasley et al., (2005) who note that it the type of leadership style exhibited by their immediate supervisor impacts upon the level of empowerment. Greasley et al, (2005) posit that the impact of the immediate supervisor can be a barrier to employee empowerment ultimately affecting organisational attitudes. They further argue that the impact of the immediate supervisor can

play a crucial role in empowering operatives and that supervisors are able to influence whether or not employees are offered the opportunity to become empowered and the form that this may take.

According to the findings, it can be argued that quality exchanges set a backdrop for an empowered workforce. Empowerment can provoke a strong emotional response, which may affect employees' attitudes to their work like OCB (Greasley et al., 2005). Empowered employees are able to take pride in their work, which may well go beyond the boundaries of their working world.

The regression findings further support Meyer, Bartunek and Lacey (2002) who asserted that organizational commitment predicts helping behavior. The argument is that a committed person is willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. He or she puts in more effort in the organization and exerts high level of extra role behavior. Some of the outcomes of organizational commitment include organizational citizenship behavior and improved performance by employees, thereby relating positively with productivity.

Other findings from the study

The t-test findings reveal that there was a significant difference between the male and female respondents in their ratings for empowerment and OCB. Males rated both values for empowerment and OCB higher than females. This could be explained by the social context of the power sector that has been traditionally dominated by males. The males could be more comfortable around the work context than their female counterparts. The feeling of being at ease with the work context could eventually be extended into exhibiting citizenship behaviors.

The t-test results show that there was a significant difference between respondents of the two organizations in their ratings for leader-member with respondents from organization

X rating the value higher than respondents from organization Y. This means that people in different organizations may perceive LMX differently. This could be explained by the fact that both organizations have undergone major structural changes. However, organizational X underwent its changes much earlier than organization Y. The expectation is that the employees have settled in with their supervisors and better relationships have been nurtured over the course of time.

There was a significant difference between the respondents of the various job categories in their ratings of leader member exchange. Engineers had the highest mean of and Administrators had the least mean. This means that people in different positions may perceive LMX differently. It is possible that supervisors in the core functions or departments monitor their subordinates more closely and in the process extend more supervisory support to them.

There was a significant difference between the respondents of different job tenure in their rating of leader-member exchange. Respondents who had spent 2-4 years had a lower rating of LMX and organizational commitment than their counterparts who had spent less or more time working in the respective job position. This may be explained that after two years, employees would in most cases have confirmed whether the organization has met their initial expectations. The quality of interactions between a subordinate and a supervisor could shape subordinates' opinions about the organization. Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (1997) affirm that the quality of interaction between the supervisor and subordinate is responsible for subordinates' behaviors and attitudes such as organizational commitment.

There was a significant difference between the respondents of different job tenure in their rating of empowerment. Respondents who had spent 4-6 years working in a respective position had a lower rating of empowerment followed by their colleagues who have spent 2-4 years. This means that people of different job tenure may perceive feelings of psychological empowerment differently.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between leader-member exchange, empowerment, commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. According to the research findings, there were positive relationships between all the variables of the study. The results revealed that an empowered and committed workforce is as a result of high quality relationships between leaders and their followers. In the regression analysis, empowerment was the highest predictor of OCB followed by commitment. However, leader-member exchange on its own would not predict OCB. This may mean that empowerment and organizational commitment are strong mediating variables for leader-member exchange to have an impact of OCB.

Recommendations

It is important for organizations to put in place management systems and policies that foster an environment where employees feel empowered. An empowered work force will eventually get committed to organizational objectives and then go an extra mile to exhibit extra-role behaviors. In formulating such policies, organizations should realize that they are social places and so they should place emphasis on quality social exchanges. This is because quality exchanges contribute to the psychological empowerment and organizational commitment of employees.

Organizations must be cautious of quality exchanges especially when developing training programs for supervisors. Opening up communication on this subject would be a start for supervisors to understand the contribution of quality exchanges to psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Organizations undergoing transitional change should incorporate within their change strategies the concept of quality exchanges between supervisors and subordinates. This will build confidence in employees about the change message and thereafter help the organizations achieve their intended objectives.

Areas for further research

1. Owing to the fact that there is little literature on Leader-member exchange in Uganda workforces, there is need for further research into the area of LMX in relationship to OCB among large scale organizations both in the private and public sectors. A longitudinal study should also be attempted to observe patterns of LMX and their subsequent impact on empowerment, organizational commitment and OCB.
2. Further research should be conducted in the area of Leader-member exchange in relationship to culture in Uganda as a whole.
3. A study on the influence of personality traits on Leader-member exchange needs to be carried out.
4. Results of the T-test indicate that some background characteristics like gender were found to have significant relationships with empowerment and OCB. This could also be an area of interest for subsequent scholars interested in the subject of employee empowerment and OCB.
5. Future scholars could also investigate whether work environment, type of job/ task and job influence the quality of exchanges between leaders and subordinates.
6. Future scholars could also carry out an in depth investigation on whether job tenure impacts employee empowerment.

References

- Allen, I., & Meyer, J. (1990). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.
- Allen, I., & Meyer, J. (1996). Affective, continuous and normative commitment to the organization: an examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 252-76
- Angom, J. O. (2006). *Competence, Empowerment, Psychological Contract, Commitment and Organization Citizenship Behavior among Clerical Officers of Banking Institutions in Uganda*. A dissertation for a Master of Organizational Psychology of Makerere University
- Arinaitwe, J. (2005). *Competence, Empowerment, Commitment, Organizational Social Capital, Employee Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Counter Productive Behavior: The Case Study of Accountants*. A dissertation for a Master of Organizational Psychology of Makerere University
- Baijuka, E. R. (2008). *Leader Member Exchange, Organizational Justice, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. A Case of Ministry of Public Service and Two International NGOs in Uganda*. A dissertation for a Master of Human Resource Management of Makerere University
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: W.H, Freeman
- Bauer, T., & Green, S. (1996). Development of leader-member exchange: A longitudinal Exchange, *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 1538-1567.
- Bhal, K. (2006). LMX- citizenship behavior relationship: Justice as a Mediator *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 27, 106-117.
- Bowen, D., & Lawler, E. (1995). Empowering service employees, *Sloan Management Review*, summer, 73-83.

- Conger, J., & Kanungo, R. (1988). The empowerment process: integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review*, 13, 471-82.
- Cohen, A. (1996). On the discriminant validity of Meyer and Allen measure of organizational commitment: how does it fit with the work commitment construct. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 56, 494-593.
- Dansereau, F. (1995), "A dyadic approach to leadership: creating and nurturing this approach under fire", *Leadership Quarterly*. 6, 479-90.
- Dansereau, F., Graen, G & Haga, W.J. (1995). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: a longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organisational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13, 46-78
- Dierendonck, D., Le Blanch, P., & Breukelen, W.V. (2002). Supervisory behavior, reciprocity and subordinate absenteeism. *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 23, 84-92.
- Egley, R.J. (2005). Teacher-principal relationships; Exploring linkages between empowerment and interpersonal trust. *Journal of Educational Administration*. 43, 260-277
- Gerstner, C., & Day, D. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 827-44.
- Gomez, C., & Rosen, B. (2001). The leader-member exchange as a link between managerial trust and employee empowerment. *Group and Organisational Management*, 82, 827-844
- Graen, G.B. (2003). Role-making into the starting work team using LMX leadership: diversity as an asset. *LMX Leadership*, 1, 1-28.

- Graen, G.B & Scandura, T.A (1987). Towards a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 9, 175-208
- Graen, G.B & Uhl-Bien, M. (1991). The transformation of professionals into self-managing and partially self-designing contributors towards a theory of leadership-making. *Journal of Management Systems*, 3, 33-48
- Graen, G.B. and Uhl-Bien, M. (1995), "Relationship-based approach to leadership: developments of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective", *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 219-47.
- Greasley, K. (2005). Employee perceptions of empowerment. *Employee Relations*, 27, 354-368
- Greasley, K., Dainty, A., Bryman, A., Price, A., Soetanto, R. & King, N. (2005). "Project affinity: the role of emotional attachment in construction projects", *Construction Management and Economics*, 23, 242-4.
- Honold L. (1997). A review of the literature on employee empowerment. *Empowerment in Organizations*, 5, 202-212.
- Hui, C., Lam, S.S.K., & Schaubroeck, J. (2001). "Can good citizens provide the way in providing quality service?" A field quasi experiment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 988-95
- Jawahar, I.M. & Dean, C. (2007). The compensatory effects of perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22, 330-349
- Kang, D. & Stewart, J. (2007). Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership and HRD. Development of units of theory and laws of interaction. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 28, 531-551

- Kasule, J. M. (2008). *Competence based performance appraisal, Perceived validity of job benchmarks, Organizational Justice, Empowerment, and OCBs. A Case study of Uganda Revenue Authority*. A dissertation for a Master of Organizational Psychology of Makerere University
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R.L. (1978). *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. New York, NY: Wiley
- Krishnan, V. (2004). Impact of transformational leadership on followers' influence strategies. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 25, 58-72.
- Lawler, E. (1986). *'High involvement Management'* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass,
- Lawler, E. (1992). *The Ultimate Advantage: Creating the High-Involvement Organization*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Lee, J. (2005). Effects of leadership and leader-member exchange on commitment. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 26, 655-672
- LePine, J., Erez. A., & Johnson, D. (2000). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: a critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 52-65
- Liden, R., Wayne, S., & Sparrowe, R. (2000). An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 407-16
- Liden, R., Wayne, S., & Sparrowe, R. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 15, 47-119.
- Lind E.A., & Earley, P.C. (1991). *Some thoughts on self and group interest: a parallel-processor model*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Miami Beach, FL

- McLagan, P. and Nel, C. (1997). *The Age of Participation: New Governance for the Workplace and the World*, (2nd Ed.), Berrett-Koehler, San Francisco, CA.
- Menon, S.T. (1995). *Employee Empowerment: Definition, Measurement and Construct Validation*, McGill University, Montreal.
- Meyer, J., Bartunek, J., & Lacey, C.A. (2002). Identity change and stability in organizational groups: a longitudinal investigation. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 10, 4-29.
- Morrison, E. (1996). Organizational citizenship behavior as a critical link between HRM Practices and Service Quality. *Human Resource Management*, 35, 393-512.
- Morrows, P.C., Suzuki, Y., Crum, M.R., & Pautsch, R.R.G. (2005). The role of Leader-Member exchange in high turnover work environments. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 20, 681-694
- Murphy, G., Athanasou, J., & King, N. (2002). Job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour; A study of Australian Human service professionals. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. 17, 287-297
- Organ, D. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books,
- Podsakoff, P., Mackenzie, S., Moorman, R., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 107-42.
- Podsakoff, P.M., McKenzie, S.B., Paine, J.B. & Bacharach, D. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: a critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26, 513-63.

- Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Boulian, P.V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 603-609
- Quinn, R.E., & Spreitzer, G.M. (1997). The road to empowerment: seven questions every leader should consider. *Organisational Dynamics*, 26, 37-49
- Robbins, S. (2001). *Organizational Behavior: Concepts, Controversies and Applications*. 9th ed., Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall International
- Rugyema, B. (2008). *Supervisory Climate, Individual Competences, Social Capital, Organisational Citizenship Behavior and Employee Performance*. A dissertation for a Master of Human Resource Management of Makerere University
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social Research*. 3rd ed. New York; Palgrave Macmillan
- Uhl-Bien, M. & Graen, G.B. (1991). The transformation of professionals into self-managing and partially self-designing contributors towards a theory of leadership-making. *Journal of Management Systems*, 3, 33-48.
- Scandura, T. & Graen, G. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 428 - 436
- Scandura, T., Graen, G., & Novak. (1986). When managers decide not decide not to decide autocratically: an investigation of leader-member exchange and decision influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 579-584.
- Schyns, B. and Von Collani, G. (2002). A new occupational self-efficacy scale and its relation to personality constructs and organisational variables. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 11, 219-41.
- Schyns, B., Torka, N. & Gossling, T. (2007). Turnover intention and preparedness for change. *Career Development International*, 12, 660-679.

- Schyns, B. & Wolfram, H. (2008). The relationship between leader-member exchange and outcomes as rated by leaders and followers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 29, 631-646
- Siegall, M., & Gardner, S. (2000). Contextual factors of psychological empowerment. *Personnel Review*, 29, 703-22.
- Spreitzer, G.M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: dimensions, measurement, and validation", *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1442-65.
- Spreitzer, G.M., Kizilos, M.A., & Nason, S.W (1997). A multidimensional analysis of the relationship between psychological empowerment and effectiveness, satisfaction, and strain. *Journal of Management*, 23, 679-705.
- Spreitzer, G. (1996). Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 483-505.
- Spreitzer, G., & Doneson, D. (2005). Musings on the past and future of employee empowerment in Cummings, T (Ed). *Handbook of Organizational Development*. London: Sage Publishing
- Suzik, H, A. (1998). Transmission plant is winner with empowerment. *Quality*, 4, 90-91
- Thomas, K.W., & Velthouse, B.A (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 159, 661-81
- Vatanen, A. (2003). *Leader-follower relations in an intercultural Chinese context: Personal, Interpersonal and Behavioral influences and impact on work contribution*. Helsingfors, Sweden.
- Wang, H., Law, K.S., Hackett, R.D., Wang, D & Chen, Z.X. (2005). Leader- member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and

- followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 420-32
- Wat, D. & Shaffer, M. (2005). Equity and relationship quality influences on organizational citizenship behaviors. The mediating role of trust in the supervisor and empowerment. *Personnel Review*, 34, 406-422.
- Zhou, J. & George, J. (2001). When job satisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 682-97

Appendix A: Questionnaire

Introduction: My name is Angelita Musimenta and I am pursuing a Master of Organizational Psychology in Makerere University. I am carrying out a study about the relationship between Leader-Member Exchange and its relationship to Empowerment, Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). Please kindly spare some of your valuable time and respond to the following questions. The research has purposely selected you to participate in this study. The information that you provide will be treated with all the confidentiality it deserves and will be used for the purpose of this research only.

Thank you

Please read each statement carefully and be as honest and objective

Section A: Background Information

1. Job title: _____
2. Sex: F M
3. Name of your organization _____
4. Highest level of education _____
5. How long have you worked in this position

Less than one year

1-2 years

2-4 years

4-6 years

6+

Section B: Leader-Member Exchange

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements by circling the number that best represents your opinion. Please use the following scale

I strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	I agree	I Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	I like my supervisor very much as a person	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My supervisor is a lot fun to work with	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My supervisor would come to my defense if I were 'attacked' by others	1	2	3	4	5
6.	My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made a serious mistake	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job descriptions	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required to meet my supervisor's work goals	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his or her job	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I respect my supervisor's knowledge and competence on the job	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I admire my supervisor's professional skills	1	2	3	4	5
13.	My supervisor and I are similar in terms of outlook, perspective and values	1	2	3	4	5
14.	My supervisor and I see things in much the same way	1	2	3	4	5
15.	My supervisor and I are alike in a number of ways	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I know where I stand with my direct supervisor. I know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do	1	2	3	4	5
17.	All I all, I am satisfied with my relationship with my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My supervisor understands my job problems and needs very well	1	2	3	4	5
19.	My supervisor recognizes my potential very well	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I would characterize my working relationship with my supervisor as highly effective	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Empowerment

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements by circling the number that best represents your opinion. Please use the following scale

I strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	I agree	I Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	I can influence the way work is done in my department	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I can influence decisions taken in my department	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I have the authority to make decisions at work	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I have the authority to work effectively	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Important decisions are part of my job	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I have the capability to do my job well	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have the skills and the capabilities to my job well	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have the competencies to work effectively	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I can handle the challenges I face at work	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am enthusiastic about the contribution my work makes to the organization	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am inspired by the goals on my organization / department	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I am inspired by what we are trying to achieve as an organization	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I am enthusiastic about working toward the organization's objectives	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I am keen on our doing well as an organization	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I have lots of control over my work	1	2	3	4	5
16.	If I need help, it is usually easy to get others to help	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I am sure of what others expect of me in my work situation	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My innovative ideas are often received well by supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I keep my ideas to myself because they would be ignored anyway	1	2	3	4	5
20.	The simplest decisions must always be checked before I go ahead	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I can assist my co-workers in improving their performance	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I think I am able to say what I want to say to my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I am confident my co-workers and I will be able to work together	1	2	3	4	5

Section D: Commitment

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements by circling the number that best represents your opinion. Please use the following scale

I strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	I agree	I Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel a sense of belonging to this organization	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel emotionally attached to this organization	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I feel like I am part of the family at my organization	1	2	3	4	5
6.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Right now, staying in this organization is a matter of necessity as much as I desire	1	2	3	4	5
8.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Too much of my life would be disrupted I decided to leave my organization at this time	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my organization	1	2	3	4	5
11.	If I had not put so much of my self into this organization, I would consider myself working elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5
12.	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this my organization would be scarcity to available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I feel an obligation to remain with current employer	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be the right time to leave this organization	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I would feel guilty if I left this organization now	1	2	3	4	5
16.	This organization deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I owe a great deal to my organization	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I would not leave my organization right now because I have an obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5

Section E: Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Instructions: Please rate your colleague by using items below by ticking the number that you think is most appropriate

I strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	I agree	I Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	I Seek and accept responsibility at all times	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I perform competently under pressure	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I get a great deal done within the a set time frame	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I readily accept more work	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I could be expected to be in a position to start work at the appointed time	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I could be relied on to come every morning	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I could be expected to maintain the work I do	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I could be expected to attend work regularly and be punctual	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I do not take days off without previously asking for them	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I never deliberately work below my best even without supervision	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I anticipate problems and develop solutions in advance	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I assist others with their work	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I innovate suggestions to improve the department	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I do what is required of me and never volunteer for extra work	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I help others who have heavy workload	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I carry out functions that are not required of me but are of help to the organization	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I keep up with any new developments in the organization	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I may stay at work for longer hours than the workday even without compensation	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I talk favorably about the organization to other people	1	2	3	4	5
21.	When in need, I will help work mates to complete tasks without having been told by management	1	2	3	4	5