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The Moderating Effects of Power Distance and Collectivism on Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership in International Development Organizations

Debby Thomas

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The Moderating Effects of Power Distance and Collectivism on
Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership in
International Development Organizations

Submitted to Regent University

School of Business & Leadership

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Organizational Leadership

Debby Thomas

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School of Business & Leadership

Regent University

This is to certify that the dissertation prepared by:

Debby Thomas

titled

**THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF POWER DISTANCE AND
COLLECTIVISM ON EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP AND
PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND SELF-LEADERSHIP IN
INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATIONS**

Has been approved by her committee as satisfactory completion of the dissertation
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Abstract

This study used quantitative research to investigate the acceptability and effectiveness of empowering leadership in various cultural contexts. The importance of finding appropriate leadership styles to use in cross-cultural situations is paramount. Development organizations as well as multinational organizations struggle to find appropriate forms of leadership that are effective in mobilizing the workforce in highly diverse cultural contexts. The effects of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and self-leadership are measured in two cultural contexts representing both high and low power distance and collectivism to explore how empowering leadership behaviors affect the empowerment of subordinates. This research is located within five intersecting theoretical frameworks: empowerment, psychological empowerment, empowering leadership, cross-cultural studies, and African leadership studies. Two hundred forty-five surveys were collected—121 from Rwanda and 124 from the United States. The self-report surveys assessed followers' perception of their leader's empowering leadership, as well as the followers' cultural values and psychological empowerment and self-leadership. First, hierarchical regression analysis showed that empowering leadership has a significant positive effect on both psychological empowerment and self-leadership in both cultural context. This research contributes to the field of empowerment by offering empirical evidence that empowering leadership is appropriate and effective in both high and low power distance and collectivism cultures. Second, hierarchical regression analysis with tests for moderation show that power distance moderates these relationships, especially in high power distance cultures, while collectivism only moderates occasionally. This contributes to the field of cross-cultural studies by indicating that power distance is a cultural value that can have a moderating effect and needs to be included in future cross-cultural studies. This thesis provides evidence that empowering leadership is an effective form of leadership that produces employee empowerment in diverse cultural contexts, and it provides new insights into an appropriate form of leadership for international development organizations to implement when working overseas.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to God; to my husband, David; and to my four amazing children, Breanna, Aren, Gwen, and Alandra.

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First, I am especially grateful to God for all he has done for me. Prior to starting this doctoral program, I experienced 3 years of debilitating illness. My heart's desire was to start a doctoral program; God granted that desire, as well as giving me my health back. Thank you, God, for giving me a love of learning and for allowing me to pursue the dream of getting a PhD.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

Empowering leadership holds promise as a type of leadership that encourages autonomy, develops subordinates' ability to work autonomously, and increases psychological empowerment, which is linked to a myriad of positive work outcomes (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Empowering leadership emerged out of the empowerment literature in 2000 (Arnold, Arad, & Rhoades, 2000; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000), and the recent addition of the Empowering Leadership Scale (ELS; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a) offers new opportunities for research on this highly effective form of leadership.

Although cross-cultural research in organizational leadership has grown considerably since Hofstede (1980) introduced the measurement of cultural values, some researchers have observed that about 98% of leadership theories and empirical evidence are American or Western in character (House & Aditya, 1997). In a review of two decades of empowerment research, Maynard et al. (2012) noted the lack of cross-cultural research in this area and called for research that considers two or more cultures. The authors of the new ELS (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a) also requested further research that investigates the impact of culture on empowering leadership and outcome variables. Furthermore, Walumbwa, Avolio, and Aryee (2011) in a synthesis of leadership research in Africa found that little empirical or theoretical work addresses leadership in Africa. Numerous African leadership authors have proposed that leadership research in Africa needs to identify appropriate forms of leadership for Africa to combat the economic difficulties that Africa faces (Edoho, 2001; Kuada, 2010; Muchiri, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2011).

The current research ascertains if empowering leadership is indeed as powerful a form of leadership in non-Western cultures as it is in Western cultures. For this reason, this research addresses the effects of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and self-leadership in two cultural contexts—Rwanda and the United States—which differ in the cultural values of power distance and individualism/collectivism.

Statement of the Problem

First, this study establishes empowering leadership as an effective producer of empowerment in employees. Self-leadership and psychological empowerment are presented as the *do and be* aspects of empowerment in employees and are measured in this study as the results of empowering leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). Empowering leadership is then established as a set of leadership behaviors that consistently produce empowerment in subordinates.

Second, empowering leadership is shown to be an effective form of leadership in the United States. The current study proposes that it may also be an appropriate and effective form of leadership in countries that are culturally dissimilar to the United States, such as Rwanda. The effectiveness of empowering leadership is due in part to the sharing of power with subordinates, which increases their ability to work autonomously (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). This creates a greater level of engagement in work activities, and work is seen as more fulfilling and more meaningful (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995). Subordinates become more capable and more productive, increasing the amount and level of difficulty of work they can accomplish (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Empowering leadership strengthens the relationship between leaders and followers, which also increases the productivity of both parties.

The cultural values of collectivism and power distance dichotomize countries as being dissimilar to one another. Cultures that embrace high collectivism and high power distance (such as Rwanda) are fundamentally dissimilar to cultures with low collectivism and power distance (such as the United States). These differences in culture will likely influence the effects of empowering leadership on self-leadership and psychological empowerment. However, empowering leadership may prove to be effective in both of these cultures, even if it is less effective in high power distance and highly collectivistic cultures.

Conceptual Framework

Empowerment

Empowerment in the workplace is a popular and highly acclaimed practice used to improve employee and work outcomes. About 70% of organizations have implemented some form of empowerment initiative with at least part of their work force (Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001). Empowerment theory originated in the 1970s (Kanter, 1977) and has continued to be relevant and generate considerable research interest today (Seibert et al., 2011). Empowered employees positively affect organizational commitment, job performance, job satisfaction, affective commitment, creative process engagement, as well as other work and organizational factors (Dewettinck & van Ameijde, 2011; Hill, Kang, & Seo, 2014; Maynard et al., 2012; Schermuly, Schermuly, & Meyer, 2011; G. Spreitzer, 2008; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

As the concept of empowerment developed, two complementary but different definitions of empowerment evolved (G. Spreitzer, 2008). Some scholars have focused on the social–structural elements that enable empowerment to become prominent in the workplace such as structures, policies, and practices that encourage empowerment. Others have focused primarily on the psychological experience of employees’ empowerment at work. Recent work has acknowledged both perspectives on empowerment as important and has drawn the two perspectives together by presenting the social–structural elements as antecedents to the psychological experience of empowerment in employees (Seibert et al., 2011). Figure 1 illustrates how the two differing definitions have been reconciled by using social–structural empowerment as the antecedent of psychological empowerment, which produces many positive work outcomes.

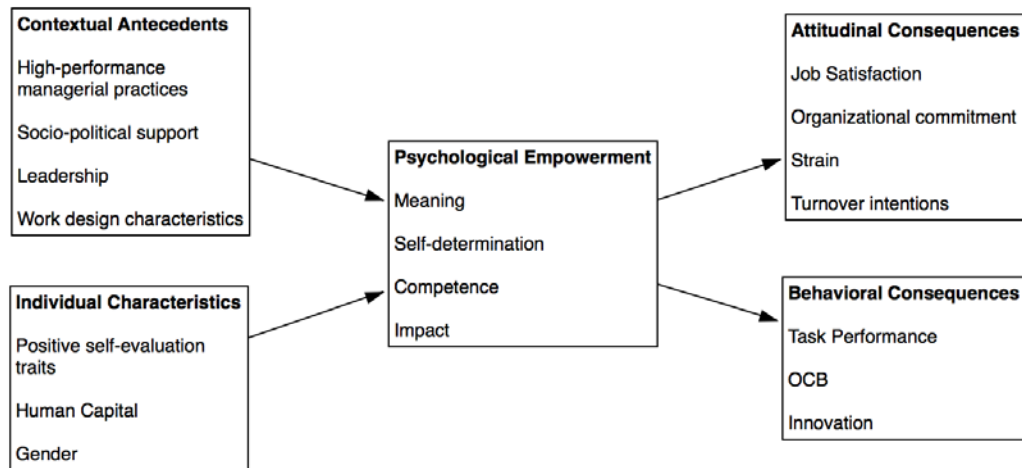


Figure 1: Empowerment antecedents and consequences. Adapted from “Antecedents and Consequences of Psychological and Team Empowerment in Organizations: A Meta-Analytic Review,” by S. E. Seibert, G. Wang, and S. H. Courtright, 2011, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(5), p. 982. doi:10.1037/a0022676

Despite these positive research findings on empowerment, and the enthusiasm with which organizations have embraced empowerment, some experts in the field have questioned the effectiveness of empowerment programs implemented in organizations (D. Collins, 1999; Ford, Fottler, Russ, & Millam, 1995; Harley, 1998; Morrell & Wilkinson, 2002). Although the effects of an empowered workforce are positive, not all organizational attempts to empower the workforce succeed. For this reason, empowering leadership is an essential part of the implementation of empowerment in organizations. Empowering leadership is a form of social–structural empowerment that directly and positively impacts employees’ psychological experience of empowerment. Utilizing empowering leadership as a social–structural component when implementing empowerment programs in organizations is likely to increase the program’s success substantially since empowering leadership has a significant positive impact on employee empowerment.

The current research specifically considers the effects of empowering leadership on the psychological and functional experience of employee empowerment and the moderating effects of culture on these relationships. In this way, the positive effect of empowering leadership on employee empowerment will be tested in dissimilar cultural contexts to ascertain its effectiveness in multiple cultural contexts.

Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership

Using empowering leadership consistently will create empowered subordinates who reap the many benefits of empowerment that research has revealed. For empowering leadership to be successful, followers must become truly empowered. Although there are many variables that can measure the degree to which a person has become empowered, the current research focuses on two: psychological empowerment and self-leadership.

Psychological empowerment focuses on how employees experience their work and specifically measures psychological states that lead to a sense of control in work activities (G. Spreitzer, 2008). Psychological empowerment is measured by ascertaining employees' intrinsic task motivation. This indicates an active orientation toward work, which results in feeling capable of shaping the work role or context (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Psychological empowerment consists of four widely accepted cognitions: sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995). These four cognitions are measured and compiled into one indicator of overall psychological empowerment, created by G. M. Spreitzer (1995). All four cognitions must be present and active for a person to be fully psychologically empowered.

Self-leadership is "a self-influence process through which people achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to perform" (Neck & Houghton, 2006, p. 271). Self-leadership has been connected to empowerment in the literature as a primary mechanism for facilitating empowerment in employees (Houghton & Yoho, 2005; Prussia & Anderson, 1998; Shipper & Manz, 1993). Self-leadership comprises behavioral and thought pattern strategies that an individual uses to shape

performance outcomes, including behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought pattern strategies (Houghton & Neck, 2002).

Psychological empowerment and self-leadership represent the *be and do* characteristics of empowered employees (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). While psychological empowerment measures the psychological state of an employee in regards to empowerment, self-leadership measures employees' perception of competence, self-determination, and meaningfulness of their work (M. Lee & Koh, 2001). An employee who has high levels of both self-leadership and psychological empowerment is truly empowered. This research measures empowering leadership and its effect on employees' psychological empowerment and self-leadership in the context of cultural values to examine how empowering leadership behaviors produce empowered employees in diverse cultural settings.

Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership is a specific set of leader behaviors that produces empowerment in subordinates. It involves "a transfer of power from top management to knowledge workers with high autonomy and who are able to take initiative and make decisions about daily activities" (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 488). Empowering leadership is part of the social-structural side of empowerment, along with organizational structures, that encourage empowerment such as participative decision making, skill/knowledge-based pay, open flow of information, flat organizational structures, and training (G. Spreitzer, 2008).

Research on empowerment began in the 1980s, but the specific focus on leadership behaviors that produce empowerment did not begin until 2000. Manz and Sims (1987) researched the successful leadership of self-managing teams and coined the term *SuperLeadership*, which defined a type of leadership that helps others to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 2001). This preliminary research sparked an interest in the leadership behaviors needed to encourage employee empowerment, which differed from the leadership behaviors needed in more traditional, hierarchical situations. This form of leadership became known as empowering leadership; five specific measurements were created to measure this construct (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Arnold et al., 2000; Konczak et al.,

2000; Manz & Sims, 1987; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Research on empowering leadership was also accomplished by cobbling together other measurement tools (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014; Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011; T. B. Harris, Li, Boswell, Zhang, & Xie, 2013; Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013; Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims, 2013; Magni & Maruping, 2013; Slåtten, Svensson, & Sværi, 2011; van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer, & Van Quaquebeke, 2012; Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010). However, two of the scales created for individual measurement were not subjected to rigorous studies of validity and reliability (Arnold et al., 2000; Konczak et al., 2000), while the other three scales were created to measure the external leadership of self-managing teams, limiting the scope of use for these scales (Ahearne et al., 2005; Manz & Sims, 1987; Pearce & Sims, 2002).

A new scale developed by Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a), the ELS, addresses the limitations of the previous scales. The ELS utilizes the previous 15 years of research on empowering leadership to create a measurement that is valid and reliable, measuring empowering leadership from an individual perspective (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). Empowering leadership is more specifically defined as “the process of influencing subordinates through power sharing, motivation support, and development support with intent to promote their experience of self-reliance, motivation, and capability to work autonomously within the boundaries of overall organizational goals and strategies” (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 489). This scale measures two dimensions of empowering leadership: autonomy support and development support. The leader engages in leadership behavior that encourages subordinates to work autonomously (autonomy support) while also developing subordinate skills and abilities in autonomous work (development support).

The current study hypothesizes that empowering leadership positively affects psychological empowerment, and many previous studies have provided support for this relationship. Konczak et al. (2000) found that psychological empowerment fully or partially mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and subordinate outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational

commitment. Raub and Robert (2010) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and challenging extrarole activities in a sample population from Middle Eastern and Asian countries. Chen, Sharma, et al. (2011) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and team members' innovative behaviors, teamwork behaviors, and turnover intentions. Psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and citizenship behaviors for individuals in a study conducted by Auh et al. (2014). These studies are a sampling of the body of empirical research that finds a strong positive connection between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, as well as establish psychological empowerment as the mediating variable between empowering leadership and many positive outcomes. The current study proposes to test the effect of cultural values on this established relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment.

The current research also proposes that empowering leadership has a positive effect on self-leadership. Although empowering leadership evolved in part from the literature on self-leadership, there is less empirical work linking these two concepts. However, based on quantitative evidence, Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) indicated that self-leadership mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and subordinates' performance. The current study will first confirm the relationship between empowering leadership and self-leadership and subsequently test the effects of culture on this relationship.

Culture

Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a), the creators of the ELS, asserted that further research "should investigate the impact of culture on the relationship between empowering leadership and outcome variables, since previous studies (Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000) have suggested such coherence" (p. 507). The effects of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and self-leadership will likely be moderated by culture, and Amundsen and Martinsen adeptly requested empirical research investigate these relationships further.

Hofstede's (1993) research on culture and leadership as well as the GLOBE study's (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2008) in-depth research on cultural characteristics and implicit leadership theory provide concrete evidence that cultural values have a profound effect on leadership. Since Hofstede's (1980) seminal work in cross-cultural research, the interest in the effects of culture on leadership has grown tremendously and remains a popular subject of research today. Hofstede originally proposed four measurements of culture: individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. The more recent GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) identified nine measurable aspects of culture: future orientation, gender equality, assertiveness, humane orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, performance orientation, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance.

Previous research has indicated that the two cultural measures that are most impactful on leadership variables are individualism/collectivism and power distance. Triandis and Gelfand (1998), after many years of conducting cultural research, argued that individualism/collectivism is perhaps the most impactful dimension of culture in regards to leadership. In a review of 25 years of cultural research that utilize Hofstede's measures, Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006) noted that most cross-cultural research only considers individualism/collectivism. Although they agreed that this is an important variable, they discovered that power distance has a stronger effect on variables in some instances. Tsui, Nifadkar, and Ou (2007), while reviewing cross-cultural organizational behavior research, found that individualism/collectivism and power distance are the two cultural variables that have the most impact on leadership studies. Finally, in a review of two decades of empowerment research, Maynard et al. (2012) noted the lack of cross-cultural research and called for more research on empowerment that considers at least two cultures and that measures both individualism/collectivism and power distance. For these reasons, both individualism/collectivism and power distance are measured in relation to the empowerment variables.

Individualism/collectivism are seen as opposites on one continuum and measure the degree to which individuals "express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness

in their organizations, families, circle of close friends, or other such small groups” (Chhokar et al., 2008). In an individualist society, each person is defined by personal characteristics and expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Collectivist societies, on the other hand, encourage strong cohesive group environments in which self-identity is found in the group and relationships are mutually dependent and loyal (Hofstede et al., 2010). Power distance can be measured as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede et al., 2010, Glossary, Power Distance). High power distance cultures differentiate between people of differing power status and tend to create hierarchical organizational relationships. Low power distance cultures create less distinction between people of different power levels and encourage consultation between superiors and subordinates, flattening hierarchical relationships.

The current research considers individualism/collectivism and power distance in two dissimilar cultures to obtain a wide variability in culture scores. General statistics from GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) and Hofstede (1984) indicate that African countries have high collectivism (GLOBE score of 5-6 out of 7), while the United States is one of the lowest in collectivism (4.3). The GLOBE study also indicates that Africa is one of the highest in preference for power distance (up to 5.9), while America has a low to medium power distance score (4.8).

Previous research on empowering leadership and culture has indicated that culture impacts empowerment, but mixed results as well as unreliable and inconsistent measurement of culture do not create a clear picture of how culture impacts empowering leadership. For example, Robert et al. (2000) found that empowerment had a positive effect on high and low collectivism countries except for India (high collectivism). The reliability of the individualism scales used was between 0.34 and 0.50, showing that the results of the study may not be conclusive. Chen, Sharma, et al. (2011) found that Americans, high in individualism and low in collectivism, reported higher levels of empowerment than their Chinese counterparts and found collectivism to be positively related to psychological

empowerment, although no statistically significant relationship was found. Raub and Robert (2010) found that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and challenging extrarole activities and that power distance moderates this mediated relationship such that psychological empowerment had a stronger effect on challenging extrarole activities for individuals with low power distance values. These three studies have mixed results that indicate that culture influences the relationship between empowering leadership and outcome variables but do not offer clear conclusions as to how culture influences these variables.

The GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) investigated leadership behaviors that are valued in different cultures by asking participants to rate how much each leadership behavior contributed to or inhibited outstanding leadership. Some leadership behaviors were universally accepted in all cultures: charismatic/value-based leadership, team-oriented leadership, and participative leadership. The two items measured in the GLOBE study for participative leadership were autocratic (reverse-scored) and nonparticipative (reverse-scored). Although empowering leadership has many characteristics beyond these two, both a nonautocratic and a participative type of leadership are characteristics that describe empowering leadership. The GLOBE findings conclude that although participative leadership was considered as positive in all cultures, it was most highly rated in the cultural clusters that are low in both collectivism and power distance (5.5 to 6.5 out of 7) and less highly rated in culture clusters with higher collectivism and power distance (4.75 to 6 out of 7). These findings suggest that both samples in this study may experience empowering leadership positively, although high power distance and high collectivism may cause a less positive response. This present study measures both individualism and power distance on an individual basis (not using conglomerate country scores) together with the effects of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and self-leadership with variability in cultural values that can help clarify the role of culture in moderating the effects of empowering leadership.

Measurement of Culture

Both the GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) and Hofstede (1984) studies were conducted to provide countrywide conglomerate scores of cultural values that can be used in the study of leadership. Although conducting research that utilizes the conglomerate cultural values scores produces insights into the effects of culture on leadership, many have argued that individual measurement of culture also has merit. One reason the current research utilizes individual measurement of culture rather than country-level scores is that neither the GLOBE study nor the Hofstede study measured the country of Rwanda where this research takes place. Few African countries have been measured by either of these studies, even though Africa has 47 countries with many diverse cultures and languages. Individual measurement of culture also allows cultural values to be directly tied to specific leadership phenomenon, such as those being studied in this research. Whereas country scores show general differences between cultural values in different countries, individual scores on cultural values show which specific cultural values impact which leadership phenomenon.

There has been a broad base of support in the literature for the individual measure of culture in leadership studies. Dorfman (as cited in Scandura & Dorfman, 2004) advocated the measurement of individuals' cultural values to verify that the participants in the study are representative of the country's values since subcultures, organizational cultures, and the shifting of culture over time can affect results. Culpepper and Watts (1999) noted that the individual measurement of cultural values allows researchers to link the strength of cultural values to individual outcomes such as those considered in this study. They also found, as Dorfman suggested, that any given sample can vary widely from the conglomerate country scores, making individual measure of culture necessary to accurately examine the direct results of cultural values. In a review of cross-cultural studies, Tsui et al. (2007) found that 46% of cross-cultural studies utilize an individual measure of culture. They strongly advocated individual measure of culture in leadership studies for two reasons: (a) the studies based on conglomerate scores do not take into consideration within-country variation of a cultural measure and (b)

there are many other factors beyond culture that are not measured in the study that could influence the relationships between variables. Finally, Schaffer and Riordan (2003), in establishing best practices for cultural studies, established individual measurement of cultural values as the most effective and insightful form of studying the effects of culture. For these reasons, the current study unitizes individual measurement of cultural values to attain a wide variability of scores between two dissimilar countries, Rwanda and the United States, to assess the impact of culture on the given variables.

African Leadership Studies

Walumbwa et al. (2011), who wrote a synthesis of leadership research in Africa, found that “very little empirical or theoretical work has addressed leadership and management in Africa” (p. 425). He noted that the largest and most influential cross-cultural research to date, the GLOBE study, only included a handful of African countries, which causes further barriers to studying leadership in the African context. Kuada (2010), in a review of the research that specifically addressed leadership in the African context, attested to the scarcity of leadership studies in Africa and called for further research. Walumbwa et al. argued that a country’s economic performance is largely contingent on the effectiveness of the leaders’ ability to “unlock the potential of its workforce to effectively implement the strategic goals of organizations” (p. 425). Empowering leadership offers an organizational tool that can *unlock the potential of the workforce* by producing psychologically empowered and self-led employees. Applying empowering leadership in the African context offers leaders a strategy to address the problems that Walumbwa et al. observed in African organizations.

Wanasika, Howell, Littrell, and Dorfman (2011) proposed that African history has shaped the forms of leadership that are seen as culturally appropriate. A combination of tribal society, scarce resources, and highly collectivistic values results in an autocratic style of leadership but one that is tempered by a leader’s sense of duty to care for family and group needs. This forms a sort of paternalism that Kaunda (2010) called a form of autocratic benevolence. Other authors have agreed that default leadership styles in Africa tend toward autocratic, directive,

hierarchical leadership that increases dependence in followers (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Kuada, 2010). Poverty breeds in situations of dependence; for Africa to make a move away from poverty into economic growth, new appropriate forms of leadership are needed. Kuada proposed that empowerment of employees is central to addressing the issues that Africa faces and called for further study of empowering leadership in the African context. The continued empirical study of leadership in Africa is imperative in order for Africa to move out of economic despair. Empowering leadership offers an alternative style of leadership that may be acceptable and effective in the African context, offering a tool to deal with some of the challenges facing African leaders.

Purpose of the Study

One purpose of this study is to establish empowering leadership as a form of leadership that positively affects employees' empowerment. Employees' full empowerment is measured in this study by psychological empowerment (the being state of empowerment) and self-leadership (the doing aspect of empowerment). By quantitatively confirming these relationships, this study lends concrete evidence that empowering leadership is an effective means of truly and fully empowering employees.

Another purpose of this study is to show that empowering leadership may also be an appropriate and effective form of leadership in countries that are dissimilar culturally to the United States, especially in levels of collectivism and power distance. Although research has shown that culture influences the implicit leadership theories of followers, research also has shown that there are forms of leadership that are generally universally acceptable in cultures that are highly different from one another. Empowering leadership shares power with subordinates while increasing their ability to work autonomously. This creates more engagement in work and a sense of fulfillment, because work is seen as being more meaningful. Furthermore, people become more capable and more productive when they are empowered, increasing the amount and level of difficulty of work they can accomplish. Also, empowering leadership strengthens the relationship between

leaders and followers, which also increases the productivity of both leaders and followers. The purpose of this study is to ascertain if empowering leadership is an appropriate and effective form of leadership in countries with high power distance and collectivism. Furthermore, this study tests a form of leadership that may be effective in the African context, offering an alternative leadership style to the default styles generally practiced in Africa. The purpose of this study is also to begin the important work of testing the effects of empowering leadership in multiple cultural contexts to discover how universally effective empowering leadership is in differing cultural contexts.

Significance of the Study

The current research tests the relationship of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and self-leadership. Both psychological empowerment and self-leadership are signs of employee empowerment, and employee empowerment positively affects many work and organizational outcomes. Linking empowering leadership with a direct positive effect on employee empowerment creates the building blocks for a myriad of studies investigating the mediating effects of psychological empowerment and self-leadership between empowering leadership and multiple other outcome variables.

Another intended outcome of this study is that it will strengthen the literature on empowerment as well as empowering leadership in a cross-cultural context. The empowerment and empowering leadership literature has called for further study in the cross-cultural context. The current study specifically contributes by tying two aspects of culture to the empowering leadership and empowerment fields of study. The results of this research will extend current knowledge on the applicability of empowering leadership in cultures with high collectivism and high power distance. The results are widely generalizable to development organizations based in the United States working in countries with high levels of collectivism and power distance. This study can identify empowering leadership as a form of leadership that can be used by aid organizations working internationally, which contributes to building up employees' ability and confidence

as well as reducing dependence and increasing autonomy. Furthermore, in showing the moderating effect of culture on empowering leadership, this study can inform foreign development organizations of the specific cultural values that decrease the effectiveness of empowering leadership and assist in addressing these cultural differences in order to practice empowering leadership more effectively.

This research also adds to the body of knowledge concerning appropriate and constructive forms of leadership in Africa. Finding culturally appropriate forms of leadership is seen as a major factor in resolving issues of poverty and dependency. Empowering leadership may be a form of leadership that encourages autonomy rather than dependency and is seen as appropriate and effective in the African context.

Another intended outcome of this study is to further validate the ELS in a cross-cultural sample. Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) specifically requested further research into the effects of culture on empowering leadership. The current study is the first to provide a cross-cultural view on empowering leadership using the ELS. The scale is validated in two separate cultural samples.

Research Hypotheses

The previously referenced multiple calls for research request further study on empowerment cross-culturally, empowering leadership cross-culturally, African leadership, and individual measurement of collectivism and power distance in leadership studies. The current research seeks to answer these multiple calls for further research by seeking to ascertain the effects of individualism/collectivism and power distance on the relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and self-leadership. To explore these relationships, this study includes subjects from Rwanda, Africa who work in development organizations in Rwanda as well as Americans working in the home offices of these organizations. This study measures the two cultural dimensions of individualism/collectivism and power distance in two highly variable cultural contexts (Rwanda and the United States) to ascertain the moderating effect of these two cultural aspects on the effects of empowering leadership on subordinates'

psychological empowerment and self-leadership. The following hypotheses guide this study:

- H₁: The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the Rwandan sample.
- H₂: The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the U.S. sample.
- H₃: The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the Rwandan sample.
- H₄: The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the U.S. sample.
- H₅: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H₆: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.
- H₇: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H₈: Power distance moderate the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering

leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

- H₉: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H₁₀: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.
- H₁₁: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H₁₂: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

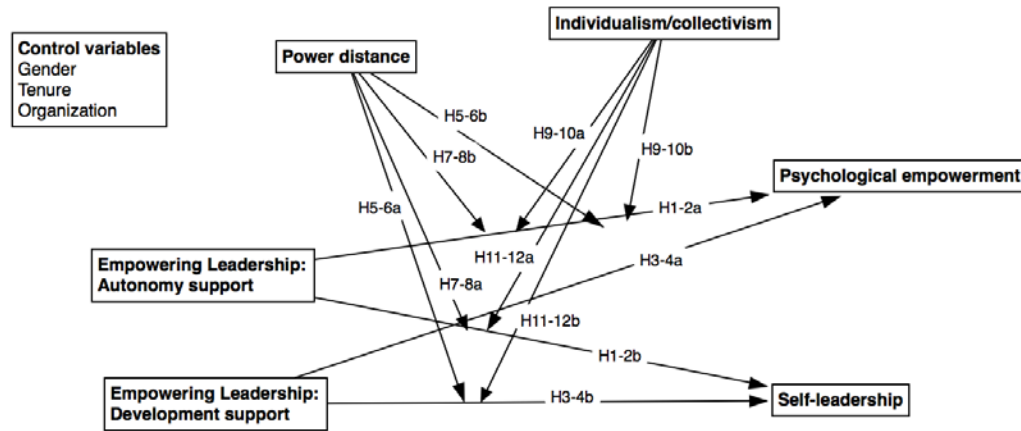


Figure 2: A model representing the hypotheses.

The literature has shown that the relationships between these variables are likely to vary by country. For this reason, the model is tested by country to ascertain the differences. Furthermore, the following research questions address the country differences in the studied concepts:

- RQ₁: Is there a difference in autonomy support as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₂: Is there a difference in development support as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₃: Is there a difference in psychological empowerment as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₄: Is there a difference in self-leadership as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₅: Is there a difference in power distance as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₆: Is there a difference in collectivism as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?

Method

Research Design

A quantitative nonexperimental research design was adopted in this study to accurately answer the research questions. A cross-sectional approach was used in which participants completed a series of validated research measurement instruments at one time in their work environment. The research design includes a proposed model of relationships in which empowering leadership affects both psychological empowerment and self-leadership. Finally, the research design includes two aspects of culture—collectivism and power distance—that were measured individually and tested as moderators of the relationships between the aforementioned variables. Self-report data are preferred for this research since the perception of empowering leadership behaviors as well as the perception of personal psychological empowerment and self-leadership are measured with regard to the individual's personal cultural values. Psychological empowerment and self-leadership are internal processes and are best measured by self-report. Measuring empowering leadership and cultural preferences from the individual's perspective as well allows the understanding of the effects of personal cultural values on the variables in the study.

Sampling Method

Hierarchical regression was used to test the first four hypotheses, while hierarchical regression with tests for moderation was used to test H₈₋₁₂. The procedure of testing for moderation includes the control variables, the independent variable, the dependent variable, and the interaction of the product of these two (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Each hierarchical regression analysis for moderation will have one independent variable, three control variables, one moderator, and the product of the moderator (seven total terms). Tabachnick (1996) presented an appropriate sample size for regression analysis where $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (m is the number of independent variables or the number of nondependent variables). This study would then require a sample size of $50 + 8(7) = 106$. Hair, Anderson, Babin, and Black (2010) suggested a minimum sample size of 15-20 per independent variable; in the current study, this is 105. A sample size of 110, therefore, would be

appropriate to support a study with seven independent variables, a .05 significance level, and detects the R^2 80% of the time and will detect R^2 of 14% or greater. However, since the model will be tested separately in each culture group, producing two sets of analysis for the two different cultures, this sample size must be doubled to 220, a minimum of 110 from each culture group.

Participants in this study included Rwandans and expatriates working for nonprofit or aid organizations in Rwanda. The Rwandan participants live in Rwanda, and the American participants live in the United States, but they all work for the same organization. Six organizations participated: World Relief, Compassion, World Vision, Hope International, ALARM, and Navigators' Discpling for Development. A sample population from Rwanda (high power distance and high collectivism) and the United States (low power distance and low collectivism) was attained through the employees in these organizations. In this way, a sample was gathered from people of two highly different cultures working in the same organization. Because organization is a control variable, organizational culture does not differ between the participants but national culture does, increasing the likelihood of measuring national and not organizational culture.

Instrumentation

A self-report questionnaire was compiled with existing validated surveys to measure each variable. Additionally, demographic information was collected. The survey included 55 questions, and took less than 10 minutes to complete for most participants. Translation into Kinyarwanda was accomplished using a back translation process as outlined by Brislin (1970). Furthermore, a small group of Rwandans, including the two translators, met to discuss the actual meaning of each question, ensuring that the meaning of the original questions is maintained in the Kinyarwanda survey instrument. Also, pretesting of the questionnaire in Kinyarwanda was conducted to ensure that the survey was clear and easily understandable. Participants were given the choice to fill out the English or Kinyarwanda version of the survey. Only 40 of the 121 Rwandan participants used the Kinyarwanda version of the survey.

Empowering leadership was measured by the newly developed 18-item ELS (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). The scale is two-dimensional, including autonomy support and development support. The study went through three rounds of rigorous testing in a *Leadership Quarterly* article and was shown to be valid each time. Coefficient alpha was .94 for both culture samples in this study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Psychological empowerment was measured in this study by G. M. Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item four-dimensional scale. The four cognitions of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact were each measured with three questions on a 7-point Likert scale. According to a review of literature on psychological empowerment, the scale has been scrutinized in many studies, and both convergent validity and discriminate validity have been found in many samples, including multiple international samples (Maynard et al., 2012). Through a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment, Seibert et al.'s (2011) results provided strong support for using psychological empowerment's unitary construct or *gestalt* that reflects the four specific cognitions. Coefficient alpha was .88 for both culture samples in this study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Self-leadership was measured using the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ; Houghton & Dawley, 2012). Houghton and Dawley (2012) recently developed and tested the nine-item ASLQ—an abbreviated version of the widely used Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ). The authors proposed that these three factors “encapsulate the heart of the classic self-leadership strategy dimensions” (p. 224) and encouraged the use of this instrument when researchers “wish to measure self-leadership as one variable of interest in the context of a larger model and who therefore find it impractical to use the full 35-item RSLQ” (p. 227). The coefficient alpha was .80 in the Rwandan sample and .78 in the U.S. sample in this study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Power distance and individualism/collectivism were measured by Dorfman and Howell's (1988) cultural values scale—a version of Hofstede's (1980) cultural

values scale that has been calibrated for measuring culture individually. It includes six questions for each scale and was recently used in a *Leadership Quarterly* article and had reliability of .86 (power distance) and .74 (individualism/collectivism; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a; R. Brown, 2003; Eom & Yang, 2014; Fock, Hui, Au, & Bond, 2013; Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004; K. Lee, Scandura, & Sharif, 2014). The coefficient alpha for power distance was .62 in the Rwandan sample and .57 in the U.S. sample; for collectivism, it was .77 in the Rwandan sample and .71 in the U.S. sample in this study. Answers were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Control variables are gender, years worked for a leader, and organization, as these variables have been found to influence results in previous research. Previous studies have found gender related to self-leadership or psychological empowerment, so it was used as a control variable (Amundsen, 2014; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a; R. Brown, 2003; Eom & Yang, 2014; Fock et al., 2013; K. Lee et al., 2014; H.-L. Tung & Chang, 2011; Wilson, 2011). Also, years worked for the leader may affect the way followers perceive leader behaviors as well as affecting the followers' level of psychological empowerment or self-leadership (R. T. Brown & Fields, 2011; Carmeli, Schaubroeck, & Tishler, 2011; Eom & Yang, 2014).

Data Collection Method

Both the English and Kinyarwanda versions of the survey were first piloted by five people in each group to ensure that the web-based instrument was functioning properly and that the paper-based copy was understood. After validation, the survey was personally delivered to the organizations that required paper copies, and emails and links were sent to organizations preferring the Internet-based instrument. The sample frame consisted of all employees working in Rwanda and in the home office of these organizations; Americans surveyed live and work in the United States in the home office of each organization.

Proposed Data Analyses

Measurement equivalence was established for the two sample populations in this study by conducting an exploratory factor analysis and a reliability analysis of the various scales on the two different samples. The rotated factor matrix, which

contains the correlations of each of the items with the extracted factors, was used to test for significant differences between the two subsamples by using the r to Z transformation. Furthermore, the factors were then built using the actual factor loadings as weights creating separate scales for each culture group.

The Cronbach's alpha for each scale was calculated, assessing the reliability of each measure used in the study. The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations among research variables were calculated and are presented in table format to determine the relationships among the variables.

In order to test the hypotheses stated in this study, hierarchical regression analysis was used. H_1 (a and b) and H_2 (a and b) were tested by multiple regression analysis testing the effect of both factors of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment. H_3 (a and b) and H_4 (a and b) were tested by multiple regression analysis testing the effect of both factors of empowering leadership on self-leadership. H_{5-12} are tests of moderation and were tested with hierarchical regression analysis for moderation effect. In Step 1, the dependent variable was regressed on the control variables. In Step 2, the independent variable and the moderating variable were added. In Step 3, the product of the moderator and the independent variable were added to the regression (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1175). This procedure was repeated for each test of moderation in each culture group.

To answer the research questions, a t test was used to compare the variables as measured in each of the two cultural samples. The differences between variables in the two cultures were compared and analyzed to gain insight into the way culture affects these variables.

Scope and Limitations

Only two aspects of culture were measured in this study. Although GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) measured nine aspects of culture and Hofstede (1980) measured five, only the two that literature has shown are the most impactful for leadership are considered: individualism/collectivism and power distance. It is

possible that other aspects of culture that are not studied also affect empowering leadership.

Rwandan and American participants indicated their individual cultural preferences. The results of cultural preferences may not be typical of the general Rwandan population since many participants will have a higher level of education, speak English, and work for an international organization. Although the results cannot be generalized to the overall U.S. and Rwandan cultures, they may be generalized to other contexts in which aid organizations work in a culture with high collectivism and high power distance.

Organizational culture may influence the results of this study. The study specifically measures cultural variables, but the culture of the organization may affect the individuals' experience of culture. This study proposes that employees will reflect many aspects of their national culture and is not interested in organizational culture. For this reason, multiple organizations with different organizational structures and organizational cultures are studied and organization is included as a control variable.

Another limitation to this study is its cross-sectional design, which does not allow for direct causality to be determined. Further research could improve on this design by gathering data before and after an empowering leadership training program. This would increase the possibilities of identifying the effects of empowering leadership on self-leadership and psychological empowerment.

In a study design such as this one, where data are collected by self-report questionnaires, there may be a question of internal validity. Podsakoff and Organ (1986) proposed that common method variance can be a serious threat to internal validity and occurs when all data are gathered from the same subjects. However, Conway and Lance (2010) found that using self-report data from one source does not inflate common method correlations through common method bias. In a review of research with various research designs, Lance, Dawson, Birkelbach, and Hoffman (2010) found that although common method variance does inflate observed relationships, the effect is almost completely offset by the effect of measurement error. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) suggested

techniques for controlling for common method bias, some of which are employed in this study. This study protects respondent anonymity and reduces evaluation apprehension, which reduces common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, et al., 2003). The instructions to the survey assure anonymity as well as request honest answers from respondents. Also, the questions are counterbalanced as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, et al. to offset common method bias. Questions relating to each variable are mixed together in the survey so that respondents are not likely to answer similar questions in a similar manner when they are grouped together. This ensures that respondents consider each question individually and are more likely to offer an honest response rather than answering automatically.

Definition of Terms

Empowerment is a motivational process—certain actions by a leader or structures in an organization can produce empowerment that motivates people (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; social–structural definition). It can also be defined by its ability to produce an increase in employees’ self-efficacy or the extent of one’s belief in one’s own ability to accomplish tasks and goals—in this case, an internal state of empowerment (i.e., psychological definition; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Empowering leadership is a set of leadership behaviors that specifically encourage and support subordinate empowerment.

Psychological empowerment is a set of psychological states that lead to a sense of control in relation to work-related activities (G. Spreitzer, 2008).

Self-leadership is “a self-influence process through which people achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to perform” (Neck & Houghton, 2006, p. 271).

Individualism/collectivism is a continuum of cultural values that measures the degree to which individuals “express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations, families, circle of close friends, or other such small groups” (Chhokar et al., 2008, Figure A3).

Individualism is the extreme of one side of the individualism/collectivism scale that “pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose:

everyone is expected to look after him- or herself and his or her immediate family” (G. Hofstede et al., 2010, Chapter 4, “I, We and They, Measuring the Degree of Individualism in Society,” para. 2).

Collectivism is the opposite side of the scale from individualism “pertains to societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (G. Hofstede et al., 2010, Chapter 4, I, “We and They, Measuring the Degree of Individualism in Society, ” para. 2).

Power distance is used to measure cultural values and is defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (G. Hofstede et al., 2010, “Glossary, ” Power Distance). High power distance indicates a cultural acceptance of large inequalities of power, while low power distance countries value small inequalities in power.

Summary

This chapter introduced the research questions and provided support from the literature for the present study. After introducing empowering leadership as a form of leadership that may be effective in Rwanda and other non-Western nations, the conceptual framework for the study was presented. This conceptual framework introduced the basic history and concepts of empowerment, psychological empowerment, self-leadership, and empowering leadership. The background for cross-cultural studies was introduced and the measurement of culture, the aspects of culture to be measured, and methods of cross-cultural research were established. This research aims to determine if empowering leadership is indeed a powerful a form of leadership in non-Western cultures affecting employees’ personal empowerment. Chapter 2 includes a full literature review on each of the parts of the conceptual framework. Chapter 3 presents the methods and analysis to be used in this quantitative study in more detail. Chapter 4 presents the results of the research, and Chapter 5 discusses the implications of research.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

This chapter reviews the literature pertaining to empowerment, empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, self-leadership, and cross-cultural studies in leadership as they relate to the research question. The first section gives a historical overview of empowerment, especially focusing on leadership behavior as an antecedent to empowerment. Next, a brief history and description of both psychological empowerment and self-leadership are presented to frame these two concepts in the empowerment literature. Then, empowering leadership is introduced from its conception through present-day definitions as well as current research related to the research questions posed in this study, including research on psychological empowerment and self-leadership. Since this research examines the effects of culture on empowering leadership, cross-cultural leadership studies are introduced, as are African leadership studies. The measurement of culture is discussed and the two cultural measurements of individualism/collectivism and power distance that are relevant to this study are identified and defined. Finally, research pertaining to empowering leadership and cross-cultural studies is reviewed. Hypotheses are proposed based on this extensive literature review.

Empowerment

Empowerment is not a new concept in the leadership and organizational behavior community. The concept of empowerment was introduced to the management and leadership literature by Kanter (1977) in the 1970s. The need for the concept of empowerment grew out of Ford's scientific management philosophy (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2013) in which labor was divided into small tasks and laborers performed repetitive and fragmented jobs (Wilkinson, 1998). The disillusionment, dissatisfaction, and disengagement that employees experienced were remedied in part by the introduction of empowerment. The concept of empowerment assumes that employees are resources with knowledge and experiences that can be unleashed for the good of the organization and that employees desire to be involved and participate in decision making in the workplace (Wilkinson, 1998). Early research on empowerment revealed that

empowerment can have a powerful impact on the job satisfaction of employees as well as yield better decisions for the organization (Wilkinson, 1998).

Empowerment became a popular topic in management journals in the 1980s, encouraged by the popular book *The Empowered Manager* (Block, 1987). Empowerment has had a major impact on management studies. In the 1990s, surveys showed that over 70% of organizations had implemented some kind of empowerment practices for at least a portion of their workforce (Lawler et al., 2001). Despite its popularity, the definition of empowerment remained unclear. Some researchers have defined empowerment as a motivational process, meaning that certain actions by a leader or structures in an organization produce empowerment that motivates people (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), while other researchers have defined empowerment by its ability to produce an increase in employees' self-efficacy or the extent of one's belief in one's own ability to accomplish tasks and goals (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

A recent review of the literature on empowerment reveals two sides to empowerment based on these two differing definitions: (a) the social–structural side of what an organization can do to produce empowerment in employees and (b) the experience of employees who feel empowered that is often measured by psychological empowerment (G. Spreitzer, 2008). In recent years, these two facets of empowerment have become related in that the social structures initiated in the organization or by the leader create the work conditions that enable employees to experience psychological empowerment (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014b). The social–structural side of empowerment has been seen by some as antecedents to psychological empowerment; and psychological empowerment, the experience of being empowered, affects positive work outcomes (Maynard et al., 2012; Seibert et al., 2011). As the field of empowerment research matured, the leader behaviors associated with the social–structural side of empowerment became known as empowering leadership (Arnold et al., 2000; Konczak et al., 2000), while the psychological state of empowered subordinates became known as psychological empowerment (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995), resolving some of the disagreement in the definition of empowerment.

Empowerment at its core “involves enhanced individual motivation at work through the delegation of responsibility and authority to the lowest organizational level where competent decisions can be made” (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 487). While empowering leadership involves “a transfer of power from top management to knowledge workers with high autonomy and who are able to take initiative and make decisions about daily activities” (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 488). While leadership is normally concerned with influencing people, empowering leadership gives influence away to subordinates. Psychological empowerment is defined as “a motivational construct manifesto in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact” (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444). These three concepts are distinct but interrelated and together form the concept of empowerment.

An ongoing debate in the study of empowerment is how to measure the actual lived-out and experienced empowerment of employees. While many consider psychological empowerment to be the primary measure of employee empowerment, it may not be sufficient (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). Also, empowering behaviors, structures, or programs implemented by organizations are intended to cause people to be empowered, but sometimes they are not effective. The current study endeavors to help fill this gap in the literature by testing empowering leadership behaviors against the actual empowerment felt and enacted by followers. In this way, specific empowering leader behaviors are measured against the felt empowerment (psychological empowerment) and enacted empowerment (self-leadership) of employees to ascertain the effectiveness of empowering leadership.

According to a recent review of the literature on empowerment, there are a number of social–structural elements that influence the psychological empowerment of employees (Maynard et al., 2012). These antecedents of psychological empowerment fall into five categories: (a) structural empowerment, (b) individual and team characteristics, (c) work design characteristics, (d) leadership, and (e) organizational support (Maynard et al., 2012; Seibert et al.,

2011; G. M. Spreitzer, 1995). The current research focuses on one of these antecedents: leadership.

Leadership as an antecedent to employee psychological empowerment has been examined by researchers more than any other form of antecedent (Seibert et al., 2011). In a meta-analytic review of 51 articles measuring leadership as an antecedent to psychological empowerment, Seibert et al. (2001) found a significant positive association (mean corrected correlation = .53) between leadership behaviors and psychological empowerment. A broad range of leadership measurements have been used to assess the effects of leadership on psychological empowerment. Numerous studies have considered the effects of transformational leadership on psychological empowerment and found a positive effect (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Jung & Sosik, 2002; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; C. A. Martin, 2006; Özaralli, 2003; Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2009). Leader–member exchange theory (LMX), which measures the strength and quality of relationship between leaders and followers, has been heavily researched concerning its effects on empowerment, and research consistently has supported LMX as a positive antecedent to psychological empowerment (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; M. Collins, 2007; K. J. Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009; Hill et al., 2014; Keller & Dansereau, 1995; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000). Authentic leadership, participative leadership, ethical leadership, and managerial use of power bases have also been linked to positive effects in psychological empowerment (Emuwa, 2013; Huang, Iun, Liu, & Gong, 2009; Randolph & Kemery, 2011; Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004). The rich stream of research linking various forms of leadership to positive effects on psychological empowerment has supported leadership behaviors as strong, positive antecedents to employee empowerment.

Although transformational, LMX, authentic, participative, and ethical leadership all have positive effects on the empowerment of employees, there is evidence that empowering leadership is a more significant contributor to empowerment. In a recent study, empowering leadership was compared to LMX and transformational leadership. Not only was the discriminant validity of

empowering leadership confirmed, empowering leadership showed incremental validity beyond the other two forms of leadership when predicting psychological empowerment (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). Empowering leadership is likely the form of leadership that is most impactful on the empowerment of employees. The current research specifically considers the leadership behaviors known as empowering leadership behaviors. Empowering leadership is a set of leadership behaviors used with the intention of building employee empowerment. The history and content of empowering leadership is considered in the Empowering Leadership section of this literature review.

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment is a set of psychological states that lead to a sense of control in relation to work-related activities (G. Spreitzer, 2008). Rather than focusing on managerial practices that encourage empowerment, psychological empowerment focuses on how employees experience their work (G. Spreitzer, 2008). Conger and Kanungo (1988) first introduced the foundational concepts of psychological empowerment when they described empowerment as a personal *can do* attitude or a personal sense of mastery that is not dependent on performance outcomes. They articulated a difference between leader behaviors that encourage empowerment and the actual state of employee empowerment.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) extended Conger and Kanungo's (1988) conception of empowerment by creating a theoretical framework that included four cognitions of empowerment: sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice. Further research on these four cognitions, especially by G. M. Spreitzer (1995; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997), found ample support in the literature for the four cognitions. G. M. Spreitzer expanded on and clarified the meaning of the four cognitions. Meaning, the first of four cognitions, involves a fit between the beliefs, values, and behaviors of an individual and the requirements of work roles. Competence, otherwise known as self-efficacy, is individuals' beliefs in their own capacity to perform the given work role. Self-determination regards a person's choice in initiating and regulating work activities such as making decisions about

work pace, level of effort, or work methods. Impact measures the degree to which an individual can impact outcomes at work and is seen as the opposite of learned helplessness (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995). G. M. Spreitzer created the first measurement instrument of psychological empowerment based on these four cognitions.

Psychological empowerment reflects an active, rather than passive, role toward work responsibilities. All four of the cognitions must be present and active for a person to truly experience empowerment. G. M. Spreitzer's (1995) conceptualization of psychological empowerment, its four cognitions, and the accompanying measurement tool are widely accepted in the research community and form the basis of an impressive amount of scholarship concerning empowerment.

Leadership behaviors indented to impact empowerment necessarily result in psychological empowerment; if an employee is psychologically empowered, then empowerment has had its effect. Therefore, to confirm that empowering leadership behaviors are effective (and not just enacted), psychological empowerment is used in the current study to measure the actual empowerment experienced by subordinates. While empowering leadership behaviors are part of the social-structural side of empowerment (actions that leaders and organizations take to produce empowerment), psychological empowerment and self-leadership are effects of empowerment on subordinates and constitute the individual experience of being empowered.

Self-Leadership

The concept of self-management, which later became self-leadership, was introduced by Manz and Sims (1980) and is built on social learning theory. Social learning theory proposes that human behavior can be explained by an integration of both cognitive and environmental causes, placing emphasis on the self-regulatory behaviors of people as well as considering external consequences (Bandura & McClelland, 1977; Manz & Sims, 1980). Self-management rose out of social learning theory to further explore and explain the self-regulatory functions that people display. Self-leadership, as defined by Neck and Houghton (2006) and

based on Manz and Sims' original work, is "a self-influence process through which people achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to perform" (p. 271). There has been consistent agreement in the literature supporting three self-leadership strategies: behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought pattern strategies (Anderson & Prussia, 1997; Houghton & Dawley, 2012; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011).

Individuals use behavior-focused strategies to heighten self-awareness and to motivate themselves to do tasks that are unpleasant but necessary (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Houghton and Neck (2002) described in detail the behavior-focused strategies, which include self-observation, self-goal setting, self-reward, self-correcting feedback, and practice. Self-observation helps a person become aware of when and why one engages in certain types of behaviors, giving the opportunity to change, enhance, or eliminate certain behaviors. Self-observation enhances an individual's goal-setting ability, which can have a dramatic effect in motivating performance, as does the use of self-rewards. Self-rewards include tangible and intangible rewards an individual plans for oneself. Self-correcting feedback can be used to shape behaviors by examining negative behaviors and framing positive behaviors instead. Mental and physical rehearsal of behaviors before performance can help correct problems before they occur. Behavior-focused self-leadership strategies "are designed to encourage positive, desirable behaviors that lead to successful outcomes, while suppressing negative, undesirable behaviors that lead to unsuccessful outcomes" (Houghton & Neck, 2002, p. 673).

Natural reward strategies, according to Neck and Houghton (2006), are internal strategies that individuals use to reward themselves inherently, providing internal motivation. They focus on the inherently enjoyable aspects of work that act as a reward in themselves (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). There are two forms of natural rewards: building pleasant features into a work activity or shaping personal perceptions about the activity to focus on its rewarding aspects (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Natural reward strategies are ultimately designed to help an individual

increase feelings of competence and self-determination, which in turn increase their performance (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

Constructive thought pattern strategies focus on constructing positive thought patterns that positively impact performance and include replacing dysfunctional beliefs and thoughts, positive self-talk, and mental imagery (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Individuals confront dysfunctional thought patterns and replace them with constructive and productive thought processes (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Individuals learn to analyze their self-talk patterns, eliminating negative self-talk and encouraging optimistic self-talk instead (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Houghton & Yoho, 2005; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Mental imagery involves envisioning successful task behavior before the event happens and increases performance success (Houghton & Neck, 2002).

Initial research efforts in self-leadership focused on self-managing teams and leadership behaviors that produce empowerment (Manz & Sims, 1987). Since then a considerable amount of research on self-leadership has found positive impact on myriad work outcomes (Stewart et al., 2011), and self-leadership has been applied to many other subject areas such as spirituality in the workplace, organizational change, entrepreneurship, and diversity management, among others (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

Self-leadership has been a popular topic in leadership research with theoretical articles outnumbering the empirical evidence until sufficient measurement was established. The measurement of self-leadership has evolved over the years beginning with preliminary attempts at measurement, including a 90-item prototype by Manz and Neck (1998) that was improved and reduced to a 50-item scale by Anderson and Prussia (1997). However, factor analysis of these scales was problematic, and coefficients were low (Houghton & Neck, 2002). The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) was subsequently created by Houghton and Neck (2002) and has been widely used in research (Stewart et al., 2011). Subsequently, Houghton and Dawley (2012) created a shortened version of this measurement—the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ). This

measure was created especially for researchers who measure self-leadership as one variable in the context of a larger model, such as in the present research.

Self-leadership has often been presented as a primary mechanism for facilitating empowerment (Houghton & Yoho, 2005; Prussia & Anderson, 1998; Shipper & Manz, 1993). Self-leadership is a distinct concept from psychological empowerment, although both are seen as outcomes of empowering leadership and signs of a truly empowered employee (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). While psychological empowerment is the psychological state of a subordinate including four specific cognitions, self-leadership refers to the subordinate's perception of being competent, self-determined, and impacting the meaningfulness of his or her work (M. Lee & Koh, 2001). Self-leadership is a process of using a set of strategies, while psychological empowerment is a state created by work conditions and leader behavior (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). The current study considers both psychological empowerment and self-leadership to be foundational conceptions of employee empowerment.

Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership is a specific set of leader behaviors intending to produce empowerment in subordinates. Empowering leadership is part of the social–structural side of empowerment, along with organizational structures that encourage empowerment such as participative decision making, skill/knowledge-based pay, open flow of information, flat organizational structures, and training (G. Spreitzer, 2008, p. 56). There are a number of measures of empowering leadership, and the current paper focuses on a new scale developed by Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a)—the Empowering Leadership Scale (ELS). This study provides further validation for the ELS and tests the moderating effects of culture on the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment and self-leadership.

History of Empowering Leadership

Although research on empowerment began in the 1980s and there is a robust stream of empowerment research (G. Spreitzer, 2008), empowering

leadership has a shorter history and a narrower stream of research. In the 1980s, empowerment research focused on construct definition as well as antecedents and consequences of empowerment; but until 1987, the leader's role in the process of empowerment had not been considered (Konczak et al., 2000), and the specific term *empowering leadership* only emerged in 2000 (Arnold et al., 2000; Konczak et al., 2000). The leadership behaviors needed to encourage employee empowerment are different than those needed in more traditional, hierarchical organizations. Therefore, researchers responded to the call to identify the behaviors of leaders that encourage follower empowerment (Ahearne et al., 2005). The impetus behind the research on empowering leadership was initially to discover leader empowering behaviors in order to form leadership training programs that would support the organizational impetus to increase empowerment in individuals and teams.

Prior to the emergence of empowering leadership, Manz and Sims (1987) conducted in-depth theoretical and interview-based research investigating the effective leadership behaviors of leaders who lead self-managing work teams. Because self-managing work teams are largely self-led, the leader's role was primarily to encourage and strengthen the self-leading capacity of team members. This kind of leadership behavior eventually became known as *SuperLeadership*: "leadership that helps others to help themselves" (Manz & Sims, 1991, p. 1). The scale created to measure SuperLeadership behaviors is the Self-Management Leadership Questionnaire (SMLQ; Manz & Sims, 1991). Although never referred to as empowering leadership, the concepts from the SLMQ and SuperLeadership formed a basis for the emerging concept of empowering leadership.

It appears that the first two empowering leadership measurements were created simultaneously and independently. Konczak et al. (2000) created the Leader Empowering Behavior Questionnaire (LEBQ), which they derived from a theoretical basis taken from the empowerment literature. This is a six-factor model that includes delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development, and coaching for innovative performance. Konczak et al. also tested the measurement and found that psychological

empowerment mediated the relationship between the six dimensions of empowering leadership and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Arnold et al. (2000) created the Empowering Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ). While Konczak et al. (2000) focused on leader behaviors that create empowerment in individuals, Arnold et al. focused on empowering behaviors that impacted empowered teams. While Konczak et al. created a measure based on the theoretical work in empowerment, Arnold et al. used an inductive approach utilizing interviews to discern empowering behavior of leaders of effective empowered teams. The ELQ includes five factors: coaching, informing, leading by example, showing concern/interacting with the team, and participative decision making. Arnold et al. compared the ELQ constructs with the 14 leadership constructs in the Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl, 2009) and with the consideration and initiating structure subscales of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire XII (Haplin, 1957). Arnold et al. found considerable overlap between the scales but also found a large amount of unique variance, which “indicates that empowered team environments require leaders to behave in ways that are not found in traditional work environments, nor measured by traditional measures of leader behavior” (p. 266). This scale has been used most widely for empowering leadership research (Carmeli et al., 2011; Chuang, Jiang, & Jackson, 2010; Kuo & Lee, 2011; Kuo, Lai, & Lee, 2011; J. Lee, Lee, & Park, 2014; Martínez-Córcoles, Schöbel, Gracia, Tomás, & Peiró, 2012; Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Xue, Bradley, & Liang, 2011; Zhang & Zhou, 2014). These two first measurements of empowering leadership are unique. The foundations from which they are built (theoretical and inductive processes) and their purpose (influencing individuals or teams) differ. Of the factors created in each scale, only two overlap: coaching and information sharing.

Pearce and Sims (2002) conducted research on change management teams in one organization. They compared shared team leadership and vertical leadership effects on team effectiveness. They also created a leadership measurement scale that measures aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. They proposed that these are five main types of leadership

behaviors that have distinct characteristics. The empowering leadership questions are created from previous literature and theory on empowerment. Six empowering leadership behaviors are measured, including encourage self-reward, encourage team work, participative goal setting, encourage independent action, encourage opportunity thinking, and encourage self-development. They found that empowering leadership and transformational leadership have the most positive effect on team effectiveness. Other researchers have used this scale sparingly (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; van Dijke et al., 2012; Vecchio et al., 2010).

Ahearne et al. (2005) created a measure of leadership empowerment behaviors specifically to measure how empowering leadership impacts the sales force of a pharmaceutical company. The measure is theoretically based and includes enhancing the meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints. However, Ahearne et al. offered little evidence of validity and reliability testing and is expressly dedicated to measure leadership in a sales context. Numerous studies have been conducted using this scale (Humborstad, Nerstad, & Dysvik, 2014; Kuo, Lai, et al., 2011; Kuo & Lee, 2011; S. L. Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2013; H.-L. Tung & Chang, 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Zhang & Zhou, 2014). Some studies have used their own measurement of empowering leadership or used measures of empowerment of subordinates to assess the empowering leadership behavior of their leaders (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Auh et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2011; T. B. Harris et al., 2013; Hassan et al., 2013; Lorinkova et al., 2013; Magni & Maruping, 2013; Slåtten et al., 2011; van Dijke et al., 2012; Vecchio et al., 2010).

Empowering leadership research is for the most part accomplished by utilizing these five measurement instruments. Only recently has another instrument been added to the repertoire. This is the two-dimensional, 18-item scale called the ELS created by Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a).

The Empowering Leadership Scale

The ELS was created to fill in gaps left by previous measurements of empowering leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). The first two

empowering leadership questionnaires—the ELQ (Arnold et al., 2000) and the LEBQ (Konczak et al., 2000)—were created to measure the empowering leadership behaviors on the individual level, measuring impact on subordinates. However, neither of the studies were subjected to rigorous studies of validity and reliability (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). The other three leadership scales—the SMLQ (Manz & Sims, 1987), the leader behavior questionnaire (Pearce & Sims, 2002), and the LEBQ (Konczak et al., 2000)—were created specifically to measure the external leadership of self-managing working teams, which limits the scope of these instruments. Previous studies have confirmed empowering leadership is distinct from other forms of leadership such as transformational leadership and LMX, with a specific focus on “power sharing and the facilitation of self-leadership, autonomy, and independence among employees” (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014b, p. 489) and one worthy of future research. However, an instrument that is valid and reliable, based on theory and practical leader behaviors, and that measures the individual impact of empowering leadership, was until recently missing. The ELS was rigorously tested for validity and reliability and fills this void in the literature, creating further opportunities for the study of empowering leadership.

Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) created the ELS using all of the previous research on empowering leadership. The definition of empowering leadership, the specific leader behaviors, and the final operationalization are built on previous empowering leadership research, including the SuperLeadership material. Central to the concept of empowering leadership as measured by the ELS (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a) are leadership behaviors that encourage autonomy and self-direction as well as leadership behaviors that “promote subordinates learning and development” (p. 498), especially their capability to lead themselves. Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) provided the following definition for empowering leadership: “the process of influencing subordinates through power sharing, motivation support, and development support with intent to promote their experience of self-reliance, motivation, and capability to work autonomously within the boundaries of overall organizational goals and strategies” (p. 489).

The ELS created by Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) measures the eight leader behaviors of delegating, encouraging follower initiative, goal focus, efficacy support of followers, inspiring, coordinating, modeling, and guidance. These behaviors measure two dimensions of empowering leadership: autonomy support and development support. Autonomy support behaviors “influence subordinates’ opportunities and motivation in performing autonomous work-role activities” (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 506). The second dimension of development support includes leader behaviors that “influence subordinates’ continuous learning and development through leaders’ role modeling and guidance” (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 506). So leaders’ empowering behaviors encourage follower autonomous activities but also develop followers’ abilities in order for them to better perform autonomously.

The two sides of empowerment, according to the historical argument, are (a) the social–structural side of organizational activities and programs (such as leadership behaviors) put in place to produce empowerment in employees and (b) the experience of employees who feel empowered, which is measured by psychological empowerment (G. Spreitzer, 2008). The current study tests both sides of empowerment: the empowering leadership behaviors of leaders (structural) and the effects of these behaviors on the two major outcomes of employees who feel empowered (feeling of empowerment).

Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) identified the *be and do* characteristics of empowered subordinates as psychological empowerment and self-leadership. Psychological empowerment is increased intrinsic task motivation that is exhibited in four cognitions: sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 666). When these cognitions are internalized, the person is actively oriented toward the work role (G. M. Spreitzer, 1995). If empowering leadership has had its effect, the affected person should experience high psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment alone, however, is not sufficient evidence of an empowered person (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). While psychological empowerment is the *being* state of empowerment, self-leadership is the *doing* state of empowerment. The self-leadership literature

precedes empowering leadership theory, and the basis of empowerment is derived from the concept of helping subordinates to be self-led (Manz & Sims, 2001). A subordinate who is capable of self-leadership behaviors has been empowered to perform his or her work autonomously. Together, psychological empowerment and self-leadership measure the true and complete state of follower empowerment.

The current study measures empowering leader behaviors and the effect these behaviors have on the psychological empowerment and self-leadership of subordinates. In this way, both the structural side of empowerment and the felt and experienced side of empowerment are measured together, answering the question: Does empowering leader behavior positively affect the felt and practical experience of followers' empowerment?

Psychological Empowerment

The empowering leadership literature has relied heavily on the measurement of psychological empowerment. Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) proposed that psychological empowerment is the being aspect of empowerment; a subordinate who has truly been affected by empowering leadership will have a high level of psychological empowerment. Furthermore, the strong relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment is extended to hypothesize that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and various outcomes. Past studies of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment have lent support to the proposed relationships.

Konczak et al. (2000) measured the effects of empowering leadership on subordinates' psychological empowerment as a part of the development of the empowering leadership measurement instrument the LEBQ. Furthermore, they hypothesized that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between empowering leadership behaviors and subordinate outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Konczak et al. surveyed 84 managers at Fortune 500 companies in the midwest who rated their superior's empowering leadership along with their own psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Konczak et al. concluded that the four factors of

psychological empowerment mediated fully or partially the relationship between the six factors of empowering leadership and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Houghton and Yoho (2005) proposed a contingency model of leadership that includes empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and self-leadership. They presented a “contingency model of leadership and psychological empowerment that will specify the circumstance and situations under which follower self-leadership should be encouraged” (p. 66). They proposed that the three variables of follower development, situational urgency, and task environment can be rated as high or low, and different combinations of these high and low scores are best suited to one of four leadership types: directive, transactional, transformational, or empowering. Also, only transformational and empowering leadership can lead to follower commitment versus compliance according to their model. Only empowering leadership impacts self-leadership, which in turn impacts follower outcomes, including psychological empowerment. Although the theoretical model is not tested in the current study, the theoretical basis makes a clear argument that empowering leadership positively affects self-leadership, which then positively affects follower outcomes, including psychological empowerment.

Raub and Robert (2010) conducted research investigating the relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and in-role and extrarole work behavior in 11 Middle Eastern and Asian countries. They found that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and challenging extrarole activities.

Chen, Sharma, et al. (2011) conducted quantitative research that confirmed a direct relationship between empowering leadership team-level behaviors and psychological empowerment. They also found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and team members’ innovative behaviors, teamwork behaviors, and turnover intentions.

Albrecht and Andreetta (2011) surveyed 139 employees of a community health service and found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and follower engagement.

In a longitudinal study among 212 Dutch prison officers, van Dierendonck and Dijkstra (2012) endeavored to clarify the nature of the relationship between empowering leadership and follower psychological empowerment. The authors challenged the conception that empowering leader behaviors affect followers' psychological empowerment exclusively. They proposed that followers who are psychologically empowered also affect leaders' empowering behaviors. Results indicated that empowering leadership is related to follower empowerment over time. The results also demonstrated that the influence of follower empowerment on leader behavior was stronger than vice versa. This research confirmed the strong relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, however it called into question the casualty that is normally assumed but not proven by cross-sectional studies.

Auh et al. (2014) examined the effect of empowering leadership on organizational citizenship behaviors and the process by which this effect occurs. They found that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and citizenship behaviors for individuals.

Randolph and Kemery (2011) assessed empowerment practices from managers' perspectives and psychological empowerment from subordinates' perspectives and found that these two variables are related. Managers' perceptions that they are enacting empowering behaviors correlate with followers' psychological empowerment.

In the validation process of the ELS, Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) tested the effects of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment and creativity. Results indicated that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and creativity. Furthermore, they tested the effects of empowering leadership, LMX theory, and transformational leadership on psychological empowerment to ascertain if empowering leadership could explain variance beyond the other two leadership measures on psychological empowerment. Findings indicated that empowering leadership was a distinct but related construct to LMX and transformational leadership, and that empowering

leadership was the dominant predictor of psychological empowerment, explaining 8% unique variance beyond the other leadership measures.

In a study designed to investigate the role of self-leadership and psychological empowerment in linking empowering leadership to subordinates' job satisfaction, work effort, and creativity, Amundsen and Martinsen (2015) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and job satisfaction of work effort.

These articles show a strong and consistent relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment consistently fully or partially mediates between empowering leadership and many other outcomes.

Self-Leadership

Self-leadership has also been linked to empowering leadership, although not as frequently and consistently as psychological empowerment. Empowering leader behaviors facilitate follower self-leadership through a modeling process whereby the leader models all forms of self-leadership and followers grow in self-leadership as a result (Houghton & Yoho, 2005; Manz & Sims, 2001).

Yun, Cox, and Sims (2006) found that the influence of leadership on follower self-leadership was contingent on follower need for autonomy. Empowering leadership had a stronger effect on followers with a high autonomy need and enhances subsequent follower self-leadership. In an attempt to understand the effects of empowering and transformational leaders' self-awareness on subordinates, Tekleab, Sims, Yun, Tesluk, and Cox (2007) found that self-awareness of empowering leaders is related to followers' self-leadership.

Amundsen and Martinsen (2014a) found that self-leadership mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and subordinates' performance. Although not empirically tested in their research, Amundsen and Martinsen proposed that from a conceptual perspective, empowering leadership is more effective in promoting the self-leadership of followers than LMX or transformational leadership.

The positive relationship between self-leadership and empowering leadership is supported in the literature, although not to the extent of psychological empowerment.

- H1: The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the Rwandan sample.
- H2: The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the U.S. sample.
- H3: The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the Rwandan sample.
- H4: The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the U.S. sample.

Cross-Cultural Leadership Studies

Hofstede's (1993) research on culture and leadership as well as the more recent GLOBE study's (Chhokar et al., 2008) in-depth research on cultural characteristics and implicit leadership theory provide concrete and prolific evidence that national culture has a profound effect on leadership. The field of research concerning the differences in national culture and their effects on leadership and organizations is strong and growing (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Kirkman et al., 2006). The current study proposes to measure the effects of culture on the relationships between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and self-leadership. This section of the literature review presents an overview of African leadership studies and the two measures of culture considered in this research and presents research on empowerment and empowering leadership that considers the effects of culture. Hypotheses concerning the effects of culture are based on the literature.

African Leadership Studies

Researchers have studied the leadership values of many countries in depth, aiding in the research of leadership in various cultural contexts. Despite the progress in cross-cultural research, research on the continent of Africa, and especially sub-Saharan Africa, lags far behind other countries (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). Africa is the second largest continent in the world and the second most populous continent; yet, leadership research in Africa is rare. House and Aditya (1997) contended that, historically, leadership research is based on a limited set of assumptions that reflect Western industrialized cultural values. They observed that about 98% of leadership theories and empirical evidence are American in character. Although Hofstede's (1980) work and the GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) have greatly increased the interest in leadership in different cultural contexts, leadership studies are still largely focused on a worldview originating in the United States.

Nkomo (2006) noticed a trend in African initiatives that emphasizes African leaders who solve the problems of Africa and look for answers for the problems plaguing Africa from within. According to Nkomo, finding effective forms of leadership and management is necessary to facilitate successful change for the country.

Walumbwa et al. (2011), in a synthesis of leadership research in Africa, similarly found that "very little empirical or theoretical work has addressed leadership and management in Africa" (p. 425). He remarked that the largest and most influential cross-cultural research, the GLOBE study, underrepresented African countries, creating further barriers to the study of leadership in Africa. Walumbwa et al. argued that the economic performance of any country is largely contingent on leaders' ability to "unlock the potential of its workforce to effectively implement the strategic goals of organizations" (p. 425). Empowering leadership *unlocks the potential of the workforce* by encouraging autonomous behaviors as well as developing employees' ability to engage in autonomous behavior. In this way, empowering leadership has potential as a style of leadership that provides strategy to address the problems that Walumbwa et al. perceived in the African

context. Kuada (2010), in a review of the research that specifically addresses leadership in the African context, attested to the scarcity of studies and called for further research, as did Muchiri (2011) in a similar review of African leadership research. Africa lags behind the rest of the world economically, which may in part be due to leadership issues (Kuada, 2010). Indeed, sub-Saharan Africa contains more poor people than any other region on the globe (Edoho, 2001). Addressing leadership issues in Africa may be an important piece of addressing the economic problems that Africa faces. Edoho (2001) proposed, “Sound management practices can avert, or at least mitigate, the negative effects of the gloomy economic scenarios prognosticated for sub-Saharan Africa in this century” (p. 2). According to Edoho, management in sub-Saharan African countries must be conscious of the cultural and societal values as well as purposefully helping to alleviate poverty.

Kuada (2010) and Bolden and Kirk (2009) agreed with other authors that the default leadership style in Africa based on cultural preferences is autocratic, directive, favors hierarchy, and encourages dependence in followers. This leadership style is mixed with a form of benevolence as well. Some authors have referred to this as a paternalistic leadership style, while Kuada coined the term *autocratic benevolence*. Blunt and Jones (1997) found that African leadership is authoritative rather than authoritarian. He proposed that Africa leaders have genuine authority but “are expected by their subordinates to use it only sparingly and in a humane and considerate way” (p. 16). Furthermore, according to Blunt and Jones, the high power distance and highly collectivistic environment of African cultures cause managers or supervisors to be primarily concerned with their relationships with their superiors rather than with individual or organizational effectiveness. This means that internal interpersonal issues predominate organizational dynamics rather than issues of organizational performance. Therefore, good managers are people-oriented rather than task-oriented in the African context (Blunt & Jones, 1997).

Although African leadership styles fit well within the African culture, there are problems that ensue from this form of leadership, including the misappropriation of resources by leaders, followers who are disempowered and

motivated to cover up their own and leaders' mistakes, and a tendency toward unproductive organizational structures (Kuada, 2010). Kuada (2010) presented empowerment of employees as central to addressing these issues and called for further study (p. 20). The study of empowerment, especially empowering leadership in an African context, is therefore a central piece in further study of African leadership. Although empowering leadership is effective in the United States, which is highly different culturally than Africa, many aspects of empowering leadership may appeal to the African understanding of good leadership. Since the process of empowerment strengthens the relational ties between leaders and followers, empowering leadership can be used by African leaders as a way to improve and strengthen relational ties at work. However, empowering leadership needs to be accepted from the top leadership of the organization for managers and midlevel supervisors to see it as a functional and acceptable form of leadership.

The authors of the ELS also called for cross-cultural research on empowering leadership when they stated, "future research should investigate the impact of culture on the relationship between empowering leadership and outcome variables, since previous studies (Robert et al., 2000) have suggested such coherence" (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a, p. 507). A call for further research on empowering leadership from both the empowering leadership community and the African leadership research community creates a strong case for the study of empowering leadership in Africa.

Measurement of Culture

The Hofstede (1980) and GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) measures of culture were created to produce conglomerate scores of cultural values in many countries, which were then used in analysis as a single observation of culture. Many cross-cultural studies have relied on the country scores from either the GLOBE study or Hofstede's research or a combination of both as a proxy for the cultural values for the countries being researched. Other cross-cultural studies have used different measurement instruments to measure the individual cultural values of participants to analyze the effect of culture on specific leadership variables.

Thirty-five years ago, Hofstede (1980) presented his groundbreaking work on cross-cultural analysis, which has been heavily used in cross-cultural research since then. As of June 2010, there were 54,000 citations of his work (R. L. Tung & Verbeke, 2010), and a meta-analytic review of articles using Hofstede's dimensions identified 598 studies (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Hofstede defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 25). In the late 1960s and early 1970s, Hofstede measured four main cultural dimensions of employees at IBM in 72 countries. He initially collected sufficient data to analyze 50 nations, producing culture value scores for each country, and further validated and updated editions of his work. Hofstede's original work included four dimensions: individualism (collectivism) (I/C), power distance (PD), masculinity (MAS), and uncertainty avoidance (UA) and later added a fifth dimension of long-term orientation, which is based on Confucian dynamism. This work had a profound impact on the organizational behavior community, sharply increasing the studies involving culture (Taras et al., 2010).

The first dimension of Hofstede's (1980) cultural values is individualism, which is defined as "a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only" (p. 45), while collectivism "is characterized by a high social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups, they expect their in-group to look after them, and in exchange for that they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it" (p. 45). Hofstede treated individualism/collectivism as one continuum, although other researchers have treated each as a separate continuum (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Hofstede defined power distance—the second dimension—as "the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally" (p. 45). Power distance tends to be measured similarly in many different measurement instruments (Taras et al., 2010). Subordinates in a high power distance culture are reticent to disagree with supervisors, and supervisors are not expected to share decision making with subordinates. Uncertainty avoidance is defined as

the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise. (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45)

Finally, masculinity–femininity is defined as “the extent to which the dominant values in society are ‘masculine’-that is, assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45).

The GLOBE studies (Chhokar et al., 2008; House, 2004) are more recent than Hofstede’s work and involved over 170 investigators in 62 countries in designing research as well as collecting and analyzing data. The GLOBE study defines culture as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House, 2004, Chapter 28, “Societal Culture,” para. 1). The GLOBE study measured nine aspects of culture in 62 nations and used the data to form *cultural clusters* of countries that are similar in cultural composition. They measured practices and values of culture that exist “at the levels of industry (financial services, food processing, telecommunications), organization (several in each industry), and society (62 cultures)” (House, 2004, Foreword, para. 2). The nine cultural values and practices that are measured are future orientation, gender equality, assertiveness, humane orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, performance orientation, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. Although Hofstede’s cultural measures were in part used to form the GLOBE study measurements, the GLOBE instruments are unique from Hofstede’s measures and also drew from other sources in the creation of their cultural measures.

Both Hofstede (1980) and the GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) study calculated country scores for various countries in anticipation that further cultural research would use these conglomerate scores as a proxy for culture in analysis. The current research measures culture individually rather than using conglomerate country scores. The rationalization for this decision is discussed later. It is

important to note that the present research is being conducted in Rwanda, Africa and the United States, and that neither Hofstede nor the GLOBE study have data for Rwanda, Africa. Although five African nations were studied in the GLOBE study, there are 47 countries in Africa each with distinct cultural characteristics and many that include multiple ethnic groups and languages. The present study takes place in Rwanda, Africa, which is almost 2,000 kilometers away from the nearest African country that was measured by GLOBE. Hofstede measured cultural characteristics in some African countries as well, although the closest to Rwanda is almost 1,000 km away, and Hofstede's statistics are old. African cultures are shifting rapidly with the onset of globalism, and older statistics may not accurately describe present-day cultures. It is evident that the data drawn from African nations is helpful to generally understand African cultures, but it is not specific enough to be applied to Rwanda in a quantitative study such as this.

Walumbwa et al. (2011), in their synthesis of leadership research in Africa, confirmed that the GLOBE study's coverage of African nations was scant and insufficient to use in most African nations. Furthermore, these authors argued that there is a need to study more nations in Africa since it encompasses a diverse group of people with linguistic, ethnic, and cultural distinctions.

Cultural Variables to Measure

Although there are many cultural characteristics that have been identified, the current study measures only the cultural constructs of individualism/collectivism and power distance. Triandis and Gelfand (1998), after many years of cultural study, argued that individualism/collectivism is perhaps the most impactful dimension of culture in regards to leadership. Leadership is a collective practice and will likely be impacted by the collective or individualistic characteristics of the people involved in the leadership process (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004). In a review of 25 years of cultural studies using Hofstede's measures, Kirkman et al. (2006) reviewed 180 articles published in top-tier journals between the years of 1980 and 2002. They noted that many researchers only consider individualism/collectivism in their surveys, and this limits the conceptualization of culture. They found that in some instances power distance has a stronger effect on variables than does

individualism/collectivism and suggested that further research include both of these important variables. Leadership is intricately intertwined with power relations, and it is logical that the power orientation of individuals will influence the way they use leadership and how they are influenced by leadership. In a separate review of cross-cultural articles in organizational behavior research, Tsui et al. (2007), while reviewing cross-cultural organizational behavior research, found that individualism/collectivism and power distance are the most commonly measured cultural values and that these values are important to measure in organizational behavior research. Finally, in a review of two decades of empowerment research, Maynard et al. (2012) noted the lack of research in empowerment studies that considers two different cultures. They called for more cross-cultural research that considers two separate cultures and that measures both individualism/collectivism and power distance to gain further insight into the phenomenon of empowerment.

The current research aims to measure a wide variability of scores on individualism/collectivism and power distance to test the moderating effects of these two aspects of culture on empowering leadership and outcome variables. Studying Rwanda and the United States is a way to attain the combined variability needed to accomplish this goal. The United States is a fairly low collectivist and low power distance culture, whereas African countries such as Rwanda are considered to be fairly high on both measures. The African scores, as previously mentioned, cannot be assumed but need to be measured individually, whereas the U.S. scores need to be measured individually to provide the necessary variability.

Individual Culture Measurement

The two cultural constructs of individualism/collectivism and power distance will be measured individually through a survey method. There are three reasons for this decision: (a) the GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) and Hofstede's (1980) research on Africa in general are weak and completely missing for Rwanda, (b) this study aims to determine precisely which aspects of culture moderate the given relationships and to what degree, and (c) to measure a wide variability of scores in collectivism and power distance to generalize the moderating effects of these cultural aspects on empowering leadership and

psychological empowerment and self-leadership. If countries are used as a proxy for culture, as the GLOBE studies and Hofstede measurements suggested, there is no indication as to what aspects of culture are impacting the relationship between the variables. Isolating two specific cultural aspects and measuring a wide range of variability in scores through measuring two highly different cultures makes these study results generalizable to countries that vary on these two cultural measures.

Dorfman (as cited in Scandura & Dorfman, 2004), one of the researchers in the GLOBE study, reflecting on the methodology of cross-cultural study, advocated for individual country statistics to be measured. He lamented that many cross-cultural research designs use the posted data from either Hofstede (1980) or the GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) and base statistical analysis on these general statistics alone. He proposed that general statistics are useful, but research data need to verify that the participants of the specific study do indeed reflect the country statistics. Variation in participants' cultural scores can be due to a subculture, organizational culture, or a shift of overall culture through time. Dorfman's argument stands for individual measurement of all cultures, even those that were sufficiently measured in GLOBE or in Hofstede's work.

Culpepper and Watts (1999) noted that cross-cultural researchers spontaneously began to measure culture individually, and they applauded the method. They saw many advantages, including the ability to "link the strength of a given cultural orientation among individuals to individual level organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, leadership variables, commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, turnover, and others" (p. 22). Many of the studies that measure culture individually included the United States as one of the cultures studied to increase the variability of scores. Culpepper and Watts noted that some studies found considerable variation of cultural constructs when measured individually that are not consistent with the country-level analysis (Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988). They argued that measuring culture from an individual psychological level is a beneficial way forward in future cross-cultural research.

In a review of cross-cultural research, Tsui et al. (2007) found that out of 93 empirical studies published in the 16 leading management journals from 1996 to 2005, 43 of them used individual measures of culture, many of which measured the United States as well as other cultures. This large number of research articles choosing to measure culture on an individual basis shows the popularity of the approach. Tsui et al. made a strong case against using only country-level measures of culture: “Treating culture as a global construct, especially the use of a proxy for culture, does not provide informative insight into how culture influences employee behaviors in different national contexts” (p. 461). They also noted that measuring culture individually acts as a validation of current cultural data when it is available (such as in the United States), but it also offers further information about the strength of certain cultural variables. They argued that research using only country level statistics is hard to interpret for two reasons: (a) the studies do not take into consideration within-nation variation of a cultural measure and (b) there are many other factors beyond culture that are not measured in the study but could be causes. Measuring culture individually allows the connection between the specific cultural measure and the variables in the research.

In an article establishing best practices for methodology in cross-cultural studies, Schaffer and Riordan (2003) advocated the use of individual measurements of culture. They argued in a similar vein to other authors that using a general score based on culture in data analysis “can be problematic because, as previously stated, sample differences unique to each research setting might very well be inconsistent with national trends or norms” (p. 176). It is important, therefore, that the current study measure both the U.S. and Rwandan cultural aspects on an individual basis.

Both Globe (Chhokar et al., 2008) and Hofstede (1980) survey tools are created to measure culture in a global, aggregated way for each nation and should not be used for individual measurement of culture. For this reason, the current research utilizes Dorfman and Howell’s (1988) measurement, which is based on Hofstede’s measures but is specifically designed for the individual measurement of culture.

Power Distance

Power distance and individualism/collectivism are the two biggest predictors of difference in culture in relation to leadership studies (K. Lee et al., 2014). Power distance considers how a society deals with inequality in power, measuring the degree to which society prefers unequal distribution of power with greater power at higher levels. High power distance indicates a desire to differentiate between those with high and low power, creating a strictly adhered to hierarchy. In a low power distance society, subordinates expect to be consulted by their superior for decision making and experience less of a social distance between themselves and the superior. In a high power distance society, subordinates are not comfortable sharing their opinions and expect an autocratic or paternalistic form of leadership. According to Hofstede (2010), in low power distance countries subordinates experience a limited amount of dependence on their boss, and a consultative style of leadership is preferred. On the other hand, in high power distance countries there is a considerable amount of dependence of subordinates on their bosses, and the social gap between them is larger. Power distance can therefore be defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede et al., 2010, Glossary, Power Distance).

The GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) general statistics for Africa are some of the highest in preference for high power distance (up to 5.9), although Africans indicate a desire for much lower power distance (as low as 2.8). America has a low to medium power distance score (4.8), which makes it a more egalitarian society, and they wish to have an even lower score (2.8; Chhokar et al., 2008, Figure A2).

Empowering leadership shares power with subordinates on a consistent basis, which may be resisted or seen negatively in a culture with high power distance. Furthermore, the aim of empowering leadership is to help subordinates self-lead and to become empowered, which is the opposite of what is expected in a high power distance culture. For this reason, low power distance will respond more positively to empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and self-

leadership; whereas, those with a preference for high power distance will also respond positively but perhaps less positively.

- H5: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H6: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high power distance decreased the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.
- H7: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H8: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

Individualism/Collectivism

In a collective society, the interests of the group prevail over the interests of individuals (Hofstede et al., 2010). Collectivist societies develop strong extended family ties, and family members identify strongly with this *in group*, and they define themselves by their participation in this group. The in group develops a mutually dependent and loyal stance toward one another that binds them together. In individualist societies, the interests of the individual prevail over the group (Hofstede et al., 2010). Individualist societies develop nuclear family groups that encourage individuals to gain their identity from personal and individual characteristics. Dependence on a group is not considered normal or healthy in this

kind of society. Individualism and collectivism are seen as opposites of one continuum. Hofstede et al. (2010) offered the following definitions:

Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him- or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. (Chapter 4, I, We and They, Measuring the Degree of Individualism in Society, para. 2)

Collectivism and individualism measure the degree to which individuals "express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations, families, circle of close friends, or other such small groups" (Chhokar et al., 2008, Figure A3).

The general statistics for Africa show high in-group collectivism score (5-6) and see that as the ideal, while the United States ranks as one of the lowest (4.3) and sees the ideal as higher (5.7). Africans will tend to find their identity in groups and spend much of their time and energy in in-group activities. Americans are highly individualistic, and although they will take part in group activities, they do not tend to be defined by them, and group activities will be of lower importance.

It is difficult to determine how collectivism will affect the relationship between leaders and subordinates. Individualistic people (low on collectivism) should respond positively to the sharing of power in the empowering leadership model; they will likely feel valued, heard, and important and will be motivated by the resulting empowerment. Also, the variable of self-leadership focuses on personal responsibility and should be positively affected by individualism. Collectivistic people may also respond positively to empowering leadership, especially if they have an in-group relationship in their work environment where they feel they belong and have a sense of loyalty. In this situation, the leader's empowering behaviors may come across as benevolent and caring. However, the concepts of self-leadership may be negatively affected by a highly collective cultural value. The collectivist mindset resists excessive personal responsibility and places responsibility on the whole group.

- H₉: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H₁₀: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.
- H₁₁: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.
- H₁₂: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

Cross-Cultural Empowerment Research

The topic of empowering leadership between 2000 when it emerged and the present has garnered a great deal of interest from researchers outside of the United States. Of the 33 empirical studies evaluating empowering leadership from 2000 to 2014 (excluding those that created measurements), 24 (72%) of them were based on a sample population outside of the United States. This shows a high amount of interest in empowering leadership originating in countries other than the United States. Countries included in these studies are Norway, China, South Korea, United Arab Emirates, Spain, Taiwan, countries in the Middle East and Asia, Italy, and the United Kingdom. Of the studies that focused on countries outside of the United States, only three specifically considered cultural effects on empowering leadership. The rest simply conducted research in another country but did not ascertain the effects of culture.

Robert et al. (2000) collected data from one company that has operations in the United States, Mexico, Poland, and India to test the fit of empowerment and continuous improvement practices with national culture. They measured empowering leadership behaviors with the ELQ (Arnold et al., 2000) and measured individualism/collectivism. The study had low reliabilities on the individualism scale (Mexico $\alpha = .46$, India $\alpha = .34$, and Poland $\alpha = .50$). Empowerment in this study had some positive and some negative effects on variables measured in the study such as job attitudes, behaviors, and behavior intentions. Empowerment had positive effects with all countries except India, for which it negatively affected satisfaction. The authors made conclusions about the effect of power distance on the relationship between the variables, but power distance was not measured in the study, only vertical and horizontal collectivism. They concluded that only very high levels of power distance had any effect on the variables. The mixed results from this study are likely due to the low reliability level of the individualism/collectivism scale used and the assumption of power distance relationships from an instrument that did not directly measure power distance. For these reasons, the current study should not be foundational in creating hypotheses concerning the effects of individualism/collectivism and power distance on empowerment.

Chen, Sharma, et al. (2011) conducted a quantitative study that examined how empowering leadership and relationship conflict (team-level stimuli) combine to influence psychological empowerment and affective commitment using laboratory and field studies in both the United States and China. With a sample population of MBA students and their followers in an American and a Chinese university, Chen, Sharma, et al. found that both psychological empowerment and affective commitment mediate the relationships between the team stimuli (empowering leadership and relationship conflict) and innovative and teamwork behaviors as well as turnover intentions. To take the cultural effects into account in this study, Chen, Sharma, et al. measured cultural level collectivism in their study and controlled for both collectivism and nationality in analysis. The results were the same after controlling for cultural differences. Chen, Sharma, et al. did, however, show that American participants felt significantly more psychologically

empowered and indicated a greater willingness to engage in innovative behavior in comparison with Chinese participants. They also found that collectivism is positively related to psychological empowerment, but neither of the cultural factors reached statistical significance when they tested the moderation effects of culture on the relationship between empowering leaders and relationship conflict with the two motivational states. Although Chen, Sharma, et al. found that Americans, high in individualism and low in collectivism, reported higher levels of empowerment than their Chinese counterparts and found collectivism to be positively related to psychological empowerment, no statistically significant relationship was found. It is possible that individualism/collectivism does not moderate the effects of empowering leadership in a statistically significant way.

Raub and Robert (2010) investigated the relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and in-role and extrarole work behavior in 11 Middle Eastern and Asian countries and considered the effects of power distance on these relationships. They found that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and challenging extrarole activities and that power distance moderates this mediated relationship such that psychological empowerment had a stronger effect on challenging extrarole activities for individuals with low power distance values. This study confirmed that power distance affects psychological empowerment and its effect on other variables.

Although there are only three empirical research articles that consider both empowering leadership and cross-cultural variables, other empirical articles consider empowerment in general along with cross-cultural variables. Eylon and Au (1999) designed a study in which students in a U.S.-based MBA program were divided by native language into high (primarily East Asians) and low power distance (primarily Canadian and American) groups. Participants took part in a 4-hour role-playing exercise in which they were randomly assigned empowered, control, or disempowered behaviors to enact. The dependent variables were job satisfaction and work performance, which participants rated after experiencing one of the three conditions. All participants were more satisfied when empowered than

when disempowered; however, the high power distance group experienced worse job performance in the empowered state. This suggests that high power distance cultures may not function well but may be more satisfied under empowering leadership, offering partial support that power distance moderates the effects of empowering leadership on other variables.

Hui and Fock (2004) conducted research with participants in the United States and in China to test the effects of power distance on empowerment and job satisfaction. Unfortunately, they only measured one of the four cognitions of psychological empowerment as a measure of empowerment. They found that power distance moderated the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction such that lower power distance created a stronger positive effect in all three empirical studies presented in the research. This study also offered partial support to power distance as a moderator of empowering leadership on other variables.

Fock et al. (2013) investigated a model of three types of empowerment (discretion empowerment, psychological empowerment, and leadership empowerment) and explored the effect on employee satisfaction across two cultural groups differing in power distance values (China and America). Using both country-level and individual-level measurements of culture, part of their research confirmed previous research in that discretionary empowerment on employee satisfaction is mitigated by higher power distance. However, they had surprising results that contradict past research in that the effect of leadership empowerment is heightened by high power distance. Also, psychological empowerment was shown to be pertinent across both high and low power distance cultures and individuals. Fock et al. concluded that empowerment remains an effective employee management strategy to varying extents across cultures.

The GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) investigated leadership behaviors that are valued in different cultures by asking participants to rate how much each leadership behavior contributed to or inhibited outstanding leadership. As may be expected, some countries valued leadership behaviors that were seen as inhibiting to outstanding leadership in other countries. However, there were some leadership behaviors that were universally accepted in all cultures. Charismatic/value-based

leadership, team-oriented leadership, and participative leadership were seen as positive, to varying degrees, in all cultures. Participative leadership shares some characteristics with empowering leadership. The two items measured in the GLOBE study for participative leadership were autocratic (reverse-scored) and nonparticipative (reverse-scored). Although empowering leadership has many characteristics beyond these two, both a nonautocratic and a participative type of leadership are characteristics that describe empowering leadership. It is evident from the GLOBE findings that although participative leadership is considered as positive in all cultures, it was most highly rated in the Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Anglo, and Latin Europe cultural clusters (5.5 to 6.5 out of 7), which have relatively low power distance and collectivism. The Latin America, Eastern Europe, Middle East, Confucian, Southern Asia, and sub-Sahara Africa culture clusters also experienced participative leadership positively (4.75 to 6 out of 7) even though these clusters tend to be higher in both collectivism and power distance. Although participative leadership seems incompatible with high power distance and highly collectivistic cultures, the GLOBE study shows that participative leadership is not seen negatively in these countries. The GLOBE findings suggest that both samples in this study may experience empowering leadership positively, although high power distance and high collectivism cultures may exhibit a less positive response.

This research has offered partial support to power distance and collectivism acting as moderators between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment and self-leadership. However, inconsistent measurement instruments for empowerment and cultural values produce varying results. The effects of culture on empowerment are still in the beginning stages of discovery, and concrete hypotheses of these effects are not yet fully supported by the literature.

The literature has shown that the relationships between these variables are also likely to vary by country. For this reason, the model is tested by country to ascertain the differences. Furthermore, the following research questions address the country differences in the studied concepts:

- RQ₁: Is there a difference in autonomy support as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₂: Is there a difference in development support as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₃: Is there a difference in psychological empowerment as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₄: Is there a difference in self-leadership as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₅: Is there a difference in power distance as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?
- RQ₆: Is there a difference in collectivism as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?

Control Variables

Control variables are gender, years worked for a leader, and organization, as these variables were found to influence results in previous research. Previous studies have found gender related to self-leadership or psychological empowerment, so it will be used as a control variable (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a; R. Brown, 2003; Eom & Yang, 2014; Fock et al., 2013; Hui et al., 2004; K. Lee et al., 2014). Also, years worked for the leader may affect the way followers perceive leader behaviors as well as affect the followers' level of psychological empowerment or self-leadership (R. T. Brown & Fields, 2011; Carmeli et al., 2011; Eom & Yang, 2014). Finally, organization is a control variable to rule out the measurement of organizational culture versus national culture.

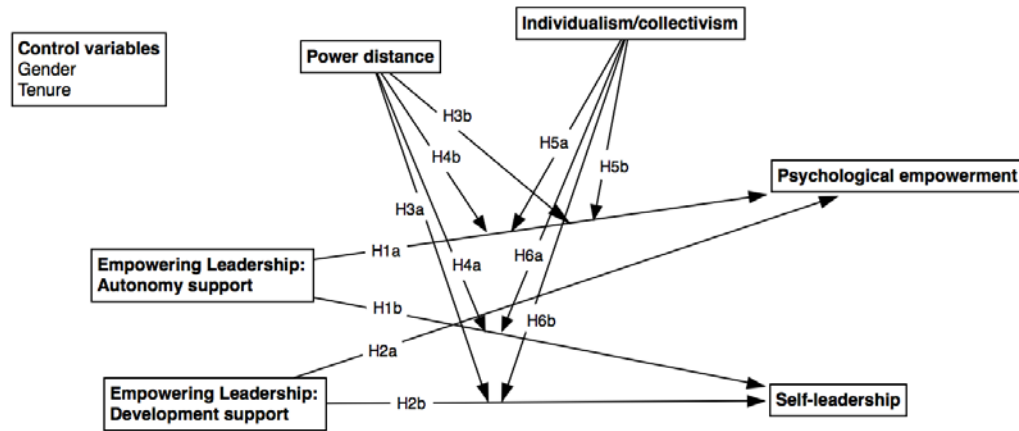


Figure 3: The proposed model of relationships based on the literature review.

Summary

The six sections of this comprehensive literature review provided the conceptual framework relevant to the research questions as well as reviewed research relevant to the research question. The first section gave an overview of the history of empowerment research, offered definitions of empowerment, and placed the present study in the broader scope of empowerment studies. The second and third sections introduced the concepts of psychological empowerment and self-leadership and reviewed research that supports a positive relationship between empowering leadership and physiological empowerment and self-leadership. In the fourth section, the history of empowering leadership was presented from its inception to the present day. Furthermore, the ELS was introduced and reviews were provided for the relevant literature on empowering leadership. Cross-cultural studies were covered including an overview of African leadership studies, the measurement of culture, and an in-depth discussion of the cultural values to be studied in this research. The review also considered previous research on empowering leadership and cultural values. The relevant hypotheses were presented and control variables were established based on the review of the literature.

Chapter 3 – Method

This chapter describes the methods used in this quantitative study to answer the hypotheses and research questions, including research method and design, sampling, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Method and Design

This research utilized a quantitative methodology, which is the most appropriate form of research for answering the research questions and hypotheses. The purpose of this study was to assess the moderating effects of two measures of cultural values—individualism/collectivism and power distance—on the relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and self-leadership. A nonexperimental, cross-sectional research design was used to collect data from participants at one point in time using a validated self-report questionnaire consisting of five validated surveys and demographic information. Followers' perceptions of leader behaviors were measured in the survey as well as followers' cultural perceptions and followers' self-report of their own psychological empowerment and self-leadership. The purpose of this research design was to investigate the relationships between the three variables empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and self-leadership while ascertaining the moderating effects of culture and controlling for other variables that may affect the results.

Schaffer and Riordan (2003) conducted a review of cross-cultural methodologies for organizational research and offered their findings on best practices. They proposed three stages to planning and conducting cross-cultural research: (a) development of the cross-cultural research question, (b) alignment of research contexts, and (c) validation of research instruments. These three stages were followed in the current study to produce rigorous research that follows best practices for cross-cultural studies.

In the first stage of developing the research question, an emic or etic approach must be chosen. The current study utilized an etic approach, which employs a broad comparative analysis involving two cultures. Etic approaches

develop a deeper understanding of a concept by explicitly comparing it across cultures; this study explored empowering leadership and its effects on psychological empowerment and self-leadership in two cultures. However, caution is required in using the etic approach. The unique elements of culture needed to be carefully considered to ensure that the variables being studied were appropriate in both cultural contexts. Schaffer and Riordan (2003) suggested the best practices of spending time in the culture and gaining insight into the people and culture before choosing variables to apply to the culture. The researcher in this project has spent 18 years working in the culture of Rwanda, speaks Kinyarwanda fluently, and has used empowering leadership extensively in the Rwandan context. The use of empowering leadership in this study took into account the people, culture, and language of Rwanda.

Another important issue in developing the research question was determining how culture will be treated in the research design and how it will be operationalized. Schaffer and Riordan (2003) warned against using country as a proxy for culture or using conglomerate country scores from Hofstede (1980) or the GLOBE (Chhokar et al., 2008) study, because of the limitations to the research incurred. For example, the inappropriate use of country as a proxy for culture may not capture all the relevant cultural factors that might affect the theories and hypotheses. Using conglomerate scores for a culture may also distort findings if the subjects of the study do not reflect the country scores. This study chose to measure culture individually to avoid these limitations. For operationalization of culture, the Dorfman and Howell (1988) measurement was used because it is specifically formulated for the individual measurement of culture and based on Hofstede's measures of culture. Furthermore, the cultural values measured, collectivism and power distance, were based on cross-cultural literature reviews. The level of analysis also needs to be addressed in cross-cultural research, especially when multiple levels of analysis are used to observe relationships. This study used only one level of analysis—the individual level—and, therefore, addressed the level of analysis concern.

Stage 2 of preparing cross-culture research involves the alignment of research contexts. The alignment of research contexts refers to the need to establish congruence between the cultures being studied (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). Cross-cultural samples need to be equivalent on dimensions other than the ones being examined. For this reason, the sample populations in this study were carefully chosen. By studying Americans and Rwandans working for the same organizations each in their own home country, the best practice of utilizing matching samples was achieved. The administration of surveys within a matched sample also needed to be equivalent. This research offered survey links to all involved but also offered a paper copy to those who did not have access to a computer. The questionnaires—online and paper—were identical to ensure equivalence. Furthermore, surveys need to be completed in the same time frame to ensure equivalence, which was followed in this research.

Stage 3 of creating a cross-cultural study involves validation of the research instruments. Peterson (2009) identified the issues of translation and equivalence of the questionnaires as paramount. In translating questionnaires, Peterson recognized back translation (Brislin, 1970) as a translation process that answers equivalency issues. However, despite careful translation procedures, the differences in cultural values and norms, language structures, thought patterns, social norms, social structures, and other issues also affect the equivalency of a questionnaire (Peterson, 2009). These realities need to be given consideration in the translation process, making sure to translate meaning, even if wording changes. Even with these complications, validity and reliability of translated questionnaires can be fairly high (Peterson, 2009). Conceptual equivalence is related to translation equivalence because they are both rooted in language. Conceptual equivalence is tested during the hypothesis testing stage of research, confirming that the concepts represented by each variable are similarly linked in both cultural contexts.

A back translation process outlined by Brislin (1970) was used to translate the surveys in the current study. A team of Rwandans was employed to help with the process. In the translation and back translation process, careful consideration was given to conceptual equivalence, ensuring that the Kinyarwanda version of the

survey had equivalent meaning to the English version even if wording was changed. Additionally, best practice dictates that a pilot study needs to be conducted to test the survey in both languages. Pilot studies in both cultures were conducted. Furthermore, the response scales needed to be calibrated carefully to have the same meaning in each culture, ensuring accurate results. Covariance structure analysis is the suggested practice to test the equivalency assumptions (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). The current study utilized a method of creating separate scales for each sample using the factor loadings for each variable to ensure equivalency of measure.

Peterson (2009) noted that responses are generally higher overall in high power distance countries than in low power distance countries. This is due to the reticence to criticize leadership or to have a critical opinion of leadership in high power distance culture. Also, the concept of *saving face* or making oneself and one's organization look good may cause an inflation of scores in the higher power distance country of Rwanda. In the present study, this may prevent differences in the two cultures being seen if the higher power distance culture respondents inflate their answers.

Sampling

The sampling population was nonprofit and aid organizations operating in Rwanda, Africa. Many of these organizations are led by Americans or other expatriates who are likely to have an empowering leadership style. Also, these organizations hire almost exclusively Rwandans, so large populations of Rwandans who are experiencing some form of empowering leadership are found in this sample. Organizations such as World Relief, World Concern, Compassion International, Hope International, ALARM, and Navigators located in Rwanda were likely to be willing to take part in this research. The sample population included the Rwanda offices' employees and the main U.S. offices' employees of a number these organizations to best compare a wide variation of power distance and collectivism and their correlation with empowering leadership and other variables in the two distinctly different cultural contexts. The surveys were given to all

employees and measured control variables, the difference in power distance and collectivism among employees, as well as measured empowering leadership, self-leadership, and psychological empowerment. Surveys were provided in English and Kinyarwanda, paper copy, and link to an Internet survey. Each individual chose the survey format that was most convenient.

Instrumentation

Empowering Leadership

A newly developed 18-item Empowering Leadership Scale (ELS) (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a) was used to measure follower perceptions of empowering leader behaviors. The scale is two-dimensional, including autonomy support and development support. The study went through three rounds of rigorous testing and was shown to be valid each time. It was also tested against the constructs of transformational leadership and leader–member exchange and was found to have unique properties not included in those two leadership constructs. Coefficient alpha was .92. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). Examples of questions included the following: “My leader gives me power,” “My leader is concerned that I reach my goals,” and “My leader lets me see how he/she organizes his/her work.” Coefficient alpha was .94 for both culture samples in this study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment was measured in this study by G. M. Spreitzer’s (1995) 12-item four dimensional scale. The four cognitions of meaning (“The work I do is meaningful to me”), competence (“I am confident about my ability to do my job”), self-determination (“I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work”), and impact (“I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department”) were each measured with three questions on a 7-point Likert scale. According to a review of literature on psychological empowerment, the scale has been scrutinized in many studies, and both convergent validity and discriminate validity have been found in many samples, including multiple

international samples (Maynard et al., 2012). Through a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment, Seibert et al.'s (2011) results provide strong support for using psychological empowerment as a unitary construct or gestalt that reflects the four specific cognitions. Coefficient alpha was .88 for both culture samples in this study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Self-Leadership

The Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ; Houghton & Dawley, 2012) was utilized to measure follower self-leadership in the current study. Houghton and Dawley (2002) developed and tested this 9-item abbreviated version of the widely used Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ). The abbreviated version of the questionnaire reduced the questions from 35 to 9. The original measurement had nine subscales that formed three factors, whereas the ASLQ measures three factors with three questions for each factor. Exploratory factor analysis revealed three factors with three items loading on each factor: behavior awareness and volition (BAV), task motivation (TM), and constructive cognition (CC). Houghton and Dawley (2012) proposed that these three factors “encapsulate the heart of the classic self-leadership strategy dimensions” (p. 224) and encouraged the use of this instrument when researchers “wish to measure self-leadership as one variable of interest in the context of a larger model and who therefore find it impractical to use the full 35-item RSLQ” (p. 227). The coefficient alpha was .73 in the original scale formation study and .83 in a recent study that utilized the scale in a similar way to this research (Wilson, 2011). The coefficient alpha was .80 in the Rwandan sample and .78 in the U.S. sample in the current study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*).

Cultural Measures

Power distance and individualism/collectivism were measured by Dorfman and Howell's (1988) cultural values scale, which is a version of Hofstede's (1980) cultural values scale that has been calibrated for measuring culture individually. This scale includes six questions for each scale and was recently utilized in a

Leadership Quarterly article and had reliability of .86 (PD) and .74 (IND-COL; K. Lee et al., 2014). Previous reliability scores were lower (Culpepper & Watts, 1999), and K. Lee et al. (2014) suggested that one question from each scale may need to be dropped due to low reliability. Measurement is on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*). Sample power distance statements include “Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates” and “It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.” Sample individualism/collectivism statements include “Group welfare is more important than individual rewards” and “Group success is more important than individual success.” The coefficient alpha for power distance was .62 in the Rwandan sample and .57 in the U.S. sample; for collectivism, it was .77 in the Rwandan sample and .71 in the U.S. sample in this study. Answers were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Control Variables

Control variables were gender, years worked for a leader, and organization, as these variables were found to influence results in previous research. Previous studies have found gender related to self-leadership or psychological empowerment so it was used as a control variable (Amundsen, 2014; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a; R. Brown, 2003; Eom & Yang, 2014; Fock et al., 2013; Hui et al., 2004; K. Lee et al., 2014; Wilson, 2011). Also, years worked for the leader may affect the way followers perceive leader behaviors as well as affect the followers’ level of psychological empowerment or self-leadership (R. T. Brown & Fields, 2011; Carmeli et al., 2011; Eom & Yang, 2014). Finally, organization was a control variable to be sure that organizational culture does not influence the results.

Data Collection

The researcher contacted leaders of each of the six proposed organizations and gave a clear and concise explanation of the research to the organizational leaders, asking if all employees in Rwanda and in the home office (those who work in the United States) could be asked to participate in the study. A copy of the

research proposal was provided along with the contact information of the researcher. For each organization, a \$25 gift certificate prize was awarded to one randomly selected participant to encourage organizational members to participate in the survey.

Once organizational leaders and participants agreed to participate, they were given a choice to take the survey in English or Kinyarwanda, online or paper copy. SurveyMonkey was used as the online survey tool. Organizational leaders, supervisors, and employees were all invited to participate. The survey articulated the anonymity of the research, asked for participants' permission to use their information for research purposes, and gave specific directions for taking the survey. A copy of the English survey is found in Appendix A, and the Kinyarwanda survey is in Appendix B.

Data Analyses

Measurement equivalence was established for the two sample populations in this study by conducting an exploratory factor analysis and a reliability analysis of the various scales on the two different samples. The rotated factor matrix, which contains the correlations of each of the items with the extracted factors, was used to test for significant differences between the two subsamples by using the r to Z transformation. Furthermore, the factors were then built using the actual factor loadings as weights creating separate scales for each culture group.

The Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each scale and assessed the reliability of each measure used in the study. The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations among research variables were calculated and are presented in table format in Chapter 4 to determine the relationships among the variables.

In order to test the hypotheses stated in this study, hierarchical regression analysis was used. H_1 (a and b) and H_2 (a and b) were tested by multiple regression analysis testing the effect of both factors of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment. H_3 (a and b) and H_4 (a and b) were tested by multiple regression analysis testing the effect of both factors of empowering leadership on

self-leadership. H_{5-12} are tests of moderation and were tested with hierarchical regression analysis for moderation effect. In Step 1, the dependent variable was regressed on the control variables, in Step 2 the independent variable and the moderating variable were added, and in Step 3 the product of the moderator and the independent variable were added to the regression (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1175). This procedure was repeated for each test of moderation in each culture group.

To answer the research questions, a *t* test was used to compare the variables as measured in each of the two cultural samples. The differences between variables in the two cultures were compared and analyzed to gain insight into the way culture affects these variables.

Summary

In this chapter, the methods used in the study were delineated in detail, including research method and design, sampling, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. This chapter set the parameters for the quantitative research and was approved by the dissertation committee before the data were collected. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study.

Chapter 4 – Results

This research sought to test empowering leadership for positive effects on employees' psychological empowerment and self-leadership in development organizations with employees who hold different cultural values from the United States and Rwanda. Furthermore, this study measured the individual preferences of employees' individualism/collectivism and power distance in two highly variable cultural contexts (Rwanda and America) to ascertain the moderating effect of these two cultural aspects on the effects of empowering leadership on subordinates' psychological empowerment and self-leadership. This chapter presents demographic information, means, standard deviations and correlations, measurement equivalence between culture groups, as well as results from hierarchical regression analysis to test the hypotheses and results from *t* tests to ascertain the differences between individually held cultural values on each variable.

Demographic Information

The sample population in this research came from development organizations that originate in the United States and have operations in Rwanda, Africa. The American participants work for the U.S. operations of the development organization; they reside and work in the United States. Five employees working in the United States have citizenship in Canada, the United Kingdom, Belgium (two employees), and Yugoslavia; the rest are U.S. citizens. The Rwandan population lives and works in Rwanda and are employed by the same U.S.-based development organization. Four participants who live and work in Rwanda were from Kenya, Cameroon, Uganda, and Congo; the rest of the participants are Rwandan citizens.

An email request to participate in the survey was sent from the leader of each organization in their respective countries to employees. In some cases, all employees were contacted; in other cases, only one branch of the organization participated. Table 1 provides the demographic information in three categories: a combined sample, a U.S. sample, and a Rwandan sample.

Table 1: Demographic Profile of Participants

Variable	Combined <i>N</i>	U.S. <i>n</i>	Rwanda <i>n</i>
Gender			
Female	122	80	42
Male	123	44	79
Total	245	124	121
Organization			
World Relief	66	19	47
World Vision	21	0	21
Compassion Int.	90	48	42
Hope Int.	37	34	3
ALARM	6	4	2
Navigators	25	19	6
Total <i>N</i>	245	124	121
Years working for supervisor			
<i>M</i>	4.6	3.4	5.9
1	81	48	33
2	26	17	9
3	33	21	12
4	16	9	7
5	16	8	8
6	9	5	4
7	15	6	9
8	10	2	8
9	9	2	7
10	5	1	4
11	1	0	1
12	7	2	5
13	4	1	3
15	3	0	3

Variable	Combined <i>N</i>	U.S. <i>n</i>	Rwanda <i>n</i>
16	2	0	2
18	1	0	1
19	1	0	1
20	1	0	1
20+	5	2	3

In the combined population, the female and male participants were equal. However, the U.S. sample had almost twice as many females (65%) as males (35%), whereas the Rwandan sample had almost twice as many males (65%) as females (35%). Since gender participation is highly unequal between the U.S. and Rwandan sample, gender is an important control variable when comparing the results from the two samples. It is important to note that while all employees work for the same six organizations, in general the U.S. staff hold more office jobs and are in a support role, while the Rwandan staff tends to hold more field operative positions. This may be part of the reason for the disparity in gender; office roles in the United States are more female centric, while field operations in Rwandan are more male centric.

Six organizations took part in this research. World Relief and Compassion International were the biggest contributors with fairly equal participation from both the U.S. and Rwanda offices. Hope International, ALARM, and Navigators have fairly small operations in Rwanda; therefore, the Rwandan sample was smaller than the U.S. sample for these organizations. The World Vision Rwanda office participated in the research, while the U.S. office did not participate; therefore, all participants from World Vision were from Rwanda.

All participants indicated the number of years they have worked with their present supervisor since participants' perception of their supervisor's empowering leadership may be influenced by the number of years they have worked for that supervisor. The mean number of years worked for a supervisor in the combined

sample is 4.6. However, Americans have a distinctively shorter mean tenure with their supervisors (3.4 years) than the Rwandan participants (5.6 years). This inequality between the years worked between the samples indicates that this is an important control variable when analyzing similarities and differences between the two samples.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation by Country

This study utilized multiple regression analysis to determine the effect of empowering leadership on employees' psychological empowerment and self-leadership as well as determine the moderating effect of the two cultural values of power distance and collectivism. Regression analysis is an extension of correlation analysis, which reveals the degree to which quantitative variables are linearly related (Green & Salkind, 2003). A correlation table is an efficient way of displaying intercorrelation between variables (Hair et al., 2010). Correlation coefficients were computed between the independent variables, the dependent variables, and the control variable of years worked for supervisor. The results of correlation analysis are shown by culture group in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Rwanda

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Years	PE	SL	EL/AS	EL/DS	COL	PD
Years	5.92	5.21	–						
PE	6.02	.65	.18*	–					
SL	5.86	.71	.04	.74**	–				
EL/AS	5.45	.97	.16	.63**	.47**	–			
EL/DS	4.48	1.36	.17	.34**	.30**	.69**	–		
COL	4.28	.86	.07	.18	.19*	.11	.06	–	
PD	2.41	.69	-.00	.05	.03	.05	.11	-.07	–

Note. $n = 121$. PE = psychological empowerment; SL = self-leadership; EL-AS = empowering leadership autonomy support; EL-DS = empowering leadership development support; COL = individualism/collectivism; PD = power distance.

* $p < .05$ level, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$ level, two-tailed.

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation United States

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Yrs	PE	SL	EL/AS	EL/DS	COL	PD
Years	3.35	3.44	–						
PE	5.47	.87	.25**	–					
SL	4.95	.95	-.07	.55**	–				
EL/AS	5.65	1.04	.13	.66**	.41**	–			
EL/DS	4.30	1.48	.10	.33**	.24**	.65**	–		
COL	3.86	.72	.01	.12	.09	.19*	.22*	–	
PD	1.86	.41	-.19*	-.11	.19*	-.01	.09	.22*	–

Note. $n = 124$. PE = psychological empowerment; SL = self-leadership; EL-AS = empowering leadership autonomy support; EL-DS = empowering leadership development support; COL = individualism/collectivism; PD = power distance.

* $p < .05$ level, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$ level, two-tailed.

While years worked with the supervisor was thought to impact the perception of empowering leadership, in the Rwandan sample, years worked correlated with psychological empowerment, $p < .05$. In the U.S. sample, years correlated with psychological empowerment, $p < .01$, and power distance, $p < .05$. Psychological empowerment was most impacted by years worked, meaning those who have been at the organization the longest feel most empowered in their work. And, for the U.S. sample, those who have spent the most years with their supervisor experience less power distance.

In both culture samples, the independent variables of empowering leadership (autonomy support and development support) and dependent variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership were all significantly positively correlated at the $p < .01$ level. This shows that the independent and dependent variables in this study are correlated and have significant positive relationships with one another. The two proposed moderators of collectivism and power distance only correlated with the main variables in this study in a few places. Collectivism correlated with self-leadership ($p > .01$) in the Rwandan sample and with autonomy support and development support ($p < .01$) in the U.S. sample. Power distance only correlated with self-leadership and collectivism in the U.S. sample ($p < .01$). This shows a low level of correlation between the moderating variables of collectivism and power distance with the independent and dependent variables in this study.

Measurement Equivalence

Riordan and Vandenberg (1994) established that measurement equivalence is an issue in cross-cultural studies and established a recommended procedure to test for measurement equivalence in cross-cultural studies. Their procedure involves the use of structural equation modeling. In the current study, since structural equation modeling was not used, an alternative method was implemented to ensure measurement equivalence. Measurement equivalence was established for the two sample populations in this study by conducting an exploratory factor analysis and a reliability analysis for each of the five scales in the two culture groupings. The factor loadings for each variable were then tested between the two

culture groups with an r to Z transformation test (Hair et al., 2010), which shows if the two factor loadings are significantly different between the cultures. Each of the five scales were then built using the factor analysis to determine if any variables needed to be dropped and using the factor loadings from each culture group as weights. Each scale was built separately for each culture sample, and each scale has unique variables and factor loadings for each culture group. Factors are considered for removal under .5 (Hair et al., 2010); all items under this range are subsequently tested to ascertain if removal increases the reliability. All factors are dropped under .5, if the reliability increases when they are dropped, but if reliability is higher with the item, then the item is retained.

The Z scores of each item in each scale show that some scales have significant differences in factor loadings between the culture groups (see Tables 4 and 5). These differences are particularly drastic in the psychological empowerment and self-leadership scales where half of the variables are significantly different. These Z scores support the use of weighted scales by culture as the best way to integrate the true differences between culture scores into the scales and ensure measurement equivalence.

The Empowering Leadership Scale

The Empowering Leadership Scale (ELS) originally consisted of two factors—autonomous support and development support. Factor extraction and rotation were conducted on a two-factor solution for both sample populations. The rotated factor matrix is displayed in Table 4. The rotated factor matrices of both countries generally confirm the original structure of the scale. However, in the Rwandan sample, the autonomous support items 1 and 10 failed to produce unique variance above .5, while autonomous support item 12 produced equal variance on each factor. Items 1 and 10 were retained since removal did not improve the reliability, but item 12 was removed since discriminate validity between the two factors was not established. Also, development support items 4 and 5 failed to load properly in either of the samples: the Rwandan sample loaded on autonomous support and the U.S. sample showed equal loadings on each factor. Development

support factors 4 and 5 did not establish discriminant validity in the U.S. sample and were removed.

Table 4: Rotated Factor Analysis U.S. and Rwanda for the ELS

Items	Rwanda		United States		Z score
	1	2	1	2	
AS 1	.47	.13	.59	.21	-1.30
AS 2	.62	.38	.77	.25	-2.28*
AS 3	.62	.31	.66	.18	-.52
AS 4	.67	.14	.78	.27	-1.81
AS 5	.70	.27	.79	.28	-1.58
AS 6	.76	.27	.68	.29	1.29
AS 7	.82	.24	.61	.33	3.46***
AS 8	.75	.28	.69	.33	.97
AS 9	.61	.34	.68	.42	-.93
AS 10	.49	.34	.73	.39	-3.04***
AS 11	.60	.43	.57	.40	.35
AS 12	.56	.51	.61	.47	-.59
DS 1	.28	.84	.29	.87	-.87
DS 2	.34	.74	.36	.74	.00
DS 3	.37	.74	.27	.81	-1.37
DS 4	.60	.36	.56	.55	.47
DS 5	.56	.34	.53	.56	.33
DS 6	.19	.86	.28	.88	-.64

Note. AS refers to the autonomy support factor. DS refers to the development support factor of the ELS. Extraction method: maximum likelihood. Rotation method: varimax with Kaiser normalization. Rotation converged in three iterations. Underlining indicates a measure is over .5 to highlight the similarity between the two cultures' correlations.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The Psychological Empowerment Scale

Although the Psychological Empowerment Scale has four separate factors, in previous research, these factors have been successfully combined into one overall score. Through a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment, Seibert et al. (2011) provided strong support for using psychological empowerment as a unitary construct or gestalt that reflects the four specific cognitions. The rotated factor analysis of the two population samples for a one-factor solution is found in Table 5. Although items C1 and C3 in the U.S. sample loaded below the suggested level of .5, removing them did not improve the scale reliability so they remain in the scale. Similarly, items impact 2 and self-determination 3 had factor loadings below .5 in the Rwandan sample, but their removal did not improve reliability so they were retained. Six of the 12 factor loadings in this scale differ significantly by culture, supporting the building of individual culture scales to ensure measurement equivalence.

Table 5: Factor Analysis for the Psychological Empowerment Scale Rwanda and U.S. Samples

Items	Rwanda	United States	Z score
Impact 1	.72	.79	-1.27
Impact 2	.49	.82	-4.8***
Impact 3	.62	.85	-4.11***
Competence 1	.63	.39	2.55**
Competence 2	.72	.51	2.67**
Competence 3	.60	.38	2.27*
Meaning 1	.63	.57	.73
Meaning 2	.69	.59	1.32
Meaning 3	.75	.48	3.48***
Self-determination 1	.60	.61	-.12
Self-determination 2	.55	.57	-.23

Items	Rwanda	United States	Z score
Self-determination 3	.48	.58	-1.08

Note. Extraction method: Maximum likelihood. One factor extracted. Five iterations required.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire

Similar to the psychological empowerment scale, the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) measures three factors, but Houghton and Dawley (2012) proposed that these three factors “encapsulate the heart of the classic self-leadership strategy dimensions” (p. 224) and encouraged the use of this instrument when researchers “wish to measure self-leadership as one variable of interest in the context of a larger model and who therefore find it impractical to use the full 35-item RSLQ” (p. 227). Table 6 provides the one-factor solution correlations of the factor matrix for both cultures. In the Rwandan sample, item task motivation 3 and constructive cognition 1 have low factor loadings and the reliability rises when they are removed. For that reason, these two items are excluded from the Rwanda culture sample scale. The U.S. factor loadings are low on four items, but the reliability of the scale is highest by only removing three of these items: task motivation 3 and constructive cognition 1 and 2. Four of the nine factor loadings in this scale differ significantly by culture, supporting the building of individual culture scales to ensure measurement equivalence.

Table 6: Factor Analysis for the ASLQ Rwanda and U.S. Samples

Items	Rwanda	United States	Z score
Behavior awareness & Volition 1	.60	.47	1.42
Behavior awareness & Volition 2	.68	.50	2.16*
Behavior awareness & Volition 3	.63	.42	2.27*
Task motivation 1	.82	.86	-1.06
Task motivation 2	.70	.89	-4.29***
Task motivation 3	.22	.25	-.25
Constructive cognition 1	.38	.34	.36
Constructive cognition 2	.57	.36	2.09*
Constructive cognition 3	.51	.38	1.26

Note. Extraction method: maximum likelihood. One factor extracted. Four iterations required.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The Power Distance Scale

The power distance scale contains six items and has one factor. The factor analysis for each culture is found in Table 7. In the Rwanda factor analysis, item 3 of this scale was found to have an extremely low factor loading of -.02 and was removed. Although two other items fall slightly below the .5 factor loading, removing them did not increase the reliability. In the U.S. sample, four items have reliably scores in the .36 to .38 range; however, removing any or all of these factors does not increase the reliability, therefore, they were all retained.

Table 7: Factor Analysis for the Power Distance Scale Rwanda and U.S. Samples

Title	Rwanda	United States	Z score
1	.55	.53	.22
2	.49	.36	1.23
3	-.02	.63	-5.89***
4	.46	.38	.75
5	.45	.38	.65
6	.54	.37	1.67

Note. Extraction method: maximum likelihood. Rotation method: varimax with Kaiser normalization. One factor extracted. Five (Rwanda) and seven (United States) iterations required.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The Collectivism Scale

The collectivism scale contains six items and has one factor. See Table 8 for the factor analysis for each culture. The only items that loaded above the .5 level in both cultures were items 1 and 2. In each culture group, the highest reliability is found in using only items 1 and 2; therefore, only these two items are retained in building both sets of scales.

Table 8: Factor Analysis for the Collectivism Scale Rwanda and U.S. Samples

Items	Rwanda	United States	Z score
1	.71	.63	1.13
2	.78	.82	-.86
3	.49	.14	3.05***
4	.32	.34	-.17
5	.21	.23	-.16
6	.29	.29	.00

Note. Extraction method: maximum likelihood. Rotation method: varimax with Kaiser normalization. One factor extracted. Five (Rwanda) and seven (United States) iterations required.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Z Transformations and Scale Building

Scales were built separately for each culture group in a separate SPSS file. The Z scores of the five scales showed enough significant difference between the culture groups to support the building of separate, weighted scales for each culture group. Each scale contains only the items that loaded properly in that culture group, so scales were built with different items in the two culture groups. To weight the scale, each item was multiplied by its factor loading and then divided by the factor loading averages to produce the weighted scale. An example formula using the scale weighting method for item 1 = .5, item 2 = .72, item 3 = .36 follows: $(.5 * \text{item1} + .72 * \text{item3} + .36 * \text{item4}) / (.5 + .72 + .36)$.

Reliability Analysis of all Scales in two Cultures

The reliability analysis for all scales in a combined U.S. and Rwandan sample are found in Table 9. Reliability of all scales except power distance is high. Power distance reliability of .62 in the Rwandan sample and .52 in the U.S. sample are acceptable but low. This scale has had low reliabilities in other studies as well; these results are typical of this scale. Although the individualism/collectivism scale has high reliabilities (Rwanda = .77, United States = .71), only two questions of the

six are used in the final scales. This scale has also received low reliabilities in other studies.

The rotated factor analysis and reliability results from both cultures confirm the two factor structure of the ELS and show that the scale is stable in cross-cultural use. This is the first research that uses this scale in a cross-cultural study. Both psychological empowerment and self-leadership revealed significant differences between the correlations of variables in each culture. These scales are less stable across cultures, and weighted scales should be used in future studies.

Table 9: Reliability Measures for all Scales

Measurement scale	Rwanda <i>a</i>	U.S. <i>a</i>
Empowering leadership	.94	.94
Psychological empowerment	.88	.88
Self-leadership	.80	.78
Power distance	.62	.57
Collectivism	.77	.71

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

In order to test the hypotheses stated in this study, hierarchical regression analysis was employed. H₁₋₄ were tested by multiple regression analysis testing the effect of both factors of empowering leadership (autonomy support and development support) on psychological empowerment and self-leadership in both culture groups. H₅₋₁₂ test the moderation effects of the two cultural values of power distance and collectivism on the relationships between the two factors of empowering leadership, psychological empowerment and self-leadership in both culture groups. These tests of moderation were tested with hierarchical regression analysis for moderation effect.

Effect of Autonomy Support on Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership

Analysis for H_1 and H_2 tests the independent variable of the autonomy support factor of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables of H_{1-2}^a psychological empowerment and H_{1-2}^b self-leadership in the Rwandan and U.S. cultures. Each of these two hypotheses are tested by multiple regression analysis with the control variables of gender, organization, and years worked for supervisor entered in Step 1 and the independent variable entered in Step 2.

H_1 : The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the Rwandan sample.

H_2 : The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the U.S. sample.

H_{1-2}^a : *Testing autonomy support and psychological empowerment.* Multiple regression analysis on the Rwandan sample shows that the control variables had an R^2 of .07 and an adjusted R^2 of .05, which accounts for 7% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .03$). The independent variable autonomy support had an R^2 of .41 and an adjusted R^2 of .39, which accounts for 34% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 116) = 20.23, p = .000$ (see Table 10).

Similarly, in the U.S. sample, the control variables had an R^2 of .09 and an adjusted R^2 of .06, which accounts for 9% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The independent variable autonomy support had an R^2 of .69 and an adjusted R^2 of .46, which accounts for 39% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 119) = 26.84, p = .000$ (see Table 10). H_1^a and H_2^a are supported since the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment are significant in both cultures. See Table 10 for the H_{1-2}^a multiple regression analysis results.

Table 10: Regression Analysis Autonomy Support With Psychological Empowerment With Control Variables in Rwanda and U.S. Samples (H_{1-2}^a)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.07	.07*			.09	.09**
Gender	.27	.20*			.26	.14		
Org.	-.04	-.08			-.05	-.08		
Years	.02	.18			.07	.27***		
Step 2								
Independent variable								
AS	.41	.61***	.41	.34***	.53	.63***	.47	.39***

Note. AS = autonomy support.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H_{1-2}^b : *Testing autonomy support and self-leadership*. Multiple regression analysis on the Rwandan sample indicates that the three control variables had an R^2 of .06 and an adjusted R^2 of .03, which accounts for 6% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is not significant. The independent variable autonomy support had an R^2 of .25 and an adjusted R^2 of .22, which accounts for 19% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 116) = 9.47, p = .000$ (see Table 11).

In the U.S. sample the control variables had an R^2 of .01 and an adjusted R^2 of -.02, which accounts for 1% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is not significant. The independent variable autonomy support had an R^2 of .19 and an adjusted R^2 of .16, which accounts for 18% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 119) = 6.93, p = .000$ (see Table 11). H_{1-2}^b are supported since the

relationship between autonomy support and self-leadership are significant in both cultures. See Table 11 for the H_{1-2}^b multiple regression analysis results.

Table 11: Regression Analysis Autonomy Support with Self-Leadership with Control Variables in Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{1-2}^b)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.06	.06			.01	.01
Gender	.33	.22*			-.05	-.03		
Org.	.03	.05			-.04	-.05		
Years	.00	.02			-.02	-.06		
Step 2								
Independent variable								
AS	.34	.46***	.25	.19***	.39	.43***	.19	.18***

Note. AS = autonomy support.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Effect of Development Support on Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership

Analysis for H_3 and H_4 test the independent variable of the development support factor of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables of H_{3-4}^a psychological empowerment and H_{3-4}^b self-leadership in the two cultures. Each of these two hypotheses are tested by multiple regression analysis with the control variables of gender, organization, and years worked for supervisor.

H_3 : The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the Rwandan sample.

H₄: The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership in the U.S. sample.

H₃₋₄^a: Testing development support and psychological empowerment.

Multiple regression analysis on the Rwandan sample shows that the control variables had an R^2 of .07 and an adjusted R^2 of .05, which accounts for 7% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .03$). The independent variable development support had an R^2 of .15 and an adjusted R^2 of .12, which accounts for 8% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 116) = 5.11, p = .001$ (see Table 12).

In the U.S. sample, the control variables had an R^2 of .09 and an adjusted R^2 of .06, which accounts for 9% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .01$). The independent variable development support had an R^2 of .18 and an adjusted R^2 of .16, which accounts for 10% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 119) = 6.69, p = .000$ (see Table 12). H₃₋₄^a are supported since the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment are significant in both cultures. See Table 12 for the H₃₋₄^a multiple regression analysis results.

Table 12: Regression Analysis Development Support With Psychological Empowerment With Control Variables in Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{3-4}^a)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.07	.07*			.09	.09**
Gender	.27	.20*			.26	.14		
Org.	-.04	-.08			-.05	-.87		
Years	.02	.18*			.07	2.94***		
Step 2								
Independent variable								
DS	.14	.29***	.15	.08***	.19	.32***	.18	.10***

Note. DS = development support.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H_{3-4}^b : testing development support and self-leadership. Multiple regression analysis on the Rwandan sample indicates that the three control variables had an R^2 of .06 and an adjusted R^2 of .03, which accounts for 6% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is not significant. The independent variable development support had an R^2 of .13 and an adjusted R^2 of .10, which accounts for 7% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .00$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is significant, $F(4, 116) = 4.14$, $p = .000$ (see Table 13).

In the U.S. sample, the control variables had an R^2 of .01 and an adjusted R^2 of -.02, which accounts for 1% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is not significant. The independent variable development support had an R^2 of .07 and an adjusted R^2 of .04, which accounts for 6% of the change in R^2 ; this relationship is significant ($p = .01$). The ANOVA table shows that the model as a whole is not significant, $F(4, 119) = 2.36$, $p = .06$ (see Table 13). H_{3-4}^b are supported since the relationship between autonomy support and self-leadership are significant in both cultures; however, it is evident from the ANOVA results that these relationships are

the least significant of all the regression analyses. See Table 13 for the H3-4^b multiple regression analysis results.

Table 13: Regression Analysis Development Support With Self-Leadership With Control Variables in Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H3-4^b)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.06	.06			.01	.01
Gender	.33	.22*			-.05	-.02		
Org.	.03	.05			-.04	-.05		
Years	.00	.02			-.02	-.06		
Step 2								
Independent variable								
DS			.13	.07***	.16	2.87**	.07	.64**

Note. DS = development support.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Moderation Effects of Power Distance

H5-8 test power distance as a moderator between the two factors of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation was conducted with centered variables to avoid multicollinearity and was processed in three steps. Step 1 included the control variables, Step 2 added the centered independent variable and the centered moderator, and Step 3 added the product of the centered independent variable and the centered moderator. If the change in R^2 is significant in Step 3, then moderation has occurred.

H5-6^{a-b}: Testing the moderation effects of power distance on autonomy support and development support on psychological empowerment.

H₅: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.

H₆: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

H_{5-6^a}. H_{5^a} tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment in the Rwandan sample (see Table 14). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 the R^2 is .44 and adjusted R^2 is .41; the change in R^2 is significant ($p = .02$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 14.86, p = .000$. H_{5^a} is supported; the moderating effects of power distance are significant in the Rwandan sample.

H_{6^a} tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .50 and adjusted R^2 is .48; the change in R^2 is significant ($p = .02$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 117) = 19.71, p = .000$. H_{6^a} is supported; the moderating effects of power distance are significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 14: Moderation Analysis: Power Distance Moderating Autonomous Support and Psychological Empowerment Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H₅₋₆^a)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.07	.07*			.09	.09**
Gender	.27	.20*			.26	.14		
Org.	-.04	-.08			-.05	-.08		
Years	.02	.18*			.07	.27**		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.41	.34***			.48	.39***
AS	.41	.60***			.53	.63***		
PD	.02	.02			-.15	-.07		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.44	.03*			.5	.02*
AS*PD	.19	.18*			.29	.16*		

Note. AS = autonomous support PD = power distance.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H₅₋₆^b. H₅^b tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment in the Rwandan sample (see Table 15). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .17 and adjusted R^2 is .13; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .09$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 14.86, p = .000$. H₅^b is not supported; the moderating effects of power distance are not significant in the Rwandan sample.

H₆^b tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .21

and adjusted R^2 is .17; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .12$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 117) = 19.71, p = .000$. H_6^b is not supported; the moderating effects of power distance are not significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 15: Moderation Analysis: Power Distance Moderating Development Support and Psychological Empowerment Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{5-6}^b)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.07	.07*			.09	.09**
Gender	.27	.20*			.26	.14		
Org.	-.04	-.08			-.05	-.08		
Years	.02	.18*			.07	.27**		
Step 2								
Independent, moderator			.15	.08**			.19	.11***
DS	.14	.28**			.19	.33***		
PD	.03	.03			-.21	-.010		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.17	.02			.21	.02
DS*PD	.19	.13			.19	.74		

Note. DS = development support; PD = power distance.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H_{7-8}^{a-b} : Testing the moderation effects of power distance on autonomy support and development support on self-leadership.

H7: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering

leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.

H₈: Power distance moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

H_{7-8^a}. H_{7^a} tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between autonomy support and self-leadership in the Rwandan sample (see Table 16). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 the R^2 is .30 and adjusted R^2 is .26; the change in R^2 is significant ($p = .004$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 8.15, p = .000$. H_{7^a} is supported; the moderating effects of power distance are significant in the Rwandan sample.

H_{8^a} tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between autonomy support and self-leadership in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .22 and adjusted R^2 is .18; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .73$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 117) = 5.45, p = .000$. H_{8^a} is not supported; the moderating effects of power distance are not significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 16: Moderation Analysis: Power Distance Moderating Autonomy Support and Self-Leadership Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{7-8}^a)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.06	.06			.01	.01
Gender	.333	.22*			-.05	-.02		
Org.	.03	.05			-.04	-.05		
Years	.00	.02			-.02	-.06		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.25	.19***			.22	.21***
AS	.33	.46***			.39	.43***		
PD	.03	.03			.41	.18*		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.30	.05**			.22	.00
AS*P	.29	.25**			.06	.03		
D								

Note. AS = autonomy support; PD = power distance.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H_{7-8}^b . H_7^b tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between development support and self-leadership in the Rwandan sample (see Table 17). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .16 and adjusted R^2 is .11; the change in R^2 is significant ($p = .04$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 3.51$, $p = .003$. H_7^b is supported; the moderating effects of power distance are significant.

H_8^b tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between development support and self-leadership in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .10 and adjusted R^2 is .05; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .55$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was not significant, $F(6, 117) = 2.11, p = .06$. H_8^b is not supported; the moderating effects of power distance are not significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 17: Moderation Analysis: Power Distance Moderating Development Support and Self-Leadership Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{7-8}^b)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.06	.06			.01	.01
Gender	.32	.22*			-.05	-.02		
Org.	.03	.05			-.04	-.05		
Years	.00	.02			-.02	-.05		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.13	.07**			.10	.09**
DS	.14	.27**	.14	.27**	.15	.24**		
PD	.03	.02	.02	.02	.35	.15		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.16	.03*			.10	.00
DS*PD	.14	.19*			.09	.05		

Note. DS = development support; PD = power distance.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Moderation Effects of Collectivism

H₉₋₁₂ test collectivism as a moderator between the two factors of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership. The analysis process for these hypotheses is the same as for H₅₋₈.

H₉₋₁₀^{a-b}: Testing the moderation effects of collectivism on autonomy support and development support on psychological empowerment.

H₉: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.

H₁₀: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

H₉₋₁₀^a. H₉^a tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment in the Rwandan sample (see Table 18). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 the R^2 is .45 and adjusted R^2 is .42; the change in R^2 is significant ($p = .02$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 15.55, p = .000$. H₉^a is supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are significant in the Rwandan sample.

H₁₀^a tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .49 and adjusted R^2 is .46; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .12$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 117) = 18.38, p = .000$. H₁₀^a is not supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are not significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 18: Moderation Analysis: Collectivism Moderating Autonomy Support and Psychological Empowerment Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{9-10}^a)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.07	.07*			.09	.09**
Gender	.27	.20*			.26	.14		
Org.	-.04	-.83			-.05	-.08		
Years	.02	.18*			.07	.27**		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.42	.35***			.48	.39***
AS	.40	.60***			.53	.63***		
COL	.08	.11			.00	.00		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.45	.03*			.49	.01
AS*COL	-.12	-.17*			.13	.11		

Note. AS = autonomy support; COL = collectivism.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H_{9-10}^b . H_9^b tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment in the Rwandan sample (see Table 19). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .17 and adjusted R^2 is .13; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .63$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three

blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 3.98, p = .001$. H_9^b is not supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are not significant in the Rwandan sample.

H_{10}^b tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .24 and adjusted R^2 is .20; the change in R^2 is significant ($p = .01$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 117) = 6.13, p = .000$. H_{10}^b is supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 19: Moderation Analysis: Collectivism Moderating Development Support and Psychological Empowerment Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{9-10}^b)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.07	.07*			.09	.09**
Gender	.27	.20*			.26	.14		
Org.	-.04	-.08			-.05	-.08		
Years	.02	.18*			.07	.27**		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.17	.10**			.19	.10***
DS	.13	.28**			.18	.31***		
COL	.11	.15			.48	.04		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.17	.00			.24	.05**
DS*COL	.03	.04			.21	.24**		

Note. DS = development support; COL = collectivism.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H₁₁₋₁₂^{a-b}: Testing the moderation effects of collectivism on autonomy support and development support on self-leadership.

H₁₁: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the Rwandan sample.

H₁₂: Collectivism moderates the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism decreases the positive relationship in the U.S. sample.

H₁₁₋₁₂^a. H₁₁^a tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between development support and self-leadership in the Rwandan sample (see Table 20). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 the R^2 is .27 and adjusted R^2 is .24; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .16$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 114) = 7.15, p = .000$. H₁₁^a is not supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are not significant in the Rwandan sample.

H₁₂^a tests the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between autonomy support and self-leadership in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .19 and adjusted R^2 is .15; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .80$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was significant, $F(6, 117) = 4.56, p = .000$. H₁₂^a is not supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are not significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 20: Moderation Analysis: Collectivism Moderating Autonomy Support and Self-Leadership Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{11-12}^a)

	Rwanda				United States			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.06	.06			.01	.01
Gender	.33	.22*			-.05	-.02		
Org.	.03	.05			-.04	-.05		
Years	.00	.02			-.02	-.06		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.26	.21***			.19	.18***
AS	.33	.44***			.39	.43***		
COL	.01	.12			.01	.01		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.27	.01			.19	.00
AS*CO	-.09	-.12			.03	.02		
L								

Note. AS = autonomy support; COL = collectivism.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

H_{11-12}^b . H_{11}^b tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between development support and self-leadership in the Rwandan sample (see Table 21). The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .15 and adjusted R^2 is .11; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .48$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was

significant, $F(6, 114) = 3.39, p = .004$. H_{11}^b is not supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are not significant.

H_{12}^b tests the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between development support and self-leadership in the U.S. sample. The hierarchical regression analysis for moderation shows that in Step 3 R^2 is .09 and adjusted R^2 is .04; the change in R^2 is not significant ($p = .20$). The ANOVA data indicate that the model as a whole including all three blocks was not significant, $F(6, 117) = 1.86, p = .09$. H_{12}^b is not supported; the moderating effects of collectivism are not significant in the U.S. sample.

Table 21: Moderation Analysis: Collectivism Moderating Development Support and Self-Leadership Rwanda and U.S. Sample (H_{11-12}^b)

	Rwanda				U.S.			
	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1								
Control variables			.06	.06			.01	.01
Gender	.33	.22*			-.05	-.02		
Org.	.03	.05			-.04	-.05		
Years	.00	.02			-.02	-.06		
Step 2								
Independent and moderator			.15	.09**			.04	.07*
DS	.14	.27**			.16	.25**		
COL	.13	.155			.03	.02		
Step 3								
Interaction effect			.15	.00			.09	.01
DS*COL	-.04	-.06			.11	.12		

Note. DS = development support; COL = collectivism.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Country Differences of All Variables

The research questions in this study address the differences between the two country samples on all variables. The t test determines if there is a significant perceptual difference on each variable based on culture. Six t tests were performed to analyze the six research questions. Table 22 displays the analysis from these t tests and Figure 4 shows a box plot of all the variables to see the differences by culture in a visual manner.

RQ1: Is there a difference in autonomy support as perceived by U.S. and Rwandan employees?

There is a significant difference in autonomy support between the Rwandan (5.45) and the U.S. (5.65) samples ($p = .04$) with the U.S. sample having a higher score than the Rwandan sample. This being noted, both scores are still very high, and both sets of scores show that employees in both countries perceived a high level of autonomy support from their leaders.

RQ2: Is there a difference in development support as perceived by U.S. and Rwanda employees?

There is no significant difference between development support between the Rwandan (4.48) and U.S. (4.30) samples. The each reported perceiving fairly high level of development support from their leaders.

RQ3: Is there a difference in psychological empowerment as perceived by U.S. and Rwanda employees?

There is a significant difference in psychological empowerment between Rwanda (6.03) and the U.S. (5.47) samples ($p = .00$) with Rwandans feeling more psychologically empowered than Americans. It is important to note that both cultures reported high levels of psychological empowerment. It is possible that empowering leadership is less common in Rwanda, and when Rwandans perceive empowering leadership they respond with a very high level of psychological empowerment. In the U.S. sample, it is possible that Americans expect empowering leadership, and their experience of empowering leadership does not have as large of an effect on them. Also, Peterson (2009) noted that responses are generally higher overall in high power distance countries than in lower power distance countries.

The concept of *saving face* or making oneself and one's organization look good may cause an inflation of scores in higher power distance countries such as Rwanda. So the significantly higher scores in the Rwandan sample may be due to inflation of scores due to power distance. In any case, both cultures reported high levels of psychological empowerment, and the Rwanda scores were considerably higher than expected.

RQ4: Is there a difference in self-leadership as perceived by U.S. and Rwanda employees?

There is also a significant difference in self-leadership between the Rwanda (5.86) and the U.S. (4.95) samples ($p = .00$) with Rwandans feeling more self-leadership than Americans. It is possible that the same phenomenon at work with psychological empowerment may be taking place here.

RQ5: Is there a difference in power distance as perceived by U.S. and Rwanda employees?

There is a significant difference in power distance between the Rwandan (2.41) and U.S. (1.86) samples ($p = .00$) with Rwandans being higher in power distance than Americans. This is the expected result since Rwanda is thought to be a higher power distance culture and the United States a lower power distance culture.

RQ6: Is there a difference in collectivism as perceived by U.S. and Rwanda employees?

There is also a significant difference in collectivism between the Rwandan (4.28) and U.S. (3.86) samples ($p = .00$) with Rwandans being more collectivistic than Americans. This is the expected result since Rwanda is thought to be a more collectivistic culture than the United States.

Variable	<i>M</i>		<i>t</i>
	Rwanda	United States	
RQ ₁ Autonomy support	5.45	5.65	-1.61
RQ ₂ Development support	4.48	4.30	.99
RQ ₃ Psyc. empowerment	6.03	5.47	5.72***
RQ ₄ Self-leadership	5.86	4.95	8.54***
RQ ₅ Power distance	2.41	1.86	7.60***
RQ ₆ Collectivism	4.28	3.86	4.11***

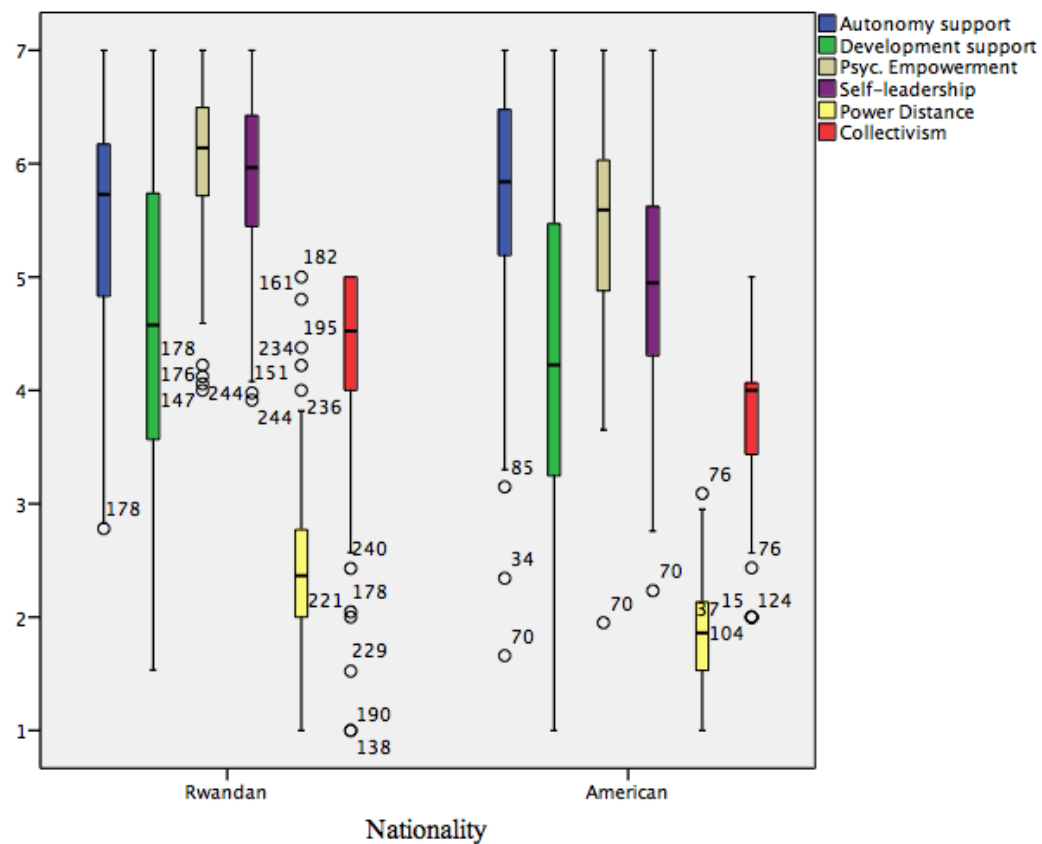


Figure 4: Boxplot comparing Rwandan and American scores for each variable in the study.

Summary

This chapter presented the data for two culture samples and six variables. Measurement equivalence was achieved by calculating the Z scores of the difference between factor analyses of each variable in each scale and then creating weighted scales separately for each culture sample. Hierarchical regression analysis showed that both autonomy support and development support factors of empowering leadership are significantly related to psychological empowerment and self-leadership in both culture samples.

Moderation analysis revealed that power distance moderated three of the four relationships between empowering leadership and employee empowerment in the Rwandan sample moderated only one of these four relationships in the U.S. sample. All power distance moderation caused an increase in relationships. In the Rwandan sample, collectivism moderated the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment such that these relationships decreased. In the U.S. sample, collectivism moderated the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment, causing an increase in these relationships.

Country differences revealed that both cultures perceived fairly high levels of autonomous support, although the U.S. sample was significantly higher than the Rwandan sample. Both cultures perceived moderately high and similar levels of development support from their leaders. Both cultures felt high levels of psychological empowerment and self-leadership, but the Rwandan sample was significantly higher than the U.S. sample. Rwanda was significantly higher in both power distance and collectivism than the United States.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

The purpose of this study was to test the effects of empowering leadership on employees' psychological empowerment and self-leadership in two culture groups in which individual measures of power distance and collectivism vary to determine if empowering leadership is effective in producing empowerment in diverse cultural situations. This chapter summarizes the research findings and their significance, presents theoretical and practical implications of the findings, discusses strengths and limitations, and suggests topics of further research.

Summary and Significance of the Findings

Measurement Equivalence

The results of this study reveal that the two populations differed significantly on the factor loadings of variables, and that measurement equivalence needed to be addressed. Riordan and Vandenburg (1994) established that oftentimes when cultures differ in levels of collectivism, there is an issue of measure equivalence between the culture groups. This finding was confirmed in this study since factor analysis and *r* to *Z* transformation revealed that in two of the six scales about half of the variables were significantly different by culture group. This is an important finding for further studies that involve sampling multiple cultures. The method of building scales separately for each culture group using the weight of the factor loadings for each culture on each variable is a method that needs to be considered in other multicultural studies when *Z* scores show significant differences by culture. This can be considered as an alternative to Riordan and Vandenburg's methodology for measurement equivalence when structural equation modeling is not used. The factor analysis and *r* to *Z* transformation processes was important in this study to reveal significant difference between the variables in the two culture groups and to ensure measurement equivalence.

Effects of Empowering Leadership on Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership

H₁ and H₂ tested the effect of the autonomy support factor of empowering leadership on both psychological empowerment and self-leadership in the Rwandan and U.S. samples. The results show that in both culture samples the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment were highly significant, with the Rwanda and U.S. samples accounting for 34% and 39% of the variance, respectively. In both culture samples, the relationship between autonomy support and self-leadership was also highly significant with the Rwanda and U.S. samples accounting for 19% and 18% of the variance, respectively. These results reveal that the empowering leadership factor of autonomy support has a highly significant relationship with psychological empowerment and self-leadership in both of the culture samples in this study.

H₃ and H₄ tested the effect of the development support factor of empowering leadership on both psychological empowerment and self-leadership in the Rwandan and U.S. samples. The results show that in both culture samples the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment was significant with the Rwanda and U.S. samples accounting for 8% and 10% of the variance, respectively. In both culture samples, the relationship between development support and self-leadership was also significant with the Rwanda and U.S. samples accounting for 7% and 6% of the variance, respectively. Although development support accounts for less variability than the autonomy support factors, the results were still significant.

All four of the first hypotheses produced significance levels of $p = .000$ except for the U.S. development support and self-leadership, which produced a significance level of $p = .01$. These significance levels along with large percentages of variability show that both factors of empowering leadership significantly affect both psychological empowerment and self-leadership in both culture samples. It is also evident that the impact of autonomous support accounted for more of the variance on both dependent variables in both samples (between 18% and 39%) than did the variable of development support (between 6% and 10%).

These results support a number of premises set up in this research. The Empowering Leadership Scale (ELS) is shown to be valid and reliable in this study in two separate cultures. Furthermore, the assertion that empowering leadership may be a powerful and effective form of leadership that produces empowerment in the African and U.S. contexts is confirmed. An extrapolation from these results is that empowering leadership may also be an effective form of leadership in other countries with high power distance and high collectivism.

Power Distance as a Moderator

H₅₋₈ tested the individual measure of power distance as a moderator between the two factors of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership. In Table 23, the general results of each test of moderation are compiled for reference. Previous research has offered partial support for power distance to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and the dependent factors. The support is only partial because some studies have found power distance to moderate the effects of empowering leadership, while some studies have not found a significant moderating relationship. This study hypothesized that increased power distance decreases the effect of the relationship between empowering leadership and the two dependent variables. However, rather than decreasing the effectiveness of empowering leadership in producing empowerment, in all of the cases where power distance was a moderator, power distance actually increased the effects of empowering leadership on empowerment.

Power distance moderated the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowerment in both culture samples. In both the Rwandan and U.S. samples, power distance increased the relationship between the variables. In the Rwandan sample, power distance also increased the relationship between autonomy support and development support with self-leadership in such a way that an increase in power distance increased the relationship. Power distance did not moderate these relationships in the U.S. sample.

Power distance is a moderator in some of these relationships but does not consistently moderate these relationships across both cultures. While three of the

four relationships were moderated by power distance in the Rwandan sample, only one of the four relationships was moderated by power distance in the U.S. sample. This indicates that power distance has a stronger effect in the Rwandan sample than it does in the U.S. sample. This may indicate that with individuals who have higher power distance preferences, power distance is more likely to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and employee empowerment.

Table 23: Summary of the Moderating Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Country	Independent	Dependent	Hypothesis supported?	Direction of moderation
Moderator power distance					
H ₅ ^a	Rwanda	AS	PE	Yes	Increase
H ₅ ^b	Rwanda	DS	PE	No	
H ₆ ^a	U.S.	AS	PE	Yes	Increase
H ₆ ^b	U.S.	DS	PE	No	
H ₇ ^a	Rwanda	AS	SL	Yes	Increase
H ₇ ^b	Rwanda	DS	SL	Yes	Increase
H ₈ ^a	U.S.	AS	SL	No	
H ₈ ^b	U.S.	DS	SL	No	
Moderator collectivism					
H ₉ ^a	Rwanda	AS	PE	Yes	Decrease
H ₉ ^b	Rwanda	DS	PE	No	
H ₁₀ ^a	U.S.	AS	PE	No	
H ₁₀ ^b	U.S.	DS	PE	Yes	Increase
H ₁₁ ^a	Rwanda	AS	SL	No	
H ₁₁ ^b	Rwanda	DS	SL	No	
H ₁₂ ^a	U.S.	AS	SL	No	
H ₁₂ ^b	U.S.	DS	SL	No	

Note. AS = autonomy support; DS = development support; PE = psychological empowerment; SL = self-leadership.

Collectivism as a Moderator

H₉₋₁₂ tested the individual measure of collectivism as a moderator between the two factors of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership. In Table 23, the results of each test of moderation are compiled for easy reference. Previous studies have offered weak evidence of collectivism as a moderator of empowering leadership. In one study, the reliability of the collectivism scale was unacceptable (Chen, Sharma, et al., 2011), and therefore no meaningful results could be supported. In another study, Chen, Sharma, et al. (2011) found that collectivism affects empowering leadership differently in high and low collectivism cultures, but they found no significant differences. The current study hypothesized that increased collectivism decreases the effect of the relationship between empowering leadership and the two dependent variables.

In the current study, the individual measure of collectivism was found to moderate one of the four relationships between the two factors of empowering leadership and the two dependent variables in each culture group. In the Rwandan sample, the relationship between autonomy support and psychological empowering was negatively affected by an increase in collectivism. Higher collectivism in this case decreased the relationship between empowering leadership and employee empowerment; this was the direction that the hypothesis indicated would happen. In the U.S. sample, the moderation effect of individual levels of collectivism increased the relationship between development support and psychological empowerment. Although collectivism has some moderation effect on these relationships in both cultures, overall individual levels of collectivism cannot be generally seen as consistently moderating the effects of empowering leadership.

Country Differences of all Variables

The literature has shown that the relationships between the variables in the current study are likely to vary by country. For this reason, each variable was tested for significant differences by culture group. The results of the *t* tests by country for each variable do show some significant differences between the two culture samples. Although both cultures saw a high level of autonomy support in their

leaders, the U.S. sample was significantly higher in reporting autonomy support in their leaders than were Rwandans. The development support factor of empowering leadership did not vary significantly by culture. Generally, both cultures saw a high level of autonomy support in their leaders and fairly high levels of development support. This indicates that empowering leadership is being both enacted by leaders and perceived by employees in both cultures in the development organizations that took part in the study.

Psychological empowerment and self-leadership were both significantly higher in the Rwandan population, and both samples experienced high levels of these qualities in themselves. This is a surprising difference between cultures since it was hypothesized that while empowering leadership may have a positive impact on Rwandans, it may be less positive than the impact that it had on Americans. Conversely, empowering leadership had a stronger effect on Rwandan's psychological empowerment and self-leadership, even though they experienced less autonomous support from their leaders.

One possible reason for this surprising finding is that culturally an authoritarian or paternalistic form of leadership is most common in the Rwandan context (Kirk & Bolden, 2006; Kuada, 2010). When employees are expecting these forms of leadership and instead experience empowering leadership, their levels of psychological empowerment and self-leadership increase dramatically. While the U.S. sample likely expects a certain level of empowering leadership and reacts positively to it, the Rwandan population reacts significantly more positively.

Another explanation for these surprising results comes from Peterson (2009) who noted that responses are generally higher overall in high power distance countries than in lower power distance countries. Peterson believed that the concept of *saving face* or making oneself and one's organization look good may cause an inflation of scores in the higher power distance country of Rwanda. This score inflation in higher power distance cultures may be the cause of the significantly higher scores in the Rwandan sample. The important finding is that in both countries, employees experienced high levels of psychological empowerment and self-leadership, which are related to the high levels of empowering leadership

they experienced from their leaders. Also, the Rwandan populations' experience of high levels of empowerment is a significant finding, showing empowering leadership to be highly effective in producing empowerment in the Rwandan sample.

The Rwandan sample was found to be significantly higher in individual levels of power distance and collectivism than the U.S. sample, which was the hypothesized outcome. African countries tended to be higher in power distance and higher in collectivism in both Hofstede's (1984) studies and the GLOBE studies (Chhokar et al., 2008; House, 2004). The current research confirmed these previous findings for a sample of the Rwandan and U.S. population, although the cultural values of this study cannot be applied to the whole country population of either culture.

Theoretical Implications

This study makes numerous theoretical contributions to the field of empowering leadership, empowerment studies, cross-cultural studies, and African leadership studies. The authors of the ELS (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a) requested further testing of their instrument with diverse populations, including cross-cultural research involving more than one culture. The current study tested the ELS on a unique set of participants and found the scale to be reliable and valid in two separate culture samples. The ELS is a reliable instrument to measure empowering leadership in various cultural contexts and should be used in further cross-cultural study. This study found through factor analysis and Z tests that there were few significant differences by culture in the factor loadings of the ELS.

The current study also tested the premise that Amudsen and Martinsen (2014a) set forth that an employee's personal empowerment is made up of both psychological empowerment and self-leadership and that empowering leadership will have a positive effect on both of these variables. This study indicates that in both culture samples empowering leadership has a significant and positive effect on both the psychological empowerment and the self-leadership of employees. The combination of these two variables as the *be and do* aspects of empowered

employees is confirmed by this study. Measuring personal empowerment through the two variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership is supported in this study.

The field of research of empowerment includes that social–structural side of what organizations can do to produce empowerment, the actual sense of employee empowerment, and the results of empowered employees. This study addresses the social–structural aspect of empowering leadership as an effective form of leadership that organizations can use to effectively increase the empowerment that their employees experience. Since organizations' efforts to increase employee empowerment often fail, this study offers a practical way to implement empowerment in the workplace. Organizations desiring to increase employee empowerment can implement training in empowering leadership as well as rewarding and encouraging empowering leadership behaviors, which will have the effect of increasing employee empowerment in the work place. This study establishes empowering leadership as a powerful force in increasing employee empowerment.

This study establishes empowering leadership as an effective producer of empowerment in employees in the United States and Rwanda, which represent both high and low power distance and collectivism values. This is a significant finding since the GLOBE study (Chhokar et al., 2008) found that leadership preferences vary by culture and that some forms of leadership are only effective in a portion of countries. This study builds on a finding of the GLOBE study that there may be forms of leadership that appeal to cultures universally. The GLOBE study found that participative leadership is accepted in cultures with high and low power distance and collectivism. Empowering leadership shares some characteristics with participative leadership, although empowering leadership defines many more qualities of a leader than the two for participative leadership in the GLOBE study. This study shows that empowering leadership may be a form of leadership that is acceptable in all cultures. Although this study does not prove that empowering leadership is appropriate and effective in all cultures, it does indicate that it may be effective in cultures that vary significantly on the cultural values of power distance

and collectivism. Empowering leadership is established from this study as a set of leadership behaviors that consistently produces empowerment in subordinates with differing individual cultural values.

Walumbwa et al. (2011) and Kuada (2010) both reviewed the literature on African leadership and found that more research is needed to identify effective and appropriate leadership styles in the African context. This study contributes to the study of leadership in the African context by identifying empowering leadership as a form of leadership that is highly effective in producing empowerment in employees in an African context. A number of authors have agreed that default leadership styles in Africa tend toward autocratic, directive, and hierarchical leadership that increase dependence in followers (Edoho, 2001; Kuada, 2010; Muchiri, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Poverty breeds in situations of dependence, and for Africa to make a move away from poverty into economic growth, new appropriate forms of leadership are needed. Numerous African leadership authors have proposed that leadership research in Africa needs to identify appropriate forms of leadership for Africa to combat the economic difficulties that it faces. Kuada proposed that empowerment of employees is central to addressing the issues that Africa faces and called for further study of empowering leadership in the African context. The research results presented in this dissertation show that empowering leadership is indeed an effective form of employee empowerment in one African culture and is a form of leadership that can be implemented in the African context to increase the empowerment of employees. Walumbwa et al. argued that a country's economic performance is largely contingent on the effectiveness of the leaders' ability to "unlock the potential of its workforce to effectively implement the strategic goals of organizations" (p. 425). Empowering leadership offers an organizational tool that can "unlock the potential of the workforce" (Walumbwa et al., 2011, p. 425) by producing psychologically empowered employees, which could have positive impacts on fighting poverty in the African context.

Edoho (2001) proposed, "Sound management practices can avert, or at least mitigate, the negative effects of the gloomy economic scenarios prognosticated for

sub-Saharan Africa in this century” (p. 2). According to Edoho, management in sub-Saharan African countries must be conscious of the cultural and societal values as well as purposefully helping to alleviate poverty. Empowering leadership shows promise as a form of leadership that is appropriate to the cultural and societal values in Africa and can purposefully help alleviate poverty by releasing employees’ full potential and increasing their work outcomes.

The results of the current study may be useful beyond research in Africa as well. The results suggest that empowering leadership may be effective in other cultures where individuals hold high power distance and high collectivism values. Although further study is needed to confirm this, the present study offers preliminary evidence that empowering leadership is effective for people who differ in power distance and collectivism values.

In a review of two decades of empowerment research, Maynard et al. (2012) noted the lack of cross-cultural research in the area of empowerment and called for research that considers two or more cultures. This present research extends the study of empowerment in a cross-cultural context and lends broader understanding of how the effects of empowering leadership are altered by cultural values. Empowering leadership is shown to be a powerful antecedent to both psychological empowerment and self-leadership in two highly different cultural contexts, extending the empirical study of empowerment into a multicultural context.

The current study extends the research on the effects of the individually measured cultural values of power distance and collectivism as moderators of empowering leadership and empowerment. This study confirms the mixed findings from other studies that power distance does act as a moderator of empowerment in some instances but does not consistently act as a moderator. Also, this research furthers the understanding of collectivism as a moderator and shows that only occasionally does collectivism moderate empowerment relationships. This study confirms previous findings that the individual measure power distance and collectivism scales are not as reliable as they need to be to form a foundation of cultural values studies.

Many cross-cultural studies have only considered collectivism. However, in a review of 25 years of cultural studies using Hofstede's measures, Kirkman et al. (2006) reviewed 180 articles published in top-tier journals between the years of 1980 and 2002 and found that in some instances power distance has a stronger effect on variables than does individualism/collectivism. They suggested that further research include both of these important variables. The current research confirms that power distance can indeed have a larger effect than collectivism, and that power distance measurement should be included in any cross-cultural research design that measures cultural values.

Practical Implications

Wanasika et al. (2011) proposed that African history has shaped the forms of leadership that are seen as culturally appropriate. A combination of tribal society, scarce resources, and highly collectivistic values results in an autocratic style of leadership but one that is tempered by a leader's sense of duty to care for family and group needs. This forms a sort of paternalism that Kaunda (2010) called a form of autocratic benevolence. These African default leadership styles are almost completely opposite to empowering leadership, encouraging dependency. Empowerment discourages dependency.

The current study does not speak to ways of changing culturally held ideal leadership styles. However, this study shows that when organizations from the United States work directly with people who hold values of high power distance and collectivism that empowering leadership is highly effective in increasing psychological empowerment and self-leadership. Even though empowering leadership is highly different from the default styles of leadership, this study shows that it is an effective form of leadership to produce empowerment in one African country. National employees respond positively to empowering leadership and in fact experience psychological empowerment and self-leadership significantly more than their U.S. counterparts. Organizations that choose to implement empowering leadership and teach and promote empowering leadership will empower their national employees through both psychological empowerment and self-leadership.

These employees are therefore more likely to be empowering toward others when doing their work and leading others. Development organizations and other organizations involved in Rwanda or other African countries should consider the use of empowering leadership based on the results of this study, which show it to be highly effective in producing employee empowerment in the Rwandan context. Since previous research has found significant positive effects of employee empowerment affecting myriad other outcomes, empowering employees can have significant positive effects on an organization.

A leader's core desires drive his or her leadership style. Simply training leaders in empowering leadership may or may not influence their leadership style if their main core desires and cultural beliefs run contrary to the precepts of empowering leadership. However, the current study shows that empowering leadership methods positively influence personal empowerment. The experience of having an empowering leader does have a powerful effect on employees as this study shows. Rather than exercising caution using empowering leadership in foreign countries with high power distance and collectivism, or adopting a more *culturally appropriate* form of leadership, empowering leadership should be practiced vigorously and taught outright in development organizations. This will greatly increase empowerment in the workforce, which has been shown to have many positive organizational and work outcomes.

Those who work for development organizations overseas are not typical of the population. They are generally more educated and speak English. By working in an international organization, they are exposed to American cultural practices. However, the current study shows that they still hold individual cultural values of high power distance and high collectivism that are similar to other African countries and are significantly different than those of the United States. These personally held cultural differences have no negative effect on their perception of empowering leadership or their subsequent sense of personal empowerment. In fact, having personal values of high power distance and high collectivism made the employees in this study feel more empowered psychologically and more able to self-lead when they experience empowering leadership. This effect is likely due to

their limited experience with being empowered in their culture, and the subsequent experience of empowerment is large. Empowering leadership is a highly effective, highly desirable form of leadership for U.S.-based organizations to use when working overseas.

Strengths and Limitations

In the current study, measurement equivalence between cultures was found to have a significant impact on the study. First, the similarities between the scores of the two cultures were examined. It appeared that the scores were fairly similar. However, upon obtaining Z scores, it was evident that the factor loadings in the psychological empowerment and self-leadership scales were significantly different by culture group, and the measures were not equivalent. The process of building separate scales from the factor loadings addressed the issues of measurement equivalence in this study, but it did not use the standard method of establishing measurement equivalence set forth by Riordan and Vandenburg (1994). Rather, this study utilized an alternative form of establishing measurement equivalence that does not utilize structural equation modeling.

This study only measured employees in development organizations and only measured two individually held cultural values of power distance and collectivism. Although the results of this study showed significant relationships between empowering leadership and employee empowerment, further study is needed in different kinds of organizations working overseas and in different countries to confirm that the findings are generalizable to other organizational contexts and cultures.

Both of the culture value scales of power distance and individualism were less reliable than they should be. The power distance scale had a relatively low reliability in both culture samples (Rwanda $\alpha = .62$, United States $\alpha = .57$). Although the individualism scale had a fairly high reliability in both cultures (Rwanda $\alpha = .77$, United States $\alpha = .71$), only two of the six questions were included in the final scale due to extremely low reliability of the other four questions. Past research has documented low scale reliability with these two scales,

and other scales that measure similar cultural values also suffer from low reliability values. Although the reliability of these scales is acceptable for this study, higher reliability would strengthen the conclusions of the research.

The cultural levels of power distance and collectivism from this study cannot be generalized to the Rwandan or U.S. populations. Cultural values were measured on an individual basis and are not appropriate for generalization. The findings of this research apply to people with similar levels of power distance and collectivism, but the specific measurement of the cultural values is not generalizable to the larger populations.

Direct causality cannot be determined through a cross-sectional design. This study cannot determine if empowering leadership causes psychological empowerment and self-leadership to increase or if those with increased psychological empowerment and self-leadership cause their supervisors to act in more empowering ways. Causality could be determined in an experimental design in which the survey is administered before and after empowering leadership training.

Podsakoff and Organ (1986) proposed that common method variance can be a serious threat to internal validity and occurs when all data are gathered from the same subjects, as was done in the current study. However, Conway and Lance (2010) found that using self-report data from one source does not inflate common method correlations through common method bias. In a review of research with various research designs, Lance et al. (2010) found that although common method variance does inflate observed relationships, the effect is almost completely offset by the effect of measurement error. The current study employed methods suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, et al. (2003) to control for common method bias. This study protected respondent anonymity and reduced evaluation apprehension, the instructions to the survey assured anonymity as well as requested honest answers from respondents; also, the questions were counterbalanced as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, et al. to offset common method bias.

Suggestions for Further Research

The current study establishes the ELS as valid and reliable; future research on empowering leadership should employ this scale. This scale makes significant improvements in the measurement of empowering leadership and will greatly increase the effectiveness of measuring empowering leadership in various organizational contexts. Further research on empowering leadership using this scale would be beneficial to the study of empowerment.

This study contributes to the research of empowerment and empowering leadership by measuring employees who vary in levels of power distance and collectivism. Further research needs to consider the effectiveness of empowering leadership in producing empowerment in different African cultural contexts as well as in other diverse cultural contexts including Asian cultures and other cultures that are high in power distance and collectivism.

In this study, the U.S. sample perceived a significantly higher level of autonomy support in their leaders than the Rwandan sample. The education level of employees may be a factor influencing employees' perception of empowering leadership qualities. Since the Rwandan employees likely have a much lower education level than the U.S. employees, and education level may affect the perception of leadership, it is possible that education level influences this variable. In future studies, the education level of the employees should be considered as a covariate to ascertain if education levels affect employee perception of empowering leadership.

This study tested the two factors of empowering leadership separately on each of the dependent variables. In future studies, both factors of empowering leadership could be considered simultaneously as independent variables. This may reveal further insights into how empowering leadership effects psychological empowerment and self-leadership in the two culture samples.

The measurement of personal empowerment through the two variables of psychological empowerment and self-leadership should continue in further study. Now that empowering leadership is firmly established as an antecedent to both psychological empowerment and self-leadership, the effects of these two *be and do*

aspects of empowerment on other work and organizational outcomes should be researched more thoroughly. Use of these two aspects of empowerment as antecedents to various work outcomes should also be considered in further studies.

This study highlighted the need for more highly reliable scales of individually measured cultural values. Many other studies have reported low reliability in all of the variations of individual measure of cultural value scales as well. Individual measurement of cultural values in cross-cultural studies are widely encouraged (Culpepper & Watts, 1999; Scandura & Dorfman, 2004; Schaffer & Riordan, 2003; Tsui et al., 2007); and yet the scales that measure cultural values at an individual level suffer from low reliability. New cultural value scales need to be created to measure values individually. Further study needs to create scales that have consistently reliable alpha measurements. For example, research that converts the GLOBE study scales into a reliable measure of individual cultural values would add value to the field of cross-cultural research. Valid and reliable scales of individual measure of culture are much needed in the further research of leadership and culture.

Further research is needed in the area of measurement equivalence in studies that involve more than one culture to determine if the alternative method utilized in this study is acceptable and if it produces similar results to the method set forth by Riordan and Vandenburg (1994). When structural equation modeling is not a viable option, the methods of establishing measurement equivalence in this study may be considered as a viable option.

Summary

This study establishes empowering leadership as an effective form of leadership to increase empowerment of employees—both psychologically and in self-leadership—in individuals who hold both high and low power distance and collectivistic culture values. The findings from this study show that individual levels of power distance and collectivism moderate some of the relationships between effective empowering leadership and employee empowerment but that they are not consistent moderators and only moderate some aspects of these

relationships. Furthermore, power distance does not hinder the relationship between empowering leadership and employee empowerment. On the contrary, employees experienced more psychological empowerment and more self-leadership than the U.S. participants. This study establishes empowering leadership as an appropriate and effective form of leadership to produce employee empowerment in the Rwandan context. It also indicates that empowering leadership may be an appropriate and effective form of leadership in other countries with high power distance and high collectivism. The use of empowering leadership in development organizations and other organizations operating with employees who hold values of high power distance and collectivism is supported by the significant relationship between empowering leadership and employee empowerment.

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Appendix A

Survey in English

The Leadership and Culture Survey for International Development Organizations

Instructions and Explanation

You are eligible to take part in this survey if you work for an organization in Rwanda, or an organization in the US that has operations in Rwanda. The purpose of this research study is to better understand the effects of culture on leadership and on employees' responses to leadership. This questionnaire contains 55 questions and should take less than 15 minutes to complete.

You may not directly benefit from this research; however, we hope that your participation in the study may help your organization and organizations like it to better understand effective leadership methods in cross-cultural situations.

Your answers to these questions are confidential and anonymous; your answers will not be connected to your name. Your organization will not receive your results, and your leaders will not know how you answered the questions. You will have an option of providing your name and email address to enter a drawing for a \$25 Amazon gift certificate or 20,000 Rwandan frank gift card for Bourbon Coffee that will be awarded to one participant from each organization at the end of the survey, but this will not be used to link your name to your answers.

By answering these questions you are giving your consent to take part in this study. If you have any questions about this study or the questions you may contact Debby Thomas at 0788866903 or debdavethomas@yahoo.com.

Please answer these questions as truthfully and honestly as you can. Think about your actual situation, and not what you wish your situation to be. The most will be gained from this study if you are truthful and honest in your answers.

Demographic Questions

1. What is your gender? Female _____ Male _____

2. What organization do you work for?

World Relief

World Vision

Compassion International

Hope International

ALARM

Navigators Discipling for Development

Other (please specify)

3. What is your nationality?

Rwandan_____

American_____

Other (please specify)_____

4. How many years have you worked for your present supervisor or boss? 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, more than 20

Questions about your leader

For this first section think of your direct supervisor or boss and answer all the questions truthfully about this one person. Please circle your answer. Your answers are anonymous and your supervisor will not know how you answered.

5. My leader conveys that I shall take responsibility

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

6. My leader recognizes my strong and weak sides

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

7. My leader expresses positive attitudes related to me starting with my own defined tasks

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

8. My leader's planning of his/her work is visible to me

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

9. My leader guides me in how I can do my work in the best way

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

10. My leader discusses shared affairs with me

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

11. My leader is concerned that I reach my goals

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

12. I gain insights into how my leader arranges his/her work days

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

13. My leader listens to me

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

14. My leader shows me how I can improve my way of working

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

15. My leader encourages me to take initiative

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

16. My leader lets me see how he/she organizes his/her work

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

17. My leader invites me to use my strong sides when needed

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

18. My leader gives me power

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

19. My leader is concerned that I work in a goal-directed manner

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

20. My leader gives me authority over issues within my department

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

21. My leader conveys a bright view of the future

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

22. My leader tells me about his/her own way of organizing his/her work

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

Questions about yourself

For this section answer all questions honestly about yourself: circle your answer 1=never, 7=always.

23. The work I do is very important to me

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

24. I establish specific goals for my own performance

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

25. My impact on what happens in my department is large

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

26. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

27. I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

28. My job activities are personally meaningful to me

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

29. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

30. I have significant influence over what happens in my department

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

31. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

32. I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

33. I am confident about my ability to do my job

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

34. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

35. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

36. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

37. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

38. Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

39. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

40. I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

41. The work I do is meaningful to me

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

42. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

43. I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation

1=Never 2=Not Usually 3=Rarely 4=Sometimes 5=Often 6=Usually 7=Always

Questions about your culture

In this section answer how much you personally agree with each statement. This is your personal opinion.

44. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

45. Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

46. Group success is more important than individual success

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

47. It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

48. Being accepted by the members of your work group is very important

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

49. Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

50. Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

51. Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

52. Managers should encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

53. Employees should not disagree with management decisions

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

54. Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

55. Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Enter in drawing

If you would like to enter into a drawing for 20,000 frw please send a text with your name and organization to 0788866903.

Appendix B

Survey in Kinyarwanda

Amabwiriza mu Gusubiza Ibibazo

Wemerewe kwitabira ubu bushakashatsi niba hari umuryango runaka ukorera mu Rwanda, cyangwa umuryango wo muri Leta Zunze Ubumwe z'Amerika ufite ibikorwa mu Rwanda. Intego y'ubu bushakashatsi ni ukurushaho gusobanukirwa ingaruka umuco ugira ku miyoborere, n'uburyo abayoborwa babona ubuyobozi. Ino nyigo igizwe n'ibibazo 55, kandi byagombye gutwara nk'iminota 15 ngo bisubizwe.

Inyungu z'ubu bushakashatsi zishobora kudahita zikugeraho; ariko, twiringiye ko niwitabira ubu bushakashatsi bizafasha umuryango ukorera n'iyindi isa nawo kurushaho gusobanukirwa uburyo bwakoreshwa ngo imiyoborere igere ku ntego iyo ihuriweho n'abantu bava mu mico itandukanye.

Ibisubizo byawe kuri ibi bibazo ni ibanga, ntidutangaza uwatanze ibisubizo runaka cyangwa ngo tubihuze n'izina ryawe. Umuryango ukorera ntuzahabwa ibisubizo byawe, ndetse n'umuyobozi wawe mu kazi ntazamenyeshwa uko wasubije ibibazo. Ushobora kandi kuba watangaza izina yawe, ukaba washyirwa muri tombola aho uzatomborwa, umwe muri World Relief azatsindira Frw20,000; kandi bigakorwa ku buryo ibisubizo byawe ntaho bizahurizwa n'ibisubizo byawe.

Mu gusubiza ibi bibazo uba wiyemeje kugira uruhare muri ubu bushakashatsi. Hari ikindi kibazo cyangwa ubundi busobanuro ukeneye kuri ubu bushakashatsi, wabaza Debby Thomas kuri 0788866903.

Turagusaba gusubiza ibi bibazo n'ukuri kose gushoboka. Tekereza uko bimeze ubu, atari uko wifuza ko byari kuba bimeze. Ubu bushakashatsi buzagira icyo bugeraho nusubizanya ukuri kose gushoboka ibi bibazo.

1. Igitsina: Gore _____ Gabo _____

2. Ukorera uwuhe muryango?

- ☐ World Relief
- ☐ World Vision
- ☐ Compassion International
- ☐ Hope International
- ☐ ALARM
- ☐ Navigators Discipling for Development
- ☐ Ahandi

3. Ubwenegihugu bwawe?

Umunyarwanda _____ Umunyamerika _____

Ubundi (Erekana ubwenegihugu ufite) _____

4. Hitamo imyaka umaze ukorera umuyobozi ufite ubu. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, irarenga 20

Ibibazo byerekeranye n'umuyobozi wawe: Muri iki gice kibanza, tekereza k'umuyobozi wawe wa bugufi, ubundi usubize ibibazo byose kuri uwo nguwo. Ibisubizo byawe kuri ibi bibazo ni ibanga, umuyobozi wawe nabwo azamenya icyo wasubije. Hitamo igisubizo kimwe mu byatanzwe kandi ugomba gusubiza ibibazo byose.

5. Umuyobozi wanjye ambwira ko nkwiye kwishakamo ibisubizo

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

6. Umuyobozi wanjye amenya imbaraga zanjye n'intege nke zanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

7. Umuyobozi wanjye yerekana ko anezewa nuko mpera ku nshingano zanjye nkora akazi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

8. Uko umuyobozi wanjye ategura akazi ke birangaragarira

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

9. Umuyobozi wanjye anyobora uko nakora akazi kanjye mu buryo bwiza kurushaho

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

10. Umuyobozi wanjye anganiriza ku bintu bimwe na bimwe duhuriyeho

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

11. Umuyobozi wanjye akurikirana ko ngera ku ntego zanjye mu kazi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

12. Nigira ku buryo umuyobozi wanjye ategura iminsi ye y'akazi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

13. Umuyobozi wanjye antega amatwi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

14. Umuyobozi wanjye anyereka uko nshobora kuvugurura imikorere yanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

15. Umuyobozi wanjye ankangurira kudategereza amabwiriza, ahubwo nkamenya igikwiye nkagikora

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

16. Umuyobozi wanjye yemera ko ndeba uko ategura nuko ashyira ku murongo akazi ke

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

17. Umuyobozi wanjye ampamagarira gukoresha imbaraga zanjye iyo bikenewe

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

18. Umuyobozi wanjye ampa ubushobozi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

19. Umuyobozi wanjye akurikirana ko nkora mu buryo buganisha ku kugera ku ntego

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

20. Umuyobozi wanjye ampa ububasha bwo gukemura ibibazo biboneka mw'ishami dukoreramo

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

21. Umuyobozi wanjye yerekana ko imbere ari heza

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

22. Umuyobozi wanjye ambwira uko we ubwe ashyira akazi ke ku murongo

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

Ibibazo bikwerekeyeho: Muri iki gice, subiza ibibazo byose mu kuri kose kuri wowe ubwawe. Hitamo igisubizo kimwe mu byatanzwe kandi ugomba gusubiza ibibazo byose.

23. Akazi nkora ni ingenzi kuri njye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

24. Ngena ubwanjye intego zo kugerwaho mu gusuzuma imikorere yanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

25. Uruhare rwanjye mu bibera mw'ishami nkoramo ni runini

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

26. Nazobereye ubumenyi nkeneye mu gukora akazi kanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

27. Nkora uko nshoboye ngo nkurikirane uko nkora mu kazi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

28. Imiri mo nkora mu kazi ifite icyo ivuze ku giti cyanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

29. Nkora ngo ngere ku ntego nashyizeho mu kazi

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

30. Ngira uruhare rugaragara mu gutuma ibibera mw'ishami ryanjye biba

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

31. Nshobora kugena uko nkora akazi kanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

32. Mbanza kwitekereza nkora akazi neza mbere yo kugatangira

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

33. Mfite ikizere mu bushobozi mfite bwo gukora akazi kanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

34. Rimwe na rimwe mbanza gushyira mu mutwe ishusho y'akazi ngiye gukora neza mbere yo kugatangira

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

35. Ngira uruhare runini rwo kugena ibibera mw'ishami nkoramo

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

36. Iyo nakoze ibyo nagombaga gukora neza, ndihemba

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

37. Mbona uburyo buhagije mu kugira umudendezo mu buryo nkora akazi kanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

38. Rimwe na rimwe, ndiganiriza (n'ijwi riranguruye cyangwa mu mutwe) uko ngiye gukora ibintu mu gihe kigoye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

39. Njye ubwanjye niyizeyemo ubushobozi bwo gukora neza imirimo nshinzwe

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

40. Ngerageza gusuzuma ku bushishozi kw'ibyo nibwira ku bibazo mpura nabyo

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

41. Akazi nkora gafite icyo kavuze kuri njye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

42. Mfite ubwisanzure buhagije mu kugena uko nkora akazi kanjye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

43. Nibaza kubyo nibwira n'ibyo nkeka igihe mpuye n'ibihe binkomereye

1=habe na gato 2=gacye cyane 3=gacye 4=rimwe na rimwe 5=akenshi 6=akenshi cyane 7=igihe cyose

**Muri iki gice, subiza ugaragaza uko wemeranya na buri nteruro.
Hitamo igisubizo kimwe mu byatanze kandi ugomba gusubiza ibibazo byose.**

44. Ukumera neza kw'itsinda ni ingenzi kurusha inyungu z'umuntu ku giti cye

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

45. Abayobozi bagombye gufata ibyemezo hafi ya byose batagishije inama abo bayobora

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

46. Ukugera ku ntego kw'itsinda ni ingenzi kurusha iby'umuntu ku giti cye

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

47. Akenshi ni ngombwa ko umukoresha akoresha ububasha n'ubushobozi bwe kubo ayobora

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

48. Kwakirwa no kwemerwa n'abagize itsinda ryawe ni ingenzi cyane

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

49. Abayobozi bakwiriye kwita gacye cyane kubyo abakoreshwa batekereza

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

50. Abakoreshwa bagombye kwita ku ntego zabo bwite nyuma yuko itsinda rimeze neza

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

51. Abayobozi ntibakwiye kugirana undi mubano n'abo bakoresha hanze y'akazi

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

52. Abayobozi bagombye gukangurira abandi gushyira imbere inyungu z'itsinda niyo inyungu z'umuntu ku gite cye zabihomberamo

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

53. Abakoreshwa ntibakwiye kutemera ibyemezo byafashwe n'ubuyobozi

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

54. Abantu bategerejweho kwirengagiza intego zabo bwite kugirango itsinda rigere ku zaryo

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

55. Abakoresha ntibakwiye guha imirimo y'ingenzi abakoreshwa ngo bayibakorere

1=simbyemera na gato 2=simbyemera 3=nta cyemezo nabifataho 4= ndabyemera 5=ndabyemera rwose

***** Niba wifuza gutsindira 20,000 frw muri tombola, ukoresheje sms, ohereza izina ryawe kuri 0788866903.***

Appendix C

Human Subject Research Review Board Application

Please submit *one electronic* copy of this form and any supporting documents to your dissertation chair or to the SBL IRB representative, Dr. Emilyn Cabanda at ecabanda@regent.edu.

1. PROJECT REVIEW

XX New Project (The HSRB will assign an ID#) _____

☐ Revised Project (Enter ID#) _____

☐ Renewal (Enter ID#) _____

2. PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR Debby Thomas

Address 161 Plum St, Dundee OR 97115 Phone 250 788866903

E-Mail deboth1@mail.regent.edu Date March 4, 2015

List of all project personnel (including faculty, staff, outside individuals or agencies) None.

If you are a **student**, please provide the following additional information:

This research is for ☒ Dissertation ☐ Thesis ☐ Independent Study
☐ Other _____

Faculty Advisor's Name: Dr. Bocarnea

- 3. TRAINING:** The National Institutes of Health Office of Extramural Research offers free self-paced online training at (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a).
 XX I have completed human subjects research training. Training Date: March 11, 2014

- 4. PROJECT TITLE:** The Moderating Effects of Power Distance and Collectivism on Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment and Self-Leadership in International Development Organizations

- 5. IS THIS RESEARCH BEING SUBMITTED AS PART OF A FUNDED RESEARCH PROPOSAL?** ☐ Yes ☒ No

If yes, please identify the funding source:

6. ANTICIPATED LENGTH OF HUMAN SUBJECTS CONTACT:

Subjects will take one online survey that takes about 15 minutes. I will offer the survey through Survey monkey online between these dates, or until the sample size is met:

Beginning Date March 10, 2015 Ending Date March 30, 2015

7. DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS:

Number 220 (110 Americans, and 110 Rwandans) Age Range 24-65

Briefly describe subject population:

Participants in this study include Rwandans and expatriates working for non-profit or aid organizations in Rwanda. The Rwandan participants live in Rwanda while the American participants live in America, but work for the same organization as the Rwandan participants. These are employees of three organizations: World Relief, World Vision, and Compassion International.

8. INDICATE THE REVIEW CATEGORY FOR WHICH YOU ARE APPLYING.

XX I am applying for an **exempt review**, based on *one or more* of the following categories (check all that apply):

Note: Exempt review cannot be claimed for any research involving prisoners and most research involving children.

- ☐ Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings and involving normal educational practices such as (i) research on regular and special education instructional strategies, or (ii) research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods

XX Research involving the use of survey procedures, educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), interview procedures or observation of public behavior, if information from these sources is recorded in such a manner that participants cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could not reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation

Note: This category cannot be used for research involving children

- ☐ Research involving the use of survey procedures, educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), interview procedures, or observation of public behavior, if (i) the human subjects are elected or appointed public officials or candidates for public office; or (ii)

federal statute(s) require(s) without exception that the confidentiality of the personally identifiable information will be maintained throughout the research and thereafter

- ☐ Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects
- ☐ Research and demonstration projects which are conducted by or subject to the approval of federal department or agency heads, and which are designed to study, evaluate, or otherwise examine (i) Public benefit or service programs; (ii) procedures for obtaining benefits or services under those programs; (iii) possible changes in or alternatives to those programs or procedures; or (iv) possible changes in methods or levels of payment for benefits or services under those programs

- ☐ I am applying for an **expedited review**, based on meeting *all* of the following conditions (check all that apply):

Note: Expedited review cannot be claimed for research involving prisoners.

- ☐ Research poses no more than minimal risk to subjects (defined as "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.")
- ☐ Research limited to one or more of the following data collection procedures:
 - ☐ Collection of data through noninvasive procedures routinely employed in clinical practice
 - ☐ Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for nonresearch purposes
 - ☐ Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes
 - ☐ Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

Note: Some research in this category may be classified as exempt; this listing refers only to research that is not exempt.

- ☐ Continuing review of research previously approved by the convened HSRB as follows: (a) where (i) the research is permanently closed to the enrollment of new subjects; (ii) all subjects have completed all research-related interventions; and (iii) the research remains active only for long-term follow-up of subjects; or (b) where no subjects have been enrolled and

no additional risks have been identified; or (c) where the remaining research activities are limited to data analysis.

☐ I am applying for **full board review**.

9. PROJECT DESCRIPTION

Briefly describe (or attach) the methodology and objectives of your research (including hypotheses and/or research questions), the data collection procedures, and any features of the research design that involve procedures or special conditions for participants, including the frequency, duration, and location of their participation. The description should be no longer than 3 pages single space. Attach addendums for materials and detailed descriptions of the research if more space is needed. *Please note that complete chapters of thesis/dissertation proposals will not be accepted.*

Overview

First, this study establishes empowering leadership as an effective producer of empowerment in employees. Self-leadership and psychological empowerment are presented as the ‘do and be’ aspects of empowerment in employees, and are measured in this study as the results of empowering leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a). Empowering leadership is then established as a set of leadership behaviors that consistently produce empowerment in subordinates.

Second, empowering leadership is shown to be an effective form of leadership in the United States, and this study proposes that it may also be an appropriate and effective form of leadership in countries that are culturally dissimilar to the United States, such as Rwanda. The effectiveness of empowering leadership is due in part to the sharing of power with subordinates which increases their ability to work autonomously (Spreitzer, 1995). This creates a greater level of engagement in work activities, and work is seen as more fulfilling and more meaningful (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Subordinates become more capable and more productive, increasing the amount and level of difficulty of work they can accomplish (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Empowering leadership strengthens the relationship between leaders and followers, which also increases the productivity of both parties.

The cultural values of collectivism and power distance dichotomize countries as being dissimilar to one another. Cultures that embrace high collectivism and high power distance (such as Rwanda) are fundamentally dissimilar to cultures with low collectivism and power distance (such as the United States). These differences in culture will likely affect the effects of empowering leadership on self-leadership and psychological empowerment. However, empowering leadership may prove to be effective in both of these cultures, even if it is less effective in high power distance and high collectivistic cultures.

Hypotheses

RH1: The autonomy support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership.

RH2: The development support factor of empowering leadership is positively related to (a) psychological empowerment and (b) self-leadership.

RH3: Power distance will moderate the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, in such a way that high power distance will decrease the positive relationship.

RH4: Power distance will moderate the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high power distance will decrease the positive relationship.

RH5: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in such a way that high collectivism will decrease the positive relationship.

RH6: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between the (a) autonomy support and (b) development support factors of empowering leadership and self-leadership in such a way that high collectivism will decrease the positive relationship.

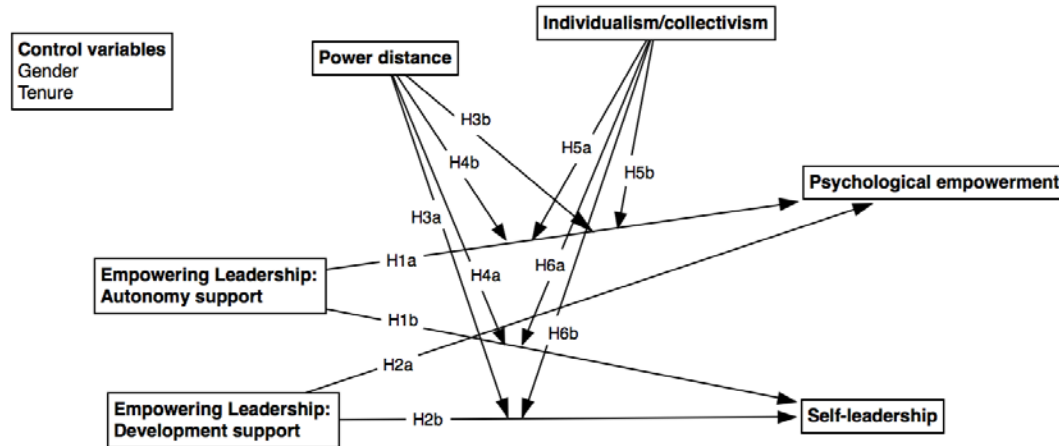


Figure (1970). This model is a representation of the proposed hypotheses.

The literature shows that the relationships between these variables are likely to vary by country. For this reason, the model will be tested by country to ascertain the differences. Furthermore, the following research questions address the country differences in the studied concepts:

RQ1: Is there a difference in autonomy support as perceived by US and Rwandan employees?

RQ2: Is there a difference in development support as perceived by US and Rwanda employees?

RQ3: Is there a difference in psychological empowerment as perceived by US and Rwanda employees?

RQ4: Is there a difference in self-leadership as perceived by US and Rwandan employees?

RQ5: Is there a difference in power distance as perceived by US and Rwandan employees?

RQ6: Is there a difference in collectivism as perceived by US and Rwandan employees?

Method

Research Design

A quantitative non-experimental research design is adopted to accurately answer the proposed research questions. A cross-sectional approach is used in which participants will complete a series of validated research measurement

instruments at one time in their work environment. The research design includes a proposed model of relationships in which empowering leadership effects both psychological empowerment and self-leadership. Finally, the research design includes two aspects of culture, collectivism and power distance, which are measured individually and tested as moderators of the relationships between the aforementioned variables. Self-report data is preferred for this research since the perception of empowering leadership behaviors as well as perception of self psychological empowerment and self-leadership are measured with regard to the individual's personal cultural values. Psychological empowerment and self-leadership are internal processes and are best measured by self-report. Measuring empowering leadership and cultural preferences from the individual's perspective as well allows the understanding of the effects of personal cultural values on the variables in the study.

Sampling Method

Participants in this study include Rwandans and expatriates working for non-profit or aid organizations in Rwanda. The Rwandan participants live in Rwanda while the American participants live in America, but work for the same organization as the Rwandan participants. A sample population from Rwanda (high power distance and high collectivism) and the United States (low power distance and low collectivism) will be attained through the employees in three organizations. In this way a sample is gathered from people of two highly different cultures working in the same organization. In this way organizational culture does not differ between the participants but national culture does, increasing the likelihood of measuring national and not organizational culture.

Instrumentation

A self-report questionnaire will be compiled with existing validated surveys to measure each variable. Additionally, demographic information will be collected. The survey includes 55 questions, and will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Translation into Kinyarwanda will be accomplished using a back translation process as outlined by Brislin (1995).

Empowering leadership is measured by the newly developed 18-item empowering leadership scale (ELS) (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). The scale is two-dimensional including, autonomy support and development support. The study went through three rounds of rigorous testing in a *Leadership Quarterly* article and was shown to be valid each time. Coefficient alpha is 0.92. Answers are rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = never to 7 = always).

Psychological empowerment is measured in this study by Spreitzer's (Maynard et al., 2012) 12-item four dimensional scale. The four cognitions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact are each measured with three questions on a 7-point Likert scale. According to a review of literature on psychological empowerment, the scale has been scrutinized in many studies and both convergent validity and discriminate validity have been found in many samples, including multiple international samples (2011). Through a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment, Seibert et al.'s (Houghton & Dawley, 2012) results provide strong support for using psychological empowerment's a unitary construct or 'gestalt' that reflects the four specific cognitions.

Self-leadership is measured using the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (ASLQ) (2002). Houghton and Dawley ("The New SuperLeadership," 2014) recently developed and tested 9-item abbreviated version (ASLQ) of the widely used RSLQ. The authors propose that these three factors "encapsulate the heart of the classic self-leadership strategy dimensions" (Houghton & Dawley, 2012, p. 224) and encourage the use of this instrument when researchers "wish to measure self-leadership as one variable of interest in the context of a larger model and who therefore find it impractical to use the full 35-item RSLQ" (p. 227). The Coefficient alpha is 0.73 in the original scale formation study and 0.83 in a recent study that utilized the scale in a similar way to this research (1988).

Power distance and individualism/collectivism are measured by Dorfman and Howell's (1980) cultural values scale which is a version of Hofstede's (K. Lee et al., 2014b) cultural values scale that has been calibrated for measuring culture

individually. It includes six questions for each scale and was recently used in a Leadership Quarterly article and had reliability of 0.86 (PD) and 0.74 (C/I) (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a; Brown, 2003; Eom & Yang, 2014; Fock et al., 2013; Hui et al., 2004; K. Lee et al., 2014b; “The New SuperLeadership,” 2014).

Control variables are gender and years worked for a leader as these variables were found to influence results in previous research. Previous studies find gender related to self-leadership or psychological empowerment so it will be used as a control variable (Brown & Fields, 2011; Carmeli et al., 2011; Eom & Yang, 2014). Also, years worked for the leader may affect the way followers perceive leader behaviors as well as affecting the followers’ level of psychological empowerment or self-leadership (Brown & Fields, 2011; Carmeli et al., 2011; Eom & Yang, 2014). Finally, organization will be measured as a descriptive variable, but not used as a control variable.

Data Collection Method

Both the English and Kinyarwanda versions of the survey will first be piloted by 5 people in each group to ensure that the web based instrument is functioning properly and that the paper based copy is well understood. After validation, the survey will be personally delivered to the organizations that require paper copies, and emails and links will be sent to organizations preferring the Internet based instrument, Survey Monkey will be used for on-line data collection. The sample frame consists of all employees working in Rwanda and in the home office of these organizations (Americans surveyed live and work in the US in the home office of each organization). A \$25 gift card will be given randomly to a participant in the survey, this is to encourage participants to take time to fill out the survey. The amount is not large enough to coerce participants into participating, but rather meant to gently encourage participation.

HSRB Project Description Checklist

a) Is your data completely anonymous, where there are no possible identifications of the participants. They will only give names to enter the drawing, not to identify them with their answers.	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
b) Will you be using existing data or records? If yes, describe in project description (#9 above)	No	Yes

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Will you be using surveys, questionnaires, interviews or focus groups with subjects? If yes, describe in #9 and include copies of all in application.	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
d) Will you be using videotape, audiotape, film? If yes, describe in #9	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
e) Do you plan to use any of the following populations? Regent students, Regent employees, Non-English speaking, cognitively impaired, patients/clients, prisoners, pregnant women? If yes, describe which ones in #9	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
f) Do you plan to use minors (under 18)? If yes, describe in #9 and give age ranges	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
g) Are sites outside of Regent engaged in the research? If yes, describe in #9 and give consent letter or their IRB information	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
h) Are you collecting sensitive information such as sexual behavior, HIV status, recreational drug use, illegal behaviors, child/elder/physical abuse, immigrations status, etc? If yes, describe in #9.	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
i) Are you using machines, software, internet devices? If so describe in #9	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
j) Are you collecting any biological specimens? If yes, describe in #9	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
k) Will any of the following identifying information be collected: names, telephone numbers, social security number, fax numbers, email addresses, medical records numbers, certificate/license numbers, Web universal resource locators (URLs), Internet protocol (IP) address numbers, fingerprint, voice recording, face photographic image, or any other unique identifying number, code or characteristic other than “dummy” identifiers? If yes, describe in #9: Names and email addresses are collected only for entering in the drawing for prize.	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
l) Will there be data sharing with any entity outside your research team? If so, describe who in #9	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
m) Does any member of the research team or their family members have a personal financial interest in the project (for commercialization of product, process or technology, or stand to gain personal financial income from the project)? If yes, describe in #9.	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
n) As applicable, do you plan to provide a debriefing to your		

participants? If written, include in application as addendum	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
o) Will there be any inducement to participate, either monetary or nonmonetary? If there is inducement please describe how the amount is not coercive in #9.	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
p) Will there be any costs that subjects will bear (travel expenses, parking fees, professional fees, etc. If no costs other than their time to participate, please indicate)? If yes describe in #9	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
q) Will subjects be studied on Regent University campus? If yes, please describe where the study will be done in #9	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
r) Will subjects be obtained by internet only? If yes, please describe what internet forums or venues will be used to obtain participants in #9	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
s) Are you using the Regent University consent form template? Whether using the template or requesting an alternate form, you must include a copy in your submission.	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>

10. PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT

Describe the sources of potential participants, how they will be selected and recruited, and how and where you will contact them. Describe all relevant characteristics of the participants with regard to age, ethnic background, sex, institutional status (e.g., patients or prisoners), and their general state of mental and physical health.

Participants are Americans and Rwandans working for one of three aid organizations. The organization will be contacted and upon gaining approval the participants will be contacted by their organization with an email asking for their participation with a link to the survey. Those who prefer Kinyarwanda surveys will be given a paper copy of the Kinyarwanda version of the instrument. The participants are all employed, working age, between 24 and 65. Males and females will participate. The ethnic background of participants is American and Rwandan. They are all in good physical and mental health.

11. INFORMED CONSENT

Describe how you will inform participants of the nature of the study. Attach a copy of your cover letter, script, informed consent form and other information provided to potential participants.

Participants will be informed of the nature of the study in a brief commentary that precedes the survey questions.

**** EXEMPT APPLICATIONS SKIP TO QUESTION 17: ATTACHMENTS ****

12. WRITTEN CONSENT

- ☐ I am requesting permission to **waive written consent**, based on one or more of the following categories (check all that apply):
- ☐ The only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document, and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality.
 - ☐ The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.
- ☐ I will be using a **written consent form**. Attach a copy of the written consent form with this application.

13. CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA

What procedures will be used to safeguard identifiable records of individuals and protect the confidentiality of participants?

**** EXPEDITED APPLICATIONS SKIP TO QUESTION 17: ATTACHMENTS ****

14. RISKS AND BENEFITS

Describe in detail the immediate or long-range risks, if any, to participants that may arise from the procedures used in this study. Indicate any precautions that will be taken to minimize these risks. Also describe the anticipated benefits to participants and to society from the knowledge that may be reasonably expected to result from this study.

15. DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

The two major goals of debriefing are dehoaxing and desensitizing. Participants should be debriefed about any deception that was used in the study. Participants also should be debriefed about their behavioral response(s) to the study. Please describe your debriefing plans and include any statements that you will be providing to the participants.

16. DISSEMINATION & STORAGE OF RESULTS

- a) How and where do you plan on disseminating the results of your study?
 - b) For electronic data stored on a computer, how will it be stored and secured (password, encryption, other comparable safeguard)?
 - c) For hardcopy data, how will it be stored (locked office or suite, locked cabinet, data coded by team with master list secured separately, other)?
 - d) What are your plans for disposing of data once the study is ended (give method and time)?
-
-

17. ATTACHMENTS:

Attach copies of all relevant project materials and documents, including (check all that apply):

- XXA copy of your training certificate (required for principal investigator)
- XX Surveys, questionnaires, and/or interview instruments
- XX Informed consent forms or statements
- ☐ Letters of approval from cooperative agencies, schools, or education boards
- ☐ Debriefing statements or explanation sheet

18. AFFIRMATION OF COMPLIANCE:

By submitting this application, I attest that I am aware of the applicable principles, policies, regulations, and laws governing the protection of human subjects in research and that I will be guided by them in the conduct of this research. I agree to follow the university policy as outlined in the Faculty & Academic Policy Handbook (available online at http://www.regent.edu/academics/academic_affairs/handbook.cfm) to ensure that the rights and welfare of human participants in my project are properly protected. I understand that the study will not commence until I have received approval of

these procedures from the Human Subjects Review Board. I further understand that if data collection continues for more than one year from the approval date, a renewal application must be submitted.

I understand that failure to comply with Federal Regulations (45 CFR 46, available online at (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014a)) can result in confiscation and possible destruction of data, suspension of all current and future research involving human subjects, or other institutional sanctions, until compliance is assured.

Debby R. Jhanas

March 5, 2015

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date

Signature of Co-Investigator (if applicable)

Date

Signature of Faculty Advisor (if applicable)

Date

To Be Completed By HSRB

Assigned ID # _____

☐ Approve

☐ Recommend Revisions

☐ Reject

HSRB Member

Date

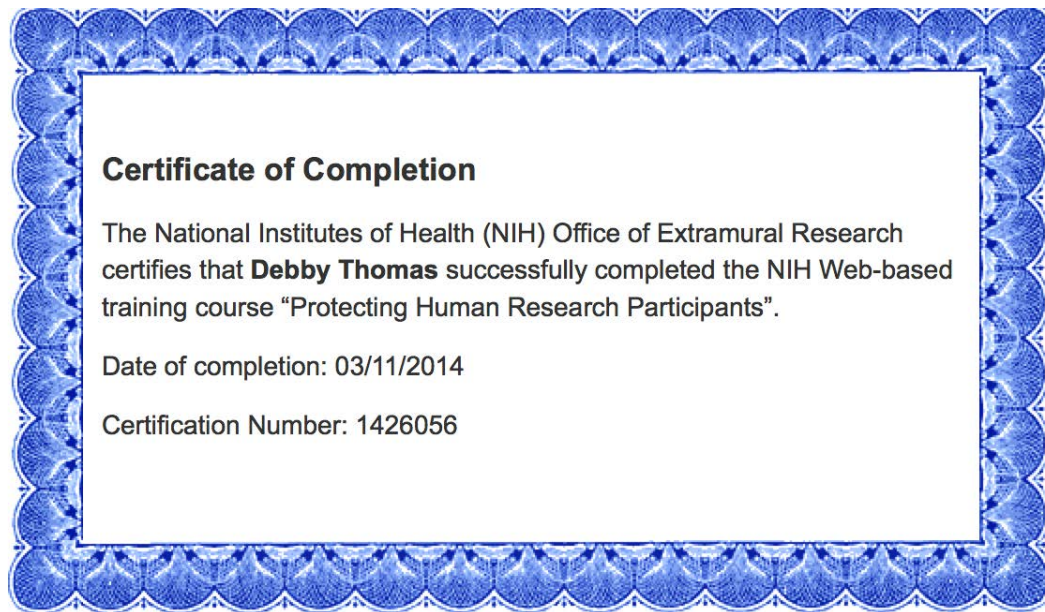
HSRB Member (if applicable)

Date

HSRB Member (if applicable)

Date

Certificate of Completion of NIH Training



Research Survey

You are eligible to take part in this survey if you work for an organization in Rwanda, or an organization in the US that has operations in Rwanda. The purpose of this research study is to better understand the effects of culture on leadership and on employees' responses to leadership. This questionnaire contains 55 questions and should take less than 15 minutes to complete.

You may not directly benefit from this research; however, we hope that your participation in the study may help your organization and organizations like it to better understand effective leadership methods in cross-cultural situations.

Your answers to these questions are confidential and anonymous; your answers will not be connected to your name. Your organization will not receive your results, and your leaders will not know how you answered the questions. You will have an option of providing your name and email address to enter a drawing for a \$25 Amazon gift certificate or 20,000 Rwandan francs that will be awarded to one participant from each organization at the end of the survey, but this will not be used to link your name to your answers.

By answering these questions you are giving your consent to take part in this study. If you have any questions about this study or the questions you may contact Debby Thomas at 0788866903.

Please answer these questions as truthfully and honestly as you can. Think about your actual situation, and not what you wish your situation to be. The most will be gained from this study if you are truthful and honest in your answers.

What is your gender?

Male/Female

How many years you have worked for your present supervisor. (circle best answer) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 more than 23

What organization do you work for?

1 = World Relief, 2 = Compassion, 3 = USAID,

What is your nationality?

1 = Rwandan, 2 = American, 3 = other (fill in other nationality)

For this first section think of your direct supervisor or boss and answer all the questions truthfully about this one person: 1=never, 7=always. (The actual online survey has includes a 1 - 7 choice for each question.)

Empowering Leadership Survey (Spreitzer, 1995) (This title will not appear in the survey.)

1. My leader conveys that I shall take responsibility
2. My leader gives me power
3. My leader gives me authority over issues within my department
4. My leader expresses positive attitudes related to me starting with my own defined tasks
5. My leader encourages me to take initiative
6. My leader is concerned that I reach my goals
7. My leader is concerned that I work in a goal-directed manner
8. My leader listens to me
9. My leader recognizes my strong and weak sides
10. My leader invites me to use my strong sides when needed
11. My leader conveys a bright view of the future
12. My leader discusses shared affairs with me
13. My leader lets me see how he/she organizes his/her work
14. My leader's planning of his/her work is visible to me
15. I gain insights into how my leader arranges his/her work days
16. My leader shows me how I can improve my way of working
17. My leader guides me in how I can do my work in the best way
18. My leader tells me about his/her own way of organizing his/her work

For this section answer all questions honestly about yourself: 1=never, 7=always. (The actual online survey has includes a 1 - 7 choice for each question.)

Measuring Psychological Empowerment (PE) (2012) (This title will not appear in the survey.)

Meaning (This title will not appear in the survey.)

19. The work I do is very important to me

20. My job activities are personally meaningful to me

21. The work I do is meaningful to me

Competence (This title will not appear in the survey.)

22. I am confident about my ability to do my job

23. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities

24. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job

Self-determination (This title will not appear in the survey.)

25. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job

26. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work

27. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job

Impact (This title will not appear in the survey.)

28. My impact on what happens in my department is large

29. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department

30. I have significant influence over what happens in my department

Houghton and Dawley's (Culpepper & Watts, 1999, p. 28) Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire (This title will not appear in the survey.)

31. I establish specific goals for my own performance.

32. I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work.

33. I work toward specific goals I have set for myself.

34. I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.

35. Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.

36. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.

37. Sometimes I talk to myself (out loud or in my head) to work through difficult situations.

38. I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with.

39. I think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.

**In this section answer how much you agree with each statement
1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. (The actual online survey has includes a
1 - 5 choice for each question.)**

Dorfman and Howell's (1988) cultural values scales (Culpepper & Watts, 1999, p. 28) (This title will not appear in the survey.)

Individualism/Collectivism (This title will not appear in the survey.)

- 40. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.
- 41. Group success is more important than individual success.
- 42. Being accepted by the members of your work group is very important.
- 43. Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.
- 44. Managers should encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer.
- 45. Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success.

Power Distance (This title will not appear in the survey.)

- 46. Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.
- 47. It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.
- 48. Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.
- 49. Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees.
- 50. Employees should not disagree with management decisions.
- 51. Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.