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The American University in Cairo

School of Global Affairs and Public Policy

**BARRIERS TOWARDS EMPLOYEES'
STRUCTURAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT**

**A STUDY OF NON-MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES IN
GOVERNMENTAL SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS IN CAIRO**

A Thesis Submitted to the

Public Policy and Administration Department

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Public Administration

By

Passant Bassem Mahmoud

ID# 800112109

Fall 2015

DEDICATION

This thesis work is dedicated to the memory of my beloved father who always supported and encouraged me. He was and will always be my source of inspiration and motivation.

Secondly, I would like to express my heartfelt gratefulness to my mother for her endless support, love, and encouragement. Without her, I could have never had the strength or confidence to chase my dreams and complete my studies.

My wholehearted thanks also go to my lovely husband for his unconditional support and love. His constant encouragement and embracement always makes me motivated to go the extra mile.

I also owe much gratitude to my mother-in-law who never failed to support and help me whenever I needed. Her presence in my life is a true blessing.

I would also like to thank Dr.Sherine ElFekey and Dr.Hadia FakhrEIDin whom I learnt a lot from during my undergraduate studies, have constantly supported me during the course of this program, and whose passion for research always motivates me.

I am also deeply grateful for my son for he had borne my temper during the critical times and been patient when I was not able to play with him.

Last but not least, I want to thank all my friends who were always a source of joy and happiness.

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Supervised by: Dr. Shahjahan Bhuiyan

ABSTRACT

The aim of this thesis is to pave the way for non-managerial employees' empowerment in governmental service organizations in Egypt. Based on a review of previous studies that discussed the Egyptian bureaucracy, this study hypothesized that all the structural and psychological empowerment barriers - namely the organizational cultures and work context factors, managerial employees' leadership style, and non-managerial employees' readiness level and personalities - do exist within the governmental service organizations. Questionnaires were distributed to 223 non-managerial employees in Real Estate offices, Social Insurance and Pension offices, Traffic Services offices, Civil Registry offices, Health offices (Ministry of Health), Tax offices, and Courts' Registry and Record offices all over Cairo. Statistical analyses of the findings of 183 eligible questionnaires reveal that 'non-managerial employees' inability to be empowered' is the only empowerment barrier that does exist within governmental service organizations. Results have been inconclusive for the organizational cultures. The thesis concludes by providing recommendations for facilitating non-managerial employees' empowerment, and offering suggestions for future research based on the limitations identified in this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.1. Empowerment as a Solution to Government Bureaucracy.....	2
1.2. The Egyptian Bureaucracy: An Overview.....	3
1.3. Study Scope and Objectives.....	4
1.4. Structure of the Thesis.....	5
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	7
2.1. Employee Empowerment.....	7
2.1.1. Structural Empowerment.....	8
2.1.2. Psychological Empowerment.....	8
2.2. Prerequisites to Employees' Empowerment.....	9
2.3. Barriers towards Employees' Empowerment Conceptual Model.....	10
2.3.1. Structural Empowerment Barriers.....	13
2.3.2. Psychological Empowerment Barriers.....	21
2.4. Conclusions.....	25
Chapter 3: The Egyptian Government Local Administration.....	26
3.1. The Egyptian Government Local Administration's Culture.....	26
3.2. The Egyptian Government Local Administration's Leadership.....	28
3.3. The Egyptian Government Local Administration's Civil Servants.....	29
3.4. Information Sharing within the Egyptian Government Local Administration.....	34
Chapter 4: Research Methodology.....	35
4.1. Research Question and Sub-questions.....	35
4.2. Sampling Strategy and Sample Design.....	36
4.3. Research Methodology, Methods, and Tools.....	37
4.3.1. Questionnaire Design.....	39
4.3.2. Questionnaire's Validity and Reliability.....	42
4.3.3. Other considerations.....	44

4.4. Ethical Considerations.....	45
4.5. Fieldwork.....	46
4.5.1. Data Collection.....	46
4.5.2. Challenges and Limitations.....	46
4.6. Generating Evidence.....	49
Chapter 5: Findings, Analysis & Discussion.....	51
5.1. Respondents' Profile.....	51
5.2. Verifying Hypotheses.....	52
5.2.1. Workplace Culture.....	52
5.2.2. Leadership.....	60
5.2.3. Employees' Readiness.....	63
5.2.4. Employees' Personality.....	73
5.2.5. Work-Context Factors.....	78
5.2.6. Awareness of Concept.....	79
5.3. Discussion.....	80
5.3.1. Structural Empowerment Barriers.....	80
5.3.2. Psychological Empowerment Barriers.....	85
5.3.3. Awareness of the 'Empowerment' concept.....	86
Chapter 6: Recommendations and Suggestions.....	88
6.1. Recommendations for Facilitating Non-managerial Employees' Empowerment..	88
6.1.1. Overcoming the Structural Empowerment Barriers.....	88
6.1.2. Strengthening the Structural and Psychological Components of Employees' Empowerment.....	90
6.1.3. Context of Governmental Service Organizations.....	91
6.2. Suggestions for Future Research.....	93
List of References.....	98
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR NON-MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES.....	106
APPENDIX B: FINDINGS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION TABLES.....	111

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: The Conceptual Framework.....	12
Figure 5.1: Males and Females Respondents.....	51
Figure 5.2: Tenure of All Respondents.....	52
Figure 5.3: Managers Listening to Employees' Views and Suggestions.....	53
Figure 5.4: Centralized Decision-Making.	54
Figure 5.5: Lack of Two-way Communication.....	55
Figure 5.6: Outcome Orientation.....	56
Figure 5.7: Employees' Openness to Continuous Learning.....	57
Figure 5.8: Employees' Competing Rather Than Cooperating.....	58
Figure 5.9: Jobs Done Individually.....	58
Figure 5.10: Inspirational Motivation.....	61
Figure 5.11: Intellectual Stimulation.....	62
Figure 5.12: Individualized Consideration.....	62
Figure 5.13: Transformational Leadership.....	63
Figure 5.14: Employees' Willingness To Be Empowered.....	64
Figure 5.15: Salary Based on Job Position Rather Than Actual Performance.....	65
Figure 5.16: Employees Possessing Job-related Knowledge.....	67
Figure 5.17: Employees Possessing Decision-making Skills.....	67
Figure 5.18: Energized Through Teamwork Rather Than Working Individually	68
Figure 5.19: Employees Possessing Teamwork Skills.....	69

Figure 5.20: Received Training.....	71
Figure 5.21: Employees' Ability To Be Empowered [Direct responses].....	72
Figure 5.22: Employees' Ability To Be Empowered [Indirect responses].....	72
Figure 5.23: Employees Believing in Hard Work.....	74
Figure 5.24: Employees' Certainty of Making Plans Work.....	74
Figure 5.25: Employees' Internal Locus of Control.....	75
Figure 5.26: Employees' Self-esteem [Having Good Qualities].....	76
Figure 5.27: Employees' Self-esteem [Doing Things As Good As Others].....	77
Figure 5.28: Employees' Self-Esteem [Satisfaction With One's Self].....	77
Figure 5.29: Employees' Self-esteem [Excluding Question 22].....	78
Figure 5.30: Managers Sharing Information With Their Employees.....	79
Figure 5.31: Respondents' Awareness of Concept of Empowerment.....	80

LIST OF TABLES

Table 5.1 Statistics [Gender]	111
Table 5.2 Statistics [Gender].....	111
Table 5.3 Statistics [Tenure].....	112
Table 5.4 Statistics [Tenure].....	112
Table 5.5 Reliability Statistics [Workplace Culture Dimensions].....	112
Table 5.6 Reliability Statistics [Centralization and Non-democratic Orientation].....	113
Table 5.7 Views_Suggestions.....	113
Table 5.8 Centralized Decision-Making.....	114
Table 5.9 Lack_of_Two_way_Communication.....	114
Table 5.10 Correlations [Views & Suggestions, Centralized Decision-Making, Lack of Two-way Communication].....	115
Table 5.11 Views_Suggestions * Centralized_vs_Decentralized Cross tabulation.....	115
Table 5.12 Views_Suggestions * Lack of_Two_way_Communication Cross tabulation.....	116
Table 5.13 Outcome_orientation.....	116
Table 5.14 Employees' Openness to Continuous Learning.....	117
Table 5.15 Employees Compete Rather Than Cooperate.....	117
Table 5.16 Job-related Tasks_Done_ Individually.....	118
Table 5.17 Reliability Statistics [Teamwork Orientation]	118
Table 5.18 Correlations [Employees' Competing & Individual Work].....	118
Table 5.19 Reliability Statistics [Questions 3, 6 & 7]	119
Table 5.20 Inspirational Motivation.....	119

Table 5.21 Intellectual Stimulation.....	120
Table 5.22 Individualized Consideration.....	120
Table 5.23 Transformational_Leadership.....	121
Table 5.24 Reliability Statistics [Employees' Readiness].....	121
Table 5.25 Employees' Willingness To Be Empowered.....	121
Table 5.26 Salary Based on Job Position Rather Than Actual Performance.....	122
Table 5.27 Correlations [Intrinsic Desire & Salary]	122
Table 5.28 Employees Possessing_Job_related_Knowledge.....	123
Table 5.29 Employees Possesing_Decision-making_Skills.....	123
Table 5.30 Energized_Through_Teamwork.....	124
Table 5.31 Employees Possessing_Teamwork_Skills.....	124
Table 5.32 Correlations [Possessing Teamwork Skills]	125
Table 5.33 Energized_through_Teamwork * Teamwork_Skills Cross tabulation.....	125
Table 5.34 Reliability Statistics [Employees' Ability].....	126
Table 5.35 Item-Total Statistics [Ability Dimensions]	126
Table 5.36 Received Training.....	127
Table 5.37 Employees' Ability To Be Empowered [Direct Responses].....	127
Table 5.38 Employees' Ability To Be Empowered [Indirect Responses]	128
Table 5.39 Correlations [Ability-Direct and Indirect Responses].....	128
Table 5.40 Correlations [Ability-Direct and Indirect Responses excluding Teamwork Skills].....	129

Table 5.41 Reliability Statistics [Employees' Personality].....	129
Table 5.42 Hardwork_Vs_Luck.....	130
Table 5.43 Certainty_Plans.....	130
Table 5.44 Reliability Statistics [Internal Locus of Control].....	131
Table 5.45 Employees' Internal Locus_of_Control.....	131
Table 5.46 Reliability Statistics [Employees' Self-esteem]	132
Table 5.47 Item-Total Statistics [Employees' Self-esteem]	132
Table 5.48 Reliability Statistics [Employees' Self-esteem Excluding Question (22)]...	132
Table 5.49 Having_Good_Qualities.....	133
Table 5.50 Most_Other_People.....	133
Table 5.51 Satisfaction_with_One's Self.....	134
Table 5.52 Employees' Self-Esteem [excluding question 22].....	134
Table 5.53 Sharing_Information.....	135
Table 5.54 Awareness of the concept of 'Empowerment'	135
Table 5.55 Correlations [Employees' Intrinsic Desire To Be Empowered_vs_Self-Esteem & Internal Locus of Control]	136
Table 5.56 Reliability Statistics [Employees' Intrinsic Desire to be Empowered_vs_ Internal Locus of Control].....	136

Chapter 1: Introduction

Governments worldwide aspire to establish an efficient apparatus that responds to the needs and demands of the country's citizens effectively. This, in fact, reflects its *raison d'être* of facilitating the well-being of communities through the provision of various public goods and services in an efficient and effective manner. Furthermore, 'Responsiveness', 'Effectiveness', and 'Efficiency' are three major characteristics that constitute good governance practices (Sheng, 2009). A country's civil service system, including the relevant governmental institutions, agencies, and bodies, is, thus, expected to provide public, and social, goods and services that meet the needs of all the stakeholders within the society, including its citizens; while making the best use of the available resources in a sustainable way and within a reasonable timeframe.

Nevertheless, there is, generally, "a growing dissatisfaction with the performance of public sector services in many developing countries"; which is attributed to some factors such as the overstretching of governmental administrative capacity (Paul, 1991,p.1). Communities, specifically poor communities, are discouraged by the lack of responsiveness of local administration to their service needs; in addition to the fact that "there is a large 'difficult-to-reach' or 'informal' population that typically cannot access formally provided services" (Ghosh & Kamath, 2012,p.50).

One of the major reasons contributing to the inefficient, ineffective, and non-responsive government operations is the ineffective administration of its bureaucracy, or, in other words, 'bureaucratic administration' in its negative connotation; although the main aim for which it was introduced - by the German sociologist and political economist Max Weber (1864-1920) - was to achieve efficiency and rational impersonal objectivity (Hughes, 2003,p.21). This can be defined as red tape, inefficiencies, delays, and waste in the administration and management of governmental organization's operations and in the delivery of public services. Bureaucracy, in its negative implication, "results in a delayed response to peripheral needs, and a tendency to accord more importance to administrative procedural correctness over professional accountability for actions" (UNDP, 2004, p.2).

In fact, the significance of decentralization of governments' decision-making authorities to local administration units is highlighted in UNDP's 2003 Human Development Report (pp.134-137). It is seen as a crucial prerequisite for any country to achieve its Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The report states that many reasons support the case of decentralization including faster response to local needs; improved delivery of basic services; improved implementation and monitoring of service delivery; more accountability and transparency, and less corruption; more sustainable projects; and increased energy and motivation among local stakeholders. In addition, a 2003 World Bank Report emphasizes that administrative discretion is crucial for the public sector, especially in the developing countries, because one of the greatest challenges is the efficient and effective public service delivery for these country's citizens.

1.1. Empowerment as a Solution to Government Bureaucracy

Lipsky (1980) discusses the critical role of street-level bureaucrats, who deal and interact with citizens on direct basis during the course of their jobs, more specifically. Lipsky (1980, p.3) explains that "although they are normally regarded as low-level employees, (their) actions actually constitute the services delivered by government". The vital role played by street-level bureaucrats in administering government's operations efficiently, effectively, and responsively cannot, therefore, be undermined.

An effective public bureaucracy is, thus, vital for discharging the key functions of the state (World Bank, 2003). Accordingly, the development of an empowered workforce is of chief significance especially for street-level bureaucrats who deal and interact on one-to-one basis with service-recipients (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008, p.18). In other words, to provide efficient delivery of services, it is important that employees are autonomous, take initiatives, and feel that they contribute to the operation of their institutions.

Empowerment, in fact, provides "a solution to the age-old problem of Taylorized and bureaucratic workplaces" (Wilkinson, 1998, p.40). For these reasons, in public administration, it has recently emerged as a critical component of New Public Management reforms (Dewitt, Kettl, Dyer, & Lovan, 1994; Osborne & Gaebler, 1992) that have occurred recently in many countries [e.g. Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the UK]. As part of the move towards a results-oriented government, and in order to better

serve the citizens, some governments are empowering employees at lower echelons of hierarchy “to take risks, be creative, and find ways to best serve citizens and stakeholders” (Pitts, 2005, p.7).

It is, however, worth noting that although employees’ empowerment in the public sector is viewed as “a means for improving the quality of public services and unleashing the creative talents of public employees”, only a handful of empirical studies have examined its consequences (Moldogaziev & Fernandez 2011, p.26).

1.2. The Egyptian Bureaucracy: An Overview

Bureaucracy embodied in time-consuming and protracted government procedures is deeply rooted in Egyptian governmental organizations and institutions. Lack of empowerment of public servants at the grassroots levels hurdles the efficient and effective delivery of basic services, and, accordingly, creates a non-responsive government apparatus to the various stakeholders’ needs. That is especially true in governmental service institutions in which civil servants deal and interact directly with the citizens; and are expected to provide prompt services.

The negative impact of the Egyptian bureaucracy is, generally, well-known and has been a primary concern for the country’s key institutions (CIPE, 2009,p.9). A 2009 survey that was conducted by Al-Ahram Center for Political and Strategic Studies in coordination with the Center for International Private Enterprise (CIPE) highlights it as an issue of priority. The survey aimed to investigate how Egyptian bureaucracy affects the business environment for small and medium-sized enterprises and the nature of SMEs’ interaction with government agencies. The study sheds the light on the negative impact of Egypt’s leviathan bureaucracy on the Egyptian economy in terms of discouraging investment and impeding economic growth; thus weakening Egypt’s global competitiveness.

The critical need for decentralization to the government’s local administrative offices and organizations is also accentuated in Egypt’s 2004 Human Development Report which clarifies that “ administrative decentralization should not only involve the transfer of power from top to bottom (but also empowers) the local level to carry authority and accountability for actual service delivery”(UNDP,2004, pp.8-9). This reflects the concept

of ‘subsidiarity’, which implies the empowerment of street level bureaucrats who can provide public services efficiently. Decentralization and empowerment are also seen as windows of opportunity to implement comprehensive civil service reforms. Calls for reform have, thus, been increasing “for a more efficient, effective and responsive government administration that caters to the needs of its different stakeholders groups, whether regular citizens, the business community or the development cooperation partners” (El Baradei, 2011, p.1352).

1.3. Study Scope and Objectives

Based on the above discussion, this study views the empowerment of public employees as a key towards achieving the bureaucratic flexibility that is needed for Egypt’s improved delivery of basic social and public services, its economic growth, and the achievement of its MDGs and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This study, thus, aims to pave the way for the empowerment of civil servants in Egypt’s government’s local administration organizations.

The focus of this study is on street-level bureaucrats, or more precisely as conceptualized in this study, non-managerial employees who interact on one-to-one direct basis with the public. Governmental service organizations are defined in this study as governmental service offices that are intended and expected to be service-oriented in terms of providing prompt services to the public. These offices are subsidiaries of different types of authorities, institutions, and ministries that offer different types of services; whether related to health, social insurance, paying taxes, traffic-related services, etc.

Entrenching employees’ empowerment in Egypt’s governmental service organizations is not a trouble-free process. There might be barriers regarding different aspects within such institutions that would impede both management’s efforts to delegate authority (structural empowerment), and/or would hurdle employees’ psychological cognitions of feeling empowered (psychological empowerment).

There is, however, lack of investigation of the barriers towards employees’ empowerment in the Egyptian context. In fact, there have been no previously conducted known studies investigating these possible obstacles in Egyptian governmental institutions, in general,

or in governmental service organizations, in particular. Furthermore, previous relevant studies mostly discussed the general characteristics of the Egyptian bureaucracy rather than focusing on the governmental service organizations that serve its local administration. Even those studies that examined the detailed aspects of the bureaucratic culture of Egypt's government apparatus in the manner tackled in this study are relatively old and thus, do not reflect the political, cultural, and societal changes that have occurred over the last four years since the 25th of January Revolution.

This study will, thus, add to the existing empowerment and public administration literature by empirically investigating and identifying the possible barriers to non-managerial employees' structural and psychological empowerment existing within the governmental service organizations in Egypt. The process of investigation is guided by using this study's constructed conceptual model of employees' structural and psychological empowerment barriers. Finding these possible obstacles will help in generating solutions that pave the way towards employees' empowerment within such institutions, and thus, facilitate achieving more bureaucratic flexibility.

1.4. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into six chapters. This Chapter (1) introduces the topics of government bureaucracy, and the significance of decentralization to, and empowerment of, the local administrative organizations and agencies, in general, with special focus on the Egyptian context; and highlights the research significance, gap, and the main objectives of the study. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature; based on which the study's conceptual model is built. Chapter 3 provides an overview on the local administration system within Egypt's Bureaucracy; guiding the constructing of the study's hypotheses. Chapter 4 discusses the research methodology, including the techniques and tools used; as well as the limitations encountered in the process of data collection. Chapter 5 presents the findings and analysis of the data collected; and provides a relevant overall discussion. Chapter 6 concludes the thesis by providing recommendations for facilitating non-managerial employees' empowerment; discussing the various opportunities and challenges existing within the context of governmental

services offices that would affect any empowerment initiatives; and offering suggestions for future research based on the limitations identified in this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment practices have spread over the last three decades in both public and private sectors (Moldogaziev& Fernandez, 2013, p.490). Grunig (2008, p.564) defines it as the symmetrical concept of power, which means “collaborating to increase the power of everyone in the organization, to the benefit of everyone in the organization”; contrary to the asymmetrical concept of power which “involves leaders trying to control and make others dependent on them” (Men & Stacks, 2013, p.175). Grunig’s definition, in fact, merely captures on the essence of the concept; as its exact interpretation differs according to the context in which it is applied.

Accordingly, some authors handle it from the perspective of it being a form of participative management and thus, emphasize the aspect of employees’ contribution to the decision-making process (Pitts, 2005, p.8). Others stress on the role of power [e.g. Bardwick, 1991; Block, 1993; Peters, 1987], defining it as “a shift of power from the upper to the lower levels of the organization” (Pitts, 2005, p.8). Other definitions lay emphasis on notions of self-motivation [e.g. Tracy, 1990] (Herrenkohl et al., 1999,p.375). Petter et al. (2002, pp.383-384) provide a comprehensive definition of employee empowerment as including seven dimensions: transfer of power from upper to lower managerial levels; participation of employees in the decision-making process; information sharing; employees’ autonomy in doing their jobs; giving employees the opportunity to take initiative and express creativity in their jobs; allowing employees to use their knowledge and skills in their jobs; and reallocating responsibility to lower managerial levels and holding them accountable.

Employees’ empowerment can be viewed from two perspectives: a macro perspective, also known as structural empowerment, and a micro perspective, also referred to as psychological empowerment. Past studies focused on the structural empowerment, or in other words, the various organizational and managerial empowering practices i.e. situational attributes. Only recently that Thomas and Velthouse (1990) promoted seeking

alternative perspectives that consider the psychological cognitions of employees about those practices (i.e. psychological empowerment).

2.1.1.Structural Empowerment

Structural empowerment is the “organizational and managerial practices aimed at empowering employees at lower organizational levels” (Dewettinck & Amejide, 2011, p.288). Thus, according to this managerial perspective, employee empowerment can be viewed as a relational construct that “describes how those with power in organizations share power, information, resources, and rewards with those lacking them” (Moldogaziev& Fernandez, 2013, p.491). Kanter (1993) theoretical framework of structural empowerment, for example, is organized with two main constructs: “Opportunity Structures, which are defined as opportunities for growth, learning, and movement within the organization; and Power Structures, which includes information, resources, and support” (as cited in Smith et al., 2012,p.680). Non-traditional managerial practices, behaviors and skills, as well as empowering organizational configurations and structures are, therefore, needed to achieve employees’ empowerment.

2.1.2.Psychological Empowerment

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define psychological empowerment as increased intrinsic task motivation ;and define four cognitive elements - referred to as ‘task assessments’- as the basis for employee’s psychological cognitions of empowerment. These are: meaningfulness (the value of a work goal/purpose in relation to the individual’s ideals and standards); competence (self-efficacy or an employee’s belief in his or her capability to perform task activities skillfully); choice(or locus of causality which “involves the issue of whether a person's behavior is perceived as self-determined”); and impact(“the degree to which the employee perceives his/her behavior as ‘making a difference’ in terms of accomplishing the purpose of the task” and affecting his/her environment) (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, pp.672-673). Thus, as Menon (2001, p.161) describes it, psychological empowerment can be perceived as “a cognitive state characterized by a sense of perceived control, competence and goal internalization”.

2.2.Prerequisites to Employees' Empowerment

Many factors have been discussed in the relevant literature as prerequisites to employee empowerment; whether the structural or the psychological empowerment. For example, in Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997, p.348) study, the authors argue that there are two major preconditions for employee empowerment: “(a) conditions concerning power and control, and (b) those concerning inclusion and trust”. They explain that in each of these two categories, both, organizational practices and employees' attitudes and behaviors should support the empowerment philosophy. For instance, regarding power and control, the willingness and ability of leaders and managers to share power and provide their staffs with more discretion is an organizational precondition. As explained by Offerman (2009, p.117), “concepts of empowerment and power sharing reflect a shift in focus from a leader-dominated view to a broader one of follower involvement in expanding power”. Equally important is the employees' desire for increased control, which is an individual precondition.

Bowen and Lawler (1992, 1995), on the other hand, emphasize the significance of four prerequisites to the empowerment of service employees, these are: knowledge, information, rewards, and power (as cited in Melhem, 2004, p.72). Thus, in comparison to the previous model, Bowen and Lawler add the ‘information’ and ‘knowledge’ aspects. ‘Trust’, conceptualized as “managerial trust in lower level employees” is added by Melhem (2004, p.76) to Bowen and Lawler (1995) model; with the justification that management's trust in their subordinates increases the probability that they will involve them in decision-making situations.

Other studies such as that conducted by Conger and Kanungo (1988) propose that four contextual factors could lead to the absence of self-efficacy in organizations, and thus, impede employees' psychological empowerment. These include: organizational factors such as impersonal bureaucratic climate, poor communications, and highly centralized organizational resources; an authoritarian supervisory style; inappropriate reward systems that lack the provision of competence based rewards and allocate arbitrary rewards; and improper job design in which work routines are highly established, role clarity is lacking, and training is insufficient and/or absent (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, pp.476-477).

2.3.Barriers towards Employees' Empowerment Conceptual Model

It is worth noting that most of the studies [e.g. Conger & Kanungo 1988; Bowen & Lawler 1992, 1995; Foster-Fishman & Keys 1997; Melhem 2004] discuss the prerequisites of, rather than the barriers towards, employees' empowerment. Although it could be argued that, generally, the absence of such preconditions is in itself a barrier, the conceptual model (illustrated in Figure 1.1) captures directly on the main hurdles of employees' empowerment. The framework constitutes the two facets of empowerment – structural and psychological- in belief that for employees' empowerment to be fully evident in an organization, both aspects should be considered.

This follows the argument of some of the psychological empowerment researchers [e.g. Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Wilkinson, 1998] who argue that “empowerment is achieved only when psychological states produce a perception of empowerment within the employee” (as cited in Matthews et al., 2003, p.297). In a similar vein, Rappaport (1981) and Zimmerman (1995) argue that the person-environment interaction is central to the empowerment process (as cited in Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997, p.347). Several other authors [e.g., Bandura, 1989; Lewin, 1936], further explain that employees' perceptions of empowerment mediate the relationship between the actual contextual factors of empowerment and key employee outcomes (Brossoit, 2000, p.5).

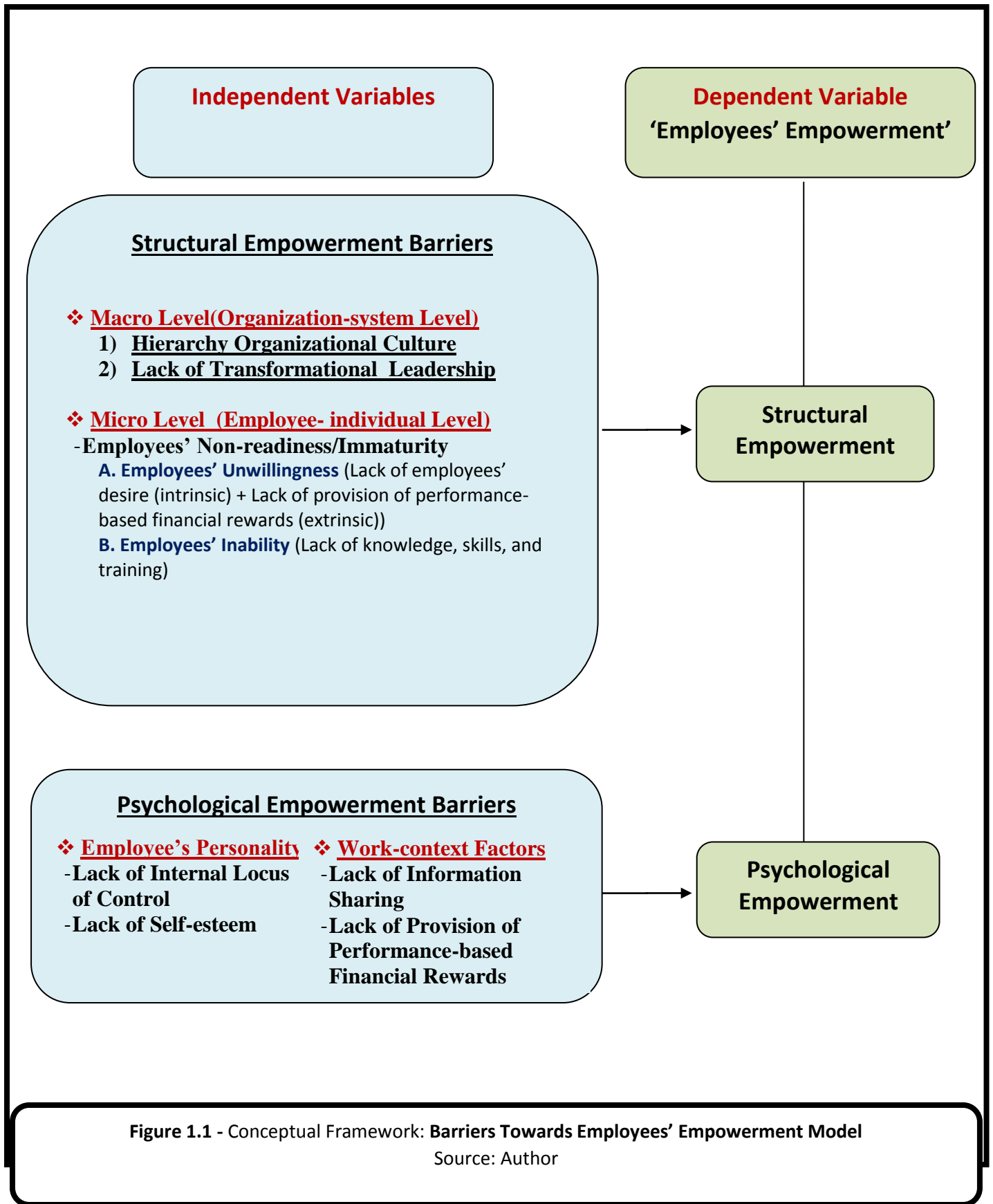
Similarly, Deci and Ryan (1985) maintain that the “contextual factors do not determine behavior in any straightforward sense; instead, the psychological meaning individuals give to contextual factors is an important determinant of behavior” (as cited in Brossoit, 2000, p.5). In other words, employees' perceptions about the degree to which they are empowered affect their service to service-recipients as much as the extent to which they are actually empowered.

With regards to structural empowerment, this study focuses on three main relevant aspects: organizational culture, organizational leadership, employees' readiness/maturity level. These three factors are organised into two main categories: Organizational-system Level variables (Macro Level) which includes the first two factors; and Employee-individual Level variables (Micro Level) which includes the third factor. Two major

reasons account for this categorisation. Firstly, this study proposes that the organizational leadership's (or management as will be later clarified) willingness and ability to empower employees, on one hand, and employees' willingness and ability to be empowered, on the other hand, are two sides of the same coin. In other words, both should be prevalent so that management initiatives and efforts to empower employees would succeed. Yet, without an organizational culture that is supportive of the empowerment philosophy of which values and beliefs are widely shared across the organization, any empowerment efforts would be futile. The relationship is, thus, perceived as a triangle with these three indispensable critical facets. Secondly, these three aspects are most cited in the empowerment literature as factors affecting the implementation of structural empowerment practices.

On the other hand, the psychological empowerment barriers are categorized in this study according to Spreitzer (1995, pp.1444-1448) Nomological Network of Psychological Empowerment in the Workplace. This choice is based on the fact that it is the most current and widely used conceptualization of psychological empowerment; and has gone through "the most comprehensive investigation, including measures of reliability and regression analysis as well as the examination of control variables" (Arneson & Ekberg, 2006,p.42).

Spreitzer (1995) model identifies four major variables that create an overall construct of psychological empowerment. Two of these variables are related to the employee's personality (i.e. self-esteem and locus of control); and the other two variables are work-context (information sharing and rewards). Spreitzer (1995,p.1444) argues that these four aspects "combine additively to create an overall construct of psychological empowerment; (yet), the lack of any single dimension will deflate, though not completely eliminate, the overall degree of felt empowerment)". These dimensions are based on Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model that defines four aspects of psychological empowerment; namely: sense of competence, sense of impact, sense of meaning, and sense of self-determination respectively.



Referring to Tuuli et al.(2015,p.5), as explained by Spreitzer and Quinn (2001) in their book *A Company of Leaders: Five Disciplines for Unleashing the Power in Your Workforce*, psychologically empowered individuals “see themselves as having freedom and discretion (self-determination), as having a personal connection to the organization (meaning), as confident about their abilities (competence), and as able to make a difference in the system in which they are embedded (impact)”. As each of the variables identified in Spreitzer (1995) model is linked to one of the aspects of psychological empowerment, the absence of those variables-individually or collectively- could obstruct employees’ psychological empowerment.

2.3.1.Structural Empowerment Barriers

Organization-system Level (Macro-Level) Barriers

2.3.1.1.Hierarchy Organizational Culture

Schein (2010, pp.14-16) defines an ‘organizational culture’ as the product of social learning; of which critical aspect is the ‘sharing’ of behavioral regularities, group norms, espoused values, philosophies, mental models, linguistic paradigms, rituals, and shared meanings. All such aspects, he argues, guide members’ believing, thinking, perceiving, and feeling, and direct their behavior. There are various efforts to operationalize an organizational culture. One of the most commonly used and validated frameworks is the *Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument (OCAI)* developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) where four types of organizational cultures emerge based on measuring different dimensions of an organization; namely: clan, market, adhocracy, and hierarchy (Johnson, 2009,p.10).

Although there is general agreement, among the relevant studies, that an organizational culture provides an environment that is either a facilitator or an obstructer to employees’ empowerment [e.g. Spreitzer 1995, Foster-Fishman & Keys 1997], there is no one established description of what constitutes an empowering/ non-empowering culture. Instead, studies generally discuss the general characteristics of empowering/ non-empowering cultures. For example, referring to Appelbaum et al. (2014,p.382), Bailey (2009) study reveals that an ‘operator’ organizational culture- in which the interactions

between employees are characterized by communication, trust and teamwork- is positively and strongly related with empowerment.

On the other hand, Baird and Wang (2010, pp.591-592) study of the relationship between the degree to which employee empowerment is adopted and three of O'Reilly et al. (1991) Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) measure's dimensions - namely innovation, teamwork, and outcome orientation- shows that the organizational cultural factors of teamwork and outcome orientation are more conducive to employees' empowerment. Teamwork-oriented cultures are likely to promote employees' empowerment as information sharing and communication, which are essential conditions for participative decision-making, are facilitated by the cohesiveness between team members. This view is shared by Randolph (1995, p.28) who propose teamwork as one of the key elements of empowerment stating that: "The team, with its synergy of effort, offers...a support mechanism for people who are becoming empowered". On the other hand, in outcome-oriented cultures, which emphasize results rather than the procedures and processes used to achieve the goals, it would be expected that employees are given more discretion and autonomy in the decision-making process.

Baird and Wang (2010) study, however, reveals that empowerment is negatively related to innovation. This study, yet, makes a point that an empowering culture should entail some degree of innovation following Naveh and Erez (2004,p.1577) argument suggesting that an "emphasis on innovation promotes a culture that encourages responsiveness to new opportunities, breaking existing paradigms, autonomy, risk taking, and tolerance for mistakes"; hence, employee empowerment is less likely to meet resistance in an innovative organization.

Adding to O'Reilly (1991) dimensions, this study proposes two additional aspects that would determine an empowering culture: participatory superior-subordinate relationship/democratic orientation, and decentralized decision-making. In this study, therefore, the organizational culture as empowering or non-empowering is operationalized according to five main dimensions: the nature of superior-subordinates relationship (non-democratic vs. participative); the decision-making style (centralized vs. decentralized) including two-way communication (presence/absence); degree of

teamwork orientation; degree of experimentation and flexibility; and degree of outcome orientation.

Consequently, based on the operationalization of the empowering/ non-empowering organizational culture provided in this study, it would be safe to argue that by referring to the OCAI framework, a hierarchy culture is a non-empowering culture. A hierarchy culture is characterized by a controlling, formalized, and structured environment. The focus is on the rules and policies rather than the objectives to be achieved, and “procedures govern what people do”. Moreover, stability and predictability is emphasized over innovation; and effective managers and leaders are perceived as those who are good coordinators rather than those encouraging teamwork (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, pp. 38-48).

2.3.1.2.Lack of Transformational Leadership

The distinction between leadership and management has been the subject of most of the management literature. Some of the differences commonly cited are that managers are more concerned with planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling and solving problems; while leaders focus their efforts on establishing direction, aligning people, and motivating and inspiring their subordinates. In other words, “management deals mostly with the status quo—the existing state of affairs, while leadership deals mostly with change—the future state of affairs” (Romero, 2010, p.3). In this study, however, the concepts of leadership and management would be treated synonymously when surveying employees; yet, the focus would be remained on investigating the empowering vs. non-empowering leadership style.

Unequivocally, the creation of an empowered workforce requires commitment on the part of the organizational leadership. Nevertheless, there are few studies that investigate the leadership style(s) that fosters/ impedes employees’ empowerment (Meyerson & Kline, 2008, p.448). Instead, as with the organizational culture, most of the relevant studies discuss the general characteristics of empowering leaders. Conger and Kanungo (1988,p.478), for example, identify five major leadership practices that, they argue, are supportive of empowerment; these include: “expressing confidence in subordinates accompanied by high performance expectations; fostering opportunities for subordinates

to participate in decision-making; providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints; setting inspirational or meaningful goals; and using power in a positive manner”. Referring to Sigler (1997,p.37), Liden and Tewksbury (1995) study reveal other set of features for empowering leaders such as those who are able to understand the needs and concerns of their employees, and recognize their potential.

Other researchers create constructs of empowering leaders’ behaviors. Arnold et al. (2000, pp.254-255), for example, establish the Leadership Empowerment Behavior (LEB) construct in which they identify five factors that reflect empowering leaders’ behaviors. These include: coaching (supporting employee development); informing (informing employees about company rules and decisions); leading by example (acting as an example for the team); showing concern/interacting with the team (being concerned about team members’ wellbeing); and, finally, participative decision-making (involving team members in decision making).

Reviewing the organizational leadership literature on the characteristics and practices of empowering leaders reveals that they parallel the general features of transformational leaders. Bass and Avolio (1995) argue that there are four main characteristics of transformational leadership (as cited in Bushra et al., 2011, p.262). These include: ‘charismatic role modeling’ which includes such behaviors as setting a personal example and exhibiting high moral and ethical standards (Kark et al., 2003 as cited in Yang, 2012, p.32); ‘individualized consideration’ which includes considering the needs, interests, desires and growth of each subordinate individually “by acting as a mentor” and a coach; ‘inspirational motivation’ which includes communicating the expected goals and inspiring and motivating employees “to strive to meet those expectations”; and ‘intellectual stimulation’ which includes encouraging employees to challenge the status quo, question the basic assumptions, and engage in creative problem solving (Bushra et al., 2011, p.262). Through intellectual stimulation, “leaders stimulate their followers to think ‘outside the box’ and be creative” (Edwards et al., 2012, p.371).

Studies such as that which is conducted by Aldoory and Toth (2004,p.162) discusses that transformational leadership includes the elements of participative decision making and sharing of power as it is similar to the ‘interactive’ leadership style. Likewise, referring to

Ozaralli (2003,p.336), Bennis and Nanus (1985) argue that through providing an exciting vision for the future, transformational leaders empower their subordinates to act as a result of the creation of the participative climate “in which organizational members assume the authority to take actions to enhance the vision”. They also explain that through inspirational motivation, they help build subordinates’ self-efficacy and confidence for goal attainment, and thus “establish norms for individual initiative, and achievement-oriented behaviors” (as cited in Ozaralli, 2003, p.336).

Based on the above discussions, it would be safe to argue that transformational leadership is the leadership style that is described as the empowering leadership style. More specifically, three characteristics of transformational leaders mostly match those aspects identified in the empowerment literature as central to the empowering leadership style: coaching as an element of individualized consideration; setting inspirational or meaningful goals as a critical feature of inspirational motivation; and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints through intellectual stimulation. Accordingly, lack of transformational leadership - as operationalized within the context of this study – would be a barrier towards employees’ structural empowerment.

Employee- individual Level (Micro-Level) Barriers

2.3.1.3. Employees’ Non-readiness/Immaturity

In their Situational Leadership Theory, Blanchard and Hersey (1993) define employee’s readiness/maturity as “the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a given function” (as cited in Seaborne, 2003, p.18). In the context of this study, it can be conceptualized as the ability and willingness of employees to be empowered. Both dimensions are crucial if management efforts to empower employees (i.e. structural empowerment) are to succeed. As explained by Holbeche (2005,p.133), one of the key challenges facing leaders is developing “a culture of empowerment, where individuals are able and willing to accept responsibility”.

A. Employees’ Unwillingness

Employees’ willingness is the motivation of employees to be empowered; and thus consists of two major facets: employees’ intrinsic motivation and employees’ extrinsic

motivation. Employees' intrinsic motivation refers to the employees' internal desire to be empowered; while the other facet indicates motivating employees to get empowered through, for example, the provision of financial rewards.

With regards to the first aspect 'desire', many studies reflect on this dimension as a crucial antecedent to employees' empowerment. Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997,p.349) state that the 'Desire for Increased Control' is an individual precondition for empowerment. Similarly, Sigler (1997,p.41) argues that proactive frontline employees who have a strong tendency and willingness to act upon their environments "would be expected to interpret a social structure" that provides for the empowering opportunity. Nykodym et al. (1994, p.48) also explain that among the critical conditions that affect the success of participative management are the values and attitudes of the organization's members: "some workers do not want to participate in decision making, and any attempt to force them to do so would fail". Hui et al. (2004, p.47) likewise argue that one of the two conditions necessary for the successful implementation of the empowerment approach is the willingness of employees to "accept and exercise discretionary power when serving customers". Lack of employees' desire to be empowered is thus a hurdling factor to employees' structural empowerment efforts.

Regarding the second aspect, rewards can, generally, be defined as "anything that reinforces, maintains and strengthens behavior in a firm" (Goodale et al., 1997 as cited in Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008, p.22); and could be extrinsic (such as financial rewards and job security) and intrinsic (such as skill variety and recognition). Most of the studies that have tackled the link between organizational rewards and employees' empowerment [e.g. Spreitzer 1995; Melhem 2004; Randolph & Kemery 2011], however, focus on extrinsic financial, rather than intrinsic, rewards. Thus, in the context of this study, the provision of rewards is identified as the provision of the extrinsic financial rewards.

Bowen and Lawler (1992) argue that financial performance-based rewards contribute to employees' empowerment, and that empowering employees in organizations should be done through developing an incentive pay system that rewards employees' performance rather than providing pay based on the job position (as cited in Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008, p.26). Likewise, Baird and Wang (2010,p.578) explain that adequate performance-

based rewards – linked to employees’ participatory efforts- should be provided if management wishes to implement empowerment within an organization “to encourage employees to assume the additional decision-making responsibilities associated with employee empowerment”. Spreitzer (1995, p.1448), similarly, argues that such type of rewards enhance employees’ empowerment through granting employees incentives for affecting the decision-making processes at work. It could thus be concluded that the lack of performance-based financial rewards (as operationalized above) could be a structural empowerment barrier.

Accordingly, employees’ unwillingness, either as a result of lack of desire for control (lack of intrinsic motivation), or because of not being provided with adequate performance-based financial rewards (lack of extrinsic motivation), or both, are possible structural empowerment barriers.

B. Employees’ Inability

In general, employee’s ability refers to their competence, aptitude and capability to perform a given task. In the context of this study, it can be conceptualized as having the necessary competence to be empowered. Reviewing the relevant literature reveals that the knowledge of the job/task to be empowered on, the skills that employees possess to be empowered, and the training essential for their successful empowerment compose employees’ ability to be empowered.

With regards to employees’ skills, many authors propose that it is an essential prerequisite for structural empowerment. Holbeche (2005, p.133), for example, argues that it is not only crucial that employees are willing to accept responsibility, but also to have the needed skills “to produce the results for which they are accountable”. Similarly, Lawler et al. (1992) emphasize the significance of skill development explaining that it is impossible for individuals to influence and participate in the decision-making in their organizations if they do not have the right skills (as cited in Melhem, 2004, p.77).

Commonly, various studies discuss that employees should have essential skills related to the job on which they are to be empowered; others are more specific in determining the type of skills needed. Rago (1996), Dufficy (1998), and Klagge (1998) propose that

employees equipped with the decision-making skills are more likely to gain the management's trust and confidence in their decision-making abilities and, are, thus, more likely to be empowered (as cited in Baird & Wang, 2010, p.578). Alternatively, Sharma and Kaur (2008, p.10) argue that teamwork skills "promote a creative empowered employee". In this study, therefore, 'skills' is defined as teamwork and decision-making skills, since they are commonly discussed in the empowerment literature as essential to facilitate employees' empowerment. It could thus be argued that the lack of such type of skills would hurdle employees' structural empowerment.

Secondly, knowledge is generally discussed in conjunction with skills; yet, for this study, it is believed that it is important to be considered as a separate concept as employees might have the skills to be empowered, yet are not knowledgeable enough on the job/task on which they are to be empowered; hence the relevant job-related knowledge. In light of this, Bitner et al. (1990), for example, stress that the successful empowerment of employees depends on their knowledge of "the service concept, the service delivery system and its operation, and the system standards"(as cited in Melhem, 2004, p.72). Likewise, Melhem (2004, p.77) argues that employees' knowledge of the job content and context facilitates their empowerment. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that employees lacking the essential job-related knowledge cannot be successfully empowered on their jobs.

Thirdly, studies generally discuss the significance of training to the success of employees' empowerment. Baird and Wang (2010, pp.578-588), for example, argue that "training can assist employees in adapting to new management initiatives such as employee empowerment"; wherein their study's empirical evidence prove that the level of training employees get is positively related to the extent of employee empowerment. Referring to Erstad (1997, p.327), Nicholls (1995) offers a three-stage training structure that would help managers achieve full empowerment of their employees. In the first step, employees' current capabilities are analyzed. Secondly, managers coach their employee to work beyond their current capacity. Thirdly, organization's vision and values are shared so that employees' commitment is gained.

Nevertheless, there is generally lack of studies that specify the type of training needed. This study uses Smith et al. (2004) research to operationalize the aspects of employees' training needed as prerequisites for their empowerment. Smith et al. (2004) highlights the significance of the provision of training on such aspects as problem solving, communication, interpersonal, and teamwork skills; as part of the implementation of new management practices [NMPs] by the enterprises. The authors argue that a key aspect in the deployment of the NMPs is the "primacy of non-technical, behavioral or generic skills (where) the success of the NMPs depends on the adaptability of the workforce rather than on technical competence for the job" (Smith et al., 2004, p.96). As employees' empowerment is considered a relatively innovative managerial practice, it is safe to argue that training on these aspects is a prerequisite to enable employees to be empowered.

Employees' ability to get successfully empowered is thus hindered, and accordingly becomes a structural empowerment barrier, when employees lack the necessary skills, or job-related knowledge, or essential training, or the three factors combined. Employees' non-readiness/immaturity, either because of their inability to be empowered, or unwillingness to be empowered, or both, are thus possible barriers towards their empowerment.

2.3.2. Psychological Empowerment Barriers

Employee's Personality

2.3.2.1. Lack of Internal Locus of control

Rotter (1990, p.489) defines locus of control as the extent to which individuals expect that an outcome of their behavior is contingent upon their own personal characteristics and/or choices [internal locus of control] versus the extent to which "persons expect that the reinforcement or outcome is a function of chance, luck, or fate, is under the control of powerful others, or is simply unpredictable [external locus of control]".

Spreitzer (1995, p.1447) explains that employees with internal locus of control perceive themselves as capable of controlling and shaping their work contexts and, are, thus, likely to feel empowered. The author, accordingly, hypothesized that internal locus of control is

positively related to psychological empowerment. Nevertheless, the researcher study has not confirmed this hypothesis. Spreitzer (1995, p.1458) explains that although “the theoretical links between locus of control and empowerment are quite strong, the lack of support for this hypothesis may be a result of measurement limitations”.

On the other hand, the findings of more recent studies confirm the positive relationship between internal locus of control and psychological cognitions of empowerment. For example, Luo and Tang (2003) study reveals that “individuals with an internal locus of control more often felt empowered than those with an external locus of control” (as cited in Wang et al. 2013,p.1429). Similarly, the findings of an empirical study conducted by Jha and Nair (2008) on frontline employees in five star hotels show that internal locus of control influences employees’ psychological empowerment. The authors argue that “internally controlled people respond favorably to empowerment practices” (Jha &Nair, 2008,p.158).

In general, as the ‘locus of control’ aspect parallels Thomas and Velthouse (1990) ‘impact’ dimension of psychological empowerment, it can be generally inferred that individuals who do not feel that they are capable of controlling, and having an impact on, their environments are less likely to feel psychologically empowered.

2.3.2.2.Lack of Self-esteem

Self-esteem, as defined by Brockner (1988), is “a general feeling of self-worth” (as cited in Wang et al., 2013, p.1429). Referring to Spreitzer (1995, p.1446), Bandura (1977) posits that high self-esteem reflects on the individuals’ feelings of sense of competence. This, accordingly, as Gist and Mitchell (1992,p.183) explain, leads individuals to assume an active orientation with regard to their work, learning and achievement, and career management and development; hence, perceive themselves as influential and have more psychological cognitions of being empowered.

Some empirical studies support this theoretical assumption. For example, Wang et al. (2013, p.1432) study on a sample of Chinese teachers reveals that high self-esteem is positively associated with, and significantly related to, both, psychological empowerment feelings and behaviors. Likewise, Hunter et al. (2013,p.99) study- of which aim was to

test the relations among self-esteem and empowerment of women in substance use recovery- support a positive relationship between participants' self-esteem and some identified factors of psychological empowerment within the study. Generally, therefore, it could be concluded that lack of self-esteem would obstruct an employee's cognition of empowerment.

Employees' personality can, therefore, be a major hurdle in employees' psychological cognitions of being empowered. If employees feel dominated by the external system rather than being influential, and/or lack self-esteem, they are less likely to be psychologically empowered. For that reason, lack of internal locus of control, and/or of self-esteem, are possible psychological empowerment barriers.

Work-context Factors

2.3.2.3.Lack of Information Sharing

Information is distinguished from knowledge in the literature in the sense that information is shared knowledge. The significance of information sharing by top management with their employees as a prerequisite for employees' psychological empowerment is highlighted in the empowerment literature by various studies. Randolph(1995,p.21) argues that "information sharing is a critical and often the least understood component of empowerment". Kanter (1989) explains that information should be more available to more people at more levels through more devices in order to create an empowering workforce (as cited in Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008, p.22).

Nonaka (1988) further explains that "the diffusion of information between the various levels of each organization enforce the feeling of employees' autonomy" (as cited in Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008, p.22). Bowen and Lawler (1992), moreover, argue that empowerment programs fail when they focus on sharing power without other crucial organizational ingredients such as information about the organization's performance and knowledge that enables employees to understand and contribute to organizational performance (as cited in Moldogaziev& Fernandez, 2013, p.491). In addition, Matthews et al. (2003, p.301) study suggests that Fluidity in Information Sharing (FIS) is conceptually related to, and affects, an employee's perception of empowerment.

In general, however, studies do not specify the type of information to be shared; with exception to few authors. Lawler (1992), for example, proposes that both information about the company's mission and feedback about the employee's performance should be shared; explaining that employees "will not feel capable of taking initiative" unless they are aware of the goals and the direction to which the organization is heading (as cited in Spreitzer, 1995, p.1447). That is because such information would help employees to understand how their decisions are aligned with the organization's goals and so, enhances their ability to make and influence decisions; thus feeling more psychologically empowered. Furthermore, employee's performance-related information is critical as it reinforces a sense of meaning within employees which is a critical dimension of psychological empowerment. Lack of information sharing, as defined above, is thus a possible barrier towards employees' psychological empowerment.

2.3.2.4.Lack of Provision of Performance-based Financial Rewards

The provision of performance-based financial rewards as a critical component of the management efforts to empower employees has been discussed in the previous pages. Nevertheless, in this section, the significance of providing performance-based financial rewards is discussed from the psychological, rather than the structural, empowerment perspective.

The results of an empirical study conducted by Gkorezis and Petridou (2012, p.3605), that investigates public and private sector employees' psychological empowerment, reveal that financial incentives have a greater influence on private sector employees' psychological empowerment compared to public sector employees' psychological empowerment.

Nevertheless, the significance of performance-based pay in influencing employees' psychological cognitions of empowerment cannot be disregarded. As suggested by Conger and Kanungo (1988, p.477), the lack of financial rewards could lead to decreased feelings of self-efficacy which in turn leads to employees' decreased psychological cognitions of empowerment. Similarly, Spreitzer (1995, p.1448) argues that the provision of such rewards leads to recognizing employees' personal competencies which accordingly mean higher psychological empowerment.

This is supported by Randolph and Kemery (2011,pp.102-103) study; showing that managerial reward power influences employees' perceptions of psychological empowerment. This study explains this relationship from an angle different to Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Spreitzer (1995); arguing that employees' perceptions of their managers' use of reward power "would create a climate wherein employees would be willing to take the risks associated with acting empowered"; a conclusion provided in consistency with the ideas of LMX (Leader-Member Exchange) theory. It can, thus, be safely argued that the lack of the provision of performance-based financial rewards would hurdle employees' psychological empowerment.

Lack of information sharing and/or lack of the provision of performance-based financial rewards are, therefore, two work-context factors that would impede employees' psychological empowerment.

2.4. Conclusions

The purpose of this literature review was to pull together the various theoretical concepts, relationships, and frameworks in order to build the conceptual model needed to guide the process of empirical investigation for this study. In other words, this review helped in filling in the gap of having a concrete framework that directly identifies the possible structural and psychological barriers to employees' empowerment. The next chapter discusses these identified structural and psychological empowerment variables within the context of governmental service organizations in Egypt to construct the study's hypotheses.

Chapter 3: The Egyptian Government Local Administration

This chapter discusses the study's hypotheses regarding the presence/ absence of the barriers to employees' structural and psychological empowerment in Egypt's local administration system; represented by its governmental service organizations. Rondinelli (1981) defines 'local administration' as a form of deconcentration:

in which all subordinate levels of government within a country are agents of central authority usually the executive branch. Regions, provinces, districts, municipalities and other units of government are headed by leaders who are either appointed by or are responsible directly to a central government agency (...). Local functions are performed under the technical supervision and control of central ministries... (as cited in Fahmy, 2002, p.177).

3.1. The Egyptian Government Local Administration's Culture

In a 2010 USAID report on decentralization initiatives in Egypt, Boex and Smoke (2010,p.4) explained that steps taken towards decentralization in Egypt during that period followed two tracks. The first is the 'deconcentration' track which involves empowering Local Executive Councils (LECs) to improve public service delivery through "strengthening sub-national administration and intergovernmental systems"; and the second is the 'devolution' track which entails promoting popular participation through greater involvement of Local Popular Councils (LPCs). This was intended to achieve the declared aim of the governing party at that time (The National Democratic Party) – and the subsequent policy dialogues- of moving towards a new phase of decentralization to achieve improved service delivery and enhanced governance.

Nevertheless, it is hard to argue against the fact that, generally, as explained by Mayfield(2012,p.208), the focus of any deconcentration efforts has merely been on staff's reassignment from the central government to local administrative units; with the authority of decision-making remaining within central ministries and agencies. The relationship between central government and local administrative units in Egypt is, thus, best described as following the 'principal-agent' model; "whereby different local administrative units are considered agents of the central government (or) the principal....

(with) no real decision-making power, as investment plans and policies are decided at the central level by the respective ministries” (ESCWA, 2013, p.30).

Two aspects, however, require further investigation since this study is concerned with the nature of decision-making and leadership style *within* the borders of governmental services organizations. In other words, although the relationship between central agencies and ministries, on one hand, and local administration organizations, on the other hand, is generally known to be characterized by lack of empowerment and centralized decision-making, it is within the context of this research that is important to investigate these features *within* governmental service organizations to examine the relevant aspects to non-managerial employees’ empowerment.

The first aspect that is worth consideration is the degree to which managerial employees possess decision-making authorities within the context of their organizations; and, the second- which is one of the major points investigated in this study- is the degree to which these managers adopt a participatory approach to taking decisions. With regards to the latter relationship, Mayfield (1996, p.83) states that local administrative systems are often conceptualized as hierarchies in which “the fundamental attribute of effectiveness tends to be conformity and adherence to the administrative rules and regulations”. The author also states that one of the features, or what he calls ‘traditions’, that affect organizational behavior in the system is “a tradition that proper procedure and conformity to rules, rather than goal-achievement or risk taking, is the key to effectiveness and promotion”; clarifying that an appropriate role for an effective administrator is defined in terms of “conformity, predictability, and adherence to the rules of the system” (Mayfield, 1996, pp.135-137).

Similarly, Palmer et al. (1989,pp.32-36) argue that the Egyptian bureaucracy lacks being flexible in the sense that it is characterised by red tape and restrained flow of communications within the bureaucratic units; and explain that the major components of the Egyptian bureaucratic culture is the rigid application of rules and procedures. Palmer et al.(1989,p.34) study further states that “supervisors adopt a superior attitude towards their subordinates, and subordinates respond with obsequiousness and flattery”.

El Khatib (1970, p.76) explains that the nature of family ties within the Egyptian culture largely impacts many aspects within the Egyptian bureaucracy; among which is the relationship between public officials and their subordinates. The author argues that the public service reflected family life in which the boss (the father) holds authoritarian power, and his subordinates (children), in fear, accept this authority in an obedient and compliant way. Furthermore, with regards to communication, out of fear, subordinates “tend to keep back bad news from reaching the boss, thus distorting communication in the bureaucracy”.

On another note, Palmer et al.(1989,p.34) arguments shed the light on the degree to which the Egyptian bureaucracy’s culture embraces experimentation, flexibility, and employees’ continuous learning; claiming that “few Egyptians would argue with the premise that their bureaucracy is sluggish, rigid, noninnovative,....”. Likewise, Mayfield (1996,p.140) explains that because work assigned to a subordinate is highly structured and with narrowly laid-out procedures, there is no opportunity for original or creative thinking on the part of employees.

Based on the above discussion, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1: Egyptian governmental service organizations’ cultures are Hierarchies.

Null Hypothesis 1: Egyptian governmental service organizations’ cultures are not Hierarchies.

3.2. The Egyptian Government Local Administration’s Leadership

Generally, Branine (2011) argues that managers in Arab countries, usually use bureaucratic procedures to impose their authoritarian management styles; where their main focus is on making sure that paper work is in good order. In pursuit of this, they, generally, give less importance to interpersonal communication or the urgent needs of their subordinates.

More specifically, within the Egyptian Bureaucracy, Palmer et al. (1989, p.32) state that supervisors are unwilling to delegate authority to their subordinates. The authors argue that “Egyptian officials are often criticized for attempting to concentrate as much

authority as possible in their own hands” (Palmer et al., 1989, p.75); explaining that any delegated authority is often of limited duration and quantity, and that the knowledge and direct consent of the supervisor is a prerequisite for any decision to be passed. This gives Egyptian employees very limited scope for independent action causing dictatorial behavior to be reinforced within the bureaucracy. Furthermore, they suggest that one of the factors hindering innovation in the bureaucratic apparatus in Egypt is that supervisors are not willing to pass up and implement the new ideas suggested by their subordinates. Moreover, it can be understood from Palmer et al. (1989) study that managers are unlikely to show concern for the needs of their subordinates given the poor communication. Based on this information, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: There is lack of Transformational Leadership in Egypt’s governmental service organizations.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no lack of Transformational Leadership in Egypt’s governmental service organizations.

3.3. The Egyptian Government Local Administration’s Civil Servants

3.3.1. Employees’ Willingness

In the 1950s, Berger gave a remark about the Egyptian civil servant stating that:

“the Egyptian civil servant is a rather timid official fearful of his superiors and unwilling to use even such personal initiative as is permitted (even if not encouraged)...Little initiative [is] exercised on any level of the hierarchy. Responsibility is shifted whenever possible. An official needs to follow his superior slavishly, with virtually no range of personal choice even within a broad compass of agreement” (as cited in Farid, 1982, p.229).

More recently, Palmer et al. (1989, p.32) study emphasizes this; revealing that subordinates in the Egyptian bureaucracy are generally unwilling to accept responsibility. Palmer et al. (1989, p.77) suggest that the dictatorial behavior of the managers “perpetuates the passiveness of junior officials” which is already embedded in the culture. Another explanation provided is that they are reluctant to take risks, and are more likely to adhere to routine so as to avoid responsibility “that might leave them vulnerable

to the wrath of a tyrannical supervisor” (Palmer et al., 1989, p.77); highlighting that Egyptian officials are willing to assume responsibility as long as it does not include conflict, risk-taking, or flexibility. Based on this information, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, lack the desire for control.

Null Hypothesis 3a: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, do not lack the desire for control.

On the other hand, the provision of financial performance-based rewards is very unlikely to take place within governmental organizations in Egypt. Farid (1982,p.234) notes that the financial resources available to the Egyptian bureaucracy is generally limited; clarifying that the problem is even more exacerbated when the available budgetary funds are directed to purposes other than those serving the bureaucracy. This is supported by Palmer et al. (1989, p.23) who argue that the government’s budget is very limited, which results in initiating expensive incentive programs. Mayfield (1996, P.138), specifically, explains that “ineffective incentive systems make (.....) eagerness to take responsibility extremely unlikely”. Therefore, the following hypothesis is constructed:

Hypothesis 3b: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, lack access to financial performance-based rewards.

Null Hypothesis 3b: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, do not lack access to financial performance-based rewards.

Based on the previous two hypotheses, hypothesis 3 is proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 3: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, are not willing to be empowered.

Null Hypothesis 3: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, are willing to be empowered.

3.3.2. Employees' Ability

The empirical evidence of Palmer et al.'s (1989, p.80) study shows that the technical inability of subordinates to execute the delegated tasks is topping the reasons contributing to the lack of willingness of supervisors to delegate authority. Senior officials, in the survey, explained that "the fit between skill and responsibility is poor" (Palmer et al., 1989, p.86).

In a parallel line of thought, Mayfield (1996,p.138) explains that the fact that the Egyptian government "has been committed to placing all college graduates in some type of government position regardless of background, interest, or need" was cited by administrators among the most commonly mentioned issues that hinder local administration effectiveness in Egypt in a study conducted in 1989.

Similarly, El Khatib (1970,p.76) argues that in the 1960s, the government was regarded as a recruitment agency for all graduates; wherein "the educated youth had no outlets in which to engage their talents except the government as industrial enterprises were few". The author, further, clarifies that the formal type of education at that time created graduates who were not considered as efficient public servants as they "lacked the initiative and originality on one hand, and ... were unable on the other to relate what they memorized in education to the problems of their society" (El Khatib, 1970, p.76).

In the same line of thought, Farid (1982, pp.241-243) explains that this problem dates back to the 1961 emergency decree that forced the ministries to employ university graduates in the government to "get them off the labor market". This resulted in 'position stagnation' where public employees remained in their present grades for a longer period than they should because there were no vacant positions in the higher grades to which they could be promoted. Accordingly, the government created posts in the higher grades to assign those employees to regardless of whether their qualifications serve the demand of the job or not.

On another note, El Khatib (1970,p.76) argues that the nature of family relationships in the Egyptian culture, on a broad scale, impact the way public officials cooperate with each other; explaining that "as children display a rivalry attitude towards age-mates in the

family, officials became highly competitive with their colleagues”. The author states that public officials, generally, “have difficulty in working together as a team”; in which there is an egocentric emphasis is on one’s own personal good rather than on the organization good(El Khatib (1970,p.77). Possession of the needed teamwork skills by employees within the governmental service organizations is, thus, very unlikely.

Based on the above discussion, the following two hypotheses are made:

Hypothesis 4a: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, lack the necessary job-related knowledge to be empowered.

Null Hypothesis 4a: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, do not lack the necessary job-related knowledge to be empowered.

Hypothesis 4b: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, lack the necessary decision-making and teamwork skills to be empowered.

Null Hypothesis 4b: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, do not lack the necessary decision-making and teamwork skills to be empowered.

With regards to the provision of training, Ayubi (1980, p.314) explains that training for civil servants has always been regarded as a device of administrative reform; yet, with the focus “being more on the ‘technical’ than on the behavioral and socio-political side”. Ayubi (1980,p.319) further explains that these training activities rarely relate concretely to productivity, efficiency, or improved service; with little focus on evaluating or following up their impacts.

In fact, senior officials in Palmer et al. (1989, p.78) study report that subordinates lack the needed experience and training to assume wide range of responsibilities. On the other hand, most of the employees participating in the survey report that training should stress on technical aspects rather than issues such as the delegation of authority. This shows the lack of employees’ understanding of the significance of such training programs and their

lack of willingness to gain the essential skills that such programs offer. Accordingly, for this study, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4c: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack the needed teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal training to be empowered.

Null Hypothesis 4c: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, do not lack the needed teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal training to be empowered.

Based on the three previous statements hypothesizing that non-managerial employees lack the job-related knowledge, essential skills, and needed training to be empowered, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, are unable to be empowered.

Null Hypothesis 4: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, are able to be empowered.

3.3.3. Employees' Personality

Palmer et al. (1989, p.77) states that employees' passiveness is deeply embedded in the Egyptian bureaucratic culture; and that employees tend to be intimidated by their managers' tyrannical and dictatorial behavior and thus, tend to avoid responsibility. Furthermore, they state that employees usually respond with sycophancy to the superior attitude that their supervisors show towards them. This might imply employees' lack of self-efficacy. In addition, it is likely that they will be perceiving themselves as controlled by organizational forces, or more precisely, being dominated by their managers rather than feeling capable of shaping their work and work environments. Based on these implications, the following two hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack an internal locus of control.

Null Hypothesis 5: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, do not lack an internal locus of control.

Hypothesis 6: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack self-esteem.

Null Hypothesis 6: Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, do not lack self-esteem.

3.4. Information Sharing within the Egyptian Government Local Administration

There is generally lack of effective communication between managers and their subordinates. As clarified by Palmer et al. (1989,pp.86-87), lack of bureaucratic flexibility within Egypt's apparatus is caused by the inhibited flow of communications; in which supervisors rarely discuss official matters with their subordinates (Palmer et al. , 1989, p.87).

Based on the previous discussion on Egyptian governmental organizations' cultures, as well as the above information, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 7: Managers, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, do not share information with non-managerial employees about the organization and/or do not provide feedback on their performance.

Null Hypothesis 7: Managers, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, share information with non-managerial employees about the organization and/or provide feedback on their performance.

It is, therefore, hypothesized that all the Structural and Psychological Empowerment barriers in the proposed conceptual framework do exist within Egypt's governmental service organizations.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1. Research Question and Sub-questions

Given the lack of investigation of the specific barriers towards employees' empowerment in Egyptian governmental institutions, this exploratory cross-sectional study aims to investigate into this area. This study will, thus, add to the existing empowerment and public administration literature by identifying those possible obstacles within governmental service organizations in Egypt more specifically. Through a pre-structured conceptual model - discussed in the previous chapter - the study aims to answer the main research question of: 'What Are the Possible Barriers that Might Impede Non-managerial Employees' Structural and Psychological Empowerment in Governmental Service Organizations in Egypt?' This is tackled through the following research's sub-questions:

1. Is the organizational culture of governmental service organizations in Egypt characterized as a Hierarchy Culture?
2. Is there lack of existence of Transformational Leadership in governmental service organizations in Egypt?
3. Are non-managerial employees in governmental service organizations in Egypt not ready to be empowered?
 - 3.a. Are non-managerial employees unwilling to be empowered?
 - i) Do non-managerial employees lack the desire for control?
 - ii) Do non-managerial employees lack access to financial performance-based rewards?
 - 3.b. Are non-managerial employees unable to be empowered?
 - i) Do non-managerial employees lack the necessary job-related knowledge to be empowered?
 - ii) Do non-managerial employees lack the necessary decision-making, teamwork, and job-related skills to be empowered?
 - iii) Do non-managerial employees lack the needed teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal training to be empowered?
4. Do non-managerial employees lack an internal locus of control?
5. Do non-managerial employees lack self-esteem?

6. Do managers tend not to share information with non-managerial employees about the organization and/or are unlikely to provide feedback on their performance?

4.2. Sampling Strategy and Sample Design

The target population, within the focus of this empirical study, is governmental non-managerial employees working in the various governmental service organizations and offices spread in the various cities and areas across Egypt's governorates. Non-managerial employees are conceptualized in this study as street-level bureaucrats who deal on a one-to-one direct, and regular, basis with service-recipients/citizens and provide them with governmental services.

Ideally, to obtain a representative sample, a multi-stage clustered sampling strategy should have been used for generating the sampling frame from which the sampling units are obtained (Kothari, 2004,p.65-66). Given the fact that "the availability of complete lists of (the) elements or (the) units" does not exist at the national level, simple random, systematic, and stratified sampling techniques are less appropriate to be used (Bless et al., 2006,p.104). That is especially true given that the target population is large, which makes directly identifying and selecting each element in the population impossible (Sachdeva, 2009, p.145).

Multi-stage clustered sampling could have been done through number of steps. Firstly, background information about the organizations' size, number of offices, divisions, and departments, number of years of establishment, and nature of services provided should have obtained. Secondly, Stratified Random Sampling could be used to stratify the population through developing various clusters and grouping organizations into various homogeneous non-overlapping stratum based on their similar characteristics. Examples of different clusters could be: a medium-sized newly established organization; a large-sized newly established organization; a medium-sized old established organization, etc. The main aim for this step is that it would have allowed controlling for as much variables as possible across the sample - when choosing the various sampling units from these clusters- and thus, could have prevented the distortion of results. Thirdly, using SRS (Simple Random Sampling), the researcher could have chosen a sample of organizations from each of the various clusters in which non-managerial employees are targeted for the

questionnaires. This random/probability sampling strategy would have allowed for the sample to be representative of the target population.

Several challenges, however, faced the researcher and hindered using the multi-stage clustered sampling technique. First, limited access to information and the lack of available databases about the various governmental service bodies (population lists) in Egypt acted as an obstacle to collect the needed amount of data for forming these clusters. Second, there are constraints faced by the researcher regarding access to governmental offices outside Cairo. Third, even if the researcher had used the multi-staged clustered sampling, access to governmental institutions in Egypt, in general, for conducting the study was not possible. Time constraints hurdled the process of obtaining approval from CAPMAS [Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics] which could have had facilitated the fieldwork and the process of obtaining data. In fact, there is a general culture of fear among governmental employees, as previously noted, of participating in research-related studies; especially that the timing of conducting the study parallels the announcement that a new civil service law, which is opposed by many employees, is to be implemented.

For these reasons, the local administration offices where the fieldwork was actually carried out are all located in Greater Cairo where the researcher lives. More specifically, the empirical study has been conducted in Real Estate offices, Social Insurance and Pension offices, Traffic Services offices, Civil Registry offices, Health offices (Ministry of Health), Tax offices, and Courts' Registry and Record offices. Sampling was based on a non-random/ non-probability sampling strategy. More specifically, accidental sampling, which is based "upon convenience in accessing the sample population"(Kumar, 2005,p.178), is used. Thus, for the questionnaires distributed to non-managerial employees, the choice of respondents depended on who "happen to be available" (Mackey & Gass, 2005,p.122) in these offices; where they are targeted and asked to participate in the study.

4.3. Research Methodology, Methods, and Tools

This study uses questionnaires as the primary method for obtaining quantitative data for verifying the hypotheses. Self-administered questionnaires are distributed to non-

managerial employees in the sample across the different organizations. Four major reasons account for this choice. First, the use of this surveying tool is suitable given the nature of the study; hence 'pre-structured' in terms of being based on a conceptual model from which hypotheses are derived and intended to be validated. As Jonker and Pennink(2010,p.38)clarify, the quantitative research approach is "guided by a closed question (and) is related to the approach in which knowing is developed through the eyes of the researcher and is based on conceptualizing in advance leading hypothesis and testing".

Second, obtaining quantitative, rather than qualitative, data is more relevant to the objectives of this study. In other words, quantification within the context of this study is critical to testing the hypotheses, and determining the extent to which the study's hypotheses are valid. That is because questionnaires are used for obtaining large amount of numerical data to prove or disprove the hypotheses- compared to interviews for example- which would, accordingly, allow for better generalization of the results. Third, questionnaires allow researchers to gather information that respondents are able to report about themselves, and help to elicit comparable information from a number of respondents in a short period of time (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp.92-94). Thus, questionnaires allow probing about different aspects in a way that mostly fit in with approaching the variables of the research.

The fourth reason is related to two aspects: "the nature of the investigation and the socioeconomic-demographic characteristics of the study population" (Kumar, 2005,p.126); which are central in the choice of the surveying tool. As government employees in Egypt, generally, whether managerial or non-managerial, are reluctant and not used to disclosing information about themselves, their institution, and/or how they feel at the workplace, questionnaires is a better choice because it allows for self-administration and, thus, ensure anonymity of responses which is critical within the context of this study. In addition, because the sample population is scattered over a wide geographical area (all over Cairo), the use of questionnaires is more practical.

4.3.1. Questionnaire Design

The questionnaires' questions can be divided into two types (refer to Appendix). There are four general factual questions formulated with the purpose of obtaining general information about the respondents. Two of these questions are intended to gain demographic information about the respondents: a classificatory 'gender' question, which helps in determining the percentages of responses of each gender to the questionnaires; and a question asking about employees' tenure – in the specific organization where they are currently working and where the questionnaire is distributed-on an ordinal scale.

The other two questions include an open-ended question, that asks employees to state their job position and specify the place they are working in, which helps to identify the response rates in each of the government bodies/departments/offices in the sample population; and another classificatory question that asks the respondents to state (with a 'yes' or 'no') whether they are aware of the term 'empowerment', which helps the researcher gain a general idea about the extent to which non-managerial employees in the sample are aware of this management concept.

Twenty-four (24) questions are formulated to capture on the various variables of the research. The questions are close-ended with responses placed on Likert attitudinal scale; on a five-point categorical scale ranging from 1-5 of 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'neutral', 'agree', and 'strongly agree', respectively. This method of constructing the questionnaire is the most appropriate for eliciting data about the various variables of the research, analysis, communication and readership. Firstly, close-ended questions are the most suitable kind of questions as the survey is conducted during the working hours and it, therefore, helps save time for the respondents and increases the probability of having a high response rate.

Secondly, this technique helps the researcher to elicit the needed information from respondents in a way that helps in testing the hypotheses, and communicating the findings and readership. Although responses reflect participants' perceptions and attitudes with regards to each of the aspects measured- through asking them to determine the degree to which they agree with each of the statements - rather than factual information, close-ended questions are more suitable; as it helps to standardize the way

responses are written across the sample and “lead to answers that can be easily quantified and analyzed” (Mackey & Gass, 2005,p.93). The ready-made categories, in fact, help to ensure that the information needed for this study is obtained; especially that they allow for statistical analysis (Kothari, 2004,p.103).

Thirdly, the use of Likert attitudinal scales enables the researcher to identify respondents’ attitudes towards the different variables of the research, as well as on the different aspects incorporated in each of the variables; thus allowing for more accuracy of responses. This is further explained by Kumar (2005, p.145) as follows:

Attitudinal scales measure the intensity of respondents’ attitudes towards the various aspects of a situation or issue and provide techniques to combine the attitudes towards different aspects into one overall indicator. This reduces the risk of an expression of opinion by respondents being influenced by their opinion on only one or two aspects of that situation or issue.

Moreover, it helps to dismantle the analysis of the different facets in each of the variables identified in the conceptual framework as possible barriers, and, thus, allowing for more in-depth analysis and discussion; as well as ensuring better questionnaire’s content validity as will be explained later. To facilitate this, questions are formulated in a way to capture on the various aspects of the various variables of the research. This has been guided by the way each of the variables is operationalized:

- In identifying the type of ‘organizational culture’ common across all government offices in the sample, questions (1), (2), and (5) tackle the ‘centralization, non-democratic orientation, and communication’ aspects, question (8) tackles the ‘outcome orientation’ aspect, question (10) is concerned with identifying the degree of ‘employees’ openness to continuous learning’ within the culture (reflecting the ‘experimentation and flexibility’ aspects) , and questions (11) and (12) measure the degree of teamwork orientation.
- To determine the degree to which ‘leadership’ across all the government offices in the sample is transformational, three questions that capture on the features of transformational leaders are devised: question (3) for ‘inspirational motivation’;

question (6) for ‘intellectual simulation’; and question (7) for individualized consideration.

- Non-managerial employees’ ‘readiness’ to be empowered is measured through questions that capture on, both, their willingness and ability to be empowered.
 - Questions (13-17) measure such aspects as employees’ acquisition of job-related knowledge, decision-making skills, teamwork skills, and receiving of training (teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal training); that comprise different dimensions of employees’ ability to be empowered. In addition, question (18) asks employees directly to determine the extent to which they believe they are able to take initiatives and make decisions without referring back to their manager(s).
 - The degree to which employees are willing to be empowered is determined whether directly through question (19) which asks employees to determine the degree to which they desire to take initiatives, and to make decisions without referring back to their managers either; or indirectly as in question (9) which measures the degree to which they have access to financial performance-based rewards and are rewarded when showing initiatives (an important aspect of intrinsic motivation).
- Employees’ ‘personality’ is determined through questions (20) and (21) which measures, collectively, the degree to which they have internal versus external locus of control; and questions (22), (23), and (24) to find out, collectively, whether they have positive or negative self-esteem.
- The ‘work-context factors’ are determined through question (4) which measures the degree to which managers share information with the non-managerial employees regarding the organization’s performance as well as the extent to which they provide them with feedback about their performance. Question (9), that measures the extent to which employees’ salary is based on his/her job position rather than his/her actual performance, is also used to determine a work-related dimension that relates to employees’ psychological empowerment.

The researcher formulated the exact wording of all the questions except for questions probing about employees' locus of control (20 and 21) and self-esteem (22, 23 & 24); which are obtained from Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control Personality Test and Rosenberg's (1965) Self-esteem Scale respectively. According to Demo (1985), Rosenberg's (1965) scale is the most widely used measure of global self-esteem and performs best in factor analysis. Crandall (1973) also finds it to be among the superior self-esteem measures (as cited in Heatherton & Wyland, 2003, p.225). Furthermore, it is chosen as it measures global self-esteem; where others which are multidimensional measuring various facets of the self-concept (Heatherton & Wyland, 2003, p.225). Thus, it fits in within the context of this empirical study compared to others. On another note, some of the questions measuring 'culture' and 'leadership' are inspired from Cameron and Quinn (1999) Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

It is also important to note that probing about the various variables is done in a way that matches the nature of the governmental apparatus. For example, in measuring the degree to which the culture encourages experimentation and flexibility, the aspect of 'continuous learning', rather than 'innovation', is emphasized; as innovation is unlikely to take place in governmental institutions compared to private sector organizations for instance.

With respect to the way questions are organized, statements that are similar or that ask about related aspects are grouped together to make the transition between questions smoother and, accordingly, would make the questionnaire easier to be completed by the respondents. Additionally, with the exception to questions that measure employees' readiness and ability to be empowered and ask about employees' personality, questions (1-12) are generally formulated in a way that is not too personal so that employees would not feel intimidated and, instead, answer honestly and transparently the questions related to their workplace's culture and management style.

4.3.2. Questionnaire's Validity and Reliability

For the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher depended on, both, face and content validity (Jha, 2008, pp.109-110). The researcher ensured that each statement reflects on specific variable to be measured; in order to ensure that the link between each question and the objectives of the study is established. This, as has been previously discussed, is

ensured through formulating the questions based on the operationalization of the variables and their different aspects. These operational definitions, as advised by Bless et al. (2006, p.157) are substantiated on the basis of theories and empirical studies identified through reviewing the relevant literature - as shown in the previous chapter. This guides the process of measuring respondents' attitudes against each of the variables and, equally important, against the sub-variables.

Furthermore, some statements are reworded to ask about the same variable but in different ways to guarantee better internal validity and, at the same time, ensure that respondents do not answer arbitrarily as they are guided to think about different aspects from different perspectives. In some cases, these questions comprise both positive and negative statements. The positive statements represent the pro-empowerment aspects/factors; and the negative statements are anti-empowerment factors (hence barriers), with regards to the various relevant variables of the research (culture, structure, leadership, etc...). For example, questions (1), (2), and (5) measure the 'centralization, non-democratic orientation, and communication' aspects of the culture variable; with question (1) being a positive statement and questions (2) and (5) representing negative statements. This was made in a subtle way to avoid the risk of negatively affecting the questionnaire face validity if respondents noticed "that the research is checking up on them and (...) react negatively to the (questionnaire)" (Bless et al.,2006, p.160).

With regards to the questionnaire reliability, the scale reliability of each variable is calculated (in Chapter 4) using 'Cronbach's Alpha' measure; as indicative of the internal consistency of the combination of items measuring each variable.

On the other hand, it was not possible to use the split-half technique although the nature of questionnaire – intended to measure the attitude towards various variables - would have allowed splitting the data into two halves; wherein half of the items is correlated with the other half (Groppe et al., 2009,p.1201) The impracticality of this within the context of this empirical study is due to the fact that the researcher had to make sure that the questionnaire is relatively a short one as governmental employees had to fill it during their working hours. Although some of the questions are already reworded, as previously discussed, splitting each of the statements that measure the same aspect into two halves-

that are later correlated to measure the questionnaire's reliability- would have lengthened the questionnaire.

The researcher could not, as well, conduct a pilot study or the 'test/re-test' method as an external consistency procedure due to time constraints. Yet, respondents' comments from questionnaires distributed at the early stages of the fieldwork were integrated in the questionnaires distributed later on (which constitute the majority of the questionnaires collected).

One particular change is related to the use of the word 'organization'. The researcher was directly told by an employee that employees would suspect replying to a questionnaire that uses the word 'organization' as it is vague and might imply various types of institutions that are suspicious; and advised that it should be changed to the 'governmental organization/ body/department/agency' or, even simply, 'workplace'.

4.3. 3. Other considerations

When agents were used for the distribution of the questionnaires- reasons of which are explained below-the researcher stressed that questionnaires should be filled in by non-managerial, and not managerial, employees. Additionally, in fear of losing track of determining the governmental bodies from which questionnaires were collected- especially that most of the questionnaires were distributed and collected through indirect means- the researcher added the question that asks the respondent to specify their institution and job position/title at a later stage in the data collection process. This also was intended to ensure that managerial employees are not mistakenly included in the actual sample.

Some other aspects were also taken into consideration. The questionnaire had to be translated from the English Language to Arabic Language to match the socio-cultural characteristics of the target population. In doing this, the researcher ensured that questions' meanings are kept unchanged.

4.4. Ethical Considerations

Being aware of the ethical obligations that the researcher has towards the participants in the empirical study, and as being guided by the AUC's IRB requirements, the following were taken into consideration.

Firstly, for the questionnaires' administration, the researcher sought the approval of participants after briefing them on the study's objective, procedures, and expected duration for participation. Secondly, it was clarified that all data collected are intended to be used confidentially and without revealing the identity of the respondents. Thirdly, respondents were ensured that the participation in this study is voluntary.

For questionnaires, this information was clarified on the cover page of the questionnaire. The researcher also made sure that, whenever possible, the purpose and relevance of the study was orally clarified to employees. As most of the questionnaires were distributed through agents hired by the researcher, it was communicated to them that this should be made clear to all the participants.

Some modifications were, however, made to the template consent form required by the IRB committee in a way in which important information that might influence their entitlement on deciding whether or not to participate in the study was not omitted, and, at the same time, their fears that might act as an obstacle to their participation were embraced. For example, in spite of the researcher's clarification that all data collected are intended to be used confidentially and without revealing the identity of the respondents - as being partially aware of the foreseen challenges (including the fears of governmental employees, and accordingly, their interest in, and negative attitude towards, participation in the study) - participants still feared that their responses would be used in other purposes other than that mentioned by the researcher.

For questionnaires, specifically, respondents reported their concerns and fears and was starting to show lack of interest in participating in the questionnaire. Accordingly, and in fear of low response rate, the researcher explicitly stated that participants should not write their names or signatures (orally and in written form on the cover page). The researcher,

thus, could not obtain written consent from employees agreeing to fill in the questionnaires.

4.5. Fieldwork

4.5.1. Data Collection

Questionnaires were distributed to non-managerial employees in the sample during October-November 2015 in two different ways. The first is through distribution by the researcher herself by going to Real Estate offices in El-Maadi and Maadi Wadi Degla clubs. Managers were briefed on the purpose of the study and permission was taken to allow non-managerial employees to fill in the questionnaires. Questionnaires were later collected by the researcher. The second approach is distribution through agents hired by the researcher who have contacts and, thus, better access to employees in the various government offices.

A total of 223 questionnaires were distributed and collected; implying a hundred percent (100%) response rate. This is due to the fact that questionnaires were only distributed to employees agreeing to fill in the survey. A total of 40 questionnaires were excluded as they were not eligible due to being inadvertently filled in by managerial rather than non-managerial employees. Thus, 183 questionnaires were used for data analysis.

4.5.2. Challenges and Limitations

This empirical study has faced some challenges; some of which were overcome while others still pose limitations to the study's findings. The first limitation is related to the sampling technique and the degree to which the study's findings are representative of the target population. The fact that the empirical study was only conducted in governmental offices located in one governorate (Cairo) does not provide an overall picture on the attitudes and perceptions of governmental employees on a more general level. However, the fact that the socio-demographic characteristics of governmental employees are common makes their population homogeneous with narrow variation in the study population, and, thus, non-probability sampling poses less threat to the degree to which the findings can be generalized to all governmental service organizations with the same characteristics as those in which the empirical study was conducted (Bless et al., 2006,

p.101). Future research should, however, control for the intervening variables such as the organizations' size, years of establishment, location, nature of work, etc. This was not possible within the context of this study given time and access constraints.

Nevertheless, the research technique poses limitations to the degree to which the findings can be generalized. The fact that the researcher depended only on surveying non-employees through the use of questionnaires (due to access constraints) imply that the findings merely reflect employees' perceptions about the different aspects investigated; and are largely subjected to self-reporting biases especially with regards to questions asking employees' to assess their abilities and willingness.

Secondly, although questionnaires serve the nature of the study as being descriptive, the researcher intended to conduct interviews to give the study some explanatory dimension. Conducting interviews, however, was not intended to achieve methodological triangulation in its real meaning, but, rather, as a qualitative data collection tool that was meant to collect more in-depth information to "provide unique insights that would escape both the researcher and the reader if statistical counts and analyses were used in isolation" (Mackey & Gass, 2005,p.307). In other words, the researcher aimed to use it "as an addition to the mainstream research" (Jonker & Pennink, 2010,p.73); especially that interviews "are often associated with survey-based research" (Mackey & Gass, 2005,p.173). Semi-structured interviews were intended to be conducted by the researcher- in Arabic Language- with both managerial and non-managerial employees to gain deeper and more balanced insight into the variables of the research.

In fact, the researcher could only conduct a total of 4 semi-structured interviews (the researcher aimed for conducting minimum of 10 interviews): two of the respondents were managerial employees: an office manager in the Social Insurance and Pension office of Heliopolis; and a Research Officer in the Agency of Real Estate and Documentation in downtown Cairo. The other two interviewees were non-managerial employees work in the Social Insurance and Pension office of Heliopolis. The researcher could not thus, safely argue that a 'saturation point' has been reached. In addition, as three out of the four interviewees were from the same office, the perspectives that are gained are limited; and are less likely to serve the purpose for which the interview as a research tool was

primarily intended. In other words, this hindered the objective of achieving a balanced insight into the various variables and aspects investigated; and, accordingly, the researcher decided to exclude the data gathered from the interviews.

With regards to the use of a questionnaire, and in addition to the advantages – previously discussed- on which the researcher's choice is grounded, some limitations do exist. Generally, the way questionnaires were distributed was expected to generate a high response rate. Nevertheless, due to reasons related to the culture of fear prevalent in those governmental organizations, fewer numbers of employees, than what was expected, agreed to respond to the questionnaire. For that reason, questionnaires were only distributed to those from which consent was gained. This explains the high response rate compared to the number of questionnaires distributed; but with a low response rate compared to the total number of employees in the governmental offices accessed.

Additionally, the fact the questionnaires are self-administered, resulted in questionnaires not being fully completed with missing data in some of the questionnaires collected; whether for the questions measuring the variables of the research or for the three more general questions, specifically those asking employees to specify their gender, tenure, their job position/title, and the governmental institution they are working in. Although this is less likely to affect the degree to which the study's findings are credible, a major concern is that, because some employees did not specify their job position/title neither tenure level, some managerial employees could have been inadvertently excluded and some non-managerial employees could have been inadvertently included in the questionnaires from which data are collected and analyzed. This is only applicable for questionnaires which were collected indirectly by agents and not by the researcher herself. Also, it was hard to check that respondents understand the questions correctly especially that no pilot study was conducted.

When disregarding forty (40) of the questionnaires, the researcher's criterion was that some of those stating they have tenure of 10-15 years or more are excluded from the sample. These were employees who were suspected to be managers because of not specifying their job positions. Because some non-managerial employees can stay for this long period without being promoted to a managerial level, there is a risk that some non-

managerial employees could have been mistakenly excluded from the sample. On the other hand, including questionnaires with missing tenure might also factor in the probability that some managerial employees are mistakenly included.

Another limitation is related to the fact that Likert scales are based on the assumption that “each statement/item on the scale has equal ‘attitudinal value’, ‘importance’, or ‘weight’ in terms of reflecting an attitude towards the issue in question”(Kumar, 2005, p.145). For example, ‘centralization and non-democratic orientation’ aspects better reflect the type of culture than ‘the degree of continuous learning’. Dismantling respondents’ responses towards the various variables, however, would help in developing a more balanced analysis- as will be shown in the chapters discussing the findings and researcher’s analysis. Moreover, this problem is of less relevance as the main aim of this study is measuring the intensity of attitudes of all respondents towards each of the variables of the research; rather than comparing their attitudes towards the various variables.

Moreover, although the use of Likert attitudinal scale was the most appropriate for eliciting responses for verifying the hypotheses, some variables require prolonged tests to be correctly measured. These include measuring employees’ locus of control and self-esteem that require more specialized and lengthy personality tests; which were hard to be deployed within the context of this study. Furthermore, statements probing about employees’ ability and willingness to be empowered may encompass some degree of respondents’ bias. Thus, for future research, eliciting responses about employees’ perceptions of their willingness and ability to be empowered should be supplemented by more in-depth studies that would provide less biased insight. As for the organization of questions, smoothing the transition between questions has the downside of respondents ticking responses without thoroughly thinking about the issue.

4.6. Generating Evidence

SPSS software is used for questionnaires’ data input and findings generation. Descriptive statistics are used to interpret the data and verify the hypotheses; through determining the degree to which each of the various variables exist within the sample population (i.e. frequencies). This will be done through quantitatively measuring responses to the various statements that measure the different aspects of each of the variables. As some statements

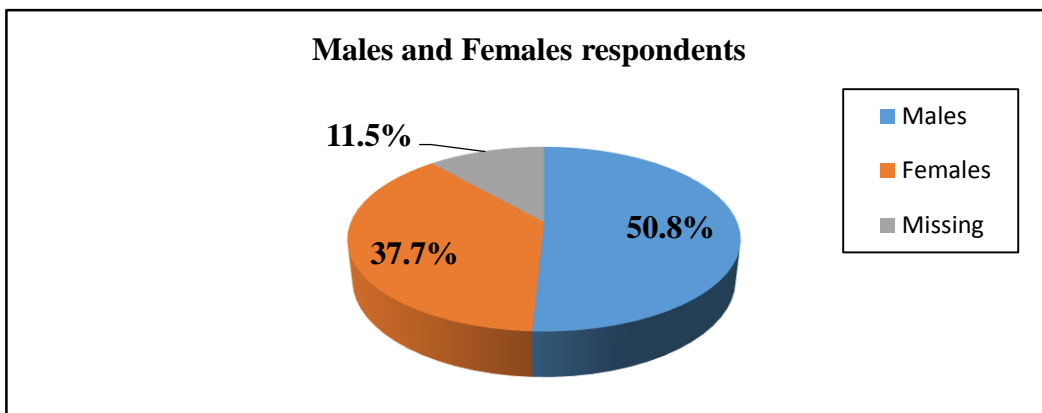
are negatively stated (i.e. anti-empowerment), data will be re-coded for the sake of consistency. For more detailed analysis and insights, descriptive analysis will also be conducted for each of the sub-variables/ aspects. This would help generate information about the aspects contributing the most or the least to the overall finding of the variable. On a narrower scope, descriptive statistics are also generated for each of the questions. Descriptive statistics are presented in tables and bar charts.

Inferential Statistics are also used to measure the scale reliability among the variables, and determine whether there is a significant relationship between variables. This helps in interpreting the results and provides more insight than that provided solely by frequencies. Ten percent (10%) level of significance is chosen given the sample size and expected sample error. This will be presented in the format of tables and cross-tabulations. In general, the analysis is conducted according to the researcher's own interpretations based on the objectives figures generated.

Chapter 5: Findings, Analysis & Discussion

5.1. Respondents' Profile

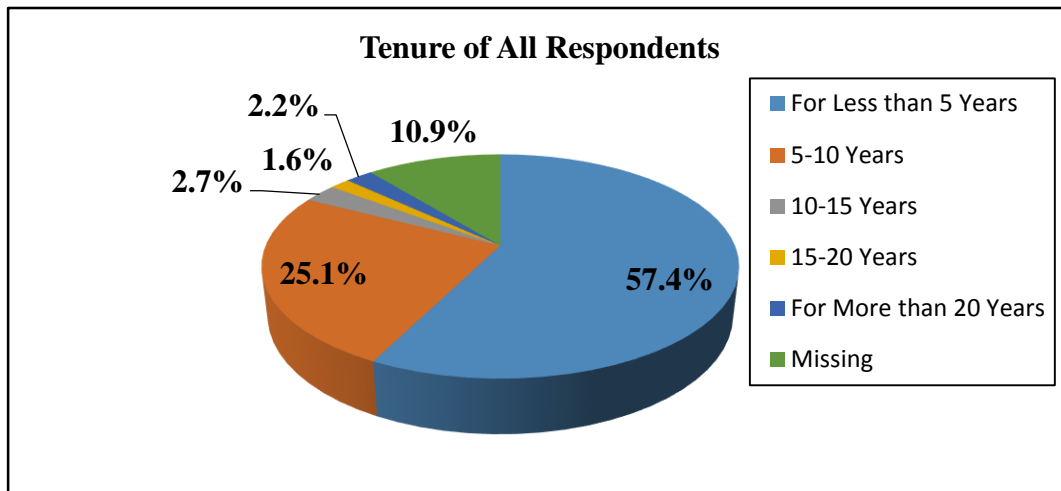
General information about the respondents is gained from the first three questions in the questionnaire. Twenty-one (21) respondents did not specify their gender. For the remaining valid 162, statistics show that half of the respondents [50.8%] are males; and [37.7%] are females (as shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 in the Appendix and Figure 5.1 below).



[Figure 5.1]

Data identifying the specific institutions in which respondents work and their job positions/titles are gained for some questionnaires; yet, for most of the questionnaires, employees' fear of tracking responses rendered a high percentage of responses with missing information about this question. With regards to the tenure of respondents, Tables 5.3 and 5.4 (in the Appendix) and Figure 5.2 below show that 163 respondents specified their tenure and 20 respondents did not. The valid responses show employees' tenure in the institution where the survey is taken. Statistics show that [57.4%] have been working for less than 5 years; [25.1%] have been working for 5-10 years; [2.7%] have been working for 10-15 years; [1.6%] have been working for 15-20 years; and [2.2%] have been working for more than 20 years. This, in fact, shows that more than half of the respondents' tenure is for less than 5 years, followed by fewer -but the second highest- percentage of respondents working for 5-10 years. An explanation for this is that the researcher excluded 40 questionnaires, among those distributed and collected by the hired

agents, whose respondents reported that they have tenure of 10-15 years (as discussed in the previous chapter).



[Figure 5.2]

5.2. Verifying Hypotheses

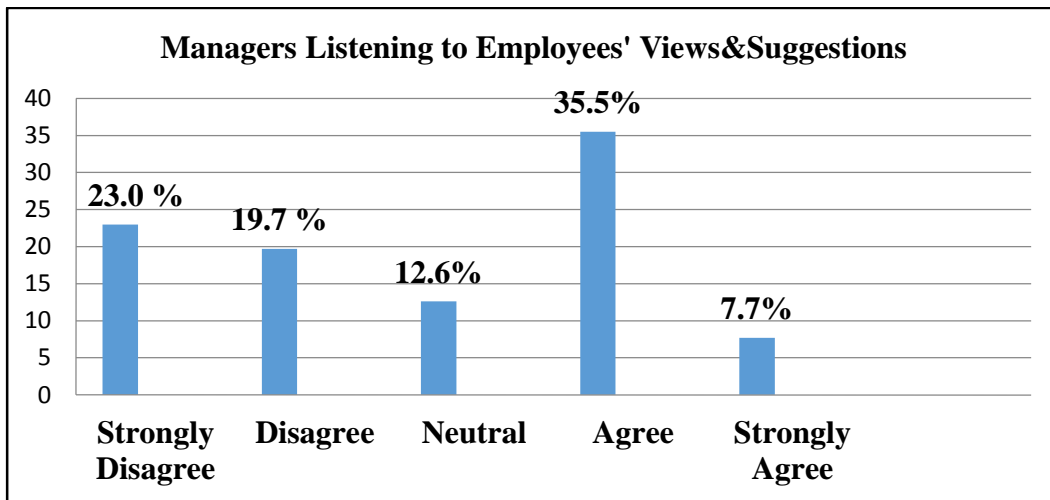
5.2.1. Workplace Culture

Reliability for all the statements related to describing the workplace culture is tested using Cronbach's Alpha. These comprise: questions (1), (2), and (5) measuring the degree of centralization and non-democratic orientation, and extent of two-way communication taking place; question (8) measuring the degree of outcome orientation; question (10) measuring the degree of employees' openness to continuous learning; and questions (11) and (12) measuring the degree of teamwork orientation. The reliability statistics show cronbach's alpha of [0.685] (as shown in Table 5.5 in the Appendix). This implies low internal consistency between the responses to all relevant statements describing the workplace culture. This could be attributed to the fact that these statements are different in that they reflect multi-dimensions of the workplace culture, rather than being one-dimensional. In other words, they are used to describe the organizational culture rather than measure it. Accordingly, the researcher attempted to analyze each sub-variable separately to verify the hypotheses.

Centralization and Non-Democratic Orientation

With regards to the ‘centralization and non-democratic orientation’ (including presence/absence of ‘two-way communication’) dimensions, cronbach’s alpha for questions (1), (2), and (5) shows internal reliability [0.759] (as shown in Table 5.6 in the Appendix).

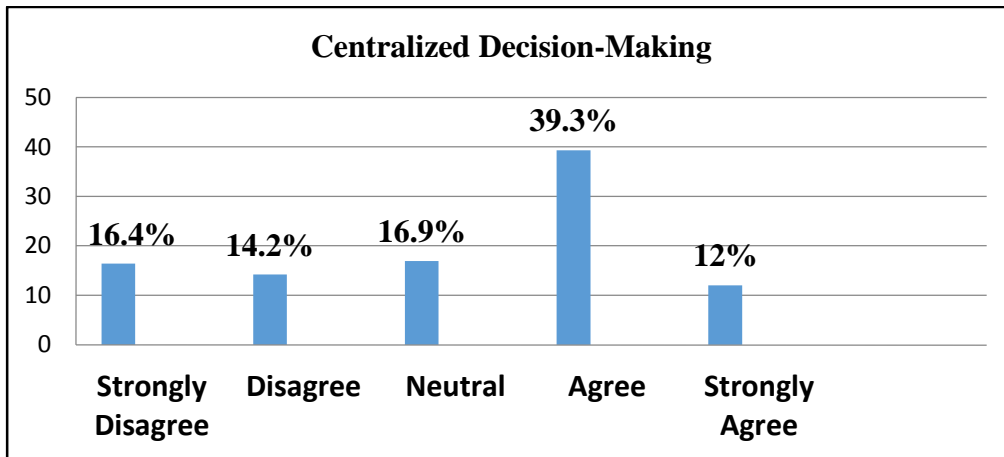
For the first question, which measures the degree to which managers listen to non-managerial employees’ points of view and suggestions, 180 responses are valid (3 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [23%]; ‘disagree’= [19.7%]; ‘agree’= [35.5%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [7.7%] (as shown in Table 5.7 in the Appendix and Figure 5.3 below). Although findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [43.2%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [42.7%], it is important to note that the difference accounts for a very small percentage [0.5%].



[Figure 5.3]

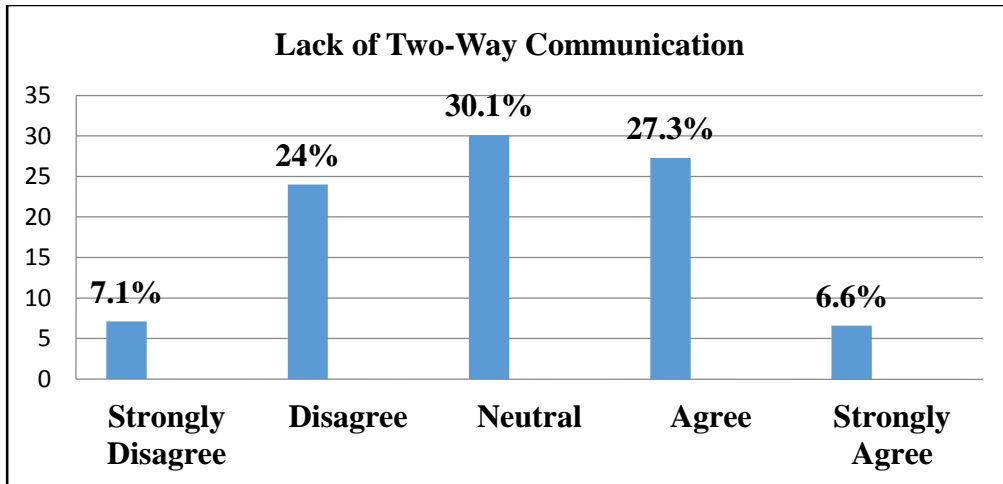
For the second question, which measures the degree to which decision-making is centralized rather than decentralized, 181 responses are valid (2 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [16.4%]; ‘disagree’= [14.2%]; ‘agree’= [39.3%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [12%] (as shown in Table 5.8 in the Appendix and Figure 5.4 below). Findings imply that the percentage of

employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [51.3%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [30.6%].



[Figure 5.4]

On the other hand, question (5) measures the degree to which there is lack of effective communication between managers and non-managerial employees. The question has 174 valid responses (9 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: ‘strongly disagree’= [7.1%]; ‘disagree’= [24%]; ‘agree’=[27.3%]; and ‘strongly agree’=[6.6%] (as shown in Table 5.9 in the Appendix and Figure 5.5 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [33.9%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [31.1%]. This means that the percentage of respondents who believe that there is lack of effective communication between managerial and non-managerial employees is higher than those who believe the contrary. As with question (1), the difference between the percentages of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing that there is lack of effective two-way communication and those who disagree and strongly disagree that there is lack of effective two-way communication is very small [2.8%].



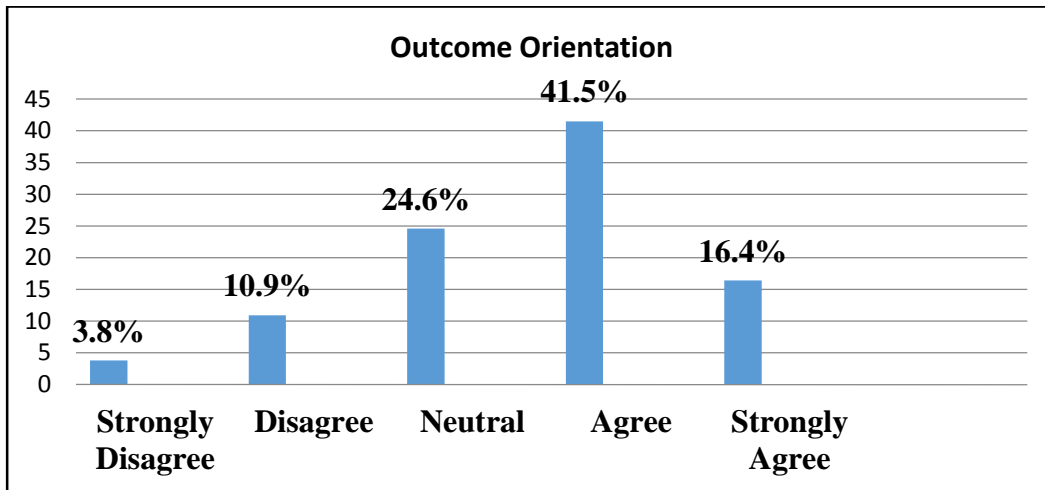
[Figure 5.5]

Findings are contradicting between questions (1) on one hand, and (2) and (5) on the other hand. Although a higher percentage of employees believe that their managers listen to their views and suggestions than those who do not, higher percentage of employees also perceive decision-making to be centralized rather than decentralized, and that there is lack of two-way communication between managerial and non-managerial employees, than those who report the opposite with regards to these two dimensions. Surprisingly, correlations between the three aspects show that the significance two-tailed level is [.000] (as shown in Table 5.10 in the Appendix); implying that, at level of significance 10%, significant relationships exists between the three dimensions that measure the degree of ‘centralization and non-democratic orientation’ {although Spearman correlation shows that the relationship is stronger between questions (1) and (2) [.713] as compared to their relationship with question (5)}.

In fact, 50 respondents who agree that managers listen to their views and suggestions also agree that decision-making is centralized rather than decentralized; and 30 respondents who strongly disagree that managers listen to their points of view and suggestions also strongly disagree to the fact that decision-making is centralized rather than decentralized(as shown in table 5.11 in the Appendix). On the other hand, 26 respondents who agree that that managers listen to their views and suggestions also agree that there is lack of effective two-way communication between managerial and non-managerial employees(as shown in table 5.12 in the Appendix).

Outcome Orientation

Question (8) measures the degree to which the workplace culture emphasizes outcomes over the procedures and processes. For that question, 178 responses are valid (5 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [3.8%]; ‘disagree’= [10.9%]; ‘agree’= [41.5%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [16.4%] (as shown in Table 5.13 in the Appendix and Figure 5.6 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [57.9%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [14.7%]. It could, thus, be implied that governmental services’ offices culture is outcome oriented.

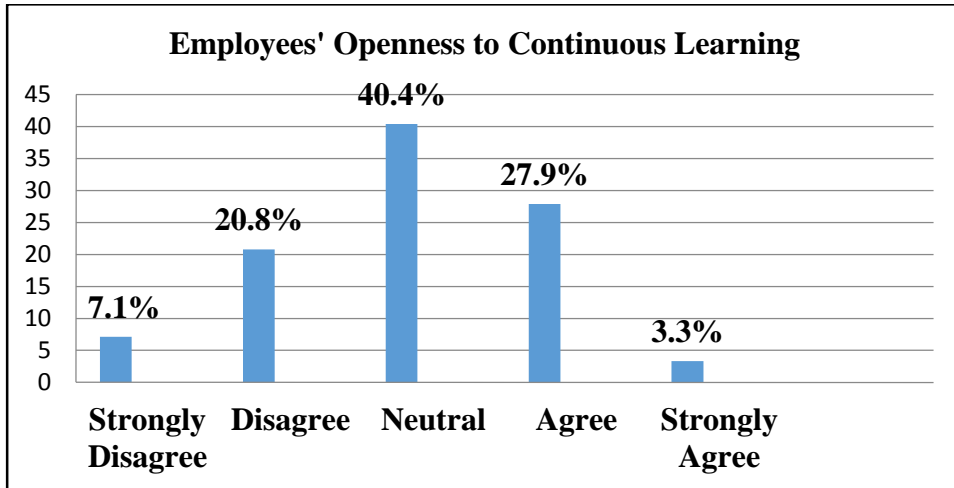


[Figure 5.6]

Employees’ Openness to Continuous Learning

Question (10) measures the degree to which employees are open to continuous learning. For that question, 182 responses are valid (1 missing response). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [7.1%]; ‘disagree’= [20.8%]; ‘agree’= [27.9%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [3.3%] (as shown in Table 5.14 in the Appendix and Figure 5.7 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [60.9%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [27.9%]. Based on these frequencies, it could be deduced that governmental services employees are open to continuous learning. It is, however, important to note that the percentage of employees who responded to this statement with a ‘neutral’ response is [40.4%]. An explanation for

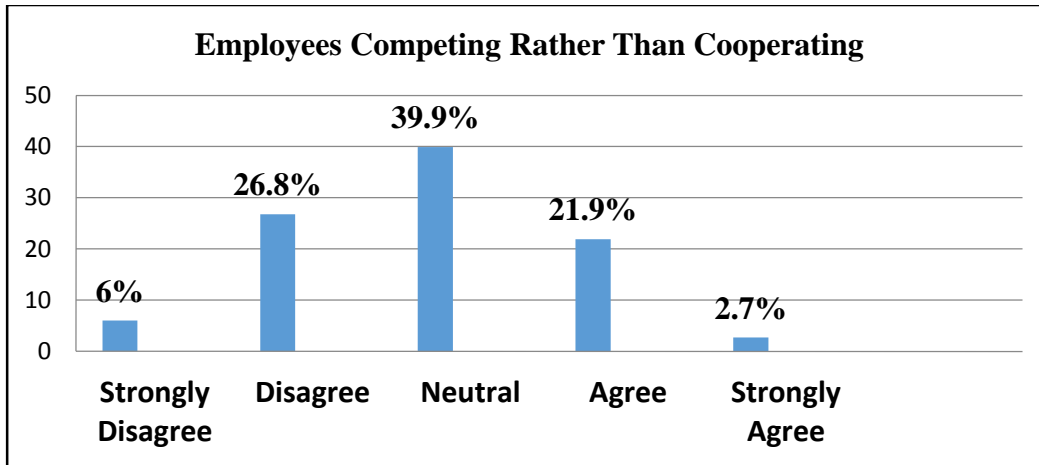
this could be the fact that the question did not clarify what sort of things and/or which aspects is the question of ‘continuous learning’ concerned with; making some employees reluctant to provide a definite response.



[Figure 5.7]

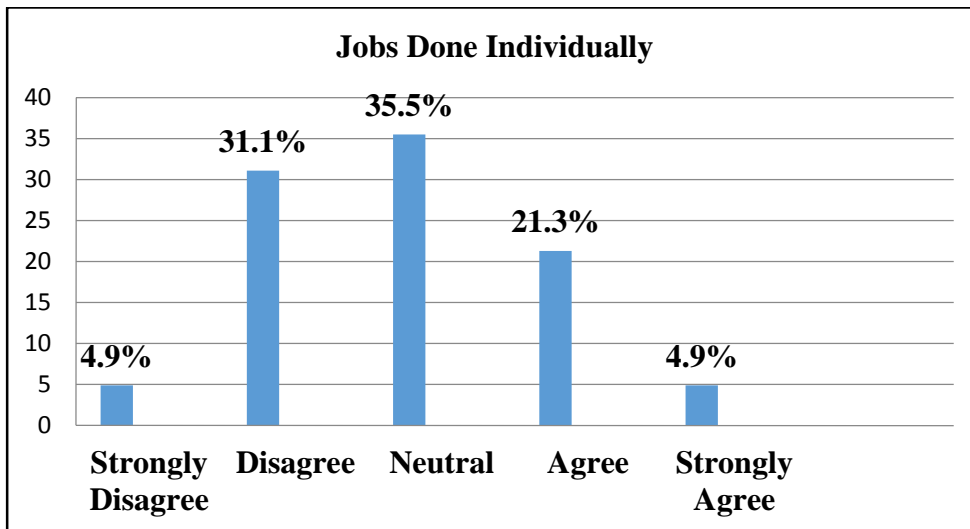
Teamwork Orientation

Questions (11) and (12) measure the degree to which there is low teamwork orientation in the respective institutions. Question (11) measures the degree to which employees tend to compete rather than cooperate. For that question, 178 responses are valid (5 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [6%]; ‘disagree’= [26.8%]; ‘agree’= [21.9%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [2.7%] (as shown in Table 5.15 in the Appendix and Figure 5.8 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [24.6%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [32.8%]. Based on these frequencies, it could be deduced that governmental services employees are not likely to compete. Yet, the percentage of employees who provided a ‘neutral’ response to this question is [39.9%], which is a relatively high percentage. This, also, should be taken into consideration during the analysis.



[Figure 5.8]

With regards to question (12), which measures the degree to which job-related tasks are usually done individually rather than in team, 179 responses are valid (4 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [4.9%]; ‘disagree’= [31.1%]; ‘agree’= [21.3%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [4.9%] (as shown in Table 5.16 in the Appendix and Figure 5.9 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [26.2%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [36%]. Based on these frequencies, it could be deduced that jobs are not likely to be done individually.



[Figure 5.9]

An overall assessment of the degree of teamwork orientation, thus, shall be that there is a high degree of teamwork orientation in governmental service offices and organizations. Nonetheless, cronbach's alphas for statements (11) and (12) is [0.693] (as shown in Table 5.17 in the Appendix) implying lack of internal consistency between the responses to both statements. Furthermore, although, at level of significance 10%, a significant relationship exists between the two variables (the significance two-tailed level is [.000]), Spearman correlation for these two aspects measuring the degree of teamwork orientation is [.475] (as shown in Table 5.18 in the Appendix); implying a relatively weak relationship.

In determining whether Egyptian governmental service organizations' cultures are hierarchies or not, findings of the four aspects that describe the workplace culture - the degree of centralization and non-democratic orientation, the degree to which non-managerial employees are open to continuous learning, outcome orientation, and teamwork orientation- should be considered.

The intricacy of drawing conclusions about the degree of 'centralization and non-democratic orientation' within the workplace cultures of governmental service offices is attributable to two reasons. Firstly, there are contradicting responses to the three statements assessing the aspects of 'centralization of decision-making', 'participative decision-making/non-democratic orientation', and 'two-way communication' between managers and their subordinates' as previously discussed. The second reason is due to the fact that only insignificant difference exists between responses for and against questions (1) and (5). Accordingly, findings of the 'centralization and non-democratic orientation' dimensions of the workplace culture do not help in identifying whether the workplace cultures of governmental service offices are hierarchies or not. On another note, findings show that non-managerial employees focus on getting the job done rather than focusing on the rigid application of rules and procedures. This is, in fact, a feature that opposes what typically characterizes a hierarchy culture.

Regarding the dimension comprising experimentation and flexibility within the workplace culture in terms of employees' openness to continuous learning, relevant

findings show that employees are willing to continuously learn new things. This is also another feature opposing what is typically found in hierarchy cultures.

Last but not least, descriptive statistics show that there is a spirit of teamwork orientation where jobs are usually done in teams rather than individually, and employees are not likely to compete. Nevertheless, the lack of internal consistency between responses to the relevant statements measuring this dimension (11) and (12), as well as the weak relationship that exists between both statements should be considered. It would, therefore, be hard to provide a clear-cut statement that governmental service offices' cultures embrace teamwork. In other words, the 'teamwork' dimension's findings could not, also, help in determining whether the organizational cultures of governmental service offices are hierarchies or not.

Therefore, although findings indicate that non-managerial employees are open to continuous learning and that the workplace culture is outcome oriented, Hypothesis 1: 'Egyptian governmental service organizations' cultures are Hierarchies' cannot be accepted. Findings of the other two other dimensions 'centralization and non-democratic orientation' and 'teamwork orientation', on the other hand, provide neither definite results nor insight so as to determine whether governmental service offices' workplace cultures are hierarchies or not, and thus Hypothesis 1 cannot also be rejected. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 cannot be authenticated within the context of this study.

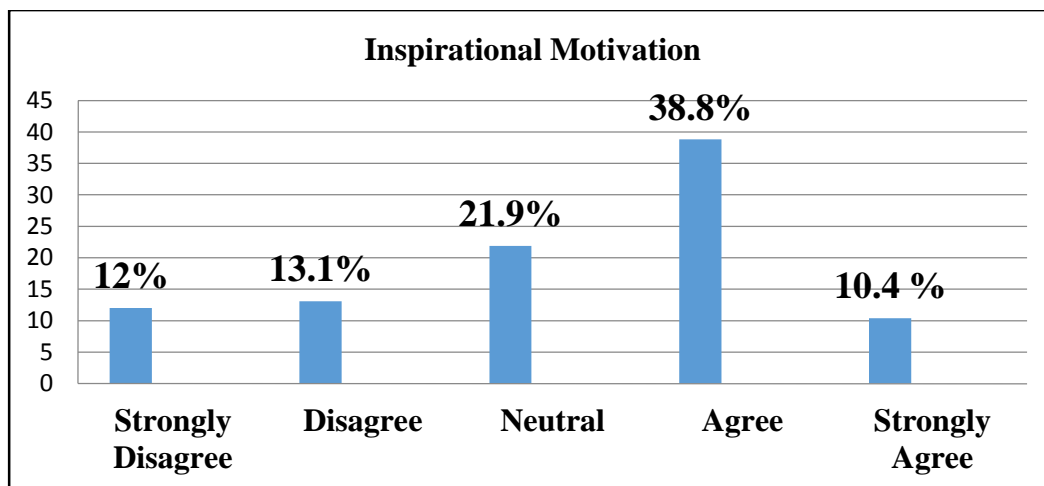
5.2.2. Leadership

Reliability for all the statements related to describing the type of leadership within the governmental service offices –specifically to determine whether it is transformational leadership or not – is tested using Cronbach's Alpha. These comprise: question (3) measuring the degree to which managers/leaders communicate, inspire, and motivate their employees to meet the expected goals (inspirational motivation); question (6) measuring the degree to which leaders/managers stimulates their subordinates' intellectual thinking (intellectual stimulation); and question (7) measuring the degree to which managers/leaders pay individualized consideration to their subordinates in terms of their concerns and developmental needs(individualized consideration). The reliability

statistics show cronbach's alpha of [0.860] (as shown in Table 5.19 in the Appendix) implying high reliability and internal consistency between these three aspects.

Inspirational Motivation

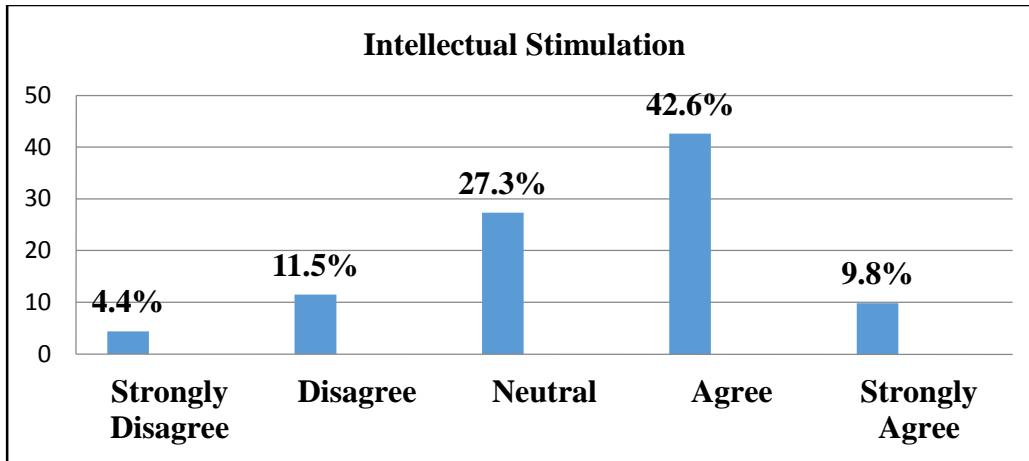
Question (3) has 176 responses valid (7 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree'= [12%]; 'disagree'= [13.1%]; 'agree'= [38.8%]; and 'strongly agree'= [10.4%] (as shown in Table 5.20 in the Appendix and Figure 5.10 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [49.2%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [25.1%].



[Figure 5.10]

Intellectual Stimulation

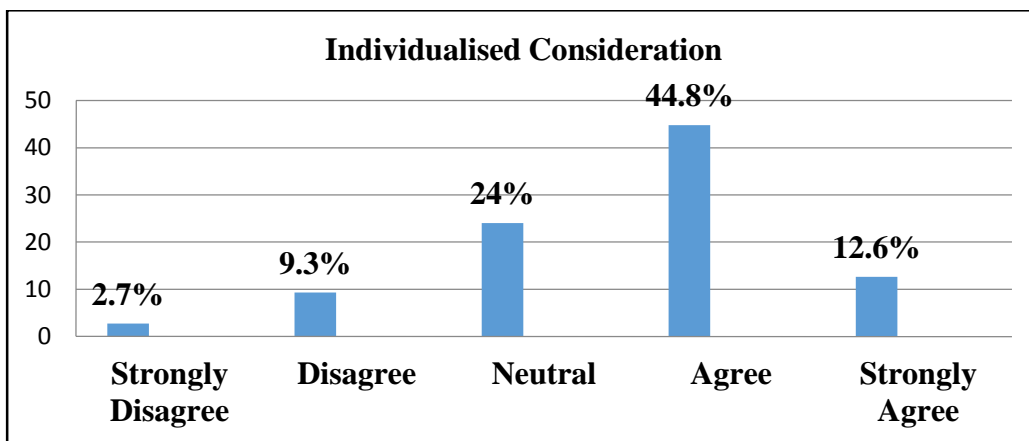
Question (6) has 175 responses valid (8 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree'= [4.4%]; 'disagree'= [11.5%]; 'agree'= [42.6%]; and 'strongly agree'= [9.8%] (as shown in Table 5.21 in the Appendix and Figure 5.11 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [52.4%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [15.9%].



[Figure 5.11]

Individualized Consideration

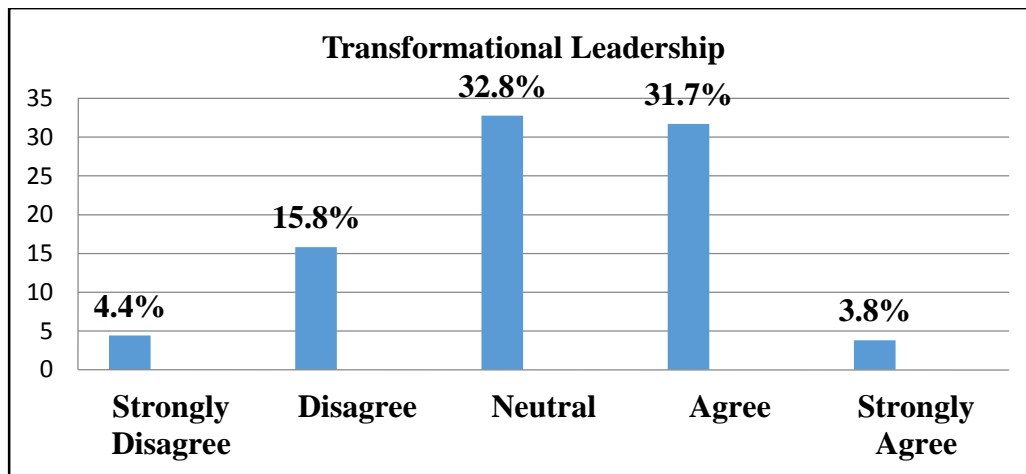
Question (7) has 171 responses valid (12 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [2.7%]; ‘disagree’= [9.3%]; ‘agree’= [44.8%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [12.6%] (as shown in Table 5.22 in the Appendix and Figure 5.12 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [57.4%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [12%]. It is worth noting that the difference between both categories of responses is huge.



[Figure 5.12]

Given the high reliability between these three dimensions of transformational leadership, combining responses together, to give an overall picture on whether respondents believe that the leadership in their respective organizations is transformational or not, is valid.

Statistics show that respondents generally agree [31.7%] and strongly agree [3.8%] that their managers/leaders are transformational [an agreement percentage of 35.5%], and generally disagree [15.8%] and strongly disagree [4.4%] that their managers/leaders are transformational [a disagreement percentage of 20.2%] (as shown in Table 5.23 in the Appendix and Figure 5.13 below). Therefore, more employees believe that their leaders/managers are transformational. This has been already deducted from the analysis of each of the 3 dimensions of transformational leadership separately



[Figure 5.13]

Based on the above analysis, Hypothesis 2: ‘There is lack of Transformational Leadership in Egypt’s governmental service organizations’ is rejected. In other words, leaders/managers within governmental service offices exhibit the three features of transformational leaders: communicating the expected goals and inspiring and motivating their subordinates to achieve them; motivating their employees to solve problems creatively and think outside the box; and paying attention to their subordinates’ concerns and developmental needs.

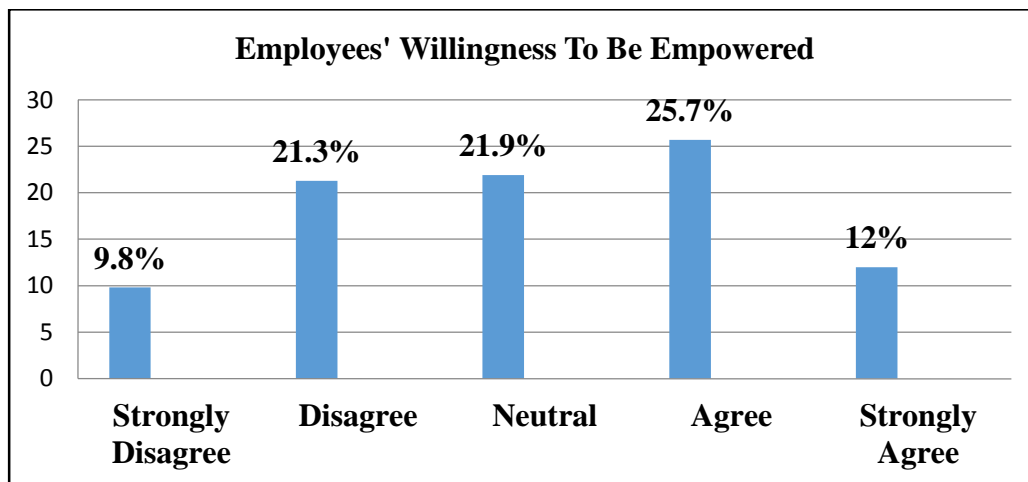
5.2.3. Employees’ Readiness

Reliability for all the statements related to assessing the degree to which non-managerial employees are ready to be empowered- willing and/or able- is tested using Cronbach’s Alpha. These comprise questions (9), (13), (14), (15), (16), (17), (18), and (19). The cronbach’s alpha is [0.884]showing internal consistency between the various items used

to describe employees' readiness to be empowered (as shown in Table 5.24 in the Appendix).

Employees' Willingness

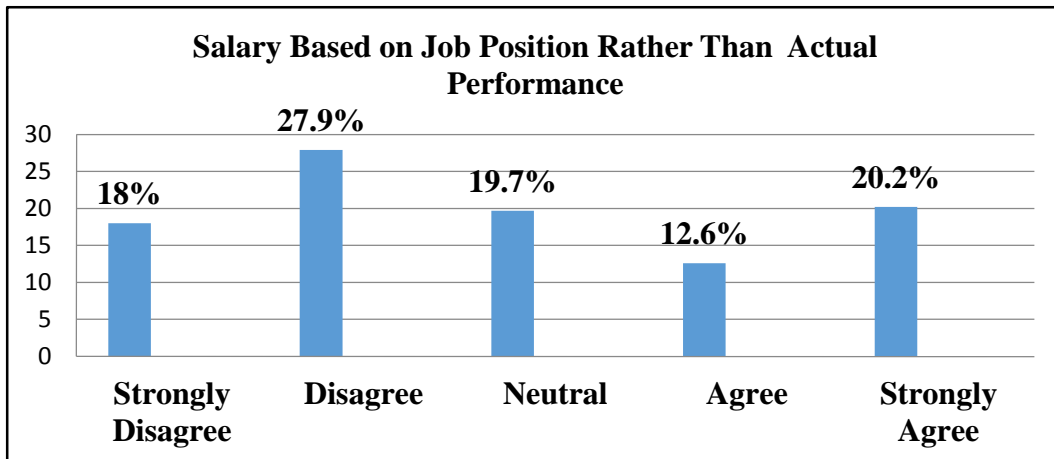
Assessing whether employees are intrinsically willing to be empowered or not is mainly evaluated through question (19) which elicit direct responses about the degree to which respondents are willing to take initiatives and make decisions without referring back to their managers. Question (19) has 166 valid responses (17 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: 'strongly disagree'= [9.8%]; 'disagree'= [21.3%]; 'agree'= [25.7%]; and 'strongly agree'= [12%] (as shown in Table 5.25 in the Appendix and Figure 5.14 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [37.7%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [31.1%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, have the intrinsic desire to be empowered in terms of taking initiatives and making decisions without referring back to their managers. Accordingly, Hypothesis 3a: 'Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack the desire for control' is rejected.



[Figure 5.14]

As for the degree to which employees are motivated to be empowered through extrinsic rewards, question (9) asks respondents whether they believe that their salary is based on their job position rather than their actual performance. This question has 180 valid

responses (3 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: ‘strongly disagree’= [18%]; ‘disagree’= [27.9%]; ‘agree’=[12.6%]; and ‘strongly agree’=[20.2%] (as shown in Table 5.26 in the Appendix and Figure 5.15 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [32.8%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [45.9%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, report that their salary is not based on their job position rather than their actual performance. Based on this, it cannot be concluded that employees lack access to financial performance-based awards. Accordingly, Hypothesis 3b: ‘Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, lack access to financial performance-based rewards’ is rejected.



[Figure 5.15]

An important aspect to consider, however, is that employees might have access to financial performance-based rewards, yet might not actually be satisfied with the amount of bonuses and incentives they receive. In other words, this question does not embody the degree to which employees would be motivated to be empowered as they receive these extrinsic rewards. This in fact could be exemplified when determining the correlation and the level of significance between employees’ intrinsic desire to be empowered and the degree to which they perceive that their salaries are based on their job positions rather than actual performance. Although at level of significance of 10%, there is correlation between these two aspects, Spearman correlation [.514] shows that the relationship is not very strong (as shown in table 5.27 in the Appendix).

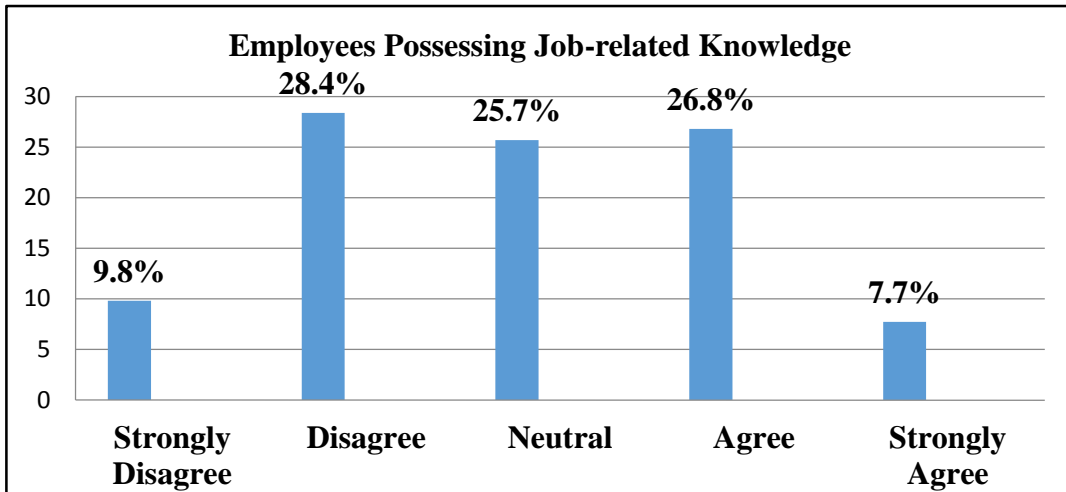
Generally, Hypothesis 3: ‘Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, are not willing to be empowered’ is rejected. According to the above analysis, employees have the intrinsic desire to be empowered and do not lack access to financial performance-based rewards. Yet, whether receiving financial performance-based rewards contributes to the degree to which they are willing to be empowered is not examined within the scope of this study.

Employees’ Ability

The first dimension of employees’ readiness ‘Ability’ consists of question (13) measuring the degree to which employees are more energized by collaborating with others compared to working independently; question (14) measuring the degree to which employees believe they have the necessary teamwork skills; question (15) measuring the degree to which employees believe they have the necessary decision-making skills to be empowered; question (16) which is concerned with assessing the degree to which employees believe that they have received the necessary training (on teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal skills) that would prepare them to be empowered; question (17) evaluating the degree to which employees believe they possess the needed job-related knowledge that would enable them to be effectively empowered; and question (18) which assesses the overall degree to which employees believe that they are generally able to be empowered in terms of taking initiatives and making decisions without referring back to their managers.

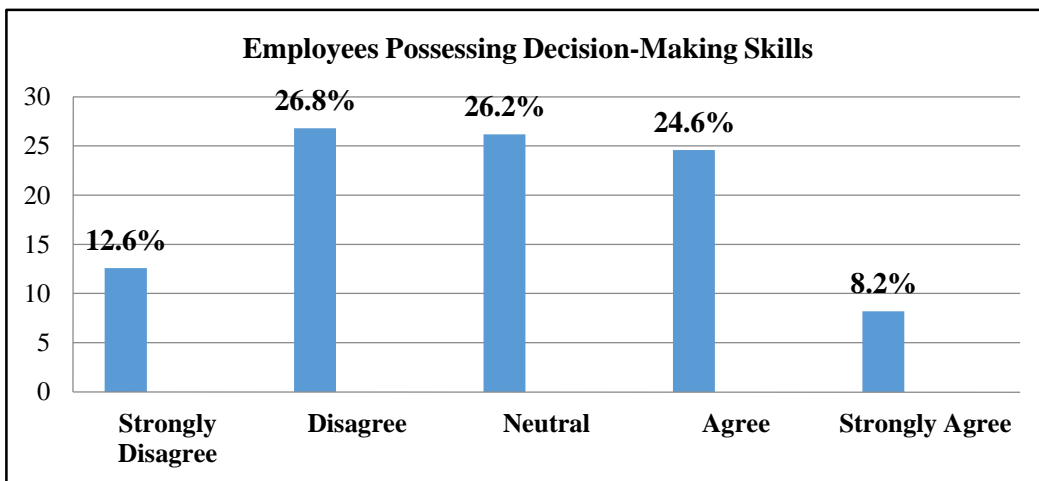
With regards to possessing the job-related knowledge, the relevant question (17) has 180 responses valid (3 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: ‘strongly disagree’= [9.8%]; ‘disagree’= [28.4%]; ‘agree’= [26.8%]; and ‘strongly agree’= [7.7%] (as shown in Table 5.28 in the Appendix and Figure 5.16 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [34.5%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [38.2%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that they do not possess the job-related knowledge that enables them to be empowered. Based on this, Hypothesis 4a: ‘Non-managerial employees, in Egypt’s

governmental service organizations, lack the necessary job-related knowledge to be empowered' is accepted.



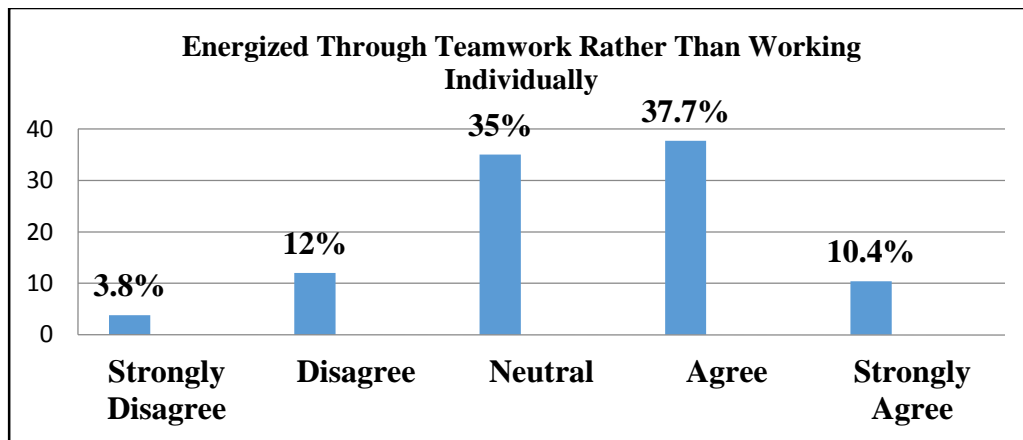
[Figure 5.16]

As for the decision-making skills, valid responses for the relevant question (15) are 181 (2 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree' = [12.6%]; 'disagree' = [26.8%]; 'agree' = [24.6%]; and 'strongly agree' = [8.2%] (as shown in Table 5.29 in the Appendix and Figure 5.17 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [32.8%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [39.4%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that they do not possess the needed decision-making skills that enable them to be empowered.



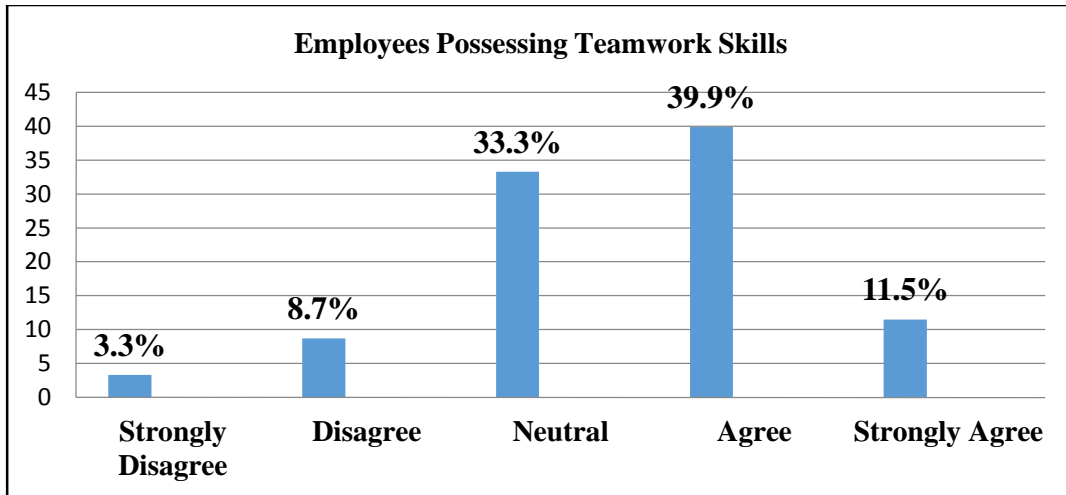
[Figure 5.17]

As for teamwork skills, both questions (13) and (14) are used to assess the degree to which employees' believe they possess the needed teamwork skills. For question (13), valid responses are 181 (2 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree'= [3.8%]; 'disagree'= [12%]; 'agree'= [37.7%]; and 'strongly agree'= [10.4%] (as shown in Table 5.30 in the Appendix and Figure 5.18 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [48.1%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [15.8%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, report that they are more energized by working with others as opposed to working individually.



[Figure 5.18]

For question (14), valid responses are 177 (6 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree'= [3.3%]; 'disagree'= [8.7%]; 'agree'= [39.9%]; and 'strongly agree'= [11.5%] (as shown in Table 5.31 in the Appendix and Figure 5.19 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [51.4%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [12%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that they possess the needed teamwork skills that enable them to interact and work with others effectively.



[Figure 5.19]

Correlation between questions (13) and (14) shows that at significance level of 10%, there is a significant relationship between these two aspects – with a significance two-tailed level of [.000] and Spearman correlation of [.724] (as shown in Table 5.32 in the Appendix). This implies that there is a significant relationship between the degree to which employees believe that they possess the needed teamwork skills and the degree to which they are energized more through working collectively as opposed to working individually. Fifty-six (56) respondents who believe that they possess the needed teamwork skills also report that they are energized through teamwork as opposed to working independently (as shown in Table 5.33 in the Appendix).

Findings, thus, imply that employees possess the needed teamwork skills - whether in terms of reporting that they are more energized by collaborating with other individuals rather than working independently, or in terms of their own assessment of possessing the needed teamwork skills that would enable them to work with others effectively. Nevertheless, within this context, it is important to compare and contrast findings of questions (13) and (14) to those of questions (11) which assess the degree to which employees compete rather than cooperate. The fact that there is a very high percentage of respondents who reported that they are ‘neutral’ to this aspect is questionable. As previously discussed, it raises questions about whether employees actually cooperate or not. Furthermore, it helps to gain an overall balanced assessment on whether employees

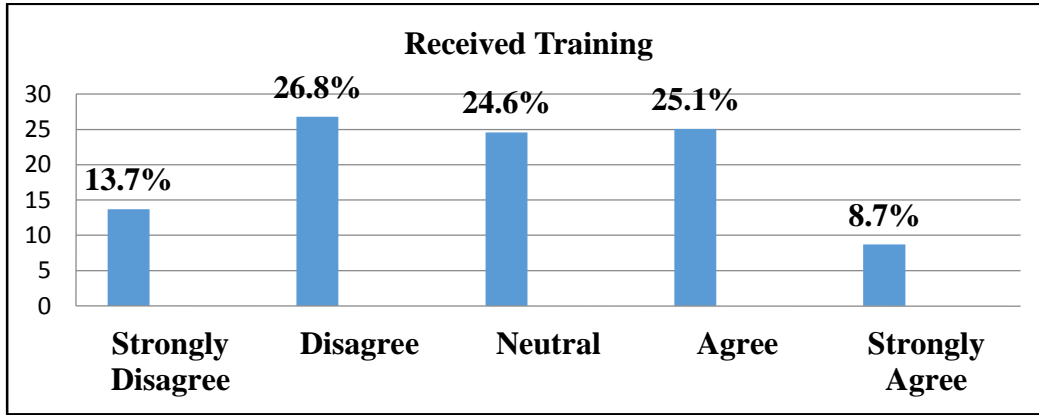
are biased in their responses of possessing teamwork skills and being energized to work with others. On the other hand, question (12) which is concerned with whether job-related tasks are usually done individually rather than in teams is of less relevance in assessing 'employees' ability to be empowered', as the main concern is whether they possess the ability or not- regardless of whether teamwork actually takes place or not (contrary to its significance when describing the workplace culture).

Statistically, when measuring the overall reliability among questions (13), (14), (15), (16), (17), and (18) which are all concerned with assessing employees' ability to be empowered, it is found that although there is generally an internal consistency between the relevant statements with cronbach's alpha of [0.873] (as shown in Table 5.34 in the Appendix), questions (13) and (14) which are concerned with assessing teamwork skills are only those items that if removed would actually improve the reliability of the scale (as shown in Table 5.35 in the Appendix).

On these grounds, the researcher decided to exclude the aspects measured by questions (13) and (14) from analyzing employees' ability to be empowered. Accordingly, Hypothesis 4b: 'Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack the necessary decision-making and teamwork skills to be empowered' can neither be wholly accepted nor rejected. Based on the above analysis, employees lack the necessary decision-making skills; yet, for the teamwork skills, further investigation into this area is needed.

With regards to assessing the degree to which employees received the necessary teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal training necessary to be empowered, the relevant question (16) has 181 responses (2 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree'= [13.7%]; 'disagree'= [26.8%]; 'agree'= [25.1%]; and 'strongly agree'= [8.7%] (as shown in Table 5.36 in the Appendix and Figure 5.20 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [33.8%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [40.5%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that they have not received the essential

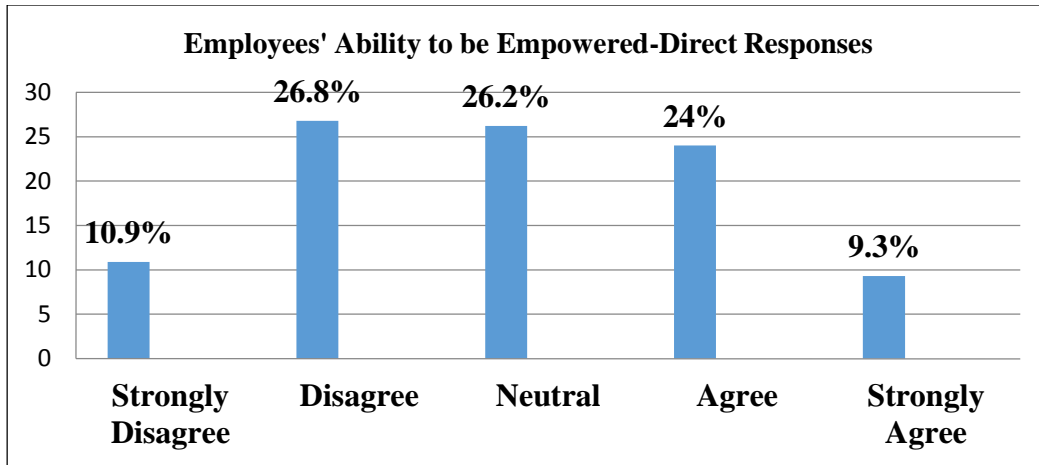
training on teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal skills that would enable them to be empowered. Hypothesis 4c: 'Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack the needed teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal training to be empowered' is, thus, accepted.



[Figure 5.20]

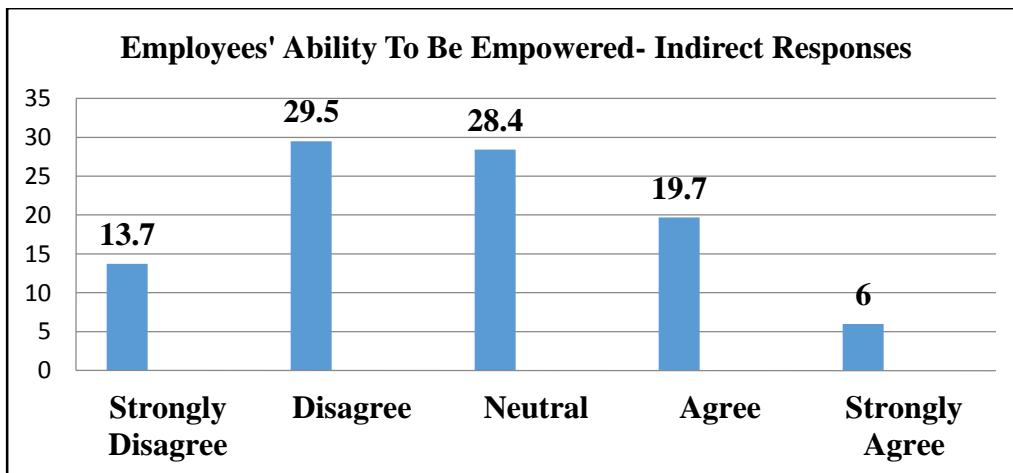
Question (18) is used to elicit direct responses from employees about the degree to which they believe they are able to be empowered; and to compare its findings against findings from other questions that measure the three other aspects (job-related knowledge; decision-making skills; and training) to assess whether non-managerial employees in governmental service offices are generally able to be empowered.

The valid responses for this question are 178 (5 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses show the following: 'strongly disagree' = [10.9%]; 'disagree' = [26.8%]; 'agree' = [24%]; and 'strongly agree' = [9.3%] (as shown in Table 5.37 in the Appendix and Figure 5.21 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [33.3%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [37.7%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that they are not able to take initiatives and make decisions without referring back to their managers.



[Figure 5.21]

This is, actually, compatible with questions measuring the three other aspects relevant to the 'ability dimension'. When computing the overall ability of employees as indirectly elicited from the responses to questions (15), (16), and (17), the following statistics are generated: 'strongly disagree' = [13.7%]; 'disagree' = [29.5%]; 'agree' = [19.7%]; and 'strongly agree' = [6%] (as shown in Table 5.38 in the Appendix and Figure 5.22 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing that they are able to be empowered is [25.7%] lower than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing that they are able to be empowered [43.2%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that they are not able to take initiatives and make decisions without referring back to their managers.



[Figure 5.22]

Correlation between the three aspects measuring employees' ability to be empowered combined and the direct responses elicited from employees about their perception of their ability to be empowered shows a significant relationship (as shown in Table 5.39 in the Appendix). In fact, the relationship is strong given the high Spearman correlation [.782]. In fact, correlation is even higher [significance two-tailed of .854] between the direct and indirect responses assessing their ability when excluding the 'teamwork skills' aspect (measured by questions 13 and 14)(as shown in Table 5.40 in the Appendix) as compared to including it.

Based on the above analysis, Hypothesis 4: 'Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, are unable to be empowered' is accepted. Non-managerial employees' working in governmental service offices inability to be empowered is likely to be due to lacking the essential job-related knowledge and decision-making skills, and not receiving the necessary training on the various relevant aspects to be empowered.

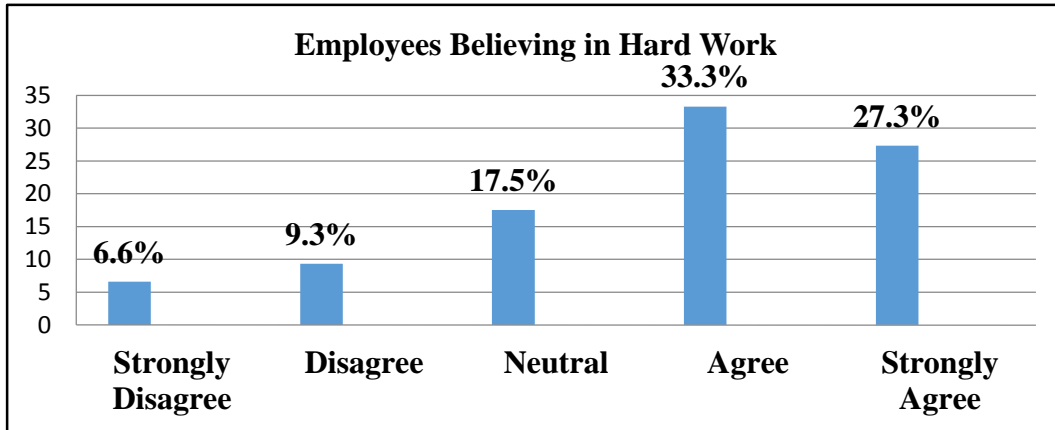
5.2.4. Employees' Personality

Questions (20-24) are used to describe employees' personality in terms of two dimensions: self-esteem and locus of control. Cronbach's alpha for these questions show low reliability [.692] (as shown in Table 5.41 in the Appendix); which could be explained by the fact that the statements comprise multi-dimensions rather than one dimension to employees' personality. Accordingly, each of the dimensions is tackled separately for the analysis.

Employees' Locus of Control

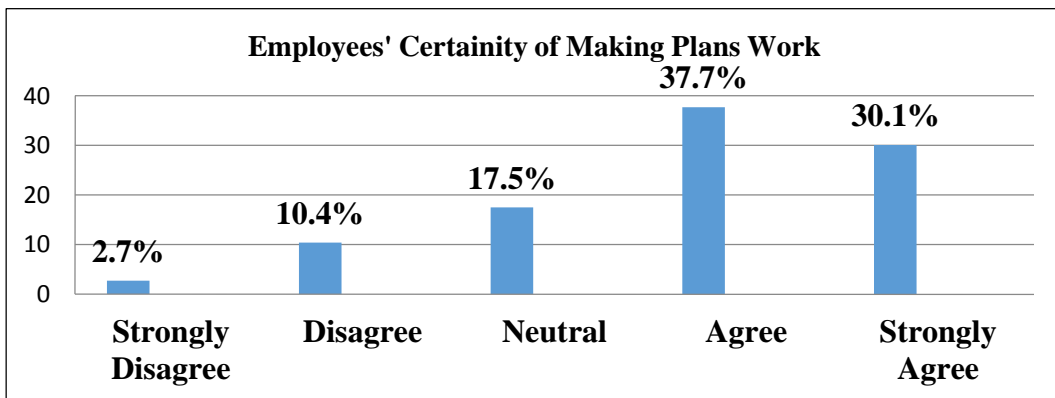
The extent to which employees have internal locus of control is assessed through questions (20) and (21). Question (20) measures the degree to which respondents believe that success is a matter of hard work not luck. This question has 172 valid responses (11 missing responses).Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: 'strongly disagree'= [6.6%]; 'disagree'= [9.3%]; 'agree'=[33.3%]; and 'strongly agree'=[27.3%] (as shown in Table 5.42 in the Appendix and Figure 5.23 below).Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [60.6%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this

statement [15.9%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe that hard work pays back in terms of success and benefits.



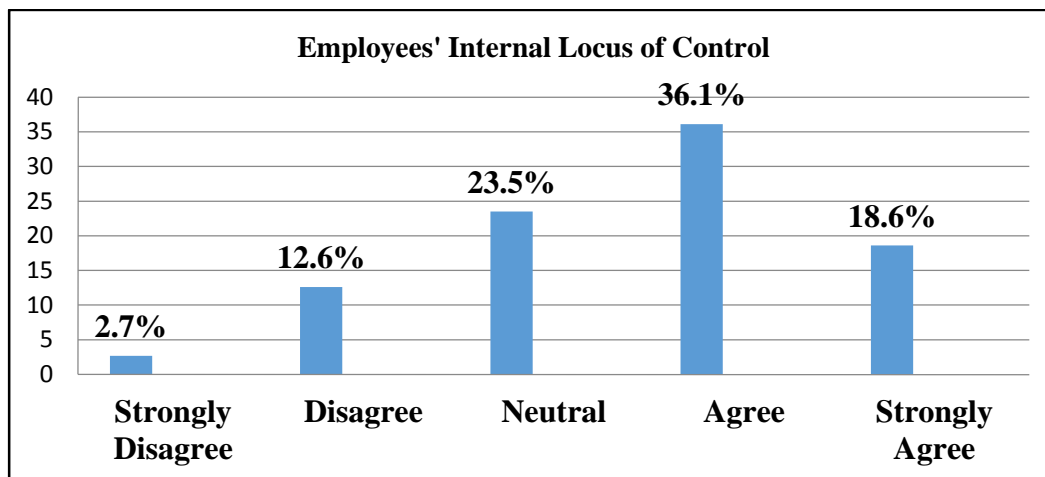
[Figure 5.23]

Question (21) measures the degree to which respondents believe that they are capable of achieving their objectives and making their plans work. This question has 180 valid responses (3 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: 'strongly disagree' = [2.7%]; 'disagree' = [10.4%]; 'agree' = [37.7%]; and 'strongly agree' = [30.1%] (as shown in Table 5.43 in the Appendix and Figure 5.24 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [68.9%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [13.1%]. A higher percentage of respondents, thus, believe in their capabilities to make their plans work.



[Figure 5.24]

Cronbach's alpha [.721] for these two aspects of the sub-variable 'internal locus of control' shows high reliability between the relevant statements (as shown in Table 5.44 in the Appendix). Thus, combining the relevant responses measuring the two aspects show that employees' report the following about their internal locus of control (as shown in Table 5.45 in the Appendix and Figure 5.25 below): 'strongly disagree' = [2.7%]; 'disagree' = [12.6%]; 'agree' = [36.1%]; and 'strongly agree' = [18.6%]. Findings imply that the percentage of employees showing that they have an internal locus of control through their responses [54.7%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [15.3%]. On these grounds, Hypothesis 5: 'Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack an internal locus of control' is rejected.



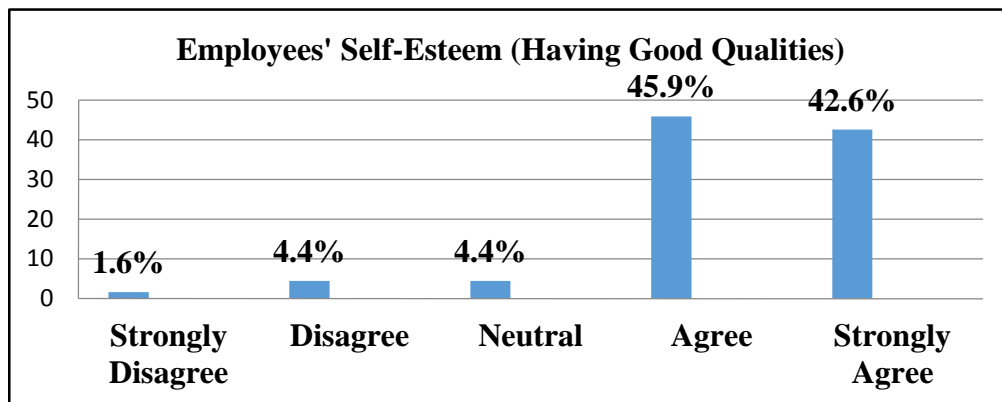
[Figure 5.25]

Employees' Self-Esteem

Employees' self-esteem is assessed through question (22) asking employees about whether they feel that they have a number of good qualities; question (23) probing about the degree to which employees feel that they can do things as well as most other people; and question (24) which asks respondents about their overall level of satisfaction with their own selves. Cronbach's alpha for these statements is low [.677], reflecting low internal reliability (as shown in Table 5.46 in the Appendix). In fact, removing question (22) would actually lead to higher reliability of the scale assessing employees' self-esteem (with Cronbach's alpha being .841) (as shown in Table 5.47 in the Appendix).

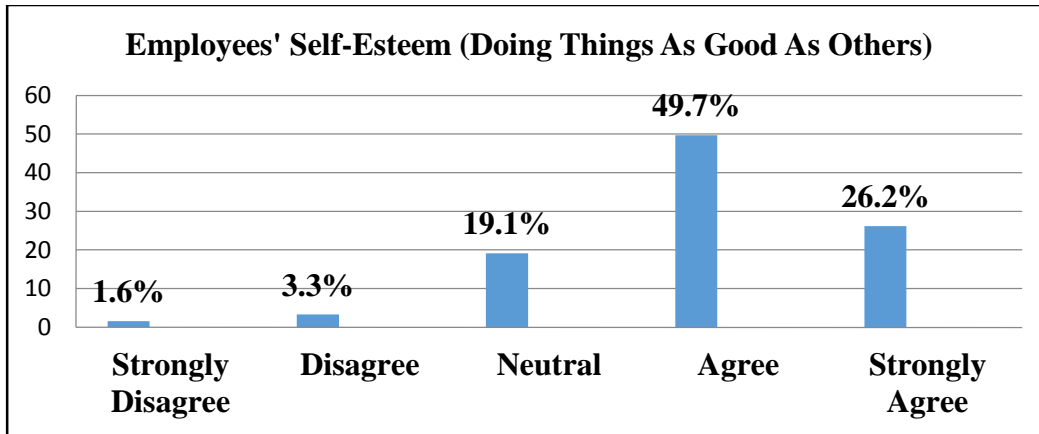
Reliability statistics for questions (23) and (24), in fact, shows cronbach's alpha of [0.840]; hence, high reliability (as shown in Table 5.48 in the Appendix). For assessing employees' self-esteem, question (22) is, therefore, evaluated separately and its contribution to the overall assessment of employees' self-esteem is done theoretically rather than statistically.

Question (22) has 181 valid responses (2 missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: 'strongly disagree' = [1.6%]; 'disagree' = [4.4%]; 'agree' = [45.9%]; and 'strongly agree' = [42.6%] (as shown in Table 5.49 in the Appendix and Figure 5.26 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [88.5%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [20.4%]. The percentage of employees who are self-confident in terms of reporting that they possess a number of good qualities is higher - more than quadruple - than those who report the opposite.



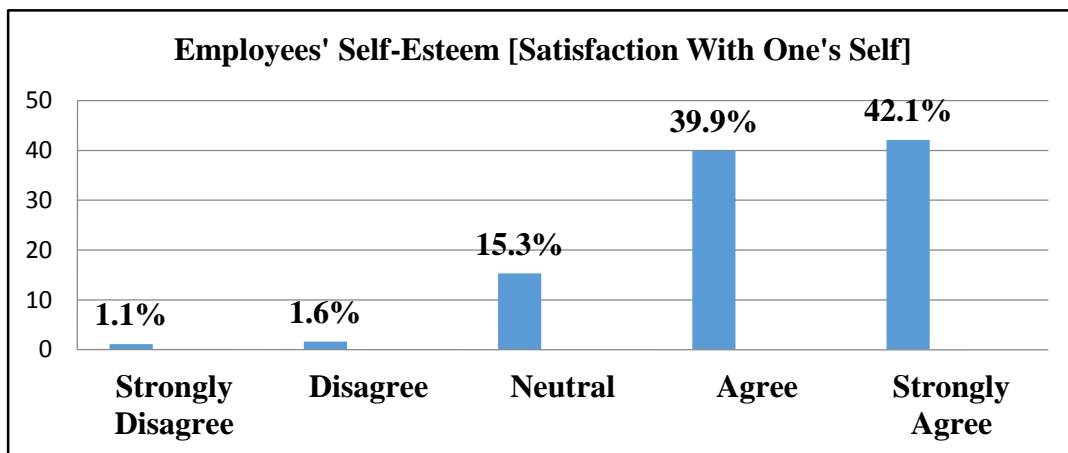
[Figure 5.26]

Question (23) has 183 valid responses (no missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: 'strongly disagree' = [1.6%]; 'disagree' = [3.3%]; 'agree' = [49.7%]; and 'strongly agree' = [26.2%] (as shown in Table 5.50 in the Appendix and Figure 5.27 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [75.9%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [4.9%]. Findings imply that almost all employees with exception to only 4.9% of them believe – or at least report that they believe- that they can do things well as most as others.



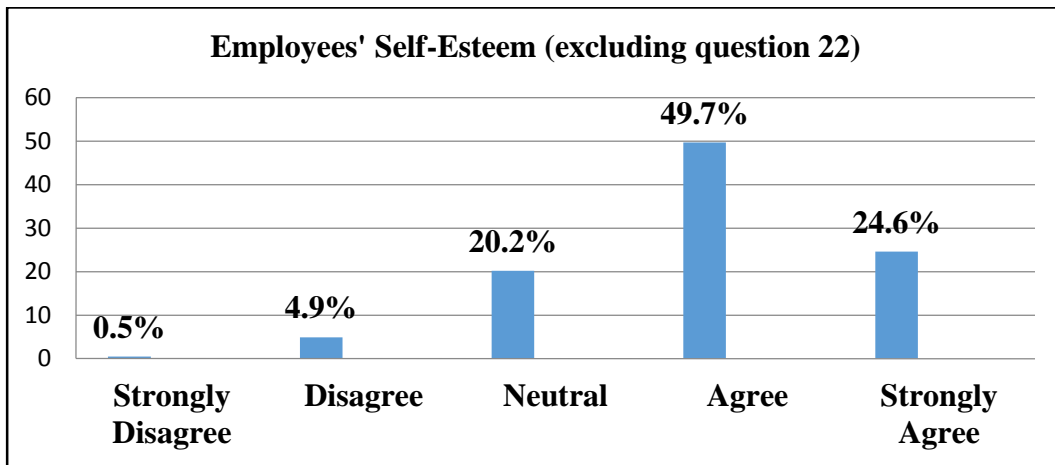
[Figure 5.27]

Question (24) has 183 valid responses (no missing responses). Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: ‘strongly disagree’= [1.1%]; ‘disagree’= [1.6%]; ‘agree’=[39.9%]; and ‘strongly agree’=[42.1%] (as shown in Table 5.51 in the Appendix and Figure 5.28 below). Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [82%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [2.7%]. Findings imply that almost all employees with exception to only 2.7% of them believe – or at least report that they believe- that they are generally satisfied with their own selves.



[Figure 5.28]

Assessing employees' self-esteem in terms of satisfaction with one's self and believing to be able to do things as well as most other people (with exclusion of question 22) generate the following findings (demonstrated in Table 5.52 in the Appendix and illustrated in Figure 5.29 below): 'strongly disagree' = [0.5%]; 'disagree' = [4.9%]; 'agree' = [49.7%]; and 'strongly agree' = [24.6%]. Findings imply that the percentage of employees who have high self-esteem is [74.3%] higher than the percentage of employees who have low self-esteem [5.4%]. In parallel to question (22) findings, Hypothesis 6: 'Non-managerial employees, in Egypt's governmental service organizations, lack self-esteem' is rejected.



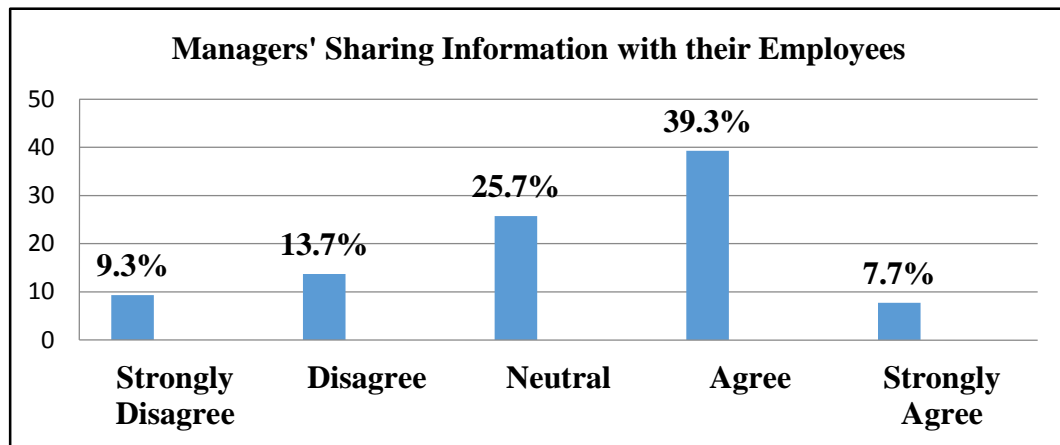
[Figure 5.29]

5.2.5. Work-Context Factors

Work-context factors, as representing the second dimension of non-managerial employees' psychological empowerment, comprise, both, 'access to financial performance-based rewards' and 'information sharing' between managers and their subordinates. The former aspect has been discussed within the context of structural empowerment barriers. It was deduced that employees do have access to financial performance-based rewards.

As for the latter aspect 'sharing information', questions (4) is analyzed for its assessment. Question (4) measures the degree to which managers share information with their subordinates about the organization's performance, and provide them with feedback about their own performance. It has 175 valid responses (8 missing

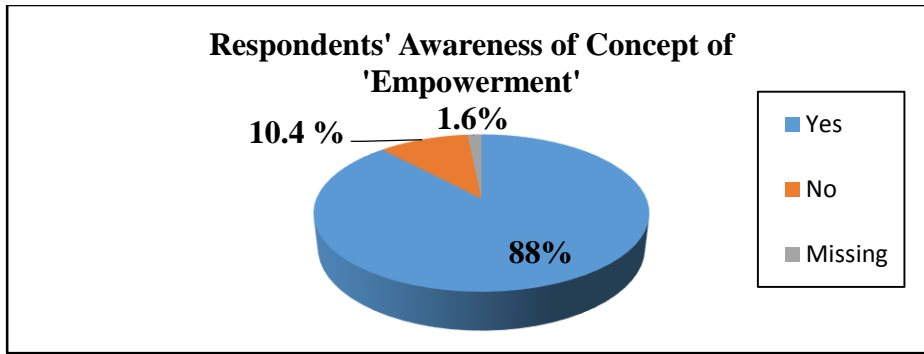
responses).Frequencies for the valid responses are as follows: ‘strongly disagree’= [9.3%]; ‘disagree’= [13.7%]; ‘agree’=[39.3%]; and ‘strongly agree’=[7.7%] (as shown in Table 5.53 in the Appendix and Figure 5.30 below).Findings imply that the percentage of employees agreeing and strongly agreeing to this statement is [47%] higher than the percentage of employees disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to this statement [23%]. Findings imply that the percentage of employees who report that managers share information with them- whether about the organization’s performance or as feedback about their own performance- is almost double those who report the opposite. Hypothesis 7: ‘Managers, in Egypt’s governmental service organizations, do not share information with non-managerial employees about the organization and/or do not provide feedback on their performance’ is, therefore, rejected.



[Figure 5.30]

5.2.6. Awareness of Concept

With regards to employees’ awareness of the concept of ‘Empowerment’, frequencies for the relevant question show that: only 19 respondents (out of the 180 employees who replied to this question) are unaware of the concept of ‘Empowerment’; comprising 10.4% of total respondents; while, in fact, 88% of total respondents are aware- or at least reporting that they are aware of the concept (as shown in Table 5.54 in the Appendix and Figure 5.31 below).



[Figure 5.31]

5.3. Discussion

The empirical study's findings and analysis reveal that some of the empowerment barriers do exist and some do not, while others cannot be fully investigated within the scope of this study.

5.3.1. Structural Empowerment Barriers

With regards to the structural empowerment barriers, it has been found out that only one of the hypothesized barriers do exist within governmental service organizations; namely 'non-managerial employees' inability to be empowered'. Three major reasons account for this. Firstly, non-managerial employees lack the necessary job-related knowledge to be empowered. Secondly, non-managerial employees do not receive essential training that provides them with the relevant skills to be effectively empowered; whether training on improving their problem solving, or teamwork, or communication and interpersonal skills. Thirdly, non-managerial employees lack the necessary decision-making skills that would enable them to take initiatives and make decisions while being held accountable for them.

These findings could, in fact, be explained through El Khatib (1970) and Farid (1982) arguments. Both authors emphasize that the problem of civil servants lacking the necessary job related knowledge originates as a result of the 1960s comprehensive employment practices to all the country's graduates in the Egyptian bureaucracy; with no proper fit between their skills and the jobs they are assigned to.

On the other hand, findings revealing the lack of provision of necessary training, that would enable employees' empowerment, match Palmer et al. (1989) study findings of subordinates reporting that they lack the needed experience and training to assume wide range of responsibilities. The lack of specialized departments that focus on assessing civil servants' training needs and designing relevant training programs could be one reason. Another reason is, as explained by Ayubi(1980), that the focus of training programs is on the technical rather than behavioral aspects.

On a different note, non-managerial employees, generally, show willingness to be empowered. In fact, they have reported that they have the desire to take initiatives and make decisions independently, and be held accountable for them without being micro managed. Findings also reveal that non-managerial employees' salary does not solely depend on their job position, but, rather, takes into account their performance. On one hand, this acts as an important factor in smoothing the deployment of empowerment practices since, as argued by Baird and Wang (2010) and Spreitzer (1995), it incentivizes non-managerial employees to handle the additional decision-making responsibilities associated with their empowerment.

On the other hand, two points should be highlighted. The first is related to the degree to which such financial performance-based rewards are really motivating for employees; with regards to its amount and sufficiency for positively affecting the quality of their lives. In fact, it is hard to argue against the fact that "civil servants suffer from extremely low salaries compared to the constant growth in prices of products and services" (CIPE, 2009, p.16). Employees' recipient of the extra bonuses and/or incentives is, thus, just one facet; whether these incentives act as a motivator is, in fact, the more important aspect that should be considered when assessing the degree to which employees are motivated to be empowered.

The second issue is related to the extent to which performance-based pay is equitable. If all employees are receiving extra bonuses and incentives - whereas those are just 'theoretically' linked to their performance rather than being based on actual performance-appraisal processes- the impact of such way of rewarding employees on their motivation to be empowered is little.

Accordingly, in comparison to what might forces within key government ministries and agencies question about the “ability and/or willingness of local units of government to implement public programs effectively” (Mayfield, 1996, p.217), it could, generally, be argued that this partially holds true. Non-managerial employees in governmental service organizations are generally unable to be empowered. Nevertheless, they are generally willing be empowered; opposing Berger (1950) arguments and Palmer et al. (1989) study findings. An overall assessment, therefore, shows that they are not on a mature or high readiness level for effective empowerment.

With regards to the organization-system level (macro-level), findings reveal that non-managerial employees’ managers hold three of the main characteristics of transformational leaders: communicating the expected goals and inspire and motivate their employees to meet them; motivating their employees to solve problems creatively and think outside the box; and paying attention to their subordinates’ concerns and care to mentor and coach them. The first feature, in fact, parallels employees’ responses in which they report that their managers communicate relevant information about the organization’s performance and provide feedback on their subordinates’ performance. The second feature complements employees’ responses about their openness to continuous learning.

Two explanations could be given for the *seemingly* contradicting responses of employees with regards to describing their managers as communicating the expected goals and other information about the organization’s, and their own, performance, on one hand, and reporting that there is centralized decision-making and lack of two-way communication between managerial and non-managerial employees, on the other hand.

Firstly, the ‘centralization versus decentralization’ statement might have been a little vague and misleading for respondents as it probes about the degree to which decision-making *in general* is centralized rather than decentralized; and not specifically *within* the context of each governmental service office. As decisions are usually taken at higher level institutions as in central agencies and ministries- and not on the level of local offices- employees’ responses are likely to reflect this; and do not elucidate the communication and leadership style within governmental service offices.

Secondly is the fact that the percentage difference between opposing opinions about the absence of two-way communication is [2.8%] which is a relatively insignificant percentage and does not help in providing irrefutable information on this aspect; as it does not really reflect whether there is lack of effective two-way communication or not. The same problem applies for responses to the statement assessing the degree to which managers listen to their subordinates' points of view and suggestions as a way to participate in the decision-making process.

On a general level, and based on non-managerial employees' responses to the statements probing about the degree to which their management/leadership style can be described as transformational, hypothesis 2 - assuming that there is lack of transformational leadership within governmental service organizations - cannot be accepted. That is especially true given that it matches the higher percentage of employees reporting that their managers share with them information about the organization's performance, and provide them with feedback about their own performance. The rest of the statements probing about relevant aspects provide inconclusive results.

On another note, whether the governmental services organizations' cultures act as an obstacle at the organization-system level to impede structural empowerment of non-managerial employees could not be wholly authenticated. On the one hand, findings reveal two features of the workplace cultures of these organizations that are opposing to what typically describes a hierarchy culture.

The first is being outcome oriented, in that the focus is on achieving the outcome rather than the rigid application of the procedures. In fact, this is a surprising result as it opposes what is typically known for Egyptian bureaucracy. Nevertheless, the diversity and ambiguity of laws governing local administration of the civil service might provide an explanation. In fact, "consecutive attempts at reform in Egypt have resulted in a variety of laws and legislatures (whereby) the rush to issue these legislatures has led to poor wording and ambiguity" (CIPE, 2009, p.18). This might have led employees to deliver the service regardless of the exact interpretations of the governing law and/or implementing regulations. Nevertheless, this has the drawback of public officials

acquiring excessive amount of discretion in providing public services; which might be the reason for much of the inconsistency of the quality of service delivery.

The second finding is related to the statistics reflecting employees' openness to continuous learning. An explanation for this could be that governmental service offices cultures might falsely appear as being sluggish due to employees being limited in their ability to apply what they continuously learn in their daily practices for more innovative performance; as a result of constraints imposed by central authorities. This renders the overall image of bureaucratic units to not be innovative and flexible. In fact, these aspects should be treated with a different manner. In other words, it would be wrong to portray the workplace cultures of governmental services offices- at least according to this study's empirical findings- to be lacking experimentation and learning while respondents' answers show that their managers continuously motivate them to think outside the box and solve problems creatively, as well as report that employees in their workplace are, generally, openness to continuous learning. Because 'innovation' and 'flexibility' are the practical aspects of the 'learning' dimension, they should not be used exclusively to describe the workplace culture; due to the intervention of external factors that might negatively impact the internal culture.

On the other hand, investigation of the 'centralization and non-democratic orientation' and 'teamwork' dimensions provides contradicting findings. As has already been discussed, findings relevant to the first dimension do not clarify the kind of relationship that truly exists between managerial and non-managerial employees; whether it is more of an autocratic or participative relationship, and whether decision-making is centralized or entails some decentralizing elements.

Pertaining to teamwork, it is also complex to draw on clear-cut conclusions. The higher percentage of employees reporting that they are not likely to compete, as opposed to those who report the contrary, might be attributable to the cultural value of 'collectivism' that characterizes the Egyptian culture on a general level, and, thus, might be reflected on a narrower level within the organizational culture. This, however, opposes El Khatib (1970) description of civil servants as being individualistic in pursuing their own goals on the expense of their colleagues' interests.

Yet, whether employees actually cooperate or not requires deeper examination as the percentage of employees who provide a ‘neutral’ response to the statement concerned with the degree to which employees compete versus cooperate is relatively high (as higher percentage of employees reported this response in comparison to employees reporting ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ combined, and those who reported ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ combined). One reason for this could be that respondents believe that employees neither compete nor cooperate and/or that their behavior depends, rather, on the situation. Such explanation is in line with Mayfield’s (1996, p.141) argument that as conflict between employees is usually considered “improper and unacceptable”, and is discouraged, by upper-echelon administrators, they are likely to be self-preserved rather than actually cooperate. It cannot, therefore, be concluded whether teamwork actually takes place through employees’ cooperation.

Accordingly, in spite of employees reporting that jobs are usually done collectively rather than individually, the way the relevant question probes about this aspect does not comprise any indicator of whether this is actual ‘teamwork’ or just ‘group work’ - in which the nature of jobs demands tasks to be done by more than one person with no actual cohesiveness between employees. This would make this statement less relevant for determining whether teamwork truly exists or not. The fact that employees have also reported that they have not received training on – among other things- improving their teamwork skills makes this questionable.

Statistical evidence also shows that there is lack of reliability between the two questions and a weak relationship between the two statements. In other words, whether both statements are eliciting responses about teamwork, and not group work, is highly doubted.

5.3.2. Psychological Empowerment Barriers

None of the psychological empowerment barriers investigated in this study exist within governmental services offices. An analysis of employees’ personality shows that they neither lack an internal locus of control nor self-esteem; nor, thus, is considered to be a barrier to their psychological empowerment. Statistical correlations, in fact, show that, within the level of significance (10%) determined for this study, there is a significant

relationship between employees' responses to the desire to be empowered and having internal locus of control [significance two-tailed level of .000]; contrary to the relationship with the self-esteem dimension of personality. Even more, cronbach's alpha of [0.785] actually shows consistency between the aspects of 'employees' intrinsic desire to be empowered' and 'having an internal locus of control' (as shown in Tables 5.55 and 5.56 in the Appendix, respectively)

The two work context factors investigated in this study, also, do not impede employees' psychological empowerment. As previously noted, respondents note that managers share information with their subordinates about the organization's performance, as well as provide them with feedback about their own performance. This, in fact, is not really contrary to Mayfield's (1996, p.141) argument that Egyptian administrators consider information to be "one of the few sources of power in the administrative system", and, thus, are more likely to hold back information which they believe that others "have no need to know". That is because the relevant question in this study probes about only two types of information: those relevant to the organization's performance and subordinates' performance.

As for other type of information, which would better be described as 'knowledge', findings could not be certain. This parallels previous discussion about the vagueness of the actual relationship that exists between managerial and non-managerial employees within governmental service organizations. On the other hand, whether two-way communication exists between managers and their employees is of less relevance for investigating the psychological empowerment barriers- as opposed to the structural empowerment barriers.

In addition, employees, generally, do not lack access to financial performance-based rewards. The public servant's wage is actually composed of two components; the base and the variable. Nonetheless, the extent to which it positively impact employees' psychological empowerment, in terms of providing them with increased feelings of self-efficacy, as suggested by Conger and Kanungo (1988), and/or allowing them to recognize their personal competencies, as argued by Spreitzer (1995), requires determining the

degree to which it is effective; which implies that the previously discussed points about this aspect should be taken into consideration.

5.3.3. Awareness of the ‘Empowerment’ concept

As most of the respondents report that they are aware of the ‘Empowerment’ concept, this acts as a further facilitator to deploy empowerment practices within governmental service organizations in Egypt. Generally, awareness/ consciousness of the concept is the first step towards its successful application. Nevertheless, self-reporting bias, as will be discussed in the following chapter, should be considered when interpreting these results. In other words, employees’ tendency not to show their unawareness of the concept should be factored in and considered.

Chapter 6: Recommendations and Suggestions

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section provides recommendations for facilitating non-managerial employees' empowerment; whether through overcoming the structural empowerment barriers identified in this study, and/or through strengthening the prerequisite structural and psychological empowerment aspects that have also been highlighted in this study. The various opportunities and challenges for improvement existing within the context of governmental services offices are also discussed. The second section offers suggestions for future research based on the limitations identified within this empirical study.

6.1. Recommendations for Facilitating Non-managerial Employees' Empowerment

6.1. 1. Overcoming the Structural Empowerment Barriers

Within the context of this study, employees' inability to be empowered is the only empowerment barrier identified. Three major obstacles are highlighted with respect to this structural empowerment dimension. Regarding the first barrier, 'the lack of job-related knowledge', training programs should be provided for employees to enhance their knowledge on conducting their job-related tasks. This, in fact, requires specialized training and development personnel who are able to devise periodic training programs for this purpose. Training needs should be identified based on assessments conducted for employees- each within his/her area of specialization; as well as through providing employees the channel to communicate their developmental needs- whether informally through improved two-way communication with their managers, or formally to the training and development departments.

Furthermore, the 'person-job' poor fit should be potentially avoided through future recruitment processes. Employees should not be only assigned job positions based on their university degrees, but, rather, tests should be conducted to assess the degree to which the applicant possess the relevant essential knowledge needed for the job. This would, accordingly, ensure the best fit between the level of job-related knowledge possessed by the employee and the assigned job. Additionally, 'handing over' the job

should entail more than just the transfer of documents and job-related assets to the newly hired employee. Instead, it should also comprise the kind of on-the-job training needed to transfer knowledge, skills, and tools; and provide the newly hired employees with the chance to learn from the experiences of the more tenured staff.

In fact, establishing specialized training and development - or learning and development- departments is also crucial for overcoming the other two barriers: employees' not possessing the decision-making skills, and the lack of provision of training programs to enhance the relevant skills needed for empowerment. Training programs and regular workshops designed to enhance employees' communication and interpersonal skills should be provided to all employees on regular, rather than needs-assessment, basis. Conflict management and resolution sessions, for example, should enable employees to improve the quality of their interactions. This would also enhance the spirit of teamwork cooperation among the organization's employees. Whistle blowing channels should also be made available as it provides employees with the chance to report negative behaviors in a productive way; rather than channeling those in the form of dysfunctional conflicts. In fact, partnering with the National Management Institute – which is an important Regional Development Consultant- should prove beneficial in terms of providing consultation to the relevant institutions on human capital development and administrative capacities development.

A crucial point is that training programs, in general, should not be standardized for all employees, but should, instead, be customized to target the various developmental and learning needs of the various employees. Equally important, there should be regular assessment and evaluation of the impact of training programs provided to help create effective (and cost-effective) training programs; where, at the same time, feedback is provided to employees about its effectiveness.

On the other hand, enhancing employees' problem-solving and decision-making skills require a more 'hands-on' approach to learning; through participating in making decisions relevant to the employee's department and/or for the whole organization. This would only be effective to the extent that managers within the governmental services organizations encourage the decentralization of decision-making; in which effective two-

way communication takes place where managers share information and, simultaneously, listen to their subordinates' suggestions, concerns, and points of views. This includes giving employees the chance to identify their own developmental needs and determining the impediments to their ability to be empowered.

6.1.2. Strengthening the Structural and Psychological Components of Employees' Empowerment

Other structural and psychological aspects to empowerment have been discussed in this study. Findings reveal that they either exist in a facilitating, rather than in a hindering, way to empowerment, or that the way they impact empowerment within the context of organizations studied cannot be authenticated. It is also crucial to discuss how these aspects should be tackled within governmental services organizations to facilitate non-managerial employees' empowerment. Two aspects, specifically, are worth reflection on.

First, with regards to teamwork orientation, it is crucial to integrate the various elements of teamwork within the workplace cultures. The seeds of teamwork already exist within governmental service organizations; as has been revealed from the study's findings that employees are more energized by working collectively rather than independently. Work-related tasks should, thus, be reshaped to be effectively accomplished within teams rather than, merely, groups. This would lead to the creation of synergies, reduces duplication of steps, and allows for the more efficient use of resources. This, therefore, helps in creating learning opportunities for team members, exchanging skills and experiences, and making developmental opportunities more accessible for employees; all are essential elements for enhancing employees' ability to be empowered.

The second aspect is related to the provision of financial performance-based rewards. As previously discussed, for employees' access to such types of rewards to have an effective positive impact on their willingness to be empowered, employees should be able to identify the link between their level of performance and how they are being financially rewarded. This comprises equity in the allocation of rewards, and appropriate compensation and pay amounts that would enable employees maintain and improve the quality of their lives. A performance-based management system should be established

within the Egyptian bureaucracy, on a broad scale, and within governmental services offices, more specifically.

This system should entail more than the deployment of a performance-based pay structure. Instead, a systematic approach to setting strategic performance objectives, communicating performance expectations, evaluating performance, and conducting mutual performance appraisal systems should be instituted. Performance appraisals should be effectively applied with employees being evaluated fairly and based on pre-set and communicated criteria. Employees should not all be graded equally as this would have a negative impact on their motivation levels. An important criterion for evaluation could be the degree to which non-managerial employees take initiatives and make effective decisions which they take responsibility of. In fact, performance-based management would help in governing the quality of, and the way in which employees take, decisions as it hold employees accountable.

6.1.3. Context of Governmental Service Organizations

This empirical study's findings reveal that some aspects that would actually provide the base for the incorporation of these recommendations do exist within governmental service offices. These include: the high level of employees' awareness of the concept of 'Empowerment'; their high self-esteem and internal locus of control that is crucial for their psychological empowerment; their openness to continuous learning; and most importantly, their intrinsic desire to be empowered. These aspects should be embraced, rather than suppressed, to parallel efforts for improving employees' ability to be empowered; if any improvements regarding employees' empowerment, in general, are to be accomplished.

On the other hand, there are some challenges that should be taken into consideration. The first is related to the nature of relationship between top management represented in ministries and central government agencies and institutions, on one hand, and managerial employees within governmental service offices, on the other hand. The fact that decision-making is generally known to be centralized within central agencies implies that managers in local administration offices and governmental services organizations generally have limited scope of authorities within their organizations; which acts as a

barrier per se as managers cannot empower their subordinates if they, themselves, are not being empowered.

Secondly, institutionalizing managerial practices that support and facilitate employees' psychological and structural empowerment require a major shift in the mindset of Egyptian public officials on all levels, as well as within the cultures of Egyptian governmental agencies. On the top of the changes required is creating a learning organization culture in which knowledge management mechanisms are established which allows for the documentation and exchange of learning experiences. Employees, according to this study, show high level of willingness to engage in a continuous process of learning. This should be constrained by neither the employees' direct managers nor the central authorities to allow for the 'experimentation' and 'flexibility' aspects to transpire as actual practices within the governmental services offices.

Furthermore, major changes should be done to the government bureaucracy on a more general level. Many of the recommendations comprise changes that can only be achieved through comprehensive civil service reforms. Most-if not all- reflect New Public Management doctrine with its concepts and principles, and include: establishing specialized Human Resources departments that perform beyond what is related to 'personnel matters' including the training and development of governmental employees; and introducing private sector practices such as fair and just performance evaluation systems.

Thirdly, one of the major challenges is the centralized and concentrated governmental fiscal system in which all budgetary-related decisions lay within the central government; and where local government administrative organizations and units are not recognized as separate budget entities. In fact, the financial autonomy given to service delivery central authorities is also very much limited. Such a system adds even more obstacles that would impede the success of any decentralization and empowerment efforts. Firstly, it limits the amount of financial resources available for the deployment of any relevant empowerment practices. Secondly, it is considered a typical example of lack of decentralization per se. It is, thus, crucial that local government administration units are given autonomous discretion in allocating financial resources to establish and entrench practices that would

facilitate decentralization and the empowerment of street-level bureaucrats. This should, undoubtedly, parallel improved accountability mechanisms and governance practices that would ensure that financial spending serves this purpose.

Another challenge is the limited budget and financial resources made available and being allocated to the civil service system specifically. More budgets should be allocated for public service governmental agencies, organizations, and offices. One of the solutions could be that financial assistance sought from international development agencies should be directed to introduce these comprehensive civil service reforms that should not merely focus on bottom-line outputs (such as the provision of more training programs to more civil servants for example); but, rather, emphasize entrenching NPM practices and principles, and facilitate the decentralization of the decision-making process for the related aspects including budget allocation decisions.

On another note, the new Egyptian Civil Service Law (Law 18 of 2015) introduces new measures that seem promising in other various aspects. Introducing more transparent procedures for the selection and qualification of candidates, increasing the probationary period of new hires, and terminating non-qualified candidates, all go in parallel with ensuring the proper and effective ‘person-job’ fit. Additionally, some other measures provide the basis for a good performance-based management system; including taking serious actions based on employees’ performance reports which might entail transferring to another position, as well as changing promotion basis to be determined by qualification rather than seniority. However, it is worth noting that the degree to which the implementation of the law is feasible is highly questionable; especially with many of its implementing regulations being vague and opposed by many parties.

6.2. Suggestions for Future Research

Data analysis was not only helpful in clarifying the various factors affecting employees’ empowerment, but it also shed the light on some aspects that should be accounted for while doing future studies for the same topic or other related topics. The researcher, thus, makes the following suggestions.

Firstly, some aspects require further investigation as they led to inconclusive findings. More research that investigates the relationships between managerial employees, and non-managerial employees within the public service is required. This includes re-examining the aspects of: centralization versus decentralization of decision-making; sharing information; two-way communication; and leadership/management styles.

Similarly, the extent to which governmental services offices' cultures embrace teamwork should be further investigated. Employees should be specifically asked about their collective cooperation, and the degree to which the nature of their job-related tasks facilitate or hinder teamwork. Also, the critical difference between teamwork and group work should be clarified. Moreover, the degree to which employees are motivated with the provision of the financial performance-based rewards and its impact on their desire and willingness to be empowered should be researched.

In fact, one of the limitations of the questionnaire used in this study is the way some of the questions are formulated; in terms of not allowing the researcher to gain further insights, and actually leading to inconclusive findings. These include the following:

- Question (2) asking about the extent to which decisions are centralized or decentralized. The way it is formulated is vague because it does not specify whether it implies decision-making in general or within the borders of public service offices.
- Question (9) probing about whether employees receive performance-based financial rewards.
- Question (10) asking about the degree to which respondents believe that employees in their organization are open to continuously learn new things. Clarifying what 'things' entail is crucial.
- Question (11) probing about the degree to which respondents believe that employees in their organization tend to compete rather than cooperate.

Secondly, the reliability measures allowed the researcher to determine the degree to which there is internal consistency between employees' responses, and accordingly, between the various statements/aspects intended to measure and assess a variable. Because of low reliability, questions (13) and (14) pertaining to employees' teamwork

skills have been excluded from the scale intended to measure employees' ability to be empowered. Thus, future research should consider whether the dimension of 'teamwork skills' is, actually, relevant to determining and assessing employees' ability to be empowered. On another note, question (22) that is intended to assess the degree to which employees believe that they possess a number of good qualities has low reliability with respect to the other two dimensions measuring employees' self-esteem. Therefore, this question should be reformulated.

Testing the significance of the relationships between the various items on the scale also provided deeper insight into what should be re-examined to determine the degree of its relevance to what is intended to be measure. For example, as the correlation between employees' intrinsic desire to be empowered and employees' personality show, employees' internal locus of control was found to be more significantly related to the former aspect. This raises concerns about whether employees' self-esteem should be a dimension of an employee's personality that needs to be assessed for determining their psychological empowerment propensity or not.

Thirdly, the findings relevant to one variable were surprising, and the researcher could not provide for logical justification for explaining it. This was employees' reporting that the primary focus is on getting the job done rather than the procedures and processes to follow; hence that governmental service organizations are outcome-orientated. Interactions with public service organizations and offices always include the long process of obtaining stamps and approvals. Findings were, in fact, contradicting to our daily experiences. This, thus, should be further examined; especially that it is a typical feature we use when describing the Egyptian bureaucracy.

Fourthly, employees' personalities were assessed within the context of this study using a narrow approach (a total of five (5) questions). More reliable examination of employees' personalities should be done through prolonged personality tests that include various dimensions to the relevant aspects of self-esteem and locus of control. This would help overcome self-reporting biases, which has not been avoided in this study.

Other general points should be considered. The first is related to the percentages of males and females respondents. Although the fact that half of the respondents are males - the rest are either females or unknown- doesn't affect findings because questions could not entail a gender-oriented bias, future sampling should consider this. In addition, on a more general level, the sample size should be increased to allow for more credibility in the generalization of findings. This could, actually, help overcome the problem of insignificant differences between opposing responses- which rendered some findings inconclusive. Additionally, the feasibility of using a multi-stage clustered sampling should be considered as it would help in controlling for many of the intervening variables that have not been controlled for in this study; including: having organizations of different sizes, cultures, years of establishment, etc.

On another note, it is crucial to acknowledge that the timing during which questionnaires were administered is an important factor that should be considered when reading through the analysis. Distribution of the questionnaire took place after the Egyptian government's announcements of the introduction of the new Civil Service law; which was opposed by many government employees. Their concerns include fear of reduction of their salaries, and interpreting that the law gives sector leaders "whom they accused of creating slackness" the authority to reduce the number of public sector workers.

Accordingly, the percentage of employees accepting to participate in the survey was negatively affected; as many feared that the study's findings would be used by the central government to guide decisions taken with respect to the implementing regulations of the new law. In addition, those who responded to survey either refused to respond to the general information required in the questionnaire. The researcher also attributes the missing responses to some questions as well as the probability of distorting responses and/or exacerbating rating for certain statements (such as personality-related questions and the 'awareness of the concept' question) to the same reason.

The researcher also suggests that future research, for the same topic or for related areas of research, should be supplemented with conducting interviews with managerial and non-managerial employees, as well as use other research tools (e.g. observation), to gain a deeper and more balanced insight i.e. methodological triangulation. Generally, as

previously highlighted, the findings of this research merely reflect employees' perceptions about the different aspects investigated; which are also largely subjected to self-reporting bias. Interviewing service-recipients who deal on a one-to-one basis with street-level bureaucrats, and/or distributing questionnaires to them, could also help in gaining a more balanced, objective, and comprehensive insight. In addition, further research should explore and discover the factors that determine employees' intrinsic desire and willingness to be empowered on a larger scope; through, for example, the use of motivational theories as the basis for the conceptual framework.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR NON-MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES

Barriers Towards Employees' Structural and Psychological Empowerment: A Study of Non-Managerial Employees in Governmental Service Organizations in Cairo

- **Principal Investigator: Passant Bassem Mahmoud**
- You are being asked to participate in a research study. The purpose of the research is to empirically investigate the possible barriers that might impede non-managerial employees' empowerment in governmental service institutions in Egypt; and, accordingly, to provide solutions for overcoming these obstacles.
- The procedures of the research will be as follows: *self-administered questionnaires will be distributed to non-managerial employees. Once completed, the questionnaire is to be handed back to the researcher.*
- The expected duration of your participation is 20 minutes.
- **The information you provide for purposes of this research is confidential and anonymous. Thus, please do not mention your name neither write your signature.**
- **Participation in this study is voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or the loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.**

- **Gender:**
- A. Male
- B. Female

• **Please specify your institution and job title:-----**

- **How long have you been working in this governmental organization/body?**
- A. For less than 5 years
- B. 5-10 years
- C. 10-15 years
- D. 15-20 years
- E. For more than 20 years

Please determine the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Kindly indicate your response by ticking the box below your chosen answer.

- In the governmental organization/body I am working in:

1. Managers listen to non-managerial employees' points of view and suggestions as a way in which they are allowed to participate in the decision-making process	Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 1-----	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 2-----	Neutral <input type="checkbox"/> 3-----	Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 4-----	Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 5
2. The decision-making process is 'centralized' rather than 'decentralized'	Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 1-----	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 2-----	Neutral <input type="checkbox"/> 3-----	Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 4-----	Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 5
3. Managers clearly communicate the expected goals; and inspire and motivate their employees to meet them	Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 1-----	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 2-----	Neutral <input type="checkbox"/> 3-----	Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 4-----	Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 5
4. Managers share information with their subordinates about the organization's performance, and provide them with feedback about their own performance	Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 1-----	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 2-----	Neutral <input type="checkbox"/> 3-----	Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 4-----	Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 5
5. There is, generally, lack of two-way communication between managers and non-managerial employees	Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 1-----	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 2-----	Neutral <input type="checkbox"/> 3-----	Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 4-----	Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 5
6. Managers motivate their employees to be creative; and work in new- rather than traditional- ways	Strongly Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 1-----	Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> 2-----	Neutral <input type="checkbox"/> 3-----	Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 4-----	Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> 5

7. Managers pay attention to their subordinates' concerns and care to mentor and coach them	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
8. The primary focus is on getting the job done rather than the procedures and processes to follow to achieve the goal	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
9. A non-managerial employee's salary is based on his/her job position rather than his/her actual performance	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
10. Employees are, generally, open to continuously learn new things	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. Employees tend to compete rather than cooperate	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
12. Job-related tasks are usually done individually rather than in teams	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13. I am more energized by collaborating with other individuals rather than working independently	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. I have the necessary teamwork skills that would enable me to work with others effectively	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
15. I have the necessary decision-making skills that would enable me to take initiatives and make decisions independently without referring back to my manager; and be accountable for them	Strongly Disagree □1-----□2-----□3-----□4-----□5	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

<p>16. I have received the necessary training (on teamwork, problem solving, communication, and interpersonal skills) that would enable me to take initiatives and make decisions independently without referring back to my manager; and be accountable for them</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/>1-----<input type="checkbox"/>2 -----<input type="checkbox"/>3 -----<input type="checkbox"/>4-----<input type="checkbox"/>5</p>
<p>17. I have the needed job-related knowledge that would enable me to take initiatives and make decisions independently without referring back to my manager; and be accountable for them</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/>1-----<input type="checkbox"/>2 -----<input type="checkbox"/>3 -----<input type="checkbox"/>4-----<input type="checkbox"/>5</p>
<p>18. I believe I am able to take initiatives and make decisions independently without referring back to my manager(if that was possible); and be accountable for them</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/>1-----<input type="checkbox"/>2 -----<input type="checkbox"/>3 -----<input type="checkbox"/>4-----<input type="checkbox"/>5</p>
<p>19. I am willing to take initiatives and make decisions independently without referring back to my manager(if that was possible); and be accountable for them</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/>1-----<input type="checkbox"/>2 -----<input type="checkbox"/>3 -----<input type="checkbox"/>4-----<input type="checkbox"/>5</p>
<p>20. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/>1-----<input type="checkbox"/>2 -----<input type="checkbox"/>3 -----<input type="checkbox"/>4-----<input type="checkbox"/>5</p>

21. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work	Strongly Disagree □1	Disagree □2	Neutral □3	Agree □4	Strongly Agree □5
22. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	Strongly Disagree □1	Disagree □2	Neutral □3	Agree □4	Strongly Agree □5
23. I am able to do things as good as most other people	Strongly Disagree □1	Disagree □2	Neutral □3	Agree □4	Strongly Agree □5
24. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	Strongly Disagree □1	Disagree □2	Neutral □3	Agree □4	Strongly Agree □5

- Are you aware of the term/ concept of 'Empowerment'?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No

APPENDIX B: FINDINGS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION TABLES

Table 5.1

Statistics [Gender]

N	Valid	162
	Missing	21

Table 5.2

Statistics [Gender]

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	M	93	50.8	57.4	57.4
	F	69	37.7	42.6	100.0
	Total	162	88.5	100.0	
Missing	System	21	11.5		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.3

Statistics [Tenure]

N	Valid	163
	Missing	20

Table 5.4

Statistics [Tenure]

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	For less than 5 years	105	57.4	64.4	64.4
	5-10 years	46	25.1	28.2	92.6
	10-15 years	5	2.7	3.1	95.7
	15-20 years	3	1.6	1.8	97.5
	For more than 20 years	4	2.2	2.5	100.0
	Total		163	89.1	100.0
Missing	System	20	10.9		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.5

Reliability Statistics

[Workplace Culture Dimensions]

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.685	.680	7

Table 5.6

Reliability Statistics
[Centralization and Non-democratic Orientation]

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.759	.752	3

Table 5.7**Views_Suggestions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	42	23.0	23.3	23.3
	Disagree	36	19.7	20.0	43.3
	Neutral	23	12.6	12.8	56.1
	Agree	65	35.5	36.1	92.2
	Strongly Agree	14	7.7	7.8	100.0
Total		180	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.8**Centralized Decision-Making**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	30	16.4	16.6	16.6
	Disagree	26	14.2	14.4	30.9
	Neutral	31	16.9	17.1	48.1
	Agree	72	39.3	39.8	87.8
	Strongly Agree	22	12.0	12.2	100.0
	Total	181	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.1		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.9**Lack of Two way Communication**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	7.1	7.5	7.5
	Disagree	44	24.0	25.3	32.8
	Neutral	55	30.1	31.6	64.4
	Agree	50	27.3	28.7	93.1
	Strongly Agree	12	6.6	6.9	100.0
	Total	174	95.1	100.0	
Missing	System	9	4.9		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.10

Correlations [Views&Suggestions, Centralized Decision-Making, Lack of Two-way Communication]

			Views_Suggestions	Centralized_vs_Decentralized	Two_way_Communication
Spearman's rho	Views_Suggestions	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.713**	.340**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		N	180	180	173
	Centralized_vs_Decentralized	Correlation Coefficient	.713**	1.000	.425**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		N	180	181	174
Two_way_Communication	Two_way_Communication	Correlation Coefficient	.340**	.425**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
		N	173	174	174

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.11

Views_Suggestions * Centralized_vs_Decentralized Crosstabulation

Count		Lack_of_Two_way_Communication					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Views_Suggestions	Strongly Disagree	7	14	9	8	1	39
	Disagree	2	13	13	7	0	35
	Neutral	1	5	8	8	0	22
	Agree	1	11	20	26	5	63
	Strongly Agree	2	1	4	1	6	14
Total		13	44	54	50	12	173

Table 5.12**Views_Suggestions * Lack of_Two_way_Communication Crosstabulation**

Count							
		Centralized_vs_Decentralized					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Views_Suggestions	Strongly Disagree	30	2	0	9	1	42
	Disagree	0	21	4	10	1	36
	Neutral	0	2	18	2	1	23
	Agree	0	0	8	50	7	65
	Strongly Agree	0	1	0	1	12	14
Total		30	26	30	72	22	180

Table 5.13**Outcome_orientation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.8	3.9	3.9
	Disagree	20	10.9	11.2	15.2
	Neutral	45	24.6	25.3	40.4
	Agree	76	41.5	42.7	83.1
	Strongly Agree	30	16.4	16.9	100.0
	Total	178	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.7		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.14**Employees' Openness to Continuous Learning**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	7.1	7.1	7.1
	Disagree	38	20.8	20.9	28.0
	Neutral	74	40.4	40.7	68.7
	Agree	51	27.9	28.0	96.7
	Strongly Agree	6	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	182	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.15**Employees Compete Rather Than Cooperate**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	6.0	6.2	6.2
	Disagree	49	26.8	27.5	33.7
	Neutral	73	39.9	41.0	74.7
	Agree	40	21.9	22.5	97.2
	Strongly Agree	5	2.7	2.8	100.0
	Total	178	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.7		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.16**Job-related Tasks_Done_ Individually**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	9	4.9	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	57	31.1	31.8	36.9
	Neutral	65	35.5	36.3	73.2
	Agree	39	21.3	21.8	95.0
	Strongly Agree	9	4.9	5.0	100.0
	Total	179	97.8	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.2		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.17**Reliability Statistics [Teamwork Orientation]**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.693	2

Table 5.18**Correlations [Employees' Competing & Individual Work]**

			Compete_Vs_Cooperate	Individually_Vs_Teamwork
Spearman's rho	Compete_Vs_Cooperate	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.475**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	178	175
	Individually_Vs_Teamwork	Correlation Coefficient	.475**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	175	179

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.19**Reliability Statistics [Questions 3,6&7]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.860	.865	3

Table 5.20**Inspirational Motivation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	22	12.0	12.5	12.5
	Disagree	24	13.1	13.6	26.1
	Neutral	40	21.9	22.7	48.9
	Agree	71	38.8	40.3	89.2
	Strongly Agree	19	10.4	10.8	100.0
	Total	176	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	7	3.8		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.21**Intellectual Stimulation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	4.4	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	21	11.5	12.0	16.6
	Neutral	50	27.3	28.6	45.1
	Agree	78	42.6	44.6	89.7
	Strongly Agree	18	9.8	10.3	100.0
	Total	175	95.6	100.0	
Missing	System	8	4.4		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.22**Individualized Consideration**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	2.7	2.9	2.9
	Disagree	17	9.3	9.9	12.9
	Neutral	44	24.0	25.7	38.6
	Agree	82	44.8	48.0	86.5
	Strongly Agree	23	12.6	13.5	100.0
	Total	171	93.4	100.0	
Missing	System	12	6.6		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.23**Transformational_Leadership**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	4.4	4.9	4.9
	Disagree	29	15.8	17.9	22.8
	Neutral	60	32.8	37.0	59.9
	Agree	58	31.7	35.8	95.7
	Strongly Agree	7	3.8	4.3	100.0
	Total	162	88.5	100.0	
Missing	System	21	11.5		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.24**Reliability Statistics [Employees' Readiness]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.884	.882	8

Table 5.25**Employees' Willingness To Be Empowered**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	9.8	10.8	10.8
	Disagree	39	21.3	23.5	34.3
	Neutral	40	21.9	24.1	58.4
	Agree	47	25.7	28.3	86.7
	Strongly Agree	22	12.0	13.3	100.0
	Total	166	90.7	100.0	
Missing	System	17	9.3		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.26**Salary Based on Job Position Rather Than Actual Performance**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	33	18.0	18.3	18.3
	Disagree	51	27.9	28.3	46.7
	Neutral	36	19.7	20.0	66.7
	Agree	23	12.6	12.8	79.4
	Strongly Agree	37	20.2	20.6	100.0
	Total	180	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.27**Correlations [Intrinsic Desire & Salary]**

			Salary	Willingness
Spearman's rho	Salary	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.514**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	180	163
	Willingness	Correlation Coefficient	.514**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	163	166

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.28**Employees Possessing_Job_related_Knowledge**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	9.8	10.0	10.0
	Disagree	52	28.4	28.9	38.9
	Neutral	47	25.7	26.1	65.0
	Agree	49	26.8	27.2	92.2
	Strongly Agree	14	7.7	7.8	100.0
	Total	180	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.29**Employees Possesing_Decision-making_Skills**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	23	12.6	12.7	12.7
	Disagree	49	26.8	27.1	39.8
	Neutral	48	26.2	26.5	66.3
	Agree	45	24.6	24.9	91.2
	Strongly Agree	15	8.2	8.3	99.4
	11	1	.5	.6	100.0
Total		181	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.1		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.30**Energized_Through_Teamwork**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.8	3.9	3.9
	Disagree	22	12.0	12.2	16.0
	Neutral	64	35.0	35.4	51.4
	Agree	69	37.7	38.1	89.5
	Strongly Agree	19	10.4	10.5	100.0
	Total	181	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.1		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.31**Employees Possessing_Teamwork_Skills**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.3	3.4	3.4
	Disagree	16	8.7	9.0	12.4
	Neutral	61	33.3	34.5	46.9
	Agree	73	39.9	41.2	88.1
	Strongly Agree	21	11.5	11.9	100.0
	Total	177	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	6	3.3		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.32

Correlations [Possessing Teamwork Skills]

			Teamwork_Skills	Energized_Individually_Vs_Teamwork
Spearman's rho	Teamwork_Skills	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.724**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	177	176
		Energized_Individually_Vs_Teamwork		
	Energized_Individually_Vs_Teamwork	Correlation Coefficient	.724**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	176	181

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.33

Energized_through_Teamwork * Teamwork_Skills Crosstabulation

Count		Teamwork_Skills					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Energized_Individually_Vs_Teamwork	Strongly Disagree	4	1	0	2	0	7
	Disagree	0	13	5	4	0	22
	Neutral	1	1	48	10	2	62
	Agree	0	0	7	56	3	66
	Strongly Agree	1	0	1	1	16	19
	Total		6	15	61	73	21

Table 5.34**Reliability Statistics [Employees' Ability]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.873	.868	6

Table 5.35**Item-Total Statistics [Ability Dimensions]**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Energized_ Individually_ Vs_ Teamwork	15.1479	23.174	.406	.508	.891
Teamwork_ Skills	15.0178	22.541	.510	.553	.876
Decisionmaking_ Skills	15.6331	17.674	.754	.590	.838
Training	15.6864	18.228	.804	.763	.827
Job_ related_ Knowledg e	15.6272	18.819	.798	.829	.830
Ability	15.6095	18.680	.788	.821	.831

Table 5.36**Received Training**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	13.7	13.8	13.8
	Disagree	49	26.8	27.1	40.9
	Neutral	45	24.6	24.9	65.7
	Agree	46	25.1	25.4	91.2
	Strongly Agree	16	8.7	8.8	100.0
	Total	181	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.1		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.37**Employees' Ability To Be Empowered [Direct Responses]**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	20	10.9	11.2	11.2
	Disagree	49	26.8	27.5	38.8
	Neutral	48	26.2	27.0	65.7
	Agree	44	24.0	24.7	90.4
	Strongly Agree	17	9.3	9.6	100.0
	Total	178	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.7		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.38**Employees' Ability To Be Empowered [Indirect Responses]**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	13.7	14.0	14.0
	Disagree	54	29.5	30.3	44.4
	Neutral	52	28.4	29.2	73.6
	Agree	36	19.7	20.2	93.8
	Strongly Agree	11	6.0	6.2	100.0
	Total	178	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.7		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.39**Correlations [Ability-Direct and Indirect Responses]**

			Ability_computed	Ability
Spearman's rho	Ability_computed	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.782**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	172	169
	Ability	Correlation Coefficient	.782**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	169	178

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.40**Correlations [Ability-Direct and Indirect Responses excluding Teamwork Skills]**

		Ability_Computed_Excluding_Teamwork	Ability
Spearman's rho	Ability_Computed_Excluding_Teamwork	1.000	.854**
	Correlation Coefficient	.	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
		N	178
Ability	Ability	.854**	1.000
	Correlation Coefficient	.000	.
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
		N	175

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.41**Reliability Statistics [Employees' Personality]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.692	.703	5

Table 5.42**Hardwork_Vs_Luck**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	6.6	7.0	7.0
	Disagree	17	9.3	9.9	16.9
	Neutral	32	17.5	18.6	35.5
	Agree	61	33.3	35.5	70.9
	Strongly Agree	50	27.3	29.1	100.0
	Total	172	94.0	100.0	
Missing	System	11	6.0		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.43**Certainty_Plans**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	2.7	2.8	2.8
	Disagree	19	10.4	10.6	13.3
	Neutral	32	17.5	17.8	31.1
	Agree	69	37.7	38.3	69.4
	Strongly Agree	55	30.1	30.6	100.0
	Total	180	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.44**Reliability Statistics [Internal Locus of Control]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.721	.725	2

Table5.45**Employees' Internal Locus_of_Control**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	5	2.7	2.9	2.9
Disagree	23	12.6	13.5	16.4
Neutral	43	23.5	25.1	41.5
Agree	66	36.1	38.6	80.1
Strongly Agree	34	18.6	19.9	100.0
Total	171	93.4	100.0	
Missing System	12	6.6		
Total	183	100.0		

Table 5.46**Reliability Statistics [Employees' Self-esteem]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.677	.678	3

Table 5.47**Item-Total Statistics [Employees' Self-esteem]**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Good_Qualities	8.1657	2.495	.276	.078	.841
Most_Other_People	8.4530	1.849	.600	.529	.430
On_The_Whole_Satisfaction	8.2099	1.833	.635	.538	.385

Table 5.48**Reliability Statistics [Employees' Self-esteem Excluding Question (22)]**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.840	.840	2

Table 5.49**Having_Good_Qualities**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	3	1.6	1.7	1.7
Disagree	8	4.4	4.4	6.1
Neutral	8	4.4	4.4	10.5
Agree	84	45.9	46.4	56.9
Strongly Agree	78	42.6	43.1	100.0
Total	181	98.9	100.0	
Missing System	2	1.1		
Total	183	100.0		

Table 5.50**Most_Other_People**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Disagree	6	3.3	3.3	4.9
Neutral	35	19.1	19.1	24.0
Agree	91	49.7	49.7	73.8
Strongly Agree	48	26.2	26.2	100.0
Total	183	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.51**Satisfaction_with_One's Self**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	3	1.6	1.6	2.7
Neutral	28	15.3	15.3	18.0
Agree	73	39.9	39.9	57.9
Strongly Agree	77	42.1	42.1	100.0
Total	183	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.52**Employees' Self-Esteem [excluding question 22]**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
Disagree	9	4.9	4.9	5.5
Neutral	37	20.2	20.2	25.7
Agree	91	49.7	49.7	75.4
Strongly Agree	45	24.6	24.6	100.0
Total	183	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.53**Sharing_Information**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	17	9.3	9.7	9.7
	Disagree	25	13.7	14.3	24.0
	Neutral	47	25.7	26.9	50.9
	Agree	72	39.3	41.1	92.0
	Strongly Agree	14	7.7	8.0	100.0
	Total	175	95.6	100.0	
Missing	System	8	4.4		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.54**Awareness of the concept of 'Empowerment'**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	161	88.0	89.4	89.4
	No	19	10.4	10.6	100.0
	Total	180	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
Total		183	100.0		

Table 5.55**Correlations [Employees' Intrinsic Desire To Be Empowered_vs_Self-Esteem & Internal Locus of Control]**

			Willingness	Locus_of_Control	Self_Esteem_2
Spearman's rho	Willingness	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.665**	.179*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.021
		N	166	156	166
	Locus_of_Control	Correlation Coefficient	.665**	1.000	.140
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.067
		N	156	171	171
	Self_Esteem_2	Correlation Coefficient	.179*	.140	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	.067	.
		N	166	171	183

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.56

Reliability Statistics
[Employees' Intrinsic
Desire to be
Empowered_vs_ Internal
Locus of Control]

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.785	2