

**Empowering leadership as a driver for overcoming resistance  
to change within organisations**

21752312

A research project submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

01 November 2022

## **Abstract**

Change within organisations has become a constant occurrence especially given the increased rate of innovation that is required for organisations to remain competitive. However, organisations are still experiencing change failure and resistance to change from employees and departments within the organisation. Organisations are making conscious efforts to improve change management for successful change implementation. A key aspect in the change management process is the change agent or change leader; as such, many studies have investigated the role of leadership, mostly transformation and transactional leadership, within change management to reduce resistance to change. This study, however, looked specifically at empowering leadership as a driver for overcoming resistance to change; through continuous practicing of empowering behaviours by leaders, employees and accordingly the organisation should show a reduced resistance to change.

This study conducted a survey to establish if a relationship was present between empowering leadership and resistance to change. The findings suggested that when empowering leadership was experienced, followers showed a reduced resistance to change.

## **Keywords**

Empowering leadership, resistance to change, change management

## **Declaration**

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

1 November 2022

## Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Keywords .....	ii
Declaration.....	iii
Chapter 1: Definition of problem and purpose .....	1
1.1 Purpose .....	1
1.2 Research problem .....	1
1.3 Contribution to business .....	3
1.4 Contribution to academia .....	4
Chapter 2: Theory and literature review .....	6
2.1 Introduction.....	6
2.2 Empowering leadership .....	6
2.2.1 Socio-cultural and psychological empowerment perspectives .....	6
2.2.2 Dimensions of leader empowering behaviour .....	7
2.2.3 Empowering leadership as a standalone leadership style.....	10
2.3 Resistance to change .....	10
2.3.1 Change management .....	11
2.3.2 Resistance to change .....	11
2.4 Leaderships' influence on resistance to change .....	13
2.5 Measurement dimensions.....	15
2.5.1 Measuring resistance to change .....	15
2.5.2 Measuring empowering leadership .....	15
2.6 Conclusion.....	17
Chapter 3: Hypotheses.....	19
3.1 Hypothesis 1.....	19
3.2 Hypotheses 2 and 3.....	19
3.3 Hypothesis 4.....	19
3.4 Hypothesis 5.....	20
3.5 Hypothesis 6.....	20
Chapter 4: Research methodology and design .....	22
4.1 Research paradigm .....	22
4.2 Population.....	23
4.3 Unit of analysis .....	23

4.4	Sample .....	23
4.5	Measurement instrument .....	24
4.6	Pre-testing .....	25
4.7	Data collection .....	26
4.8	Data analysis approach and interpretation.....	26
4.8.1	Data editing.....	27
4.8.2	Data coding.....	27
4.8.3	Reliability – Cronbach’s Alpha .....	28
4.8.4	Internal validity of data .....	28
4.8.5	Factor analysis.....	28
4.8.6	Relationship measurement between constructs.....	29
4.8.7	Distribution of data .....	30
4.9	Validity, reliability, and bias.....	30
4.10	Limitations .....	31
Chapter 5: Research results.....		32
5.1	Introduction.....	32
5.2	Descriptive statistics .....	32
5.2.1	The research sample .....	32
5.2.2	The response rate.....	32
5.2.3	The total sample .....	33
5.2.4	Age of population.....	33
5.2.5	Gender.....	34
5.2.6	Occupation level of respondents.....	35
5.2.7	Time with current manager .....	36
5.2.8	Industries contained within the survey .....	37
5.3	Validity.....	39
5.4	Reliability .....	39
5.5	Factor Analysis .....	40
5.5.1	LEBQ Factor analysis .....	40
5.5.2	CAS factor analysis.....	44
5.6	Normality .....	48
5.7	Research hypotheses.....	49
5.7.1	The sample’s attitude towards change.....	49
5.7.2	Presence of empowering leadership within sample .....	53

5.8	Research hypothesis 1 .....	56
5.9	Research hypothesis 2 .....	57
5.10	Research hypothesis 3 .....	59
5.11	Research hypothesis 4 .....	60
5.12	Research hypothesis 5 .....	61
5.13	Research hypothesis 6 .....	62
Chapter 6: Discussion of results .....		64
6.1	Introduction .....	64
6.2	The sample's attitude towards change .....	64
6.3	Presence of empowering leadership within the sample .....	65
6.4	Information sharing reduced resistance to change .....	66
6.5	Delegation of authority reduced resistance to change .....	67
6.6	Accountability reduced resistance to change .....	68
6.7	Skill development reduced resistance to change .....	70
6.8	Self-directed decision-making reduced resistance to change .....	71
6.9	Coaching for innovative performance reduced resistance to change .....	72
6.10	Conclusion .....	73
Chapter 7: Conclusion and recommendations .....		74
7.1	Introduction .....	74
7.2	Principal conclusions .....	74
7.3	Theoretical contributions .....	75
7.4	Implications for management and other stakeholders .....	76
7.5	Limitations of research .....	76
7.6	Suggestions for future research .....	77
Reference list .....		78
Appendix 1: .....		82
	Consistency matrix .....	82
Appendix 2: .....		83
	Survey elements .....	83
Appendix 3: .....		86
	Pearson correlation for validity – LEBQ .....	86
	Pearson correlation for validity – CAS .....	87

# **Chapter 1: Definition of problem and purpose**

## **1.1 Purpose**

The purpose of this research was to examine the presence and influence of the empowering leadership style on employee's resistance to change within South African organisations. Although resistance to change has been a thoroughly researched topic, the specific influence of the empowering leadership style on resistance to change has not been as thoroughly researched as other leadership styles influence on resistance to change. The effectiveness of empowering leadership in terms of improved performance has seen some mixed results (Cheong et al., 2019; Oreg & Berson, 2019). Thus, specifically investigating empowering leaderships' influence on resistance to change could benefit from further research.

## **1.2 Research problem**

Change has always been a constant (Al-Ali et al., 2017), but in the modern day and with the recent COVID-19 pandemic the rate of change is increasing, organisations need to be able to effectively implement change to adapt to the changing environment of business. Organisations today can be described by the paradox of focusing on organisational continuity while equally pursuing change within the organisation (Neves et al., 2020; Waldman & Bowen, 2016).

When implementing organisational changes, there is an effort to avoid and mitigate change failure due to the general view that failure is a destructive organisational event (Schwarz et al., 2021). Considering the positive psychological elements of change failure such as the potential to learn, and the role of decision-making for example (Schwarz et al., 2021), it is proposed that the empowering leadership style can be utilised to help reduce followers' resistance to change by positively influencing their perception of failure. Empowering leadership is a leadership style in which the leader empowers their followers through their own behaviour, this entails delegation of authority, encouragement for self-directed decision-making, coaching, and skill development (Cheong et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020), the construct of empowering leadership is discussed in further detail in Chapter 2.

An improved perception of change and the likely occurrence of a failure (Schwarz et al., 2021) should therefore be utilised to learn and adapt for the failure to become a future success. Empowering leadership can be useful in overcoming resistance to change within organisations, as the fear of failure should be mediated by the empowerment of employees (or followers) and communication from leadership regarding the value of failing, which in turn would improve followers' behaviour toward innovation, failures, and the occurrence of problems (Van Assen, 2020). These encounters with problems and events, that could be termed as failures, are not seen as challenges but rather as learning opportunities to improve on the quality of the tasks and output to potentially create an environment in which team members' resistance to change is reduced (Neves et al., 2020; Van Assen, 2020).

The literature discussed above illustrates the opportunity that leaders have to reframe potential failures as positive learning experiences through empowering leadership. Leaders could thereby equip followers to embrace any changes as learning and growth opportunities. The occurrence of resistance to change can be mitigated by empowering leadership behaviour within organisations, inasmuch as the focus of this study.

Change leaders cannot solely ensure that proposed changes are implemented successfully, the relevant team members need to buy into the change process for the implementation to be successful. Often change failure is attributed to team members' resistance to embracing change (Ford & Ford, 2010; Szabla, 2007). When managing to overcome resistance to change within the organisation, leaders focus should be on followers' attitude, disposition, and perceived future impact of the change (Amarantou et al., 2018). Empowering leadership behaviour shapes perceptions of future change and should be proactively practiced in times of stability within the organisation, rather than when a change is planned (Neves et al., 2020).

Resistance to change is in part related to the behaviour of the change agents or leaders themselves, and leaders and change agents play an important role in the development of resistance to change (Ford & Ford, 2010; Neves et al., 2020). For this reason, from an academic perspective further research into the relationship of these parties' actions in an environment of change is essential. Establishing whether a relationship exists between empowering leadership and resistance to



change will contribute to the body of knowledge on change management and potentially identify leadership behaviours that could positively contribute to change acceptance within organisations.

Given the constant need for change within organisations, the success of the change implementation is affected by a resistance to change within the organisation. This study examined whether an empowering leadership style could influence followers' resistance to change.

### **1.3 Contribution to business**

Business has substantially changed in the last few years, with environments being more volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) especially in developing countries such as South Africa (Stander et al., 2017). All organisations are subject to changing environments, and that the nature of change itself is increasing in complexity with business leaders claiming that faster and effective innovation is critical to future business growth (HLB, 2022; Osborne & Hinson, 2015). Hence, businesses are viewing innovation as a key to growth. Organisations need to be able to react and adapt to a constant changing business environment through organisational adaptability (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017). Part of organisational adaptability is creating an adaptive space that enables organisations to focus on exploring innovative ideas, while simultaneously exploiting the current operations to maintain organisational viability (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017).

Accordingly, it is understood that in a practical sense innovation leads to change, and as innovation does not seem to be slowing down, neither then is the rate of change. When considering the neuroscience perspective of change, it lends clarity as to why change events put pressure on the various parties involved in the change. If we consider the mental maps that exist within the brain for routine tasks, the brain can go into an autopilot mode and preserve energy when conducting these routine tasks (Osborne & Hinson, 2015). However, when a change is experienced, and an event does not align with an existing mental map more focus and attention is demanded from the brain, it can therefore be said that involvement in a change physically requires more energy and effort from humans (Osborne & Hinson, 2015).

Organisations are showing an increased interest in empowering leadership due to more flattened structures within organisations, the increased importance of teamwork and growing difficulty of tasks (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). From a business point of view, the empowering leadership style can influence followers' mindset (Neves et al., 2020), considering this, it was posited that leaders can use their influence to change how followers view change and potentially decrease the resistance to change. An organisations attitude towards a proposed change has an impact of the success of the change implementation and consequently an indirect impact on productivity and financial performance.

Although change management linked with leadership is a well-researched area within literature (Oreg & Berson, 2019), organisations are still experiencing change implementation failure (Schwarz et al., 2021). For this reason, it is argued that it is worth researching how empowering leadership specifically could assist in influencing resistance to change to compliment the other recommended change implementation practices for a more desirable result.

#### **1.4 Contribution to academia**

The fields of change management and leadership have been linked a considerable amount in past literature (Oreg & Berson, 2019); this study contributed to the existing body of knowledge on leadership specifically as a driver for overcoming resistance to change within organisations.

As discussed in section 1.3, organisations are viewing innovation, and therefore change, as critical to their growth (HLB, 2022). Thus, this study recognised that these demands within organisations have necessitated a thorough theoretical understanding of empowering leadership as a construct to influence resistance to change.

When considering leader behaviours, and their influence on change attitudes, the majority of current literature focuses on transformational leadership, leader member exchange, and change related behaviours (Oreg & Berson, 2019). Additionally, Cheong et al. (2019) conducted an empirical review to investigate the effectiveness of empowering leadership; their results were mixed, and the literature reviewed did not solely focus on empowering leaderships' effectiveness on change attitudes or resistance to change. For managers to overcome resistance to change from their

subordinates, they must aim to manage so that they influence team members' attitudes, disposition, and perception of change (Amarantou et al., 2018). Considering the potential for empowering leadership to influence resistance to change, it was proposed that further research into a relationship between the constructs would add a deeper understanding to the existing body of knowledge. Additionally, the theoretical insights would benefit managers in practical implementation of empowering leadership behaviours for the desired result of reduced resistance to change.

This study discusses the existing literature on empowering leadership and resistance to change, and their informing of the hypotheses. The methodology for the study is discussed in detail, followed by the results of the research, and an explanation regarding what the results indicate.

## **Chapter 2: Theory and literature review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Researchers state that more than half of organisational changes fail (Ford & Ford, 2010; Neves et al., 2020) and organisations spend an excessive amount of time managing failure during change (Schwarz et al., 2021). When looking to answer the question of whether a relationship is present between empowering leadership and resistance to change within organisations, it is first required to understand the two concepts of empowering leadership and resistance to change. This chapter discusses the concepts of the empowering leadership style as well as resistance to change, separately and thereafter the concepts' influence on each other.

### **2.2 Empowering leadership**

Empowering leadership can be defined as a leader's behaviour toward their follower that entails the process of information sharing, promoting the autonomy of followers, especially autonomy regarding decision making and coaching followers (Cheong et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020). From this definition, the empowering leadership style is understood to be an interactive leadership style in which the relationship between the leader and follower is positive, with elements of coaching and delegation to equip the follower for success. Empowering leadership can further be described as a set of leadership behaviours that aim for followers' motivation to be enhanced and thereby achieve organisational success (Cheong et al., 2019, Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

To recapitulate the aforementioned definitions and perceptions of empowering leadership; it is seen as behaviour from a leader that empowers their followers through providing meaningfulness to tasks, allowing followers to make decisions, and fostering followers' confidence and determination to achieve success.

#### **2.2.1 Socio-cultural and psychological empowerment perspectives**

A further look at the existing literature on empowering leadership provided two differing perspectives. One of these perspectives is a socio-structure perspective in which the leadership behaviours and managerial practices play an important role (Cheong et al., 2019). The second perspective on empowering leadership is psychological empowerment, which entails the cognitive and motivational states

that are impacted by how followers perceive and experience employee engagement practices (Cheong et al., 2019). Psychological empowerment entails an individual's personal control, the individuals' sense of competence, an awareness of the socio-political environment and involvement in the relevant community and activities (Zimmerman et al., 1992). The concept of empowering leadership was developed to describe leadership behaviour that assists with psychological empowerment (Lee et al., 2018), in that event empowering leadership could be described as an antecedent of psychological empowerment (Cheong et al., 2019). Psychological empowerment and empowering leadership are not to be confused as the same concept; however, empowering leadership is a set of leadership behaviours, which could influence psychological empowerment (Cheong et al., 2019; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). The two concepts are therefore related but are not the same concept. The focus of this research was the socio-structure perspective, as it examined the leadership behaviours' impact on resistance to change.

### **2.2.2 Dimensions of leader empowering behaviour**

To gain a more in-depth understanding of empowering leadership behaviour the specific leader behaviour dimensions that constitute empowering leadership are examined. The six dimensions of leader empowering behaviour are delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development, and coaching for innovative performance (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017), which are discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

#### *Delegation of authority*

A key understanding of empowering leadership is that it entails behaviour that promotes the autonomy of followers (Cheong et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020). Empowerment itself can be seen when someone who has control over their work and control over decisions (Gold, 2022). To empower another is seen as a sharing power process, wherein the leader shares power with followers, often through the delegation of authority (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000). The approach of sharing power and delegation of authority is also related with other leadership styles, such as participative leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). However, for leaders to practice authentic empowering leadership, delegation of authority should occur with the subsequent autonomy of followers to make decisions (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Considering what

empowerment itself entails as well as the purpose of empowering leadership to promote the autonomy of followers, the delegation of authority is seen as a dimension of empowering leadership. Delegation of authority is a key dimension of the empowering leadership style and subsequent dimensions are linked to delegation of authority.

#### *Accountability*

When power is shared, the power is in fact redistributed; and as such responsibility moves when the power is redistributed (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). The delegation of authority thus results in followers receiving new responsibilities, these new responsibilities should be measured to ensure that their performance is satisfactory, which results in increased accountability for the tasks now under followers' control (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). Forasmuch as delegation of authority is linked to accountability, accountability is also seen as a dimension of empowering leadership.

#### *Self-directed decision-making*

This entails follower's inclination to think independently and make decisions (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). When empowering leadership behaviours are practised effectively, it results in employees making their own decisions (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). As it has been established that delegation of authority is a dimension of empowering leadership, it is also considered that providing autonomy to followers is perhaps not sufficient and followers or subordinates should develop the ability to work autonomously with self-directed actions (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). As empowering leadership behaviours could be considered an antecedent to independent decision-making, accordingly self-directed decision-making is seen as a dimension of empowering leadership.

#### *Information sharing*

Similar to the power sharing process, sharing of information with followers is required to enable followers to think independently and perform to the required standard (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). A theoretical view of power is that it consists of support and access to information and resources (Gold, 2022). It is also considered that for individuals to feel empowered, these individuals have access to information as well as a good understanding of their work and its contribution to the overall organisational goals (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Empowered employees have been found to have leaders that place specific focus

on knowledge sharing behaviours (Van Assen, 2020). Information sharing is thus viewed as a dimension of empowering leadership and complementary to the dimension of delegation of authority.

### *Skill development*

Without sufficient skills, followers will not be equipped to succeed when given empowerment opportunities, for this reason a leader has to develop followers actively to be able to succeed (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). Developing employees' skills through training supports empowerment efforts and influences the potential for autonomy to be given to employees (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000). It has been found that empowered employees experience higher levels of team learning (Van Assen, 2020). Considering the importance of delegation of authority as an empowering leadership dimension, and the necessity to develop employee skills to equip them for increased authority, skill development is considered a dimension of empowering leadership.

### *Coaching for innovative performance*

Coaching for innovative performance entails the leader creating a learning environment for followers to think innovatively and be able to take risks for the benefit of the organisation (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). Coaching is seen as empowering leadership behaviour as it encourages information sharing and creates a team that can problem solve together (Lee et al., 2018). Behaviours that contribute to coaching for innovative performance are those that encourage followers to take calculated risks, consider new ideas, provide performance feedback, and turn mistakes into learning opportunities (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). Aligned with what coaching entails, empowered employees are actively involved in their organisational environment and show positive attitudes towards mistakes and change, viewing them as opportunities rather than failures (Van Assen, 2020). Empowering leaders should have an understanding of their subordinates' capabilities and encourage them to use their skills for the tasks they face by providing emotional support (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Guiding employees from a dependence on their leader to an independent and self-directed state requires teaching, coaching, and encouragement from the leader (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014); therefore, coaching for innovative performance is considered a dimension of empowering leadership.

In conclusion, the multidimensionality of empowering leadership is key to the empowerment process; delegation of authority alone is not a sufficient empowerment act (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Empowering leadership is an interactive leadership style; leaders have to develop employee skills to equip them for increased authority and independent decision making, share information, monitor their performance through increased accountability, and support employees through the provision of guidance (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000). These six dimensions discussed are linked to one another and seen as key components of the empowering leadership style.

### **2.2.3 Empowering leadership as a standalone leadership style**

Given the aforementioned description of empowering leadership, it was noted that empowering leadership is a separate leadership style and should not be confused with similar leadership styles. For example, directive leadership, by comparison, entails a task-focused approach in which leadership behaviours mainly reflect directive instructions and goal assignments (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011). Transactional leadership consists of exchange relationships and follower behaviour is motivated by reward contingencies, while transformational leadership strongly relies on the communication of a vision by a charismatic leader; their followers are inspired and motivated by this vision (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011).

As the empowering leadership style consists of leader behaviour aimed at creating an environment in which followers feel empowered, it can be seen as a structural form of empowerment (Lee et al., 2018). Empowering leadership is based on information sharing, delegation of autonomy, and coaching (Neves et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2018; Cheong et al., 2019); as such, the definition is aligned with the statement of a structural form of empowerment.

## **2.3 Resistance to change**

Within the next section, the construct of resistance to change is explored by first considering what change management itself entails and thereafter focusing on resistance to change itself.



### **2.3.1 Change management**

The successful implementation of sustainable organisational change has been a recurring problem for organisations over the years (Stouten et al., 2018). Organisational change is seen as occurring or to have occurred when the organisation transitions from one state to another state (Oreg, 2019). Organisational change is considered a failure when the organisation deviated from the expected goals and outcomes of the planned change (Schwarz et al., 2021). Research has divided organisational change into two streams, the first being the process that develops the change and the second being the outcome of the change (Oreg, 2019). The second stream, outcome of change, specifically considers the impact of the change on the change recipient, focusing on the recipient's experiences, responses, and personal outcomes (Oreg, 2019). Change management as a field is dedicated to connecting leaders' actions with organisational change and change outcomes (Oreg & Berson, 2019). Studies connecting leader behaviour and organisational change have suggested that change could be motivated in the organisation by involving employees in understanding the change and managing employees' reactions to the change (Oreg & Berson, 2019). It is also well considered that for an effective change management process the change agent has to create a sense of urgency for the change to influence the acceptance thereof and use an approach that applies knowledge and tools to leverage the change (Al-Ali et al., 2017). Organisational culture should also be considered in the change process as the organisational culture influences employee's interactions and responses to change (Al-Ali et al., 2017). Accordingly, change management should obtain input from different levels and employees within the organisation to account for the organisational culture's influence on the change implementation (Al-Ali et al., 2017). Considering that change failure is a recurring event (Stouten et al., 2018) and looking at the change process, resistance to the change from change recipients or participants is a natural occurrence (Amarantou et al., 2018).

### **2.3.2 Resistance to change**

Theory defines resistance to change as a negative attitude or set of (negative) responses to a change or change process (Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000). This attitude or response can be further described as multi-dimensional; consisting of cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions (Neves et al., 2020;

Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000). The cognitive dimension entails an individual's thoughts and beliefs regarding the change, while the affective dimension is the emotional component entailing feelings toward change, lastly the intentional dimension, also known as the behavioural component, entails purposeful actions and intent toward the change (Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000).

Explained practically, the cognitive dimension of resistance to change entails a persons' thoughts about the change, do they believe it would be useful or think that it is not a beneficial change, for example (Oreg, 2006). The affective dimension entails a persons' feelings about a change, does it make them anxious or excited, for example (Oreg, 2006). Lastly, the intentional dimension relates to a person's actions towards a change, do they actively complain or support the change for example (Oreg, 2006). When these dimensions are negative, it can be seen as resistance to change. Conversely, positive responses across these three dimensions are seen as support for change (Piderit, 2000). This study argued that in attempting to lower resistance to change within organisations facilitation of positive responses to the cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions should be considered.

A change event can result in unintended consequences, and tensions toward the change are often seen because of the potential unknown consequences (Panayiotou et al., 2019). In that event, resistance to change by employees could be toward the potential unknown consequence rather than the proposed change itself. It is also considered that as change itself is diverse, ranging from once-off to multiphase projects and varied in nature and discipline, learning from a change experience is difficult (Schwarz et al., 2018). This study opined that the difficulty to learn from past change experiences could contribute to resistance to change, as experience of change does not necessarily assist with the resistance to potential unknown consequences.

Resistance to change can be divided into three groups, namely organisation-level resistance, group-level resistance, and individual-level resistance (Amarantou et al., 2018). Viewing resistance to change as a potential group event could mean that entire businesses, departments, or merely individual employees could be experiencing resistance to change on a specific level (organisation, group, individual) and the most impactful way to deal with each level of resistance could

differ. Organisation-level resistance to change could occur due to power and conflict impediments, as well as the functional perspective differing within the organisation and the structure and culture within the organisation (George & Jones, 2012). Group-level resistance could occur due to disruption of group norms, cohesiveness as a motivation to protect the status quo, groupthink because of group cohesiveness and escalation of commitment to the decided course of action (George & Jones, 2012). Individual-level resistance to change is driven by uncertainty and insecurity regarding the outcome, selective perception of the change, and preference for familiarity through habit (George & Jones, 2012).

Another take on failure is that it could be explained as a continuum, leading to growth (Schwarz et al., 2018). Therefore, it is suggested that empowering leadership be utilised to consistently influence the cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions of the change process in a positive way (Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000), thus reducing resistance to change and moving towards growth or organisational change sustainability.

#### **2.4 Leaderships' influence on resistance to change**

When examining resistance itself, the theoretical model of resistance puts forth that resistance to change entails cognitive and affective components (Oreg, 2006). As discussed in section 2.3.2, the cognitive component relates to a person's thoughts regarding the change, while the affective component relates to their feelings (Oreg, 2006). Trust in management has been seen to have a significant effect on employees' cognitive view of change, as empowering leadership has been established as an interactive leadership style it could be argued that through the coaching dimension of empowering leadership trust could be fostered and so positively impacting employees' cognitive view of change (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Oreg, 2006). Employees' ability to make sense of a change process can be influenced by their autonomy and decision-making abilities regarding the change, through empowering employees with these dimensions of autonomy and decision-making, empowering leadership influences their understanding of the change (Neves et al., 2020).

Resistance to change is largely affected by employee participation in decision-making and a positive relationship between the employee and their manager

(Amarantou et al., 2018). Leadership can manage resistance to change by motivating employee participation, especially participation in the change process (Al-Ali et al., 2017). As empowering leadership entails leaders' behaviour towards their followers and specifically follower's involvement in decision-making (Cheong et al., 2019; Konczak et al., 2000; Neves et al., 2020), it can be stipulated that empowering leadership can potentially affect resistance to change at an individual level. When management's experience of change was researched, it was found that in the event of a change, a perceived need for increased employee involvement was present as well as innovative communication with employees (Doyle et al., 2000). This theoretically supports the notion that increased employee decision-making participation through empowering leadership could have an impact on the change event.

To gain a better understanding of resistance to change, researchers should aim to obtain better insight into employee's experiences, as the resistance itself is thought to be towards potential negative consequences of change and not the change itself (Oreg, 2006). It is important to identify strategies that can be employed to assist with reducing intentions to resist change prior to a change being implemented (Neves et al., 2020). For this reason, it would be beneficial to gain further insight into the change participants' experiences regarding change while accounting for the timing of managements' strategies to decrease resistance to change within the organisation.

It has been found that empowering leadership could reduce followers' resistance to change (Neves et al., 2020). However, Cheong et al. (2019) performed an empirical literature review and concluded that the effectiveness of empowering leadership has been inconsistent across multiple studies and specifically that the increased performance or self-efficacy of followers is unclear. Additionally, very few of the studies reviewed by Cheong et al. (2019) measured empowering leaderships' impact on resistance to change specifically. While other researchers have found that lack of trust in leadership had a significant effect on resistance to change (Oreg, 2006), it has however not been examined through the lens of empowering leadership. In the findings of Neves et al. (2020), it was stated that there is a possibility that empowering leadership could increase resistance to change through followers' inclination to protect the status quo. These mixed results from previous studies that focused on empowering leadership and resistance to change, and

considering the studies that examined empowering leadership or resistance to change, but not in relation to each other, motivate the need for further research into empowering leadership in relation to resistance to change.

As many studies have researched resistance to change (Schwarz et al., 2021), only few have specifically examined the relationship of empowering leadership and resistance to change (Ahearne et al., 2005; Neves et al., 2020). Considering the inconsistent results summarised by Cheong et al. (2019) there is an opportunity to investigate the relationship between empowering leadership and resistance to change further and clarify the current uncertainties.

## **2.5 Measurement dimensions**

To clarify current uncertainties as noted by Cheong et al. (2019), the research on the relationship between empowering leadership and resistance to change would have to entail each dimension of empowering leadership to ascertain which leadership behaviour had the ability to influence resistance to change, given the dimensions of resistance to change. To establish if a relationship between these two constructs are significant, it would first need to be established if the sample has a resistance to change and if they are experiencing empowering leadership (Neves et al., 2020).

### **2.5.1 Measuring resistance to change**

The multidimensional state of resistance to change requires that cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions be included in the instrument used to measure resistance to change within this study (Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000). From the literature discussed in section 2.3.2, there is consensus regarding the three dimensions being significant to resistance to change. Considering that this study was also looking at resistance to change at an individual level, the specific measurement instrument identified that entails the three dimensions of cognitive, affective, and intentional was the change attitude scale (CAS) developed by Oreg (2006).

### **2.5.2 Measuring empowering leadership**

When determining which set of empowering leadership dimensions to utilise for this study, consideration was given to the studies that considered individual level

dimensions as per the empirical literature review of Cheong et al. (2019), as per Table 1.

Table 1: Dimensions of empowering leadership, adapted from Cheong et al. (2019)

<b>Ahearne et al. (2005)</b>	<b>Amundsen &amp; Martinsen (2014)</b>	<b>Konczak et al. (2000)</b>	<b>Vecchio et al. (2010)</b>	<b>Zhang &amp; Bartol (2010)</b>
1. Enhancing the meaningfulness of work	1. Autonomy support	1. Delegation of authority	1. Independent action	1. Enhancing the meaningfulness of work
2. Fostering participation in decision making	2. Development support	2. Accountability	2. Opportunistic thinking	2. Fostering participation in decision making
3. Expressing confidence in high performance		3. Self-directed decision making	3. Cooperative action	3. Expressing confidence in high performance
4. Providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints		4. Information sharing		4. Providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints
		5. Skill development		
		6. Coaching for innovative performance		

Previous research has used different dimensions to measure empowering leadership, as per Table 1. Given that both Ahearne et al. (2005) and Zhang and Bartol (2010) used the same four dimensions within the leadership empowerment behaviour measurement scale, these dimensions were explored further to identify relevance to this study. Within the Ahearne et al. (2005) study the dimensions in question were based on previous conceptual work and focused on relationships between empowering leader behaviours and self-efficacy, adaptability, job performance, and customer service satisfaction. Zhang and Bartol (2010) utilised the scale developed by Ahearne et al. (2005) and focused on the relationship of empowering leadership with employee creativity as well as psychological empowerment. Whereas the Konczak et al. (2000) study set out specifically to develop an accurate measure of empowering leadership behaviours as their study focus. Ahearne et al. (2005) developed their four measurements based on three conceptual studies while Konczak et al. (2000) utilised eight studies to develop their six measurements.

Both sets of dimensions, namely the four dimensions developed by Ahearne et al. (2005) and the six dimensions developed by Konczak et al. (2000) were considered for this study. Part of the consideration given to the two measurement dimensions was comparing the purpose for which the dimensions were developed. The four dimensions of Ahearne et al (2005) were created to measure the multiple

constructs of empowering leader behaviours and self-efficacy, adaptability, job performance, and customer service satisfaction. While the six dimensions of Konczak et al. (2000) were developed for the purpose creating a measurement instrument for measuring empowering leader behaviours. Another factor for consideration was the alignment of the dimensions with the understanding of what empowering leadership entails. Given that sharing of information and power through delegation is central to what the empowering leadership style represents, the specific dimension of delegation of authority was viewed as essential to the measurement of empowering leadership (Cheong et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020). As Konczak et al. (2000) specifically noted delegation of authority as a dimension, the six dimensions of Konczak et al. (2000) were considered most suitable for this study. Considering the four dimensions developed by Ahearne et al. (2005), the specific dimensions of information sharing, and delegation of authority were considered lacking; these are essential to the empowering leadership style (Cheong et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020).

Lastly, the context in which studies are performed can influence the validity of measurement scales; the measurements in question were developed in Western countries, while the context of this study is South Africa, which differs from Western countries on social, economic, and political perspectives (Stander et al., 2017). The dimensions, and questionnaire, of Konczak et al (2000) have been supported as valid for use in a South African sample (Stander et al., 2017), while no similar support could be determined for the measurement developed by Ahearne et al. (2005). This supported the decision to utilise the six dimensions of Konczak et al. (2000) and the related leader empowering behaviour questionnaire (LEBQ) in this study.

## **2.6 Conclusion**

Amid the body of knowledge available on the subject matter of change management, organisations are still experiencing change failure (Stouten et al., 2018). It has been stated that organisations should manage for change before the change event occurs, in times of stability (Neves et al., 2020). Furthermore, empowering actions within organisations prepare individuals for unforeseen events; essentially, they are better equipped for change events (Neves et al., 2020).

Empowering leadership entails the process of empowering employees to be better equipped for organisational success (Cheong et al., 2019, Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Empowering leadership also has the potential to positively influence employees' responses to change through the fostering of a positive relationship between manager and employee, and through employee participation in decision-making (Amarantou et al., 2018).

The literature review reiterated the need to manage for successful change implementation and the potential of empowering leadership to influence employees' resistance to change. It was noted that resistance to change is due to a response across the cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions. Considering the importance of the employees' responses to a change, empowering leadership entails delegation of authority to employees, information sharing, skill development, and coaching, all of which could influence the cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions of employee's responses. Considering this, the research sought to understand the relationship of empowering leadership with individual level resistance to change within organisations.



## **Chapter 3: Hypotheses**

As the study aimed to identify the dimensions of empowering leadership which strongly influenced resistance to change (cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions), the six empowering leadership behaviour dimensions as developed by Konczak et al. (2000) were specified as measurements within this study and informed the hypotheses.

### **3.1 Hypothesis 1**

An aspect of resistance to change is employees' fear of failure and the unknown of potential consequences (Panayiotou et al., 2019). With improved communication between leader and follower, it was posited that the negative view towards change and potential failure could be reframed to a positive outlook and reduce resistance to change (Van Assen, 2020). As such, the first hypothesis was:

*H1: Information sharing is positively related to reduced resistance to change.*

### **3.2 Hypotheses 2 and 3**

Delegation of authority is the key to empowering leadership as it gives power to the follower (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000). Increased employee involvement with the change process has been perceived as required for change events (Doyle et al., 2000). Additionally, it was noted that increased authority leads to increased accountability (Konczak et al., 2000). Therefore, the following was hypothesised:

*H2: Delegation of authority is positively related to reduced resistance to change.*

*H3: The presence of accountability is positively related to reduced resistance to change.*

### **3.3 Hypothesis 4**

From the empirical review conducted by Cheong et al. (2019) it was unclear whether self-efficacy was affected by empowering leadership. When considering the cognitive and affective responses towards change (Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000), a presence of skill development could positively impact self-

efficacy, which in turn could impact the cognitive and or affective responses towards change. As such, the following was hypothesised:

*H4*: Skill development is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

### **3.4 Hypothesis 5**

It has been found that employee participation in decision-making affects resistance to change (Amarantou et al., 2018). Considering that, empowering leadership entails equipping followers to think independently and make decisions (Konczak et al., 2000), the following was hypothesised:

*H5*: Self-directed decision-making is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

### **3.5 Hypothesis 6**

Coaching of followers is vital to the empowering leadership style as it equips the followers for success (Cheong et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020). Considering that a positive relationship between employees and managers (as present with a coaching relationship) is noted as affecting resistance to change (Amarantou et al., 2018), the following was hypothesised:

*H6*: Coaching for innovative performance is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Figure 1 depicts the hypothetical model of these hypotheses.

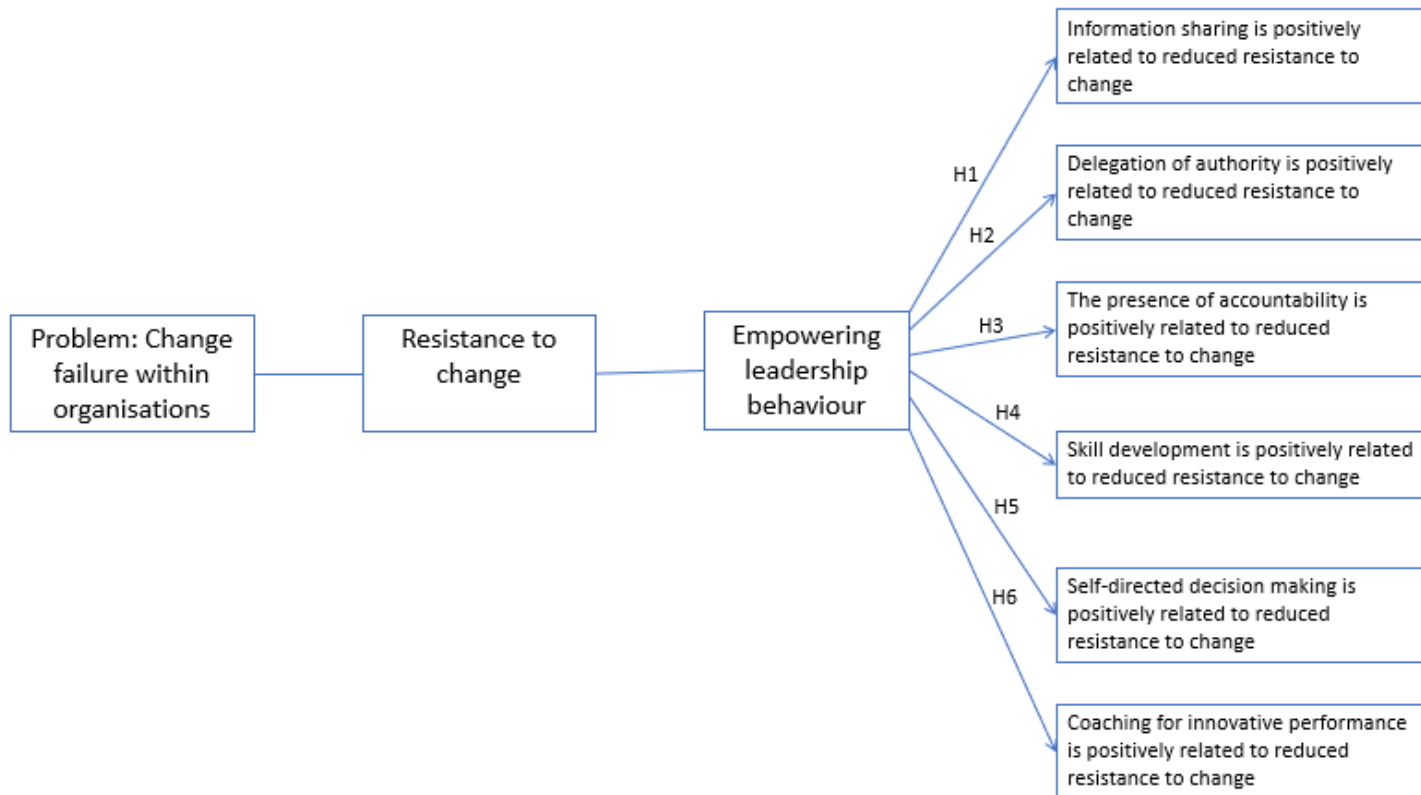


Figure 1: Hypothetical model of hypotheses

## **Chapter 4: Research methodology and design**

The purpose of the research design was explanatory due to the intended aim of examining relationships between variables specific to resistance to change (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Previous research conducted on the empowering leadership style followed a deductive approach (Ahearne et al., 2005; Neves et al., 2020); the same approach was applied in this study.

### **4.1 Research paradigm**

The aim of the study was to identify a measurable relationship between the empowering leadership style and followers' resistance to change. Existing theory on empowering leadership and resistance to change (Ahearne et al., 2005; Cheong et al., 2019; Konczak et al., 2000; Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006) was utilised as a guide to find suitable measurement scales for the research questionnaire; for this reason the philosophy employed was that of positivism (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Positivism is a view in which knowledge can only be based on facts measured through an objective interpretation of results from data collection.

The research approach was deductive as relationships between variables were tested using structured research methodology (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). As support for the selected approach, it was noted that Cheong et al. (2019) reviewed 50 empirical articles with a focus on empowering leadership, all of which utilised a deductive approach through relationship measurement, specifically through reviewing variables. A deductive approach entails basing hypotheses on existing theory and designing the research to test the hypotheses accordingly.

As a deductive approach was used, the data to test for relationships could be collected from a single data collection technique and accordingly a mono-method was chosen for this study. It was also noted that Neves et al. (2020) utilised the mono-method for their study.

Given the positivist philosophy, a survey strategy was used to collect quantitative data for statistical analysis. It was important that data be collected without any bias (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Further support for the selected strategy was the fact that prior studies in this field had utilised a survey strategy (Ahearne et al., 2005; Konczak et al., 2000; Neves et al., 2020; Szabla, 2007; Van Assen, 2020)

Given the time constraints faced with this study, cross-sectional research was done. Using this time horizon would result in data for a specific period from multiple groups (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Unlike Neves et al. (2020) who collected data through a longitudinal study, but in line with Ahearne et al. (2005) who performed a cross-sectional study. A cross-sectional study is one in which data is collected from a variety of participants at a single point in time.

## **4.2 Population**

Given the speed of technological changes today and the resultant change in consumer behaviours, organisations are encountering continuous change when responding to these events, especially for South African organisations, given the social and economic context of the country.

A population is known as a set or group of members available (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). For the purpose of this study, the population was employees of South African organisations that had experienced a change within their role at an organisation. To determine the population, lead was taken from Neves et al. (2020) as in their study the population was not limited to a single industry but rather to the presence of a history of change for study participants. For this study, it was not possible to determine the size of the population especially as the population consisted of individuals who had experienced change within their role, no statistics were found that accounted for this specified population in South Africa.

## **4.3 Unit of analysis**

The unit of analysis refers to who or what is being analysed (Zikmund et al., 2010), it should be determined if the data would be analysed at individual or organisational level. The study looked at individual level resistance to change, ergo employees themselves were the sample and not the organisations, and the unit of analysis was at an individual level. Similarly, Ahearne et al. (2005) and Neves et al. (2020) analysed at the individual level and not the organisational level.

## **4.4 Sample**

A sample is a sub-group of the population (Saunders & Lewis, 2018), and for this study the sample was selected using a non-probability sampling technique, such as

snowball sampling. The non-probability purposive technique was utilised as no complete list of the population was available and the researcher's judgement was used to identify sample members (Saunders & Lewis, 2018; Zikmund et al., 2010). The same approach was utilised by Neves et al. (2020).

For this study, the sample should have experienced a change in order for the resistance to change attitude to be measured; as such, a sample criterion was that respondents had experienced an organisational change that affected their daily work duties. To ensure that this sample criterion was met, a qualifying statement of "I have experienced a change within my organisation that affected my role" was included in the questionnaire. There were no further criteria requested of the sample, such as gender, experience, or tenure at organisation, as the study did not focus on the impact of those variables on the two constructs of empowering leadership and resistance to change.

Zikmund et al. (2010) noted the rule of thumb that a subgroup should have a minimum of 100 respondents, and referred to previous studies as a guide to selecting sample size. Given this and the sample size of 313 drawn by Neves et al. (2020), 177 by Oreg (2006) and 254 by Ahearne et al. (2005), the ideal sample size for this study was proposed at 248; the average of the aforementioned studies. The larger sample size would have assisted with reducing any biases and the reliability of the data collected (Saunders & Lewis, 2018).

#### **4.5 Measurement instrument**

Given the positivist philosophy of this study and reviewing of previous studies conducted, the research instrument used for this study was a self-administered, cross-sectional survey (Neves et al., 2020; Oreg, 2006; Saunders & Lewis, 2018). The survey statements were informed by prior studies on empowering leadership as well as resistance to change. Specifically, the LEBQ developed by Konczak et al. (2000) measuring empowering leadership behaviour and the CAS measuring resistance to change in terms of cognitive, affective, and intentional dimensions by Oreg (2006).

The LEBQ consists of 16 items and was measured on a seven-point Likert scale, the alpha reliability coefficients for the scale ranged from .82 to .88 (Konczak et al., 2000). The LEBQ is divided into six sections, each section was created to measure

a dimension of empowering leadership, specifically delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development, and coaching for innovative performance (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). The CAS entailed 15 items and was also measured on a seven-point Likert scale; the alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was .86 (Oreg, 2006). The CAS is divided into three sections to measure each dimension of resistance to change, namely the cognitive, affective and intentional dimensions. Both these measurement scales can be seen in Appendix 2.

The survey also collected demographic data of respondents to allow for descriptive statistics and accordingly the analysis of the diversity of the sample to motivate the reliability of the data. As a data validity consideration, a qualifying statement was included to identify any respondents that have not encountered change within their organisation and were in that event not suitable respondents. Two additional qualifying statements were included to provide additional insight into the change experience of respondents (as discussed in Chapter 6), specifically “I have had to adapt my tasks and responsibilities due to the implementation of an organisational change”, and “My manager was involved in the change process”.

#### **4.6 Pre-testing**

The pre-testing of a survey is a process in which a participant test group completes the survey and provides feedback on the survey (Zikmund et al., 2010). The screening procedure determines that the survey is appropriate, the purpose of the research is clear, that all statements are unambiguous, and the possibility of misinterpretation of statements is low (Zikmund et al., 2010). For this study, a group of 12 individuals was used as the pre-test sample. The pre-test sample consisted of colleagues and MBA students as a representation of the researcher’s professional and academic network.

The survey was sent to half of the pre-test sample for completion on mobile devices, and the other half for completion on computers to ensure that the survey was well received on the different platforms. Feedback was received via either WhatsApp messenger or in-person for certain participants. Within the feedback, grammatical errors were highlighted for correction, a statement numbering error was identified, and overall, the survey was noted as not too long and easy to

understand and complete. After the pre-test feedback, the survey was reviewed, suggested corrections made, and finalised for distribution.

#### **4.7 Data collection**

Google Forms was utilised to create a survey that could be self-administered via the internet. The survey was distributed via email and LinkedIn to the researcher's professional network for completion, through use of a snowball sampling method. As the sample was specific to employees that had experienced an organisational change, the survey contained qualifying statements to control that only suitable respondents were included in the data to be analysed. Respondent data was exported from Google Forms into Microsoft Excel for analysis.

The data was gathered between 20 July 2022 and 14 September 2022, at the beginning of which 120 emails were sent to the researcher's professional network and the survey was posted on LinkedIn during weeks two and five of the data collection period.

A total of 137 responses were received. The realised sample size was noted as less than the planned sample of 248 respondents. The sample size of 137 was still valid for the study and considered sufficient data for statistical testing. The challenges that contributed to obtaining a larger sample size was the eight-week period available for data collection, the reliance on the snowball sampling method in which respondents had to share the survey with their networks. Attempts to mitigate these challenges included personalised follow up mails encouraging survey participation and sharing the survey with the respondents' network. The survey was also posted on LinkedIn to reach a larger audience.

#### **4.8 Data analysis approach and interpretation**

As stated above, the data was collected through Google Forms and extracted into a data file for analysis utilising both R software and IBM SPSS Statistics software. The data was edited and coded within Microsoft Excel before the various analysis tests could be run on R and IBM SPSS (Hair et al., 2019; Zikmund et al., 2010).

As the purpose of the study was to measure the relationship between empowering leadership and a reduced resistance to change, the respondents' change attitude



towards resistance to change would first need to be identified before the strength of the relationship could be measured (Neves et al., 2020). The data relating to the CAS was first analysed to establish if the sample had a positive or negative attitude to change, a positive attitude would represent a reduced resistance whereas a negative attitude would represent a strong resistance to change. Thereafter the data relating to empowering leadership, from the LEBQ, was analysed to establish if the sample experienced empowering leadership or not. Once the presence or lack of these two constructs had been established the data was tested for significance using the chi-squared analysis, thereafter it was tested for correlation using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient to identify whether a relationship was present (Saunders & Lewis, 2018).

#### **4.8.1 Data editing**

Collected data must be checked for completeness and consistency (Hair et al., 2019). For this survey, qualifying statements were included (Hair et al., 2019) that needed to be considered during the editing process as respondents who provided unfavourable answers consequently did not qualify for the study and were excluded before any analysis was done. Thereafter a check for consistency was performed to establish if there were any missing responses, and if so were the volume of missing answers large enough to remove the respondent from the data set (Hair et al., 2019). Should the missing responses be less than 15% of the number of statements the researcher might choose to respond to the unanswered statements (Hair et al., 2019).

#### **4.8.2 Data coding**

The survey consisted of four sections; namely the qualifying statements, demographic questions, and the two separate measurement scales. The first two sections collected responses through multiple choice responses for nominal and scale data, while the last two sections collected responses via a seven-point Likert scale for ordinal data, of which four statements were reverse worded.

On that account, the first two sections were coded into numeric data, and the four reverse worded statements in the CAS were recoded for an accurate analysis (Pallant, 2020).

### **4.8.3 Reliability – Cronbach’s Alpha**

When reviewing measurement scales for reliability, Cronbach Alpha, or coefficient alpha, measures the internal consistency reliability with a coefficient that ranges from zero to one (Hair et al., 2019). Within academic research, a minimum alpha of 0.7 is generally considered as acceptable (Hair et al., 2019). It is worth noting that reliability can also be too high; should the Cronbach Alpha be equal or larger than 0.95 then reliability is viewed as too high due to statements measuring the same concept and therefor being redundant (Hair et al., 2019).

### **4.8.4 Internal validity of data**

Internal validity is understood as the degree to which an independent variable is responsible for a variance seen in the dependent variable (Zikmund et al., 2010). To confirm that the data is valid is very important, as without validity conclusions cannot be made from the data (Zikmund et al., 2010). For this study, validity was tested by conducting bi-variate correlation tests for each construct (empowering leadership and change attitude) and the respondents’ item total scores; these can be seen in Appendix 3. A factor analysis procedure is also useful in confirming construct validity (Zikmund, et al., 2010), and is discussed in the next sub-section.

### **4.8.5 Factor analysis**

Factor analysis is a statistical technique that is used to identify a reduced number of variables from the larger number of measured variables (Zikmund et al., 2010). There are two types of factor analysis, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Zikmund et al., 2010). Exploratory factor analysis is relevant when the number of factors among variables is unknown, while confirmatory factor analysis is relevant when a theoretical expectation is present regarding the number of factors that may relate to the variable (Zikmund et al., 2010). Confirmatory factor analysis is a useful tool for confirming construct validity as it tests the degree to which theory aligns with observation (Zikmund et al., 2010).

For this study, the reliability of data was first tested through the use of Cronbach’s alpha, as discussed in section 4.8.3. Thereafter, the two constructs were tested individually, with any statements that did not meet the reliability requirements removed before running the factor analysis test. More specifically the principal components analysis technique was utilised for the factor analysis in this study (Pallant, 2020).

When reviewing the correlation matrix every item had to have at least one coefficient above 0.3 for the analysis to be appropriate (Pallant, 2020). Additionally, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had to be reviewed, a sig. value of less than 0.5 had to be present for factor analysis to be an appropriate test (Pallant, 2020). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was also reviewed to ensure a good factor analysis, an index equal or greater than 0.6 is considered appropriate (Pallant, 2020).

#### **4.8.6 Relationship measurement between constructs**

To examine relationships between constructs two tests were used, first the Pearson's chi-squared goodness of fit test to assess whether the distribution of counts per statement deviated from a null model. Second, correlation coefficients to indicate the presence of a relationship between dimensions of the two constructs. A correlation coefficient is a measure of covariation, covariation is the extent to which variables are associated (Zikmund et al., 2010). As such, the correlation coefficient can indicate the degree to which a change in one variable would correspond to a change in another variable (Zikmund et al., 2010).

A chi-squared test is used to test for statistical significance and is an appropriate test for hypotheses testing (Zikmund et al., 2010). The chi-squared test compares the data sets' observed values to the expected values of the distribution through a  $\chi^2$  value, the  $\chi^2$  value, which reflects a possibility of the observed values originating from a distribution that is similar to the expected values. This means that a higher  $\chi^2$  value indicates a smaller chance that both observed and expected values are the same (Zikmund et al., 2010).

The type of measurement level used within a study determines the type of correlation coefficient test to use, as there are various types (Zikmund, et al., 2010). As ordinal measurement levels were used for the stipulated constructs, the Spearman rank correlation test was best suited for this study. The Spearman correlation indicates the relationship strength between variables as well as the direction of the relationship, this correlation test does not assume that data is normally distributed (Hair et al., 2019; Pallant, 2020). Should a positive correlation be found it would indicate that as one variable increases so would the other while a negative correlation would indicate that as one variable increases the other would

decrease, or vice versa (Pallant, 2020). The correlation tests were conducted at a confidence interval of 95%.

#### **4.8.7 Distribution of data**

Statistical tests can be divided into two types, namely parametric and nonparametric (Hair et al., 2019). Parametric procedures are mostly used for interval or ratio data collected from large samples and assumed to be normally distributed (Hair et al., 2019). While nonparametric procedures, such as Spearman's correlation, are mostly used for ordinal or nominal scale data, and an assumption of normal distribution is not appropriate (Hair et al., 2019).

As the data collected for this survey was of ordinal nature nonparametric procedures were used for statistical analysis. As such, the distribution of the data is not a key assumption to be considered, it is vital to understanding the data (Singh, 2007). The data for this study was not normally distributed, as expected, due to the ordinal nature thereof.

#### **4.9 Validity, reliability, and bias**

Validity and reliability of results are important to give credibility to the study findings (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Validity entails measuring what the study intended to measure, whereas reliability speaks to whether the methods used to collect and analyse data saw consistent results (Saunders & Lewis, 2018).

The study aimed to identify a measurable relationship between the empowering leadership style and followers' resistance to change. As such, it was essential that the respondents had experienced change within an organisational context. Consequently, the survey contained a qualifying statement, to identify any respondents who had not experienced change, as a validity measure, and therefore be excluded from the results. Furthermore, when looking at construct validity the scales utilised in the survey both related to the constructs of this study. This was ensured by utilising previously tested scales, by Konczak et al. (2000) and Oreg (2006), for the constructs of empowering leadership and resistance to change respectively.

To measure the reliability of the study Cronbach's alpha was utilised. Cronbach's alpha is a widely used measure in the organisational sciences, the measure can be

used to indicate the internal consistency of a questionnaire and indicate the measurement scales' reliability (Bonett & Wright, 2015). The scales utilised in the survey both have alpha values above 0.8 as discussed in sub-section 4.8.3.

#### **4.10 Limitations**

Given that the period to conduct the research was restricted, was a limitation as it affected the time available to gather the required number of sample responses and reduced the nature of the research to that of a cross-sectional study. Additionally, with the use of non-probability sampling, there was a possibility that the results could be skewed as the sample was drawn from the researchers' professional network, which comprised mostly knowledge workers with specialised qualifications.

As the sample was screened to ensure that respondents had experienced an organisational change, and could thus be included in the study, the type of change experienced was not specified. This was viewed as a limitation as different types of organisational change could result in different responses. Should the study have researched empowering leadership in the context of specified changes then a deeper understanding could have been gathered. Similarly, the study did not focus on specific managers and their subordinates; this would have been able to provide leader level insight into the effect of empowering leadership behaviours and provide the opportunity to compare subordinates of different managers against each other. The structure of this study did not link any respondents to their managers and in consequence provided individual level perceptions of empowering leadership.

## **Chapter 5: Research results**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter communicates the results from the statistical analysis on the data collected, as discussed in Chapter 4. The descriptive statistics are discussed first, followed by the inferential statistical testing that addresses the hypotheses put forward in Chapter 3.

### **5.2 Descriptive statistics**

This section summarises the sample that was realised for this study, specifically factors that influenced the acquiring of the sample and the response rate of said sample. The demographics of the sample are also discussed to detail what the sample looked like demographically.

#### **5.2.1 The research sample**

By determining the average sample size of between the studies of Neves et al. (2020), Oreg (2006) and Ahearne et al. (2005), a sample size of 248 was the aim of this study.

During the eight-week data collection period, a raw sample size of 137 respondents was achieved. The sample size requirement of 248 was unobtainable as the snowball sampling technique, which required that respondents share the survey with others, was relied on. There was the chance that respondents did not share the survey with others. The period in which to collect data also served as a limiting factor to the sample size that was obtained. When the number of responses is considered, another limiting factor could have been access to new survey respondents; access to networks, other than the researcher's, could have resulted in a larger sample size.

#### **5.2.2 The response rate**

As the survey collected anonymous responses and was distributed via both email and LinkedIn, and the possibility that respondents shared the survey with their own networks, a response rate could not be established.

Considering that emails were sent to 120 individuals and posted on LinkedIn twice during the eight weeks, the response rate was considered acceptable. As mentioned in the previous sub-section, the concern was that the researchers' network was saturated, which limited the number of responses.

A total of 137 responses were received, this was however reduced to 120 useable responses due to the responses to the qualifying statement of "I have experienced a change within my organisation that affected my role". Participants who answered no to this statement had their responses removed from the useable sample.

### **5.2.3 The total sample**

Of the 137 responses received, only 120 responded yes to experiencing a change within their organisation, thereby qualifying for the sample. The two additional qualifying statements regarding "I have had to adapt my tasks and responsibilities due to the implementation of an organisational change" (yes n=116; no n=4) and "My manager was involved in the change process" (yes n=109; no n=11) were considered along with the overall respondent data. These responses did not play a role in determining eligibility of respondents, but provided insight for interpretation, as noted in section 4.5.

When reviewing the data for completeness one respondent did not respond to statement ten of the LEBQ, as this is less than 15% incompleteness the mean response for that statement was used to complete the data (Hair et al., 2019). The mean was calculated considering responses from respondents of the same gender, same age group, and same industry.

### **5.2.4 Age of population**

The majority of respondents were between the ages of 22 and 39 years, specifically 45.8% of respondents were between 30 and 39 years, and 30.8% of respondents between 22 and 29 years of age. The complete breakdown of the age groups can be seen in Figure 2.

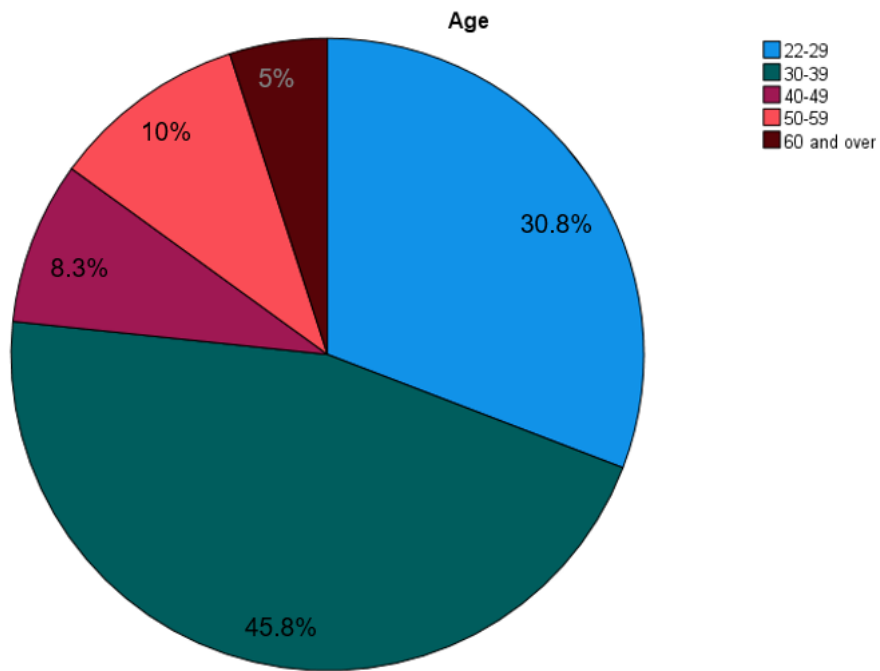


Figure 2: Respondents age

### 5.2.5 Gender

The majority of survey respondents were female. As per Figure 3, the female respondents represented 63.3% of the sample, while male respondents represented 36.7% of the sample.



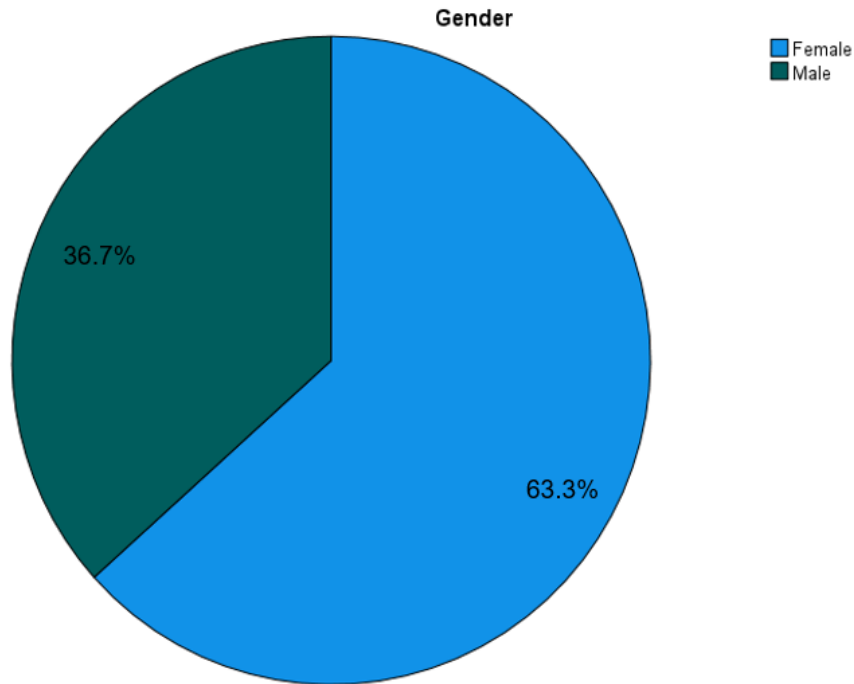


Figure 3: Respondents by gender

### 5.2.6 Occupation level of respondents

A large portion of respondents held either junior or senior management roles within their organisations, with junior managers representing 35% of respondents and senior managers representing 32.5% of the sample. As this study required the sample participants to have experienced a change within an organisational context, participants with more responsibility could be argued as an indicator of the sample requirement for experience of organisational change. Respondents' occupational levels can be seen in Figure 4.

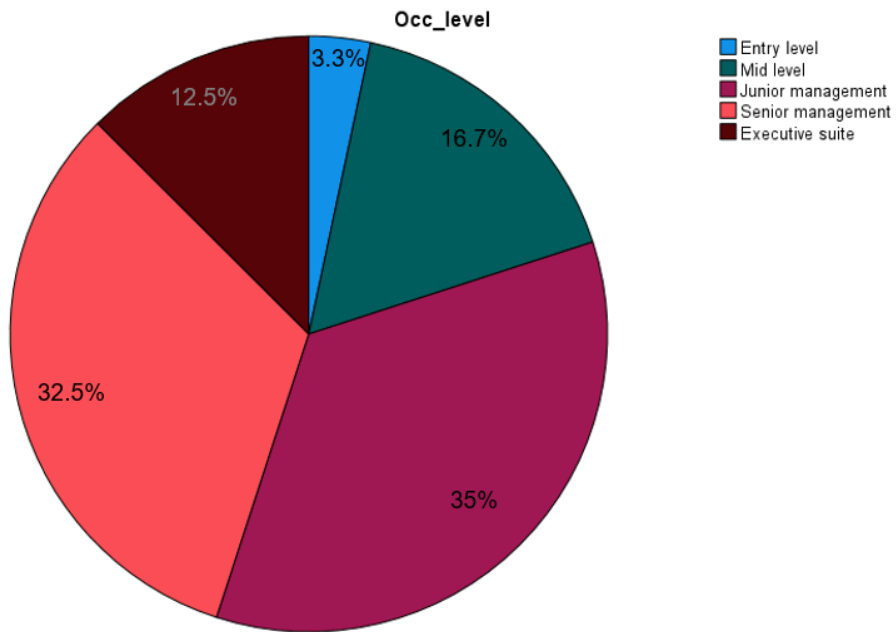


Figure 4: Respondents occupational level

### 5.2.7 Time with current manager

Respondents' time with their managers was well distributed, as seen in Figure 5. Most respondents had spent between one and two years with their current manager, representing 28.3% of the sample while 22.5% of the sample had spent four years or more with their current manager.

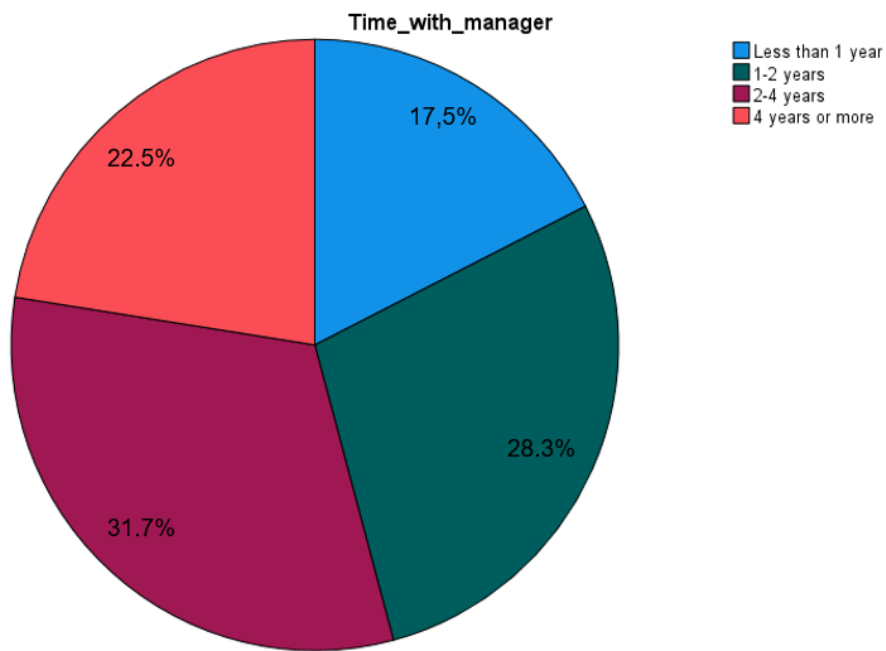


Figure 5: Respondents time with current manager

### 5.2.8 Industries contained within the survey

A large portion, 31.7% of respondents worked within the financial services industry, as seen in Figure 6. This was expected as the researcher worked within the financial services industry and their professional network was leveraged. The survey had a category called other in the industry section of the survey, to which respondents could specify their industry if it was not included in the prepopulated options. It is noted that 48.3% of respondents did not work within the specified industries, and of those 48.3% the largest number of respondents came from the construction (22% of other) and manufacturing (18% of other) industries. The breakdown of industries from the responses can be seen in Figure 6, and a frequency table stipulating the industries that made up the other category is depicted in Table 2.

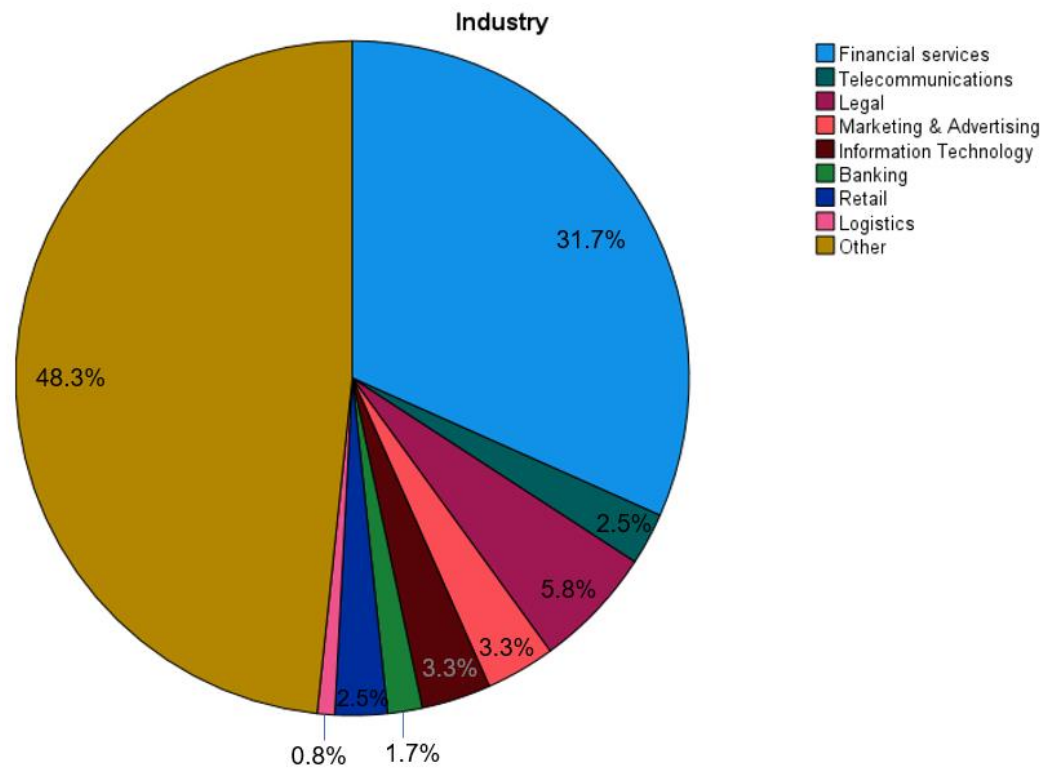


Figure 6: Respondents industry

Table 2: Frequency table of other industries category

Other Industries	Frequency
Agriculture and Trade	1
Automotive	1
Aviation	2
Client services	1
Construction	12
Consulting	2
Consumer goods	2
Design	1
Education and training	3
Energy	4
Food and beverage	1
Medical and pharmaceutical	4
Hospitality and tourism	2
Intelligence and security	1
Government	2

Other Industries	Frequency
Manufacturing	10
Mining	2
Real estate	1
Services	1
Sports	1
TOTAL	54

### 5.3 Validity

Validity tests, per construct, were conducted by running a bi-variate correlation test, specifically the Pearson correlation test with the item total score. The Pearson correlation test assumes that variables are measured with interval or ratio-scaled measures (Hair et al., 2019). The relationship being examined is assumed to be linear and variables being examined from normally distributed populations (Hair et al., 2019).

The Pearson correlation test was performed on both the LEBQ and the CAS as validity can only be measured per individual constructs. As a correlation of 0.3 is deemed valid, any items below 0.3 were identified and removed from further analysis. The correlation for LEBQ items ranged from 0.07 to 0.801. In this study, only one item was below a correlation of 0.3, specifically statement ten with a correlation of 0.04, and was removed from further analysis. For the CAS items the correlations ranged from 0.425 to 0.773, all the items were thus valid. The results of the Pearson correlation tests per construct can be seen in Appendix 3.

### 5.4 Reliability

The Cronbach Alpha for the LEBQ was 0.92 before statement ten was removed due to validity concerns, and 0.93 after statement ten was removed. While the Cronbach Alpha for the CAS was 0.905, both of which were considered somewhat high; however, they remained valid.

## **5.5 Factor Analysis**

A principal components analysis was run to test for validity (Zikmund et al., 2010) as well as identify a smaller set of variables that represented the most covariance among the original variables.

### **5.5.1 LEBQ Factor analysis**

A principal components analysis was run for the LEBQ that measures empowering behaviour after statement ten was removed due to validity concerns, as discussed in section 5.4. From the correlation matrix, seen in Table 3, all scale items had at least one coefficient larger than 0.3, which indicated that a factor analysis was appropriate. Further to the coefficients, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity sig. value was smaller than 0.001 and the KMO index was 0.873, which meant that they were meritorious; both of which further supported the fact that factor analysis was appropriate. These results are seen in Table 4.

Table 3: Correlation matrix for LEBQ

LEBQ	Correlation Matrix															
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1	1,000	0,912	0,651	0,010	0,023	0,554	0,602	0,605	0,531	0,305	0,459	0,532	0,416	0,522	0,496	
2	0,912	1,000	0,699	0,128	0,097	0,555	0,606	0,617	0,623	0,357	0,512	0,557	0,468	0,548	0,528	
3	0,651	0,699	1,000	0,235	0,139	0,521	0,528	0,524	0,490	0,258	0,361	0,419	0,442	0,373	0,613	
4	0,010	0,128	0,235	1,000	0,712	0,030	0,169	0,079	0,259	0,237	0,216	0,090	0,072	0,154	0,167	
5	0,023	0,097	0,139	0,712	1,000	0,750	0,206	0,178	0,180	0,154	0,230	0,156	0,081	0,084	0,072	
6	0,554	0,555	0,521	0,030	0,075	1,000	0,604	0,715	0,537	0,487	0,482	0,524	0,695	0,576	0,641	
7	0,602	0,606	0,528	0,169	0,206	0,604	1,000	0,783	0,491	0,265	0,449	0,491	0,434	0,520	0,495	
8	0,605	0,617	0,524	0,079	0,178	0,715	0,783	1,000	0,518	0,371	0,473	0,545	0,605	0,559	0,620	
9	0,531	0,623	0,490	0,259	0,180	0,537	0,491	0,518	1,000	0,441	0,561	0,536	0,598	0,600	0,531	
11	0,305	0,357	0,258	0,237	0,154	0,487	0,265	0,371	0,441	1,000	0,640	0,611	0,540	0,505	0,489	
12	0,459	0,512	0,361	0,216	0,230	0,482	0,449	0,473	0,561	0,640	1,000	0,830	0,621	0,713	0,545	
13	0,532	0,577	0,419	0,090	0,156	0,524	0,491	0,545	0,536	0,611	0,830	1,000	0,651	0,683	0,563	
14	0,416	0,468	0,442	0,072	0,081	0,695	0,434	0,605	0,598	0,540	0,621	0,651	1,000	0,737	0,745	
15	0,522	0,548	0,373	0,154	0,084	0,576	0,520	0,559	0,600	0,505	0,713	0,683	0,737	1,000	0,642	
16	0,496	0,528	0,613	0,167	0,072	0,641	0,495	0,620	0,531	0,489	0,545	0,563	0,745	0,642	1,000	

Table 4: KMO & Bartlett's test for LEBQ

	<b>Test</b>	<b>Result</b>
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,873
	Approx. Chi-Square	1424,248
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	105
	Sig.	<,001

Furthermore, using SPSS software and Kaiser's criteria of eigenvalues greater than one as acceptable, principal components analysis was run to identify the number of components to be extracted. These represented a cumulative 72.29% of the variance for LEBQ, as seen in Table 5. Orthogonal rotation with the Varimax procedure was also used to examine factor loadings and determine which variables correlated with which newly identified factors (Hair et al., 2019), the highest loading is the factor that the variable relates to most significantly.

Table 6 displays these loadings and the new factor groupings deducted from the principal components analysis.



Table 5: Total variance for LEBQ variables

Component	Total	Initial Eigenvalues % of Variance	Cumulative %	Extraction Total	Sums of Squared % of Variance	Loadings Cumulative %	Rotation Total	Sums of Squared % of Variance	Loadings Cumulative %
1	7,703	51,356	51,356	7,703	51,356	51,356	4,522	30,144	30,144
2	1,739	11,596	62,952	1,739	11,596	62,952	4,509	30,06	60,204
3	1,402	9,348	72,299	1,402	9,348	72,299	1,814	12,0959	72,299
4	0,818	5,453	77,752						
5	0,694	4,628	82,380						
6	0,532	3,545	85,925						
7	0,471	3,141	89,066						
8	0,354	2,363	91,429						
9	0,333	2,222	93,651						
10	0,250	1,667	95,318						
11	0,186	1,237	96,555						
12	0,157	1,047	97,602						
13	0,149	0,995	98,597						
14	0,138	0,923	99,520						
15	0,072	0,480	100,000						

Table 6: Rotated component matrix for LEBQ items

Items	Component			Previous dimension	New Factor grouping
	1	2	3		
LEBQ_1	<b>0,855</b>	0,236	-0,070	Delegation of authority	(1) Authority & decision making
LEBQ_2	<b>0,849</b>	0,286	0,041	Delegation of authority	(1) Authority & decision making
LEBQ_3	<b>0,793</b>	0,167	0,151	Delegation of authority	(1) Authority & decision making
LEBQ_4	0,062	0,099	<b>0,921</b>	Accountability	(3) Accountability
LEBQ_5	0,069	0,073	<b>0,905</b>	Accountability	(3) Accountability
LEBQ_6	<b>0,597</b>	0,540	-0,067	Self-directed decision making	(1) Authority & decision making
LEBQ_7	<b>0,758</b>	0,265	0,138	Self-directed decision making	(1) Authority & decision making
LEBQ_8	<b>0,724</b>	0,409	0,038	Self-directed decision making	(1) Authority & decision making
LEBQ_9	0,515	<b>0,527</b>	0,183	Information sharing	(2) Coaching & development
LEBQ_11	0,072	<b>0,792</b>	0,156	Skill development	(2) Coaching & development
LEBQ_12	0,246	<b>0,825</b>	0,170	Skill development	(2) Coaching & development
LEBQ_13	0,340	<b>0,789</b>	0,045	Skill development	(2) Coaching & development
LEBQ_14	0,355	<b>0,792</b>	-0,045	Coaching for innovative performance	(2) Coaching & development
LEBQ_15	0,380	<b>0,763</b>	0,170	Coaching for innovative performance	(2) Coaching & development
LEBQ_16	0,511	<b>0,619</b>	0,210	Coaching for innovative performance	(2) Coaching & development

After conducting a factor analysis using principal components analysis, three of the six factors were identified and used to test for relationships (Table 6). These are discussed in section 5.8.

### 5.5.2 CAS factor analysis

A principal components analysis was run for the CAS that measured respondent's resistance to change. From the correlation matrix, as seen in Table 7, all scale items had at least one coefficient larger than 0.3, which indicated that a factor analysis was appropriate. Further to the coefficients, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity sig. value was smaller than 0.001 and the KMO index was 0.883, which meant that they were meritorious; both of which further supported the fact that factor analysis was appropriate. These results are seen in Table 8.

Table 7: Correlation matrix for CAS

CAS	Correlation Matrix														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	1,000	0,538	0,302	0,152	0,550	0,206	0,221	0,253	-0,021	0,530	0,237	0,315	0,340	0,054	-0,052
2	0,538	1,000	0,549	0,479	0,517	0,443	0,429	0,498	0,227	0,373	0,429	0,529	0,360	0,370	0,283
3	0,302	0,549	1,000	0,491	0,385	0,325	0,352	0,501	0,187	0,459	0,466	0,545	0,259	0,480	0,518
4	0,152	0,448	0,491	1,000	0,390	0,490	0,502	0,512	0,326	0,593	0,549	0,436	0,379	0,614	0,586
5	0,550	0,517	0,385	0,390	1,000	0,284	0,295	0,326	0,176	0,212	0,315	0,330	0,453	0,282	0,141
6	0,506	0,443	0,325	0,490	0,284	1,000	0,701	0,547	0,481	0,325	0,382	0,431	0,211	0,414	0,367
7	0,221	0,429	0,352	0,502	0,295	0,701	1,000	0,602	0,439	0,427	0,522	0,461	0,175	0,428	0,394
8	0,253	0,498	0,501	0,512	0,326	0,547	0,602	1,000	0,463	0,574	0,624	0,555	0,247	0,480	0,495
9	-0,021	0,227	0,187	0,326	0,176	0,481	0,439	0,463	1,000	0,288	0,403	0,412	0,091	0,361	0,319
10	0,053	0,373	0,459	0,593	0,212	0,325	0,427	0,574	0,288	1,000	0,502	0,399	0,339	0,564	0,649
11	0,237	0,429	0,466	0,549	0,315	0,382	0,522	0,624	0,403	0,502	1,000	0,745	0,354	0,593	0,555
12	0,305	0,529	0,545	0,436	0,330	0,431	0,461	0,555	0,412	0,399	0,745	1,000	0,370	0,469	0,444
13	0,340	0,360	0,259	0,379	0,453	0,211	0,175	0,247	0,091	0,339	0,354	0,370	1,000	0,304	0,192
14	0,054	0,370	0,480	0,614	0,282	0,414	0,428	0,480	0,361	0,564	0,593	0,469	0,304	1,000	0,713
15	-0,052	0,283	0,518	0,586	0,141	0,367	0,394	0,495	0,319	0,649	0,555	0,444	0,192	0,713	1,000

Table 8: KMO and Bartlett's test for CAS

	<b>Test</b>	<b>Result</b>
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,883
	Approx. Chi-Square	971.801
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	105
	Sig.	<,001

The principal components analysis test was also run for CAS to identify extractable factors, using SPSS software and Kaisers criteria of eigenvalues greater than one as acceptable. These represented a cumulative 65.27% of the variance for change attitude, as seen in Table 9. As with LEBQ, the orthogonal rotation using the Varimax procedure was used to examine factor loadings and determine which variables correlated with which newly identified factors (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 10 displays these loadings and the new factor groupings deducted from the principal components analysis.

Table 9: Total variance for CAS items

Component	Total	Initial Eigenvalues % of Variance	Cumulative %	Extraction Total	Sums of Squared % of Variance	Loadings Cumulative %	Rotation Total	Sums of Squared % of Variance	Loadings Cumulative %
1	6,735	44,901	44,901	6,735	44,901	44,901	3,985	26,566	26,566
2	1,828	12,188	57,089	1,828	12,188	57,089	2,952	19,679	46,244
3	1,228	8,185	65,274	1,228	8,185	65,274	2,854	19,029	65,274
4	0,810	5,399	70,672						
5	0,782	5,211	75,883						
6	0,589	3,930	79,813						
7	0,523	3,486	83,299						
8	0,473	3,155	86,455						
9	0,393	2,623	89,078						
10	0,381	2,543	91,621						
11	0,306	2,042	93,662						
12	0,301	2,004	95,667						
13	0,263	1,754	97,421						
14	0,220	1,465	98,885						
15	0,167	1,115	100,000						

Table 10: Rotated component matrix for CAS items

Items	Component			Previous dimension	New Factor grouping
	1	2	3		
RTC_1	-0,124	0,108	<b>0,855</b>	Affective	(3) Anxious
RTC_2	0,275	0,329	<b>0,693</b>	Affective	(3) Anxious
RTC_3	<b>0,584</b>	0,157	0,436	Affective	(1) Attitude
RTC_4	<b>0,679</b>	0,313	0,269	Affective	(1) Attitude
RTC_5	0,137	0,145	<b>0,772</b>	Affective	(3) Anxious
RTC_6	0,190	<b>0,799</b>	0,199	Intentional/ Behavioural	(2) Intentional/ Behavioural
RTC_7	0,268	<b>0,778</b>	0,197	Intentional/ Behavioural	(2) Intentional/ Behavioural
RTC_8	0,473	<b>0,606</b>	0,267	Intentional/ Behavioural	(2) Intentional/ Behavioural
RTC_9	0,199	<b>0,745</b>	-0,070	Intentional/ Behavioural	(2) Intentional/ Behavioural
RTC_10	<b>0,784</b>	0,192	0,104	Intentional/ Behavioural	(1) Attitude
RTC_11	<b>0,616</b>	0,414	0,287	Cognitive	(1) Attitude
RTC_12	<b>0,467</b>	0,438	0,410	Cognitive	(1) Attitude
RTC_13	0,359	0,078	<b>0,595</b>	Cognitive	(3) Anxious
RTC_14	<b>0,787</b>	0,261	0,101	Cognitive	(1) Attitude
RTC_15	<b>0,861</b>	0,219	-0,054	Cognitive	(1) Attitude

Note: RTC refers to resistance to change, which is the construct measured with the CAS.

## 5.6 Normality

As discussed in section 4.8.4, the Shapiro Wilk test was used to inform the distribution of the data. SPSS software was used to run the Shapiro Wilk procedure and the sig. value was used to determine if the value was normal, where a sig value of greater than 0.05 was viewed as normal distribution.

As seen in Table 11, the data was viewed as not normally distributed with sig. values below 0.05. As most statistical tests are rigorous in nature, the normal distribution assumption does not often present a problem should the data only be approximately normal (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 11: Shapiro-Wilk test for normality

Items	Statistic	df	Sig.	Items	Statistic	df	Sig.
LEBQ_1	0,798	120	<0,001	RTC_1	0,918	120	<0,001
LEBQ_2	0,821	120	<0,001	RTC_2	0,922	120	<0,001
LEBQ_3	0,791	120	<0,001	RTC_3	0,940	120	<0,001
LEBQ_4	0,664	120	<0,001	RTC_4	0,889	120	<0,001
LEBQ_5	0,692	120	<0,001	RTC_5	0,930	120	<0,001
LEBQ_6	0,860	120	<0,001	RTC_6	0,767	120	<0,001
LEBQ_7	0,799	120	<0,001	RTC_7	0,723	120	<0,001
LEBQ_8	0,802	120	<0,001	RTC_8	0,841	120	<0,001
LEBQ_9	0,838	120	<0,001	RTC_9	0,860	120	<0,001
LEBQ_10	0,879	120	<0,001	RTC_10	0,926	120	<0,001
LEBQ_11	0,929	120	<0,001	RTC_11	0,883	120	<0,001
LEBQ_12	0,888	120	<0,001	RTC_12	0,890	120	<0,001
LEBQ_13	0,905	120	<0,001	RTC_13	0,938	120	<0,001
LEBQ_14	0,887	120	<0,001	RTC_14	0,908	120	<0,001
LEBQ_15	0,877	120	<0,001	RTC_15	0,890	120	<0,001
LEBQ_16	0,870	120	<0,001				

Note: RTC refers to resistance to change, which is the construct measured with the CAS.

## 5.7 Research hypotheses

The six hypotheses of this study posed that each dimension of empowering leadership, as stated by Konczak et al. (2000), was positively related with reducing resistance to change.

As discussed in section 4.8, to measure if a relationship is present it first had to be established if the respondents were resistant to change, or not, and whether empowering leadership was experienced, or not. The presence of these constructs within the sample was measured through a Pearson chi-square test. Thereafter a correlation test was run to identify the presence of a relationship as per the research hypotheses.

### 5.7.1 The sample's attitude towards change

The frequency table (Table 12) for the CAS indicated the overall change attitude of respondents. Noteworthy counts from the frequency table were the significant number of respondents that answered strongly disagree to statements: "I protested against the change" (n=65), "I looked for ways to prevent the change from taking place" (n=58), and "I complained about the change to my colleagues" (n=45). For

the reverse coded statements, the majority of respondents answered on the positive end of the Likert scale: for the statement: “I was quite excited about the change”, the majority of respondents answered neutral (n=28), somewhat agree (n=27), or agree (n=20). The statement “I spoke rather highly of the change to others” saw a large number of respondents answer neutral (n=35) or agree (n=27). For the statement: “I believed that the change would benefit the organisation”, the majority of respondents answered agree (n=32), somewhat agree (n=28), or strongly agree (n=23). The statement: “I believed that I could personally benefit from the change”, saw most respondents answer agree (N=28), strongly agree (n=27), and somewhat agree (n=22).

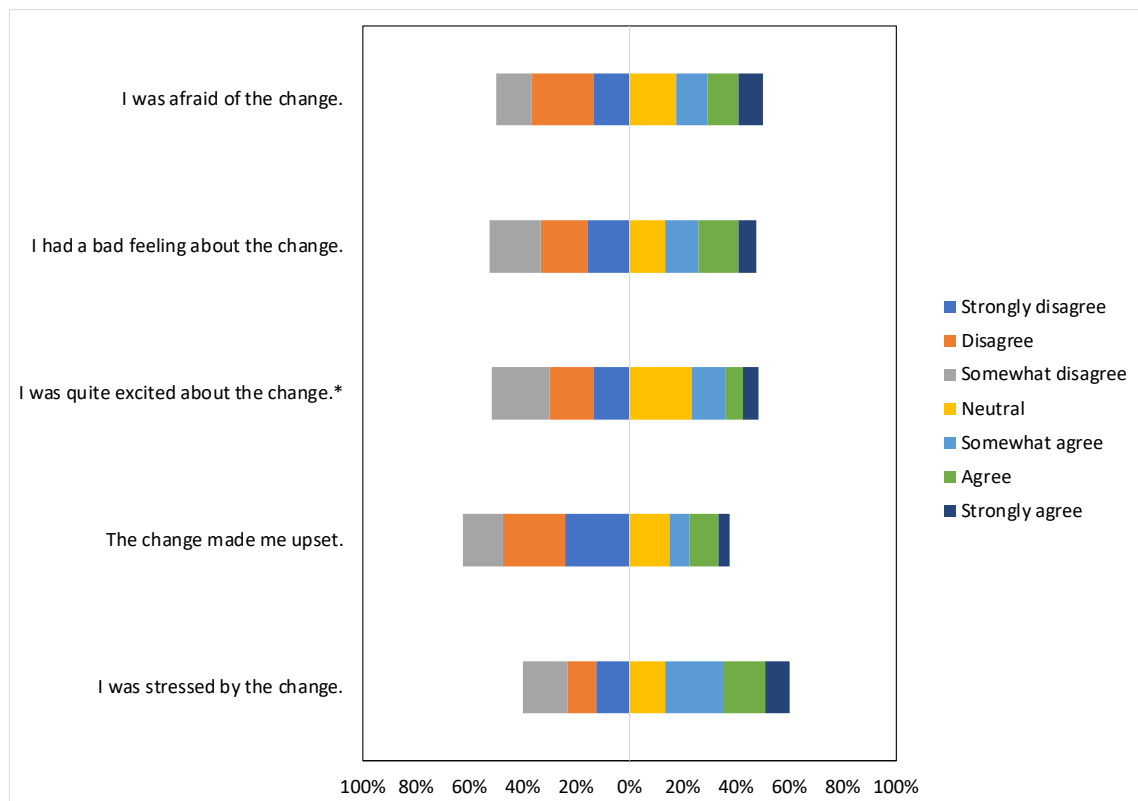
Table 12. Frequency table of CAS

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Count
1. I was afraid of the change	16	28	17	21	13	14	11	120
2. I had a bad feeling about the change	19	21	24	16	15	18	7	120
3. I was quite excited about the change*	6	8	15	28	27	20	16	120
4. The change made me upset	29	29	17	18	9	13	5	120
5. I was stressed by the change	15	13	20	16	26	19	11	120
6. I looked for ways to prevent the change from taking place	58	27	16	7	7	5	0	120
7. I protested against the change	65	25	5	12	6	5	2	120
8. I complained about the change to my colleagues	45	19	15	8	17	13	3	120
9. I presented my objections regarding the change to management	41	20	11	16	13	14	5	120
10. I spoke rather highly of the change to others*	7	12	9	35	15	27	15	120
11. I believed that the change would harm the way things are done in the organization	33	27	18	16	11	10	5	120
12. I thought that it's a negative thing that we were going through this change	31	30	13	22	12	8	4	120
13. I believed that the change would make my job harder	14	19	18	22	23	14	10	120
14. I believed that the change would benefit the organisation*	1	9	8	19	28	32	23	120
15. I believed that I could personally benefit from the change*	9	8	10	16	22	28	27	120



### *Affective attitude towards change*

Respondents were posed five statements to gauge their affective state in terms of change attitude (Figure 7). There was no significant variation in the Likert scores for the three statements: “I was afraid of the change” ( $\chi^2= 11.25$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = 0.081$ ), “I had a bad feeling about the change” ( $\chi^2= 8.33$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = 0.215$ ), and “I was stressed by the change” ( $\chi^2= 8.80$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = 0.151$ ). In contrast, for the statement: “I was quite excited about the change”, significantly more respondents selected strongly disagree ( $n = 28$ ) and disagree ( $n = 26$ ) and some selected somewhat disagree ( $n = 20$ ;  $\chi^2= 23,15$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Similarly, for the statement: “The change made me upset”, a significant number of respondents selected strongly agree ( $n = 29$ ) and agree ( $n = 28$ ) and there were high scores for somewhat agree ( $n = 18$ ) and neutral ( $n = 18$ ;  $\chi^2= 28,63$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).



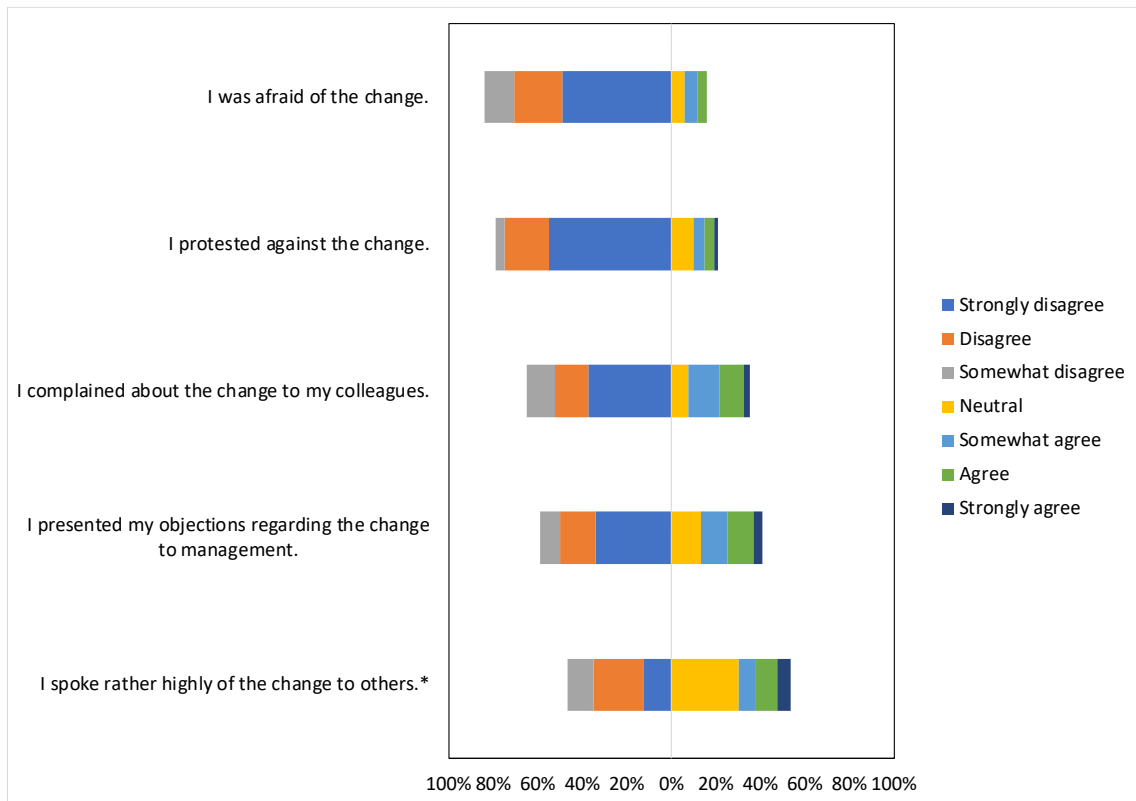
\* = Reverse coded statement

Figure 7. Likert plot: affective state.

### *Intentional/behavioural attitude towards change*

Respondents were posed five statements to gauge their intentional/behavioural state (Figure 8). Respondents selected significantly disagree more often for four statements: “I looked for ways to prevent the change from taking place ( $n = 59$ ;  $\chi^2 = 144.60$ ,  $df = 6$ ,

$p < 0.001$ ), “I protested against the change” ( $n = 66$ ;  $\chi^2 = 181.35$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), “I complained about the change to my colleagues” ( $n = 45$ ;  $\chi^2 = 66.12$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and “I presented my objections regarding the change to management” ( $n = 41$ ;  $\chi^2 = 45.43$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). For the statement: “I spoke rather highly of the change to others”, significantly more respondents selected neutral ( $n = 36$ ;  $\chi^2 = 38.67$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).



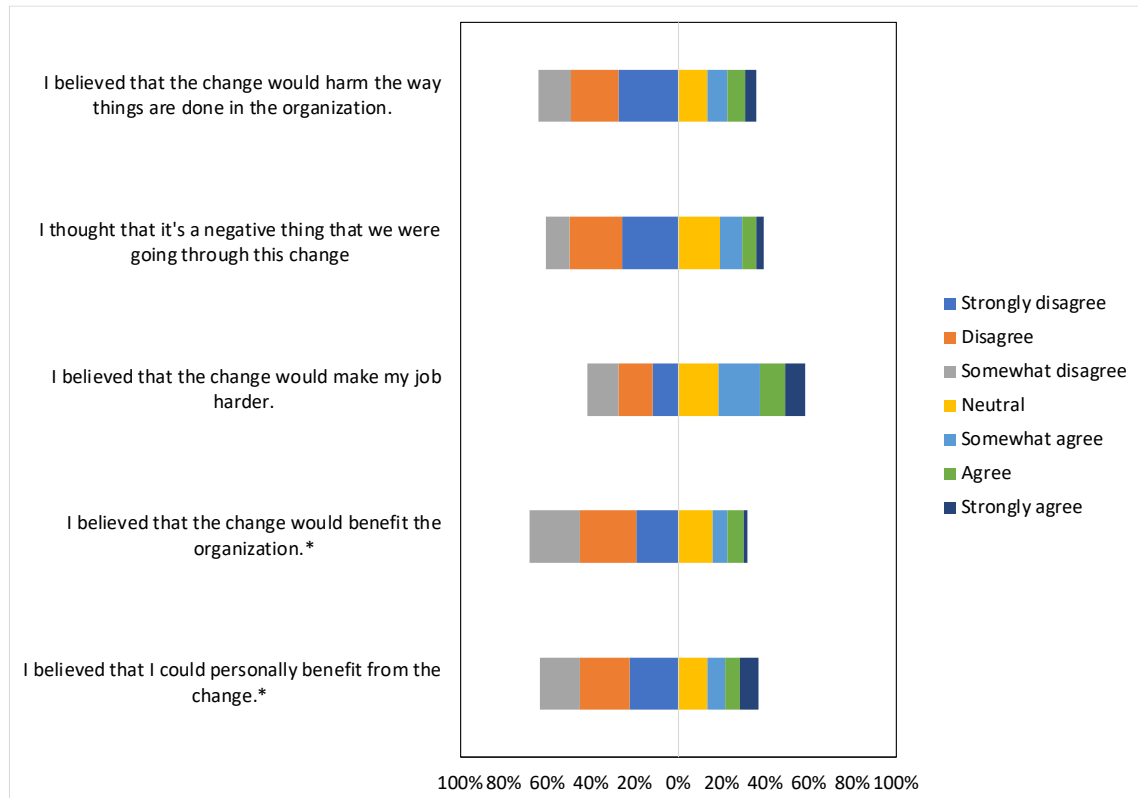
\* = Reverse coded statement

Figure 8. Likert plot: intentional/behavioural state

### *Cognitive attitude towards change*

Respondents were posed five statements to gauge their cognitive state (Figure 9). In response to the statement: “I believed that the change would harm the way things are done in the organisation”, significantly more respondents selected disagree ( $n = 26$ ) and strongly disagree ( $n = 33$ ;  $\chi^2 = 31.78$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). In response to the statement: “I thought that it’s a negative thing that we were going through this change”, significantly more respondents selected neutral ( $n = 23$ ), disagree ( $n = 29$ ) and strongly disagree ( $n = 31$ ;  $\chi^2 = 57.67$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). For the statement: “I believed that the change would benefit the organisation”, significantly more respondents selected somewhat disagree ( $n = 28$ ), disagree ( $n = 31$ ) and strongly disagree ( $n = 23$ ;  $\chi^2 =$

42.20, df = 6, p < 0.001). Similarly, for the statement: “I believed that I could personally benefit from the change”, significantly more respondents selected somewhat disagree (n = 22), disagree (n = 27) and strongly disagree (n = 27;  $\chi^2 = 18.84$ , df = 6, p = 0.002). There was no significant variation in responses to the statement: “I believed that the change would make my job harder” ( $\chi^2 = 6.93$ , df = 6, p = 0.327).



\* = Reverse coded statement

Figure 9. Likert plot: cognitive state

### 5.7.2 Presence of empowering leadership within sample

The LEBQ was used to measure the extent to which the sample experience empowering leadership within the workplace.

Noteworthy counts from the frequency table (Table 13) were the significant number of respondents that responded strongly agree to statements: “I am held accountable for performance and results.” (n=73), “My manager holds me accountable for the work I am assigned.” (n=71) and “My manager encourages me to develop my own solutions to problems I encounter in my work.” (n=51).

Table 13. Frequency table of LEBQ

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Count
1. My manager gives me the authority I need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures.	5	3	6	10	14	43	39	120
2. My manager gives me the authority to make changes necessary to improve things.	4	4	8	11	15	37	41	120
3. My manager delegates authority to me that is equal to the level of responsibility that I am assigned.	5	5	7	11	11	32	49	120
4. My manager holds me accountable for the work I am assigned.	0	1	1	2	8	37	71	120
5. I am held accountable for performance and results.	0	0	2	2	13	30	73	120
6. My manager tries to help me arrive at my own solutions when problems arise, rather than telling me what he/she would do.	4	5	8	11	27	28	37	120
7. My manager relies on me to make my own decisions about issues that affect how work gets done.	2	2	7	7	18	37	47	120
8. My manager encourages me to develop my own solutions to problems I encounter in my work.	2	1	7	11	16	32	51	120
9. My manager shares information that I need to ensure high quality results.	4	4	10	10	19	32	41	120
10. My manager provides me with the information I need to complete my assigned tasks	1	3	11	15	25	27	38	120
11. My manager encourages me to use systematic problem-solving methods (e.g., the seven-step problem-solving model).	14	12	16	32	13	16	17	120
12. My manager provides me with frequent opportunities to develop new skills.	5	11	12	12	22	31	27	120
13. My manager ensures that continuous learning and skill development are priorities in our department.	6	11	15	14	23	24	27	120

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Count
14. My manager is willing to risk mistakes on my part if, over the long term, I will learn and develop as a result of the experience.	11	4	14	12	27	24	28	120
15. I am encouraged to try out new ideas even if there is a chance they may not succeed.	8	2	10	17	23	37	23	120
16. My manager focuses on corrective action rather than placing blame when I make a mistake.	6	5	7	16	25	26	35	120

## 5.8 Research hypothesis 1

*H1:* Information sharing was positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Respondents were posed two statements to assess their information sharing (Figure 10). For the statement: “My manager shares information that I need to ensure high quality results”, significantly more respondents selected agree (n = 31) and strongly agree (n = 41;  $\chi^2 = 69.23$ , df = 6,  $p < 0.001$ ). For the statement: “My manager provides me with the information I need to complete my assigned tasks”, significantly more respondents selected somewhat agree (n = 25), agree (n = 28) and strongly agree (n = 31;  $\chi^2 = 53.38$ , df = 6,  $p < 0.001$ ).

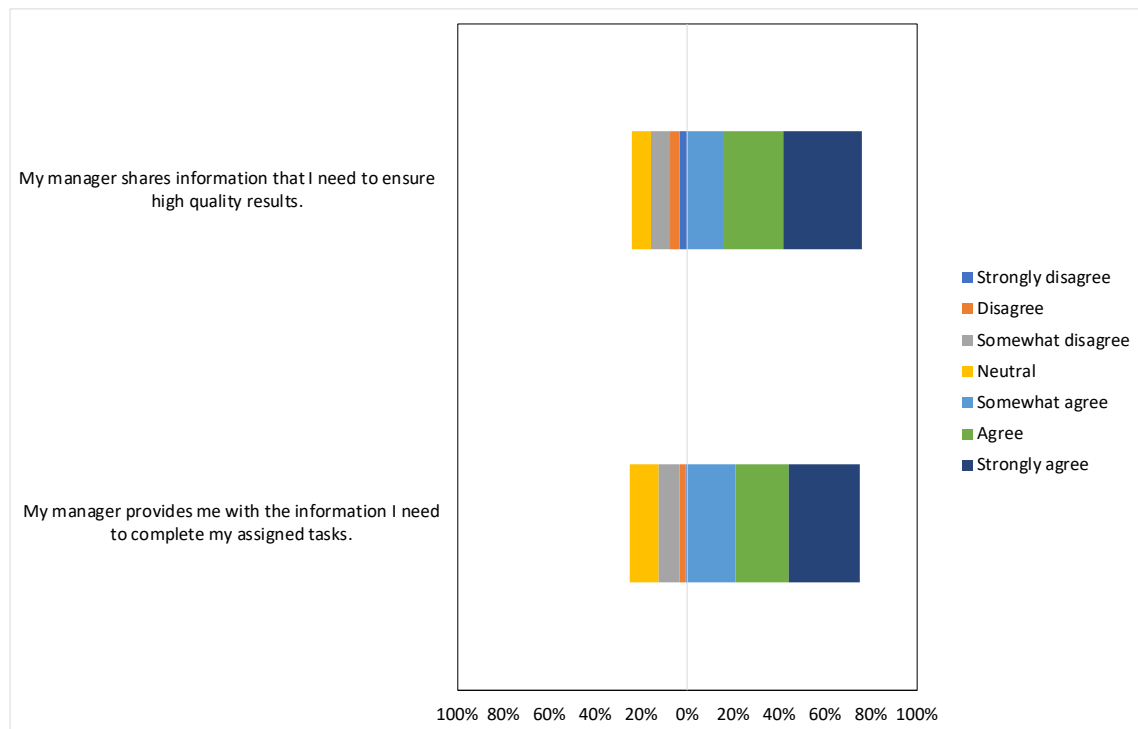


Figure 10. Likert plot: information sharing.

A Spearman correlation test was run to understand whether the dimension of information sharing had a relationship with resistance to change. Through the use of principal components analysis three factors were identified for the empowering leadership construct (Table 14). After the principal components analysis, the information-sharing construct was grouped with the new component of coaching and development, or component two as per the component matrix in section 5.7.1. To identify a relationship, coaching and development was measured for correlation against the three resistance to change components, as per Table 15.

Table 14: LEBQ components' mean and standard deviations

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation
Authority and decision-making	5,61	1,29
Coaching and development	4,92	1,44
Accountability	6,41	0,81

Table 15: Spearman's correlation for LEBQ coaching and development component

Component	Test	Attitude	Intentional/Behavioural	Anxious
Coaching and development	Correlation coefficient	0,230*	-0,135	-0,247**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,011	0,141	0,006
	N	120	120	120

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

In Table 15, a small or weak relationship was noted between the coaching and development component, and the resistance to change components of attitude and anxious. The relationship between coaching and development and attitude was indicated in a correlation coefficient of 0.230. While the correlation coefficient between coaching and development and anxious is -0.247. The weakest relationship is that of coaching and development and the 'intentional/behavioural' component, with a correlation coefficient of -0.135; a weak negative relationship.

## 5.9 Research hypothesis 2

*H2*: Delegation of authority is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Respondents were posed three statements to assess delegation of authority (Figure 11). For the statement: "My manager gives me the authority I need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures", significantly more respondents selected agree (n = 43) and strongly agree (n = 39;  $\chi^2 = 97.93$ , df = 6, p < 0.001). For the statement: "My manager gives me the authority to make changes necessary to improve things", significantly more respondents selected agree (n = 37) and strongly agree (n = 41;  $\chi^2 = 82.53$ , df = 6, p < 0.001). For the statement: "My manager delegates authority to me that is equal to the level of responsibility that I am assigned", significantly more respondents selected agree (n = 31) and strongly agree (n = 49;  $\chi^2 = 96.88$ , df = 6, p < 0.001).

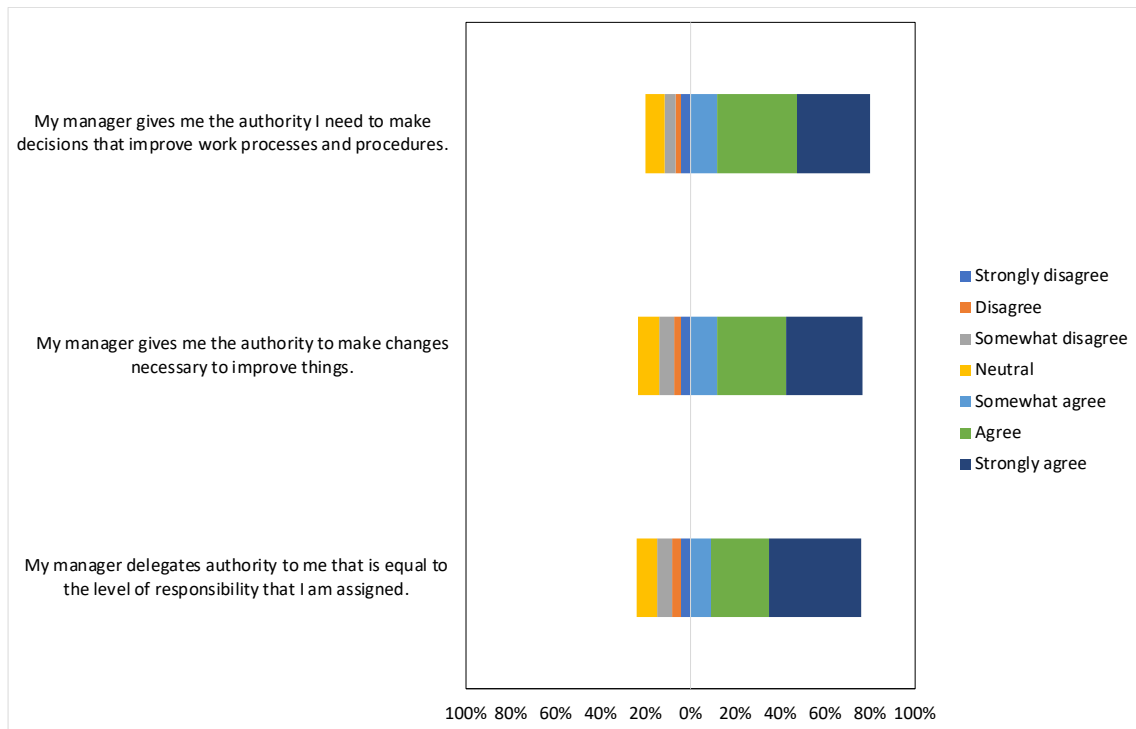


Figure 11. Likert plot: delegation of authority

As with H1, a Spearman's correlation was run for the LEBQ component that encompassed delegation of authority, namely authority and decision-making also known as component one.

Table 16: Spearman's correlation for LEBQ authority and decision-making component

Component	Test	Attitude	Intentional/Behavioural	Anxious
Authority and decision making	Correlation coefficient	0,303*	-0,137	-0,245**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<0,001	0,137	0,007
	N	120	120	120

Table 16 indicates the presence of three weak or small relationships between authority and decision-making and resistance to change components. The relationship between authority and decision-making and attitude was indicated by the correlation coefficient of 0.303. The relationship between authority and decision making and anxious of -0.245 is a negative relationship. The weakest relationship was that of authority and decision-making and intentional/behavioural components, with a correlation of -0.137. It was noted that these correlations were very similar to



those examined in H1, specifically coaching and development against resistance to change.

### 5.10 Research hypothesis 3

*H3*: The presence of accountability is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Respondents were posed two statements to assess their accountability (Figure 12). For the statement: “My manager holds me accountable for the work I am assigned”, significantly more respondents selected strongly agree ( $n = 70$ ;  $\chi^2 = 250.07$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Similarly, for the statement: “I am held accountable for performance and results” significantly more respondents selected strongly agree ( $n = 74$ ;  $\chi^2 = 258.82$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

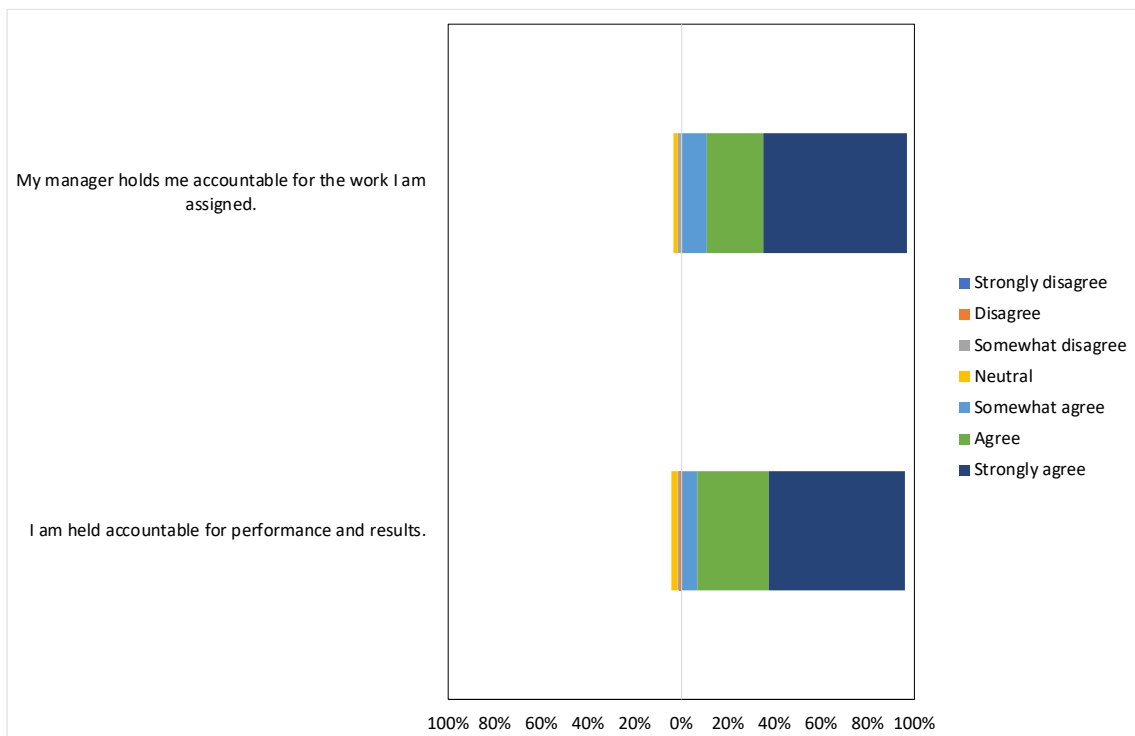


Figure 12. Likert plot: accountability

As with H1 and H2, a Spearman’s correlation was run for the LEBQ component that encompassed accountability; although the principal components analysis resulted in the theorised variables for accountability being grouped together in isolation of the other variables. Hence, the component was known as accountability.

Table 17: Spearman's correlation for LEBQ accountability component

Component	Test	Attitude	Intentional/Behavioural	Anxious
Accountability	Correlation coefficient	1,000**	-0,196*	-0,200*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0,032	0,028
	N	120	120	120

The correlation coefficients seen in Table 17 differ somewhat from the correlations seen for H1 and H2. First, the correlation between the accountability and attitude components (+1.000) is a perfect association. A change in one would result in an exact change in the other. The correlation between accountability and intentional/behavioural components was a weak negative relationship of -0.196, as was the correlation between accountability and anxious, at -0.200. These negative correlations indicated inverse relationships, where one increases the other decreases.

#### 5.11 Research hypothesis 4

*H4:* Skill development is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Respondents were posed three statements to assess their skill development (Figure 13). For the statement: "My manager encourages me to use systematic problem-solving methods", significantly more respondents selected strongly agree (n = 32) versus strongly disagree (n = 12;  $\chi^2 = 16.03$ , df = 6, p = 0.014); there were no other statistically significant outcomes. For the statement: "My manager provides me with frequent opportunities to develop new skills", significantly more respondents selected somewhat agree (n = 21) agree (n = 27) and strongly agree (n = 31;  $\chi^2 = 31.08$ , df = 6, p < 0.001). For the statement: "My manager ensures that continuous learning and skill development are priorities in our department", significantly more respondents somewhat agree (n = 22), agree (n = 25) and strongly agree (n = 27;  $\chi^2 = 20.93$ , df = 6, p = 0.002).

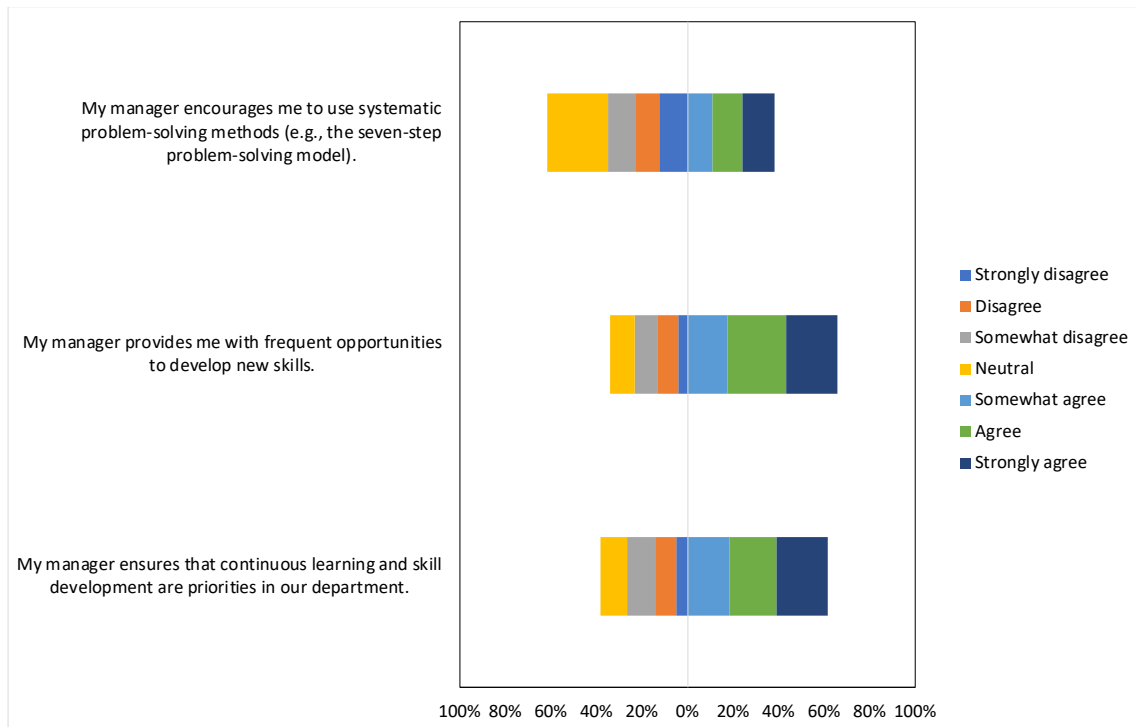


Figure 13. Likert plot: skill development

As with the previous hypotheses, a Spearman’s rank correlation was run, for the relative components. The principal components analysis resulted in the skill development variables being grouped into the coaching and development component. As such, Table 15 (section 5.8) shows that H1 also applies for the correlation coefficients relevant to H4.

### 5.12 Research hypothesis 5

*H5:* Self-directed decision-making is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Respondents were posed three statements to assess their self-directed decision-making (Figure 14). For the statement: “My manager tries to help me arrive at my own solutions when problems arise, rather than telling me what they would do”, significantly more respondents selected agree ( $n = 28$ ) and strongly agree ( $n = 38$ ;  $\chi^2 = 64.45$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). For the statement: “My manager relies on me to make my own decisions about issues that affect how work gets done”, significantly more respondents selected agree ( $n = 37$ ) and strongly agree ( $n = 48$ ;  $\chi^2 = 118.58$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). For the statement: “My manager encourages me to develop my

own solutions to problems I encounter in my work”, significantly more respondents selected agree (n = 33) and strongly agree (n = 51;  $\chi^2 = 119.63$ , df = 6, p < 0.001).

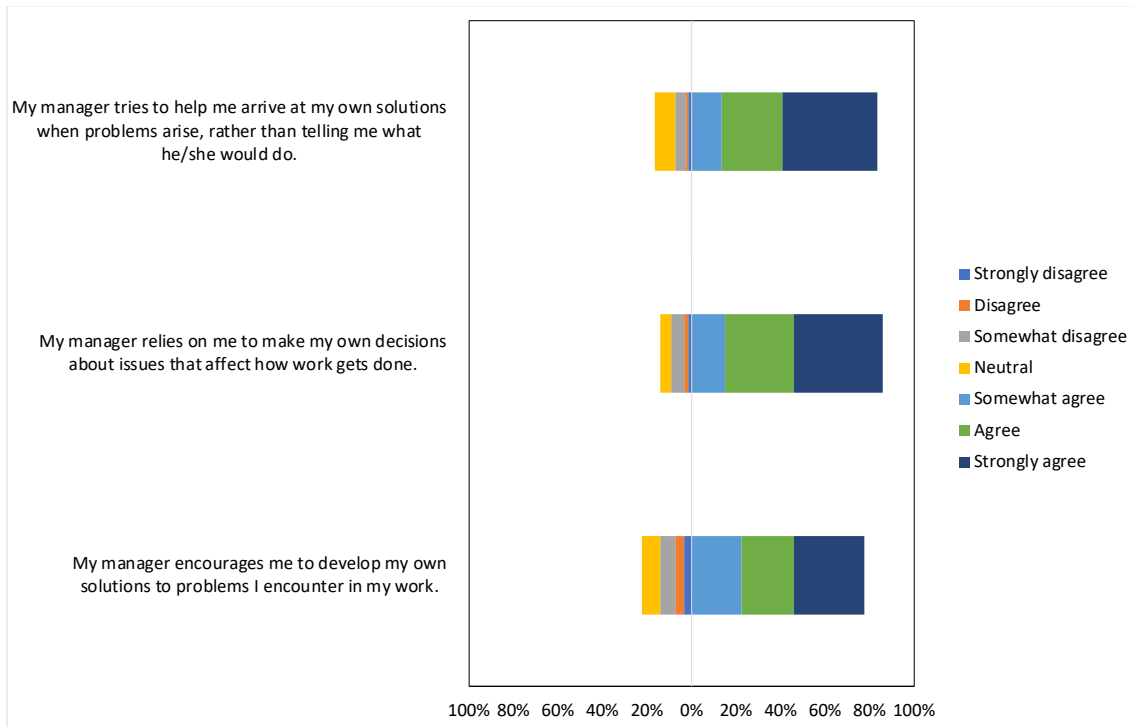


Figure 14. Likert plot: self-directed decision-making

The principal components analysis resulted in the dimension of self-directed decision-making being included in the new component of authority and decision-making. As such, the Spearman’s correlations seen in Table 16 (section 5.9) for H2 were also relevant for H5.

### 5.13 Research hypothesis 6

*H6:* Coaching for innovative performance is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

Respondents were posed three statements to assess their coaching for innovative performance (Figure 15). For the statement: “My manager is willing to risk mistakes on my part if, over the long term, I will learn and develop as a result of the experience”, significantly more respondents selected somewhat agree (n = 24), agree (n = 27), and strongly agree (n = 28;  $\chi^2 = 29.68$ , df = 6, p < 0.001). For the statement: “I am encouraged to try out new ideas even if there is a chance they may not succeed”, significantly more respondents selected somewhat agree (n = 22), agree (n = 23) and strongly agree (n = 37;  $\chi^2 = 46.60$ , df = 6, p < 0.001). For

the statement: “My manager focuses on corrective action rather than placing blame when I make a mistake”, significantly more respondents selected somewhat agree (n = 26), agree (n = 26), and strongly agree (n = 35;  $\chi^2 = 49.87$ , df = 6, p < 0.001).

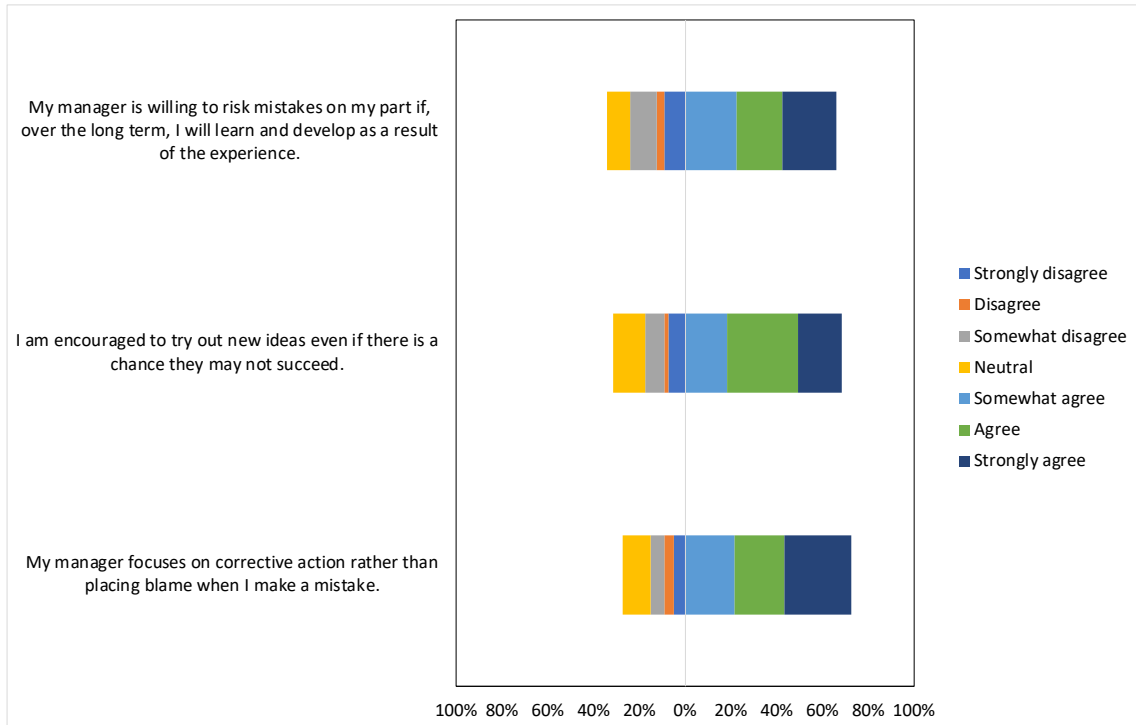


Figure 15. Likert plot: innovative performance

The principal components analysis resulted in the coaching for innovative performance dimension being included in the new coaching and development component. As such, the Spearman’s rank correlations seen in Table 15 (section 5.8) for H1 are also relevant for H6.

## **Chapter 6: Discussion of results**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this research study was to investigate whether empowering leadership could be a driver to overcome resistance to change within organisations. The six dimensions of empowering leadership behaviour as identified by Konczak et al. (2000) were utilised to identify if a relationship was present between empowering leadership and resistance to change.

This chapter discusses the research results in more detail and aligns the meaning of the data with the hypotheses.

### **6.2 The sample's attitude towards change**

Firstly, the research had to establish whether the sample had a positive or negative attitude towards change, and if they indicated a strong or reduced resistance towards change. To identify the attitude of the sample the totals per statement of the CAS were reviewed, as seen in the frequency table (Table 12, section 5.7.1). For seven of the eleven negatively phrased statements (statements 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, and 12) a significant number of respondents answered, strongly disagree, and for the four reverse worded statements (statements 3, 10, 14, and 15) a significant number of respondents answered neutral and agree. The significant amount of disagreement with the negatively phrased statements indicated that the sample did not have a prominently negative attitude towards change, and it was deduced that the sample had a reduced resistance to change. Furthermore, the presence of agreement with two of the positively phrased statements indicated the presence of a positive attitude towards change within the sample. For statements five and thirteen, a significant number of respondents answered somewhat agree, indicating that the sample was stressed by the change and believed it would make their jobs harder. However, as per the significant number of responses to statement 12, the sample disagreed that it was a negative thing to go through with the change. It was deduced that though respondents were stressed by the change and thought it would make their jobs more difficult, they still had a positive attitude towards the change and believed that there were benefits to be realised from the change, as per statements 14 and 15. It was also noted that from the sample of 120

respondents, four had not had to adapt their tasks and responsibilities due to the change, as this was not a significant portion of the sample it did not impact on the results of the survey. As individual-level resistance to change entailed uncertainty regarding the outcome and a preference for familiarity, should a large portion of respondents not had to adapt their tasks and responsibilities it could be seen as a reduced resistance to change due to the retained familiarity (George & Jones, 2012). Additionally, from the sample of 120 respondents 11 experienced a change that their manager was not part of. As this is roughly 10% of the sample it was noted that not all respondents experienced a change that involved their manager, as a positive relationship between employee and manager could reduce resistance to change this figure should be considered in relation to the results of the study (Amarantou et al., 2018). If a more significant number of respondents experienced a change that did not involve their manager it could have been established whether the involvement of a direct manager within the change process reduced resistance to change. Considering the significant disagreement with the negatively phrased statements, the sample was thought to have a positive attitude towards change, which was seen as a reduced resistance to change.

### **6.3 Presence of empowering leadership within the sample**

To identify whether the sample experienced empowering leadership within the workplace, the totals per statement of the LEBQ were reviewed, as seen in the frequency table (Table 13, section 5.7.2).

A significant number of respondents answered agree or strongly agree to 15 of the 16 statements. This indicates that respondents are experiencing empowering leadership behaviours from their manager. There was only one statement for which a significant number of respondents answered neutral, statement 11 regarding problem-solving methods.

As empowering leadership is seen as an interactive leadership style that entails behaviours (or dimensions) that encourage autonomy, information sharing, coaching and skill development, and self-directed decision making (Lee et al., 2018; Neves et al., 2020). The measurement scale was developed to assess the presence of the six dimensions of empowering leadership (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017), as detailed in section 2.2. The significant agreement from

respondents to the statements within the scale indicated that all six dimensions of empowering leadership were present in the samples experience with their manager.

Considering the significant amount of agreement seen within the frequency table it was deduced that the sample does experience empowering leadership within the workplace.

#### **6.4 Information sharing reduced resistance to change**

The first hypothesis looked specifically at the dimension of information sharing and posed that as information sharing from leader to subordinate increased so the subordinates' resistance to change would reduce. The results are discussed in relation to hypothesis one.

*H1:* Information sharing is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

From the chi-squared analysis the p-values for both statements: "My manager shares information that I need to ensure high quality results", and "My manager provides me with the information I need to complete my assigned tasks", showed p-values ( $p < 0.001$ ) less than the significant value of 0.05. In that event, the results were significant and the variables specific to information sharing were associated with each other (Pallant, 2020).

Reviewing the correlation matrix (Table 15, section 5.8) the component of coaching and development, which included information sharing, was seen to have a relationship with the three components of resistance to change. The most significant relationship is that of coaching and development with the anxious component of resistance to change with a correlation coefficient of -0.247. This was a negative relationship, which indicated that as coaching and development increased the anxious component decreased, or vice versa. A relationship was also observed between coaching and development, and the resistance to change component of attitude, indicated by a correlation coefficient of 0.23. This was a positive relationship and indicated that when coaching and development increases so does attitude, or any decrease in one would see a decrease in the other. The weakest relationship of the coaching and development component was with the intentional/behavioural component. A correlation coefficient of -0.135 was present,



indicating that an increase in coaching and development would increase the intentional/behavioural component, the same is said for the inverse effect of a decrease in one resulting in an increase in the other.

For successful implementation of a change, and with reduced resistance from employees, leaders must give attention to the change recipients' cognitive, affective, and intentional responses (Oreg & Berson, 2019). Through providing employees with communication for a deeper understanding of the change (Al-Ali et al., 2017, Oreg & Berson, 2019) through information, sharing their response to the change could be positively influenced to reduce resistance.

From the above, it was stated that the results related to H1 were significant and that the presence of information sharing behaviours had a positive relationship with resistance to change attitude. The presence of information sharing behaviours can reduce the anxious and intentional/behavioural components of resistance to change. H1 is therefore accepted.

## **6.5 Delegation of authority reduced resistance to change**

The second hypothesis looked at delegation of authority, specifically the increase of delegation of authority behaviours from leader to subordinate would in turn reduce the presence of subordinates' resistance to change. This discussion reviews the results in the context of hypothesis two.

*H2: Delegation of authority is positively related to reduced resistance to change.*

The chi-squared analysis returned p-values of  $p < 0.001$  for the three statements related to delegation of authority: "My manager gives me the authority I need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures", "My manager gives me the authority to make changes necessary to improve things", and "My manager delegates authority to me that is equal to the level of responsibility that I am assigned". As the significance value was 0.05 and the p-values were less than 0.05, the results of the analysis were viewed as significant, and the variables were associated with each other (Pallant, 2020).

When reviewing the correlation matrix (Table 16, section 5.9), the dimension of delegation of authority was included in the component of authority and decision-making, which was a result of the factor analysis test. As such, the correlation

coefficients for the authority and decision-making component indicated the presence of a relationship with the three components of resistance to change. The most significant relationship was between authority and decision-making and attitude components, with a correlation coefficient of 0.303. This coefficient indicated a positive relationship, as authority and decision-making increases so did attitude, or any decrease in one would see a decrease in the other. A negative relationship was seen between authority and decision-making and both resistance to change components, anxious and intentional/behavioural, with correlation coefficients of -0.245 and -0.137 respectively. These negative coefficients indicated that as authority and decision-making increases the two respective components would decrease, or vice versa.

The power of empowering leadership lies specifically in sharing authority and power with employees and has been seen to contribute to overall organisational performance (Van Assen, 2020). The process of change management requires inputs from various organisation levels and employees to account for the organisational culture's view of the change (Al-Ali et al., 2017). By delegating authority to employees and involving them in the change management process, they would be empowered to adopt a change (Al-Ali et al., 2017).

Considering the chi-square analysis and correlation coefficients discussed, H2 was accepted. The data indicated that delegation of authority behaviours had a relationship with the components of resistance to change, which was supported by the theory.

## **6.6 Accountability reduced resistance to change**

This hypothesis looked specifically at the presence of accountability, as a dimension of empowering leadership, and the possibility of accountability having an impact on reducing resistance to change.

*H3:* The presence of accountability is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

From the chi-square analysis, it was noted that a significant number of respondents indicated strongly agree for the two statements, conveying that there was a presence of accountability within the sample. The p-values returned from the

analysis were less than the significance value of 0.05, thus the results were deemed significant, and the accountability variables were associated with each other (Pallant, 2020).

From the principal components analysis, the accountability dimension was identified as an independent component and was not combined with another LEBQ dimension. From the correlation matrix (Table 17, section 5.10), a relationship between accountability and the three resistance to change components was evident. A noteworthy coefficient was that between accountability and the attitude component, the 1.00 coefficient indicated a perfect positive association, meaning that a change in one would result in an exact change in the other. While accountability showed negative relationships with the intentional/behavioural (-0.196) and the anxious (-0.20) components, these negative correlations indicated inverse relationships, where one increases the other decreases, and vice versa.

From the correlations, it was understood that accountability was linked to the attitude component of resistance to change, increasing accountability would positively improve the attitude component. For the other two change attitude components, accountability was inversely linked; increasing accountability would decrease the anxious component, which would reduce the negative attitude and thus resistance to change. The decrease in the intentional/behavioural component would also reduce a negative attitude and thus resistance to change.

As a known tactic to facilitate change implementation is the creation of a sense of urgency for the change within the organisations (Al-Ali et al., 2017), allocating tasks, deadlines, and essentially accountability to employees would be aligned with creating a sense of urgency. With empowering employees and delegating authority, responsibilities are shared and therefore accountability is given to employees (Konczak et al., 2000).

Considering the data results discussed above, the presence of accountability was indicated to have a relationship with resistance to change; H3 is accordingly accepted.

## 6.7 Skill development reduced resistance to change

Hypothesis four posed that the LEBQ dimension of skill development could influence resistance to change by reducing the negative attitude and thus the resistance to change. From the principal components analysis it was noted that the skill development dimension was included in the coaching and development component.

*H4:* Skill development is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

The chi square analysis looked at three statements for the skill development dimension; “My manager encourages me to use systematic problem-solving methods” ( $p = 0.014$ ), “My manager provides me with frequent opportunities to develop new skills” ( $p < 0.001$ ), and “My manager ensures that continuous learning and skill development are priorities in our department” ( $p = 0.002$ ). As all of the  $p$ -values were less than the significance level of 0.05 the results were viewed as significant, and the variables of skill development were associated with each other (Pallant, 2020).

To view the correlation between skill development and the resistance to change components, the correlation matrix (Table 15, section 5.8) for the LEBQ component for coaching and development had to be reviewed, as discussed for H1, in section 6.4.

In summary, the coaching and development component, which included the dimension of skill development, had a positive relationship with the attitude component of resistance to change. In that event, an increase in skill development behaviours would increase the attitude towards a change, and consequently reduce resistance. A negative correlation was seen with the resistance to change components, attitude and intentional/behavioural, thus indicating that an increase in skill development behaviour could decrease the anxious and intentional/behavioural components and reduce resistance to change.

The change management process ideally entails an approach through which knowledge and tools are used to leverage the change (Al-Ali et al., 2017), as such, change recipients would benefit from skill development. Developing employee skills also equips them for empowerment opportunities and prepares them for more responsibility (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Konczak et al., 2000).

Considering the data and the theory, H4 was therefore accepted.

## **6.8 Self-directed decision-making reduced resistance to change**

Hypothesis five looked at the LEBQ dimension of self-directed decision-making and its relationship with resistance to change. As a factor analysis was run, the dimension of self-directed decision-making was grouped with a new LEBQ component of authority and decision-making.

*H5:* Self-directed decision-making is positively related to reduced resistance to change.

The chi square analysis returned p-values of  $p < 0.001$  for the three statements related to self-directed decision-making; “My manager tries to help me arrive at my own solutions when problems arise, rather than telling me what they would do”, “My manager relies on me to make my own decisions about issues that affect how work gets done”, and “My manager encourages me to develop my own solutions to problems I encounter in my work”. As the p-value was less than the significance level of 0.05, the results were viewed as significant and the variables specific to self-directed decision-making were associated with each other (Pallant, 2020).

To view the correlation between self-directed decision-making and the resistance to change components, the correlation matrix (Table 16, section 5.9) for the LEBQ component for authority and decision-making had to be reviewed, as was discussed for H2 in section 6.5.

From the correlations discussed in section 6.5, it was understood that self-directed decision-making, as part of the authority and decision-making component, had a positive relationship with the resistance to change component of attitude; as such when self-directed decision-making behaviours increase the attitude component would in turn also increase and positively influence resistance to change. Reviewing the relationship with the two other change attitude components, intentional/behavioural and anxious, as negative, when self-directed decision making increases the two resistance to change components decrease. Meaning that with increased self-directed decision-making, the intentional/behavioural component, as well as the anxious component would decrease, and as a result, resistance to change would relatedly decrease.

It was previously accepted that participation in decision-making affects the anticipated impact of the change (Amarantou et al., 2018). With empowering leadership when employees are delegated authority, they are often expected to make independent decisions (Konczak et al., 2000). As such, H5 was accepted.

## **6.9 Coaching for innovative performance reduced resistance to change**

Hypothesis six looked at whether the presence of coaching behaviours, as a LEBQ dimension, would reduce resistance to change. It was posed that as coaching for innovative performance increased, that resistance to change would in turn reduce.

*H6: Coaching for innovative performance is positively related to reduced resistance to change.*

The chi square analysis was run for the three statements that measured whether coaching for innovative performance behaviours were present: “My manager is willing to risk mistakes on my part if, over the long term, I will learn and develop as a result of the experience”, “I am encouraged to try out new ideas even if there is a chance they may not succeed”, and “My manager focuses on corrective action rather than placing blame when I make a mistake”. The analysis returned p values of  $p < 0.001$ ; as these were smaller than the significance level of 0.05, results were viewed as significant and the variables specific to coaching for innovative performance were associated with each other (Pallant, 2020).

From the principal components analysis the dimension of coaching for innovative performance was grouped with the LEBQ component of coaching and development. As such, the correlation matrix (Table 15, section 5.8) had to be reviewed for the coaching and development component, as was discussed for H1 in section 6.4.

The correlations observed were interpreted as when coaching for innovative performance increases so does the attitude component of change attitude; an attitude increase meant a negative attitude would move towards a positive attitude thus reducing resistance to change. The coaching for development component showed a negative relationship with both intentional/behavioural and anxious components of change attitude. This was interpreted as when coaching for innovative performance increases both intentional/behavioural and anxious

components decrease. The decrease of intentional/behavioural and anxiety components in turn decreases resistance to change.

Empowered employees have been found to practice continuous learning behaviours to innovate within the work environment (Van Assen, 2020). The rationale that when leaders engage employees in a way that shapes emotional and attitudinal responses, a change could be promoted, was present (Oreg & Berson, 2019). Considering the data and theory, H6 was accepted.

## 6.10 Conclusion

The discussion of the results in relation to the hypotheses clarified that empowering leadership does in fact have an influence on resistance to change, as suggested by the literature, and could be utilised to actively empower employees and thereby prepare them with a positive attitude towards any current or future organisational changes. Table 18 summarises the hypotheses of this study and whether they were accepted or rejected, based on the results specified in Chapter 5.

Table 18: Hypotheses testing summary

	Hypothesis	Outcome
H1	Information sharing is positively related to reduced resistance to change	Accepted
H2	Delegation of authority is positively related to reduced resistance to change	Accepted
H3	Skill development is positively related to reduced resistance to change	Accepted
H4	The presence of accountability is positively related to reduced resistance to change	Accepted
H5	Self-directed decision making is positively related to reduced resistance to change	Accepted
H6	Coaching for innovative performance is positively related to reduced resistance to change	Accepted

## **Chapter 7: Conclusion and recommendations**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the key findings from the research and assesses them against the initial objectives of the study as put forward in Chapter 1. The aim of the research was to establish whether the dimensions of empowering leadership were related to resistance to change in such a way that empowering leadership could potentially reduce resistance to change. Change management and resistance to change has been well researched to date; however, the potential for empowering leadership to influence resistance to change has seen mixed results and has not been as thoroughly explored as transformation and transactional leadership has in driving the change management process (Al-Ali et al., 2017; Cheong et al., 2019). This chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for future research.

### **7.2 Principal conclusions**

From the literature review and data collected for this study, it was found that the six dimensions of empowering leadership were related to resistance to change at an individual level. More specifically, the presence of empowering leadership between a manager and subordinate (or leader and follower) had the potential to reduce resistance to change through influencing the three dimensions of resistance to change: affective, cognitive, and intentional.

The relationships identified in this study (Chapter 5) lend credibility to the influence that the six dimensions of empowering leadership could make on followers; these dimensions were, delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development, and coaching for innovative performance (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). The most significant relationship identified was between the accountability component of empowering leadership and the attitude component of the CAS, meaning that accountability had the largest influence on how employees' attitude towards a change was influenced.

As change is a constant occurrence within organisations and the rate of change implementation failure remains high (Al-Ali et al., 2017; Schwarz et al., 2021), the research problem of addressing resistance to change more sustainably could be



answered through proactively practicing empowering leadership within organisations, thus equipping them for any future changes.

### **7.3 Theoretical contributions**

The findings from this study supported the statement that empowering leadership is significant for change efforts (Neves et al., 2020); this adds clarity to the mixed results on the effectiveness of empowering leadership reported by Cheong et al., (2019) in their empirical literature review. Specifically, Cheong et al. (2019) did not focus on empowering leadership effectiveness in relation to resistance to change; this study contributed to that theoretical gap as leadership effectiveness was supported in relation to resistance to change. Within the literature on change management and leadership, a lot of focus was on other leadership styles such as transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and leader member exchange for example (Oreg & Berson, 2019). This study indicated that a relationship between the empowering leadership style and resistance to change was significant and could be considered change management, thereby contributing to change management literature. Change management looks at connecting leaders' actions with organisational changes, this study added to the existing body of knowledge within the change management field in terms of providing a positive reason for leaders' actions to be aligned with empowering leadership behaviours should a reduced resistance to change want to be realised for change management (Oreg & Berson, 2019).

When focusing on followers' attitude, disposition, and perceived future impact of a change leader, who should be able to influence the resistance to change of their followers (Amarantou et al., 2018), this study contributed to the theory, specifically focusing on followers' attitude by means of accountability. When accountability is given, as a dimension of empowering leadership, followers' attitude towards change is significantly influenced. Further credibility is therefore given to the view that empowering leadership can be utilised to shape employee's perception of change positively (Neves et al., 2020). The six dimensions of the empowering leadership style researched within this study also added to the theoretical framework regarding the antecedents of influencing followers to result in follower empowerment.

#### **7.4 Implications for management and other stakeholders**

Organisations are seeing an increased need for innovation with the continuous change implementation (HLB, 2022; Schwarz et al., 2021). South African organisations are dealing with an increased frequency of change within organisations due to the VUCA business environment in South Africa and the need for innovation (Stander et al., 2017). For this reason, gaining practical insight into the dimensions of empowering leadership and their relationship with the components of resistance to change provides managers of South African organisations with useful information to identify behaviours that are useful to empower employees continually, as a practical approach to foster positive attitudes towards future changes (Konczak et al., 2000; Stander et al., 2017). Managers should note the empowering leadership behaviour of increased accountability as having a significant influence on resistance to change (Amarantou et al., 2018). The roles within organisations that focus on people development (such as human resources or training) could use empowering leadership as a tool to foster organisations that are receptive to any planned or unforeseen events, it should thus be considered when reviewing management practices.

Empowering leadership should be fostered within organisations and practiced in times of stability, to prepare the organisation, as a whole, for future changes and thus ensure that positive change attitudes will be present. This is especially true considering that people are more comfortable with change when they anticipate it rather than the stress of the unknown (Neves et al., 2020).

#### **7.5 Limitations of research**

This study was subject to limitations. First, the time available to gather data limited the number of responses obtained and as the sample was drawn from the researchers' network, there was a possibility that the sample could be skewed towards knowledge workers. The sample size realised was also not as substantial as planned, a reduced sample size affected the generalisability of the study. It was also noted that the study did not focus on a specific type of change, if the sample had experienced any organisational change they qualified for the study. It was noted that there were various types of organisational changes, for example, a retrenchment operation versus a system upgrade. It was possible that change

attitudes could vary depending on the type of change. As this study was not limited to a specific type of change and did not gather information regarding the changes that the respondents experienced, this was a limitation regarding the depth of understanding around the relationship between empowering leadership and resistance to change.

This study looked at the individual level perceptions of leadership behaviours, whereas it could be possible to form a view of the leader level by gaining insight from all the subordinates of specific managers. This could provide a more insightful understanding of leadership behaviour and employees reception of this behaviour in the context of affecting their attitude towards change.

## **7.6 Suggestions for future research**

From section 7.5, in which the limitations of the research were discussed, an opportunity for future research is to investigate the effect of empowering leadership on the resistance to different types of change. Future research could therefore investigate empowering leadership in relation to various subjective change experiences (Neves et al., 2020).

It has been noted that leadership values could be influenced by gender, wherein women leaders are often observed to focus on people development, while male leaders have been seen to focus on delegation of authority and accountability (Stander et al., 2017). It is hence suggested that future research specifically note the leaders or managers gender to compare their employees' experience of empowering leadership and resistance to change attitudes to those of a manager of the opposite gender.

Given that 10% of the sample experienced change that did not include their manager, future research could investigate whether resistance to change differs for groups that experience a change process that involves their direct manager against groups that experience a change that does not involve their direct manager.

## Reference list

- Ahearne, M., Mathieu, J., & Rapp, A. (2005). To empower or not to empower your sales force? An empirical examination of the influence of leadership empowerment behavior on customer satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(5), 945-955. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.945>
- Al-Ali, A. A., Singh, S. K., Al-Nahyan, M. & Sohal, A. S. (2017). Change management through leadership: the mediating role of organizational culture. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 25*(4), 723-739. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-01-2017-1117>
- Amarantou, V., Kazakopoulou, S., Chatzoudes, D., & Chatzoglou, P. (2018). Resistance to change: an empirical investigation of its antecedents. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 31*(2), 426-450. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-05-2017-0196>
- Amundsen, S., & Martinsen, Ø. L. (2014). Empowering leadership: Construct clarification, conceptualization, and validation of a new scale. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*(3), 487-511. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.009>
- Bonett, D. G., & Wright, T. A. (2015). Cronbach's alpha reliability: Interval estimation, hypothesis testing, and sample size planning. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 36*(1), 3-15. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1960>
- Cheong, M., Yammarino, F. J., Dionne, S. D., Spain, S. M., & Tsai, C. Y. (2019). A review of the effectiveness of empowering leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 30*(1), 34-58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.08.005>
- Dewettinck, K., & Van Ameijde, M. (2011). Linking leadership empowerment behaviour to employee attitudes and behavioural intentions: Testing the mediating role of psychological empowerment. *Personnel Review, 40*(3), 284-305. <https://doi.org/10.1108/004834811111118621>
- Doyle, M., Claydon, T., & Buchanan, D. (2000). Mixed results, lousy process: The management experience of organizational change. *British Journal of Management, 11*(s1), S59-S80. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.11.s1.6>

- Ford, J. D., & Ford, L. W. (2010). Stop blaming resistance to change and start using it. *Organizational Dynamics*, 39(1), 24-36.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2009.10.002>
- George, J. & Jones, G. (2012). *Understanding and Managing Organizational Behavior* (Custom ed.). Pearson Custom Publishing.
- Gold, T. K. (2022). Leadership Empowerment Behavior and Psychiatric Nurses' Intent to Leave. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 43(10), 923-928.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01612840.2022.2072548>
- Hair, J. F., Page, M., & Brunsveld, N. (2019). *Essentials of Business Research Methods* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Routledge.
- HLB. (2022). *Powering Your Innovation Engine. HLB Survey of Business Leaders 2022*. HLB. <https://www.hlb.com.br/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/HLB-Global-Survey-2022-SP.pdf>
- Konczak, L. J., Stelly, D. J., & Trusty, M. L. (2000). Defining and measuring empowering leader behaviors: Development of an upward feedback instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 60(2), 301-313.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/00131640021970420>
- Lee, A., Willis, S., & Tian, A. W. (2018). Empowering leadership: A meta-analytic examination of incremental contribution, mediation, and moderation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(3), 306-325. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2220>
- Neves, P., Pires, D., & Costa, S. (2020). Empowering to reduce intentions to resist future change: Organization-based self-esteem as a boundary condition. *British Journal of Management*, 32(3), 872-891. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12436>
- Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 15(1), 73-101.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320500451247>
- Oreg, S., & Berson, Y. (2019). Leaders' impact on organizational change: Bridging theoretical and methodological chasms. *Academy of Management Annals*, 13(1), 272-307. <https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2016.0138>

- Osborn, D., & Hinson, J. (2015). *Change: How it really happens*. ChangeFusion.  
[https://change-fusion.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Change\\_HowItReallyHappens.pdf](https://change-fusion.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Change_HowItReallyHappens.pdf)
- Pallant, J. (2020). *SPSS survival manual* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Allen and Unwin.
- Panayiotou, A., Putnam, L. L., & Kassinis, G. (2019). Generating tensions: A multilevel, process analysis of organizational change. *Strategic Organization*, 17(1), 8-37. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1476127017734446>
- Piderit, S. K. (2000). Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 783-794.
- Saunders, M., & Lewis, P. (2018). *Doing Research in Business Management* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Pearson Education.
- Schwarz, G. M., Bouckenoghe, D., & Vakola, M. (2021). Organizational change failure: Framing the process of failing. *Human Relations*, 74(2), 159-179.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726720942297>
- Sharma, P. N., & Kirkman, B. L. (2015). Leveraging leaders: A literature review and future lines of inquiry for empowering leadership research. *Group & Organization Management*, 40(2), 193-237. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601115574906>
- Singh, K. (2007). *Quantitative Social Research Methods* (1<sup>st</sup> ed.). Sage Publications.
- Stouten, J., Rousseau, D. M., & De Cremer, D. (2018). Successful organizational change: Integrating the management practice and scholarly literatures. *Academy of Management Annals*, 12(2), 752-788.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2016.0095>
- Stander, M. W., Zikalala, D., & Stander, A. S. (2017, September). Leadership Empowerment as a positive leadership style: A psychometric evaluation. In C. A. Bisschoff & J. A. Jordaan (Eds.), *International Business Conference Proceedings 2017*, (pp. 540-555). International Business Conference Proceedings. <https://ibc-conference.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/IBC%202017%20Conference%20Proceedings.pdf>

- Szabla, D. B. (2007). A multidimensional view of resistance to organizational change: Exploring cognitive, emotional, and intentional responses to planned change across perceived change leadership strategies. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 18(4), 525-558. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1218>
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Arena, M. (2017). Complexity leadership: enabling people and organizations for adaptability. *Organizational Dynamics*, 46(1), 9-20. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2016.12.001>
- Van Assen, M. F. (2020). Empowering leadership and contextual ambidexterity—The mediating role of committed leadership for continuous improvement. *European Management Journal*, 38(3), 435-449. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2019.12.002>
- Waldman, D. A., & Bowen, D. E. (2016). Learning to be a paradox-savvy leader. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 30(3), 316-327. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amp.2015.0070>
- Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(1), 107-128. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.48037118>
- Zimmerman, M. A., Israel, B. A., Schulz, A., & Checkoway, B. (1992). Further explorations in empowerment theory: An empirical analysis of psychological empowerment. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 20(6), 707-727. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01312604>
- Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2010). *Business Research Methods* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Cengage Learning.

## Appendix 1:

### Consistency matrix

***Title: Empowering leadership as a driver for overcoming resistance to change within organisational teams***

HYPOTHESES	LITERATURE REVIEW	DATA COLLECTION TOOL	ANALYSIS
<i>H1: Information sharing is positively related to reduced resistance to change</i>	Empowering leadership behaviour and Resistance to change	Survey	Chi-squared analysis Correlation analysis
<i>H2: Delegation of authority is positively related to reduced resistance to change</i>	Empowering leadership behaviour and Resistance to change	Survey	Chi-squared analysis Correlation analysis
<i>H3: Skill development is positively related to reduced resistance to change</i>	Empowering leadership behaviour and Resistance to change	Survey	Chi-squared analysis Correlation analysis
<i>H4: The presence of accountability is positively related to reduced resistance to change</i>	Empowering leadership behaviour and Resistance to change	Survey	Chi-squared analysis Correlation analysis
<i>H5: Self-directed decision making is positively related to reduced resistance to change</i>	Empowering leadership behaviour and Resistance to change	Survey	Chi-squared analysis Correlation analysis
<i>H6: Coaching for innovative performance is positively related to reduced resistance to change</i>	Empowering leadership behaviour and Resistance to change	Survey	Chi-squared analysis Correlation analysis



## Appendix 2:

### Survey elements

#### Qualifying statements

Statement	Response
I have experienced a change within my organisation that affected my role	Yes/No
I have had to adapt my tasks and responsibilities due to the implementation of an organisational change	Yes/No
My manager was involved in the change process	Yes/No

#### Demographic questions

Question	Response
	18-21
	22-25
	26-30
How old are you?	31-35
	36-40
	41-50
	50+
Gender	Female
	Male
	Prefer not to say
Education level	Matric
	Certificate/ Diploma
	Degree
	Postgraduate
	Masters
What is your occupational level	Entry level
	Mid-level
	Junior Management
	Senior Management
	Executive Suite
How long have you been at your current organisation?	Less than 1 year
	1-2 years
	2-4 years
	4 years or more
How long have you worked for your current manager?	Less than 1 year
	1-2 years
	2-4 years
	4 years or more

Question	Response
What industry do you work in?	Financial Services Telecommunications Legal Marketing & Advertising Information Technology Banking Retail Logistics Other
If your industry was not listed above, please let us know your industry	

## Leader empowering behaviour questionnaire (LEBQ)

Statements	7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)
<b>Delegation of authority</b>	
1. My manager gives me the authority I need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures.	
2. My manager gives me the authority to make changes necessary to improve things.	
3. My manager delegates authority to me that is equal to the level of responsibility that I am assigned.	
<b>Accountability</b>	
4. My manager holds me accountable for the work I am assigned.	
5. I am held accountable for performance and results.	
<b>Self-Directed Decision Making</b>	
6. My manager tries to help me arrive at my own solutions when problems arise, rather than telling me what he/she would do.	
7. My manager relies on me to make my own decisions about issues that affect how work gets done.	
8. My manager encourages me to develop my own solutions to problems I encounter in my work.	
<b>Information Sharing</b>	
9. My manager shares information that I need to ensure high quality results.	
10. My manager provides me with the information I need to complete my assigned tasks	
<b>Skill Development</b>	
11. My manager encourages me to use systematic problem-solving methods (e.g., the seven-step problem-solving model).	
12. My manager provides me with frequent opportunities to develop new skills.	
13. My manager ensures that continuous learning and skill development are priorities in our department.	
<b>Coaching for Innovative Performance</b>	

Statements	7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)
14. My manager is willing to risk mistakes on my part if, over the long term, I will learn and develop as a result of the experience.	
15. I am encouraged to try out new ideas even if there is a chance they may not succeed.	
16. My manager focuses on corrective action rather than placing blame when I make a mistake.	

Sourced from Konczak et al. (2000) and adapted for the study.

### Resistance to change, CAS scale

Statement	7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)
<b>Affective</b>	
1. I was afraid of the change	
2. I had a bad feeling about the change	
3. I was quite excited about the change*	
4. The change made me upset	
5. I was stressed by the change	
<b>Intentional / Behavioural</b>	
6. I looked for ways to prevent the change from taking place	
7. I protested against the change	
8. I complained about the change to my colleagues	
9. I presented my objections regarding the change to management	
10. I spoke rather highly of the change to others*	
<b>Cognitive</b>	
11. I believed that the change would harm the way things are done in the organisation	
12. I thought that it's a negative thing that we were going through this change	
13. I believed that the change would make my job harder	
14. I believed that the change would benefit the organisation*	
15. I believed that I could personally benefit from the change*	

\* = reverse coded statements

Sourced from Oreg (2006)

## Appendix 3:

### Pearson correlation for validity – LEBQ

Component	Test	LEBQ_Item_total
LEBQ_1	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,728** <,001
LEBQ_2	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,783** <,001
LEBQ_3	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,678** <,001
LEBQ_4	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,274** 0,002
LEBQ_5	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,255** 0,005
LEBQ_6	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,769** <,001
LEBQ_7	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,717** <,001
LEBQ_8	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,784** <,001
LEBQ_9	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,768** <,001
LEBQ_10	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,07 0,447
LEBQ_11	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,654** <,001
LEBQ_12	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,782** <,001
LEBQ_13	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,797** <,001
LEBQ_14	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,801** <,001
LEBQ_15	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,796** <,001
LEBQ_16	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	0,793** <,001

\*\* . Correlation significant at the 0,01 level

\* . Correlation significant at the 0,05 level

## Pearson correlation for validity – CAS

Component	Test	RTC_Item_total
RTC_1	Pearson Correlation	0,425**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_2	Pearson Correlation	0,710**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_3	Pearson Correlation	0,683**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_4	Pearson Correlation	0,749**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_5	Pearson Correlation	0,573**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_6	Pearson Correlation	0,655**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_7	Pearson Correlation	0,692**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_8	Pearson Correlation	0,773**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_9	Pearson Correlation	0,518**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_10	Pearson Correlation	0,677**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_11	Pearson Correlation	0,771**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_12	Pearson Correlation	0,747**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_13	Pearson Correlation	0,513**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_14	Pearson Correlation	0,705**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001
RTC_15	Pearson Correlation	0,656**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001

\*\* . Correlation significant at the 0,01 level

\* . Correlation significant at the 0,05 level

Note: RTC refers to resistance to change, which is the construct measured with the CAS.