The mediating role of psychological empowerment in the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being
Abstract

The existence of a relationship between work and well-being has been acknowledged for some time. However, until recently there has been insufficient knowledge about the impact of organizational culture on the ways in which employees feel empowered. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being. The hypotheses formulated are based on the Competing Values Framework of Cameron and Quinn (2011), the Job-Demands Resource theory of Demerouti, Nahreiner and Schaufeli (2001, 2015), the Vitamin Model of Warr (1994) and the concept of ‘Enfranchisement’ of Eisman (1991). In order to test the hypotheses, a cross-sectional study was performed, involving a questionnaire. This questionnaire was conducted among 312 employees working in the Netherlands. The results indicate that the mediating effect of psychological empowerment partly impacts the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being. It is also interesting to note that the statistical analysis revealed an even higher influence of psychological empowerment in a clan/adhocracy culture in comparison to a hierarchy/market culture. Likewise, a positive relationship was found both between a clan/adhocracy culture and job-related affective well-being and also between the degree of psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being.

This study’s theoretical contribution is the inclusion of the effects of organizational culture and job-related affective well-being, which enables it to address the important but under-researched area of psychological empowerment. Moreover, it provides practical recommendations on how to increase psychological empowerment that are in keeping with organizational and individual goals. Future research is definitely needed in order to increase our knowledge of the consequences of psychological empowerment, organizational culture and job-related affective well-being.

Keywords: psychological empowerment, organizational culture, Competing Values Framework, Organizational Culture Assessment, job-related affective well-being, Job Demands-Resource-theory
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Introduction

The competitive climate in which companies struggle to survive, together with the current state of the economy, puts a strong pressure on companies. This situation also provides great opportunities in that it forces organizations to become even more efficient and effective (Cummings & Worley, 2015). In order to survive and improve their business performance, companies require employees to take initiative (employee initiative) and to be innovative (employee innovation) (Drucker, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995, Grant & Parker, 2009). Such employee initiative and innovation can be enhanced through empowerment (e.g., Forrester, 2000; Mathieu, Gilson, & Ruddy, 2006; Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, & Paul, 2011). One of the strengths of empowerment is that it can make individuals believe that they have the resources, energy, and competence to accomplish important goals (Narayan, 2005). Empowerment can therefore lead to life satisfaction, a sense of fulfilment, and pleasant emotions.

Empirical studies have shown that an organization needs to focus on an organizational culture that boosts positive employee job satisfaction (Snipes, Oswald, LaTour & Aremnaski, 2005). Under these circumstances, this will lead to high performance and commitment levels among employees (Snipes et al., 2005). Organizational culture can generally be defined as, “the set of norms, beliefs and values shared by members of this organization” (e.g., Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000; Stock, McFadden, & Gowen, 2007). The organizational culture can also have an effect on the well-being of employees at work. Well-being is one of the most important indicators of job satisfaction (Blanchflower & Oswald, 1999; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000), which refers to how people generally feel about their jobs and the different aspects of their jobs (Hedge & Borman, 2012). According to Salazar, Pfaffenberg, & Salazar (2006), people are able to balance their specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions in order to ultimately arrive at a general degree of satisfaction with their jobs. Greenberger and Strasser (1986), together with others (e.g., Ganster, Fox, & Dwyer, 2001), state that individuals are motivated to seek control over their environment and that this control is necessary for their health and well-being (Bond & Bunce, 2003; Marmot, Bosma, Hemingway, Brunner, & Stansfield, 1997). They define individual control as a psychological construct, which reflects an employee’s belief regarding his or her ability to change the environment. Thompson and Prottas (2006) argue that perceptions of control can be influenced by the attitudes and behaviours of others (e.g. supervisors and co-workers). This individual control is closely related to empowerment (Thompson & Prottas, 2006). When people feel empowered at work, positive individual outcomes are likely to be achieved. The fact that empowered employees report high job satisfaction has been consistently confirmed by a large number of studies (e.g., Aryee & Chen, 2006; Carless, 2004; Koberg, Boss, Senjem & Goodman, 1999; Liden et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2004; Sparrowe, 1994) and teams (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999).

Until now, research on empowerment has been mostly focussed on the individual psychological experience of empowerment, which has been linked with work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction and work performance (Carless, 2004). However, these are individual subjective
reactions. A model that focuses on these reactions will therefore be incomplete if it does not include contextual factors (Carless 2004). It has been established that employee perceptions of key aspects of their work psychological climate – such as leadership style, interpersonal relationships, opportunities for professional development, and individual and organizational goal congruence – strongly impact their perceptions of empowerment and also indirectly influence job satisfaction that is mediated by empowerment (Carless, 2004).

The existence of a relationship between work and well-being has been recognized for some time (Jahoda, 1958; Warr 1991). The processes involved in this relationship are complex and not completely understood and, as a result, they can potentially cause work to become psychologically harmful (Spector, Cooper, Sanchez, O’Driscoll, Sparks, Bernin, & Yu, 2001). However, according to Lund (2003), relatively few studies have investigated the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction. Psychological empowerment may be an important mechanism for influencing the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being. It is therefore important to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the nature of empowerment, the factors that lead to employee feelings of empowerment, and the potential consequences of empowerment (Seibert, Gang Wang & Courtright, 2011). In this context, the following research question is formulated:

“To what extent does organizational culture influence job-related affective well-being and is this relationship mediated by psychological empowerment?”

In order to gain a better understanding of the nature of empowerment and the relevant factors that lead to feelings of empowerment, together with their possible consequences, this study focuses on job-related affective well-being. Job-related affective well-being is a component of the broader construct of subjective well-being. Diener and Seligman (2004, p. 1,) refer to this when they state that “people’s positive evaluations of their lives include positive emotion, engagement, satisfaction, and meaning”. Moreover, job-related affective well-being is multidimensional and can capture the complexities and changes in the ways in which people experience their work (Briner, 1997). Furthermore, the organizational culture affects the members of an organization by influencing their behaviour, their performance-outcomes, and the organization’s external environment (George, Sleeth & Sliders, 1999).

Psychological empowerment has consistently been found to be a significant mediation (Spreitzer, 2008) and it plays a mediating role in this study. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), psychological empowerment can be defined as “the increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in four cognitions, reflecting an individual’s orientation to the work roles (Spreitzer, 1995). The four cognitions can be defined as: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. These cognitions reflect an active rather than a passive orientation to the work roles (Spreitzer, 1995) and these work roles relate to how individuals or teams perceive their control during their work (e.g.
Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 2008). For example, when employees perceive autonomy or self-determination, they may feel more psychologically empowered than they would when merely following orders or instructions (Spreitzer, Kizilos & Nason, 1997). In addition, an organizational culture that provides a positive work climate, and a work context that provides opportunities to employees through psychological empowerment, is likely to be associated with feelings of well-being among employees.

This paper aims to provide more insight into the mediating role of psychological empowerment. It seeks to gain more knowledge and insight into how job-related affective well-being can be influenced by organizational cultures, together with the mediating role of psychological empowerment in this relationship. At a time when global competition and change require employee initiative and innovation (Drucker, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995), job-related affective well-being is important. People’s emotions can play a critical role in thought, decision making, and individual success (Hosie & Sevastos, 2010).

Although psychological empowerment is known to have a positive effect on employees, and is also beneficial to managers and to a company as a whole, managers nevertheless appear to experience difficulty empowering their employees (Barnes, 2009). An insufficient understanding of psychological empowerment means that the implementation of empowerment often fails as managers are not able to set appropriate boundaries (Barnes, 2009; Orlowska 2011). The ways in which organizational culture can support psychological empowerment and lead to the job-related affective well-being of employees is of interest to organizations and the HR field. This study will hopefully contribute to a better understanding of these relationships.

The next sections of this master thesis consists of: the theoretical framework, including definitions of organizational culture, psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being, theories, overviews of previous research and hypotheses. Next, the method and techniques are described whereby the characteristics of the test subjects, procedure, instruments and analysis are provided. In addition, the results, interpretations, limitations, theoretical and practical implications of this study are highlighted. The overall conclusion of this study is provided at the end of this master thesis.
2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Job-related Affective Well-being

Diverse concepts of well-being are found in the scientific literature (Warr, 1978; 1990). These range from general concepts such as psychological well-being, subjective well-being, and affective well-being, to narrowly-defined concepts such as job-related well-being (Lentz, 2008). All these concepts can be placed in the category of mental health (Bond & Hayes, 2002). The focus of this study is on job-related affective well-being because it is important for organizations to have healthy employees. Quick, Macik-Frey, and Cooper (2007) state that “from healthy employees grow healthy organizations”. However, there is not much research on the positive or the negative emotional states of employees during their work (Pekrun & Frese, 1992, Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000). Job-related affective well-being refers to how employees emotionally experience their work domain (Warr in Kahneman, Diener & Schwarz, 1999). These emotions can be negative (unhappy, sad, depressed) or positive (glad, pleased, satisfied) (Van Katwyk et.al, 2000; van den Heuvel, Demerouti & Peeters, 2015). The intensity of these feelings can vary from very intense to not intense (Lentz, 2008).

Warr (1990) developed a model in order to conceptualize affective well-being. This two-dimensional model was originally developed by Watson and Tellegen (1985). According to them, people’s self-rated mood consists of two dimensions: (1) Pleasantness-Unpleasantness, and (2) Degree of Arousal. However, Warr (1990) confirmed the existence of two orthogonal factors that account for the majority of the variances observed in affective well-being. While the two dimensions are pleasure and arousal, his model has two diagonal axes that account for pleasure and arousal, namely, the anxiety-contentment axis and the depression-enthusiasm axis. According to Warr (in Kahneman, Diener & Schwarz, 1999), these two axes can also be used to measure job-related well-being. This study applies the dimensions of Warr (1990) to job-related affective well-being. Affective well-being can in turn be explained by the Warr’s Vitamin model (VM) (1987, 2007), which focuses on job-related mental health and psychological well-being. The VM is discussed later in this study in paragraph 2.1.2.

There are various different definitions of organizational culture in the scientific literature (e.g. Trice & Beyer, 1984; Schein, 1984; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This study uses the definition of Ravasi and Schultz (2006), who define organizational culture as “a set of shared mental assumptions that guide interpretation and action in organizations by defining appropriate behaviour for various situations”. This definition is chosen because it includes the main concepts of culture found in other definitions, but also incorporates the effects that originate from an organizational culture. It therefore suggests a relationship between organizational culture and the behaviour of members of the organization, and
further suggests that organizational culture can influence or guide employee behaviour (Schein, 1985; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). The close relationship and interaction that exists between organizational culture and the behaviour of an organization’s members has been confirmed by Kilman, Saxton, and Serpa (1985), who state that shared philosophies, assumptions, values, expectations, attitudes, and norms bind an organization together. In addition, the definition of Ravasi and Schultz (2006) can be linked to the Competing Value Framework (CVF) of Cameron and Quinn (2011), which is one of the most influential and extensively used quantitative research models in the area of organizational culture research. This framework consists of two dimensions that are used to categorize four core organizational cultures, namely, clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market (Cameron & Quinn 2011).

The first dimension (flexibility and discretion versus stability and control) differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasize stability, order, and control. Some organizations are considered effective if they are able to change, adapt, and be well organized (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), while others are seen as effective if they are stable, predictable, and mechanistic, for example, most universities (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The second dimension differentiates internal-oriented integration and unity from external-oriented differentiation and rivalry (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). For example, some organizations are regarded as effective if they are focused on interaction or competition with others outside their boundaries (e.g., Toyota and Honda) by “thinking globally but acting locally” (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). These two dimensions include four core culture types, namely, clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Clan culture is based on flexibility and discretion, with an internal focus and integration. The organization acts like a family and promotes team work, commitment, and involvement. Adhocracy culture fosters flexibility and discretion, but the focus is external and on differentiation. Its objectives include creativity, risk taking, individuality, and initiative. Market culture looks for an external and differentiation perspective that can give a competitive advantage, with the objective of obtaining market leadership. This culture type uses stability and control to achieve its goals, which are internal and external competitiveness and productivity. Finally, hierarchical culture is based on stability and control, along with an internal focus and integration. It is characterized by many standards that aim to achieve efficiency process and product standardization (Gimenez-Espin, Jiménez-Jiménez & Martinez-Costa, 2013). The CVF is presented in Figure 1, together with the four organizational cultures. Figure 1 includes the elements that relate to flexibility and discretion, internal focus and integration, stability and control, and external focus and differentiation. As stated above, the first dimension of the CVF refers to flexibility and discretion as well as to stability and control. Flexibility and discretion can be required in a work environment and these criteria can therefore also be seen as essential components of the concept of empowerment. This is why this study only focuses on the effectiveness criteria with regard to flexibility and discretion.
In order to explain the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being, the Job Demands-Resource (JD-R) theory of Demerouti, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001, 2014) and the Vitamin Model (VM) of Warr (1987, 1990) is used.

2.1.1 Job Demands-Resource Theory

During the past decade, the number of studies using the JD-R model, propositions, and several meta-analyses (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001) has increased, and has developed into the JD-R theory (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Halbesleben, 2010; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), the JD-R theory helps one to understand, explain, and make predictions about employee well-being (e.g., health, motivation, work engagement) and job performance. The JD-R theory proposes that, despite the uniqueness of each organization, work environments can be characterized in terms of job demands and job resources, and that these interact during the process of predicting employee well-being (Bakker, 2015). Job demands refer to aspects of the work context that cost energy, including work pressure, task complexity, and role ambiguity. Job demands are not necessarily negative, but they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires great effort from which the employee fails to recover adequately (Meijman & Mulder, 1998; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli & Taris, 2013). Job resources refers to those aspects of the work context that help employees to deal with their job demands, satisfy their basic psychological needs, and achieve their organizational goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources can provide a buffer to the undesirable, negative impact of job demands that produce strain, thus enabling social support, autonomy, and performance feedback that helps employees to deal with high job demands in order to prevent burnout and health problems. At the same time, job demands – particularly in the form of job challenges – can strengthen the positive
impact of job resources on engagement in the workplace (Hakanen, Perhoniemi & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008). This means that when there is a lot of work to do, and when work tasks are complex, job resources can boost work engagement. Under such working conditions, employees take up their job challenges with a high level of energy (Bakker, 2015). Organizational culture can be seen as both a job demand and a job resource, as can be seen in the examples of career opportunities, participation in decision making, and the stimulation of personal growth (Llorens, Salanova, Schaufeli & Bakker, 2007). For example, in a culture that is focused on the first dimension of the CVF (flexibility/discretion and stability/control), the organizational culture can be seen as a job resource as it encourages employee initiative and freedom (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). But the organizational culture can also be seen as a job demand, as seen in the examples of internal and external time pressure.

2.1.2 Vitamin Model

The VM indicates that a harmful situation can develop when the levels of some job characteristics (‘psychological vitamins’) are either too high or too low (Warr, 1987, 2007; de Jonge, & Schaufeli, 1998). Job characteristics that are regarded as important for well-being include qualitative and quantitative workload. They also include control or discretion over work performance, the level of task repetitiveness, and the role ambiguity of employees (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The work environment creates these job characteristics by means of job and organizational design. Job characteristics are considered to be one of the most important influences on psychological well-being (Briner, 2000). The central idea underlying the VM is that mental health is affected by job characteristics that are features of the psychological work environment. The VM focusses on job-related mental health and psychological well-being, which are affected by environmental features such as job characteristics (de Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998). In the VM, mental health is conceptualized in terms of job-related affective well-being according to three dimensions (Warr, 1994). These three dimensions are displeasure to pleasure, anxiety to comfort, and depression to enthusiasm. Job-related affective well-being has generally been studied in relation to job satisfaction, job-related anxiety or tension, and occupational burnout and depression (Peeters, de Jonge & Taris, 2014). Warr’s VM claims that the environmental features of jobs impact affective well-being in the same way that the physical effects of vitamins impact health. Certain ‘vitamins’ have a beneficial effect when taken in moderate quantities, but a detrimental effect in the case of excessive doses. In the same way, environmental features can either promote or decrease job-related affective well-being (Hosie & Sevastos, 2010). The VM suggests that an organizational culture that is either flexible and discrete or else stable and controlled has a positive effect on the job-related affective well-being of employees. According to Briner (2000), organizational culture is relevant to well-being and can be linked to the four organizational cultures, in which the clan/adhocracy culture is characterized by flexibility and discretion, a hierarchy/market culture is characterized by stability and control. Culture can help to
shape many aspects of the psychological environment, including social support, working hours, and the acceptability of bullying or oppressive behaviours (Briner, 2000).

A study by Findler, Wind and Mor Barak (2007) found that diversity characteristics and organizational culture are related to employee outcomes of well-being, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The results of the study by Berson, Oreg and Dvir (2008) confirm that organizational cultures that value stability, order, and predictability are more likely to use strict and formalized rules and procedures. These organizational cultures tend to have a positive association with firm efficiency and a negative association with employee satisfaction (Berson et al., 2008). Organizational cultures that value support and cooperation among employees are in turn associated with greater employee satisfaction. Furthermore, if the individuals’ values are congruent with the values of the organizational culture, they will be more likely to have increased levels of job satisfaction (Adkins & Caldwell, 2004; Priem, 2010).

On the basis of theoretical reasoning and the existing literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H1: “In a clan/adhocracy culture the level of job-related affective well-being will be higher than in a hierarchy/market culture.”

2.2 The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Psychological Empowerment

As psychological empowerment is a relatively young phenomenon and the latest addition to the field of empowerment studies, further research is required in this area (Donkers, 2007). Psychological empowerment can be defined as a set of motivational cognitions that are shaped by a work environment and that reflects an individual’s active orientation to his or her work role (Spreitzer, 1995; Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expand on the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) by arguing that four cognitive assessments represent a comprehensive, task-specific evaluation and interpretation. These four cognitive assessments that form the construct of psychological empowerment and determine intrinsic task motivation and corresponding psychological empowerment (Wang & Lee, 2009) are meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. The particular cognitive assessments indicate how individuals or teams perceive control in their work (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Meaning is the value of a work goal and is judged in relation to an individual’s ideals or standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995). It relates to the correlation between the requirements of a work role and the beliefs, values, and behaviours of an individual. (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Spreitzer, 1995). Competence is an individual’s belief in his/her capability to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987, Spreitzer, 1995). It is an equivalent to agency beliefs, personal mastery, and effort-performance expectancy (Bandura, 1989, Spreitzer, 1995). Self-determination is an individual’s sense of having a choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Spreitzer, 1995). Self-determination involves autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviours. Impact is the
degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989, Spreitzer, 1995). The degree and processes are influenced by the work context (Wolfe & Shaw, 1982).

The relationship between organizational culture and psychological empowerment can be explained by means of the concept of ‘Enfranchisement’ (Eisman, 1991; Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991; Sparrowe, 1994; Heinemann, Bode, Hammel, Whiteneck, Bogner & Corrigan, 2013). Enfranchisement is a complex construct that reflects whether and how individuals perceive that the organization in which they desire to participate respects their full participation (Heinemann et al., 2013). The environmental context may also be crucial as it creates both opportunities and expectations (Badley, 2008; Heinemann et al., 2013) and enhances people’s control over their lives. For example, allowing employees the leeway to satisfy a customer so that the employee is in turn rewarded for their effort to satisfy the customer (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991). This can be linked to the motivational aspect of psychological empowerment. The design of an enfranchisement effort needs to fit the culture of the organization. According to Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997), organizational culture provides an excellent framework for understanding and assessing the person-environment fit that is needed for empowerment to succeed within an organization (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002), and can therefore be linked to the CVF of Cameron and Quinn (2011). For example, if an organization has a culture in which employees are rewarded for flexibility and autonomy, the organizational culture will facilitate employee empowerment (Chang & Liu, 2008). Organizational cultures that encourage decision making, flexibility, and autonomy will therefore be positively related to empowerment (Chang & Liu, 2008) and can be linked to a clan and adhocracy culture.

On the basis of this theoretical reasoning and the existing literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

\[ H2: \text{"In a clan/adhocracy culture, the level of psychological empowerment will be higher than in a hierarchy/market culture."} \]

2.3 The Relationship between Psychological Empowerment and Job-related Affective Well-being

The empirical evidence indicates that psychological empowerment leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (e.g., Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Seibert et al., 2011). Researchers have frequently proposed job satisfaction, commitment, and retention as outcomes of empowerment (e.g., Krainer, Seibert, & Liden (1999); Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe (2000). These empirical results are based on the generally accepted opinion that employees enjoy their jobs more when they find their work meaningful, feel that they are capable of performing the job well, have the autonomy to make decisions about their work, and feel that their work has an impact on the organizational outcomes (Gregory, Albritton, & Osmonbekov, 2010). The well-being of employees can be directly related to their mental health (Warr, 1990), which
can lead to job-related affective well-being, which is one of the most important indicators of psychological well-being (Diener & Larsen, 1993; Warr, 1994).

People who feel empowered tend to have a strong sense of self-efficacy and feel that they are capable of doing their jobs well and making things happen (Johns & Saks, 2011). By empowering people, for example, by giving them more responsibilities or autonomy, their positive feelings can be expected to increase.

On the basis of the theoretical reasoning and the existing literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: “A higher degree of psychological empowerment is associated with higher job-related affective well-being.”

2.4 The Role of Psychological Empowerment in Mediating between Organizational Culture and Job-related Affective Well-being

Organizational culture is an important factor in empowerment and influences employee attitudes and behaviours (Conger & Kanugo, 1988; Liden & Tewksbury, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Seibert et al., 2004, Seibert et al., 2011). Aspects of the environment have the potential to either promote or impair job-related affective well-being (Hosie & Sevatos, 2010). This determines whether employees feel more or less psychologically empowered.

There are situations in which the organizational culture provides job resources, which are intended to play either an intrinsic motivational role because they foster the employees’ growth, learning, and development, or an extrinsic motivational role because they are instrumental in achieving work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In such instances, the organizational culture can create or give people the opportunity to control their own destiny and to influence the decisions that affect their lives (Zimmerman, 1995). This process in turn leads to increased job-related affective well-being.

On the basis of the theoretical reasoning and the existing literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: “Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being.”

Figure 2 presents the conceptual model of this research study, including the above hypotheses.

![Figure 2 Conceptual model](image-url)
Method

3.1 Research Set-up
This is an explanatory study as its main purpose is to examine the reasons for, or associations between, that which exists (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). The conceptual model proposed (Figure 2) was tested, together with its four hypotheses, using data gathered from employees of different companies within the Netherlands. The questionnaire was available in both English and Dutch and was developed by the students of the thesis circle ‘Psychological Empowerment’. The questionnaire can be found in the appendices 2 and 4. The data was electronically collected using the online tool Qualtrics over a period of two weeks, starting in April 2016. The assistance of master students of the thesis circle, meant that this study can be defined as convenience sampling with a cross-sectional design. This means that the data was collected at one point in time (Pallant, 2013). Because some of the initial respondents spread the questionnaire through their own personal networks, the convenience sampling expanded into snowball sampling, which in turn resulted in the indirect recruitment of more respondents.

3.2 Description of Test Subjects
The data were collected among a variety of people within the Dutch working population. According to the definition of the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), this population consists of “individuals from the ages of 15 to 67 who live in The Netherlands and have paid employment for twelve or more hours per week” (CBS, 2015). The total sample of this study consisted of N=388 employees. The response was N=312, with a response rate of 80.4%. The majority of the respondents were females (59.6%) and the average age of the respondents was 38 years. Furthermore, 1.9% had a no education, 6.7% of the respondents were assistant workers, team leaders/foremen, 11.5% were office staff, 31.4% were secondary office staff, 38.1% were higher office staff, and 10.3% were senior management or board of direction. Most of the respondents worked fulltime (57.1%) and had a permanent contract (74.0%). The respondents had been working for an average of nine years, of which an average of seven years was for their current employer.

3.3 Procedure
In order to select the respondents and gather data, the individuals were selected in a non-random manner. The selected persons received an email that included a link to the online Dutch questionnaire. A covering letter provided information about the aim of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, the guaranteed anonymity, and the possibility of obtaining further information. In addition, it was made clear that the results were only for scientific purposes. The time needed to fill in the questionnaire was approximately 20 minutes.
3.4 Instruments

Scales were selected from the existing literature in order to measure the different variables that were relevant to this study. All the items were checked for missing values (<5%) and outliers. For the scales of authenticity at work and work-identity, negatively worded items were reversed in order to calculate the total scale of scores. The total score for each scale was then divided by the number of items. Construct validity was tested by using a principal component analysis (PCA). The factor analysis was evaluated on the basis of the correlation matrix, the KMO-value (>0.6), and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (p<.05) (Pallant, 2010). Subsequently, the number of components was evaluated using Kaiser’s criterion (eigenvalue >1.0) and the scree plot. In order to test the reliability of the scales, Cronbach’s alpha (≥.7) and an analysis of the value of Cronbach’s alpha with the item deleted (<α) (Pallant, 2010) was used. The following paragraph describes each scale is separately.

3.4.1 Organizational Culture

The variable of organizational culture was measured using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) of Cameron and Quinn (2011). This measure has been used in previous research on organizational culture (Lau & Ngo, 2004; Muijen, Koopman, Witte, Cock, Susanj, Lemoine, & Turnispeed, 1999; Gimenez-Espin et al., 2013). Some authors have validated the OCAI (Howard, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Gimenez-Espin et al., 2013) and it is one of the most frequently used instruments for assessing organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The instrument assesses the organizational culture and can be subsisted in two columns labelled “Now” and “Preferred”. The respondent can fill in how the current organizational culture looks like “Now”, as well as what the “Preferred” organizational culture would be. Because the researcher wanted to gain more insight into the current culture of the employees, rather than their preferred culture, only the “Now” column was assessed for the purposes of this research. The organizational culture was measured on a 7-point Likert scale, which ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree and consisted of 24 items. The OCAI differentiates four culture types that were measured separately, namely, clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) found a reliability of α=.79 (Clan), α=.79 (Adhocracy), α=.71 (Market), α=.73 (Hierarchy) (Dröge, 2008). According to Chin-Loy and Mujtaba (2007), the reliability of the total organizational culture scale is α=.859. An example of a question describing a clan culture was: “The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves” (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). An example of a question describing an adhocracy culture was: “The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing” (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). An example of a question describing a market culture was: “The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement” (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). An example of a question describing a hierarchy culture was: “The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important” (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
In order to test the construct validity, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed. The KMO value resulted in .888, which exceeds the >.6 criterion. In addition, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant (p=.000). The PCA revealed the presence of four components with an eigenvalue above 1, explaining 66.2% of the variance. To test the stated Hypotheses 1 and 2, the Cronbach’s alphas of the subscales were measured, which were α=.891 (Clan), α=.891 (Adhocracy), α=.844 (Market), α=.844 (Hierarchy). To test hypotheses 3 and 4, the whole scale of organizational culture was used with a Cronbach’s alpha of α=.891. There was no need to remove items as the Cronbach’s alpha if item deleted was lower than the Cronbach’s alpha of α=.891.

3.4.2 Psychological Empowerment
The variable of psychological empowerment was measured using Spreitzer’s (1995) psychological empowerment scale, which consists of 12 with a 7-point Likert scale that range from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. According to the research of Orlowska (2011), the overall scale of psychological empowerment has a Cronbach’s alpha of α=.81. Examples of the statements are: “The work is very important to me” (meaning), “I am confident about my ability to do my job” (competence), “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job” (self-determination), and “I have significant influence over what happens in my department” (impact). In order to test the construct validity, a PCA was performed. The KMO was .840 and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant (p=.000). PCA revealed the presence of four components with an eigenvalue above 1, which explained 84.98% of the variance. The overall scale consisted of 12 items and had a reliability of α=.879. There was no need to remove items as the Cronbach’s alpha if item deleted was lower than the Cronbach’s alpha found of α=.879.

3.4.3 Job-related Affective Well-being
The variable of job-related affective well-being was measured using the scale developed by Warr (1990), which consists of 12 items. These items focus on the two axes of anxiety-contentment (six items) and depression-enthusiasm (six items), and are focused in order to measure the individual’s perceptions of their well-being on a 5-point Likert scale. The scale ranges from 1=never to 5=all of the time. The reliability of the scales reported by Sevastos, Smith, and Corderoy (1992) are consistent with that reported by Warr (1990). Warr’s Cronbach alphas are shown in parentheses. The Cronbach alphas were anxiety-commitment = α=.82 (α=.76) and depression-enthusiasm = α=.85 (α=.80). For the overall job-related affective well-being scale, a Cronbach’s alpha of α=.92 was found by van Olst (2012). An example of a question is: “Thinking of the past few weeks, how much of the time has your job made you feel optimistic?”

Warr (1990) found two factors that correspond to the positive and negative moods or feelings of people at every turn (Schalk, et.al, 1995). Because use was made of Warr’s (1990) existing scale, no PCA was executed. Only the overall reliability of the scale and the reliability analyses of the two
components (anxiety-commitment and depression-enthusiasm) were executed in this research. A Cronbach’s alpha of α=.796 (anxiety-commitment) and a Cronbach’s alpha of α=.846 (depression-enthusiasm) was found for the two components. For the overall scale of job-related affective well-being, a Cronbach’s alpha of α=.889 was found. There was no need to remove items as the Cronbach’s alpha if item deleted was lower than the Cronbach’s alpha found of α=.889.

3.5 Control Variables
In order to examine the effect of variables that could affect the expected relationships, the control variables of age (in years) and gender were included. To measure gender, a nominal scale was used in which 1 = male and 2 = female. The control variables in this study were used to control for spuriousness. Age was added because of the differences between younger and older people’s views with regard to work and their own behaviour. This is supported by the life-career-stage models (Hall, 1976; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978) that suggest that different life and career stages correspond to different interpersonal orientations for younger and older people. In addition, Warr (1990) reports a positive linear correlation between age and psychological well-being.

Gender was used as a control variable because the results of Boudrias, Gaudreua, and Laschinger’s (2004) research indicate that psychological empowerment could be assumed to be invariant among males and females. Never the less, one cannot reject the possibility that psychological empowerment more adequately fits the empowerment experiences of men than it does of women (Boudrias et.al 2004). Moreover, according to a study by Koberg, Boss, Senjem and Goodman (1999), women tend to feel less empowered than men because they typically hold less powerful positions in organizations (Hechanova, Alampay, & Franco, 2006).

3.6 Statistical Analysis
The IBM SPSS Statistics 22 program was used to run the statistical analysis. In order to ensure the variance of the data, the distribution of scores was checked after downloading the raw data. The final dataset was proofed on missing values, errors, and outliers, which included the running of descriptive statistics. In addition, the items were reversed on the scale of job-related affective well-being. Before running the analyses, the validity and reliability of the data were checked using PCA and evaluating the Cronbach’s alpha. The data were checked for violation of assumptions of linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity, which Pearson correlation coefficients (r) were used for.

Prior to testing the proposed relationships, the scales were standardized and the absolute differences among the research units were deleted. In order to gain insight into the relationships between the variables, the standard deviations and Pearson’s correlations were calculated.

The method of Hayes (2013) was used to test the stated hypotheses and mediation. Hayes (2013) describes this as classical mediation. During this process, the effect of one variable is
transmitted to another variable using the mediator variable (Hayes, 2013). In order to conduct this analysis, the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) was used in combination with SPSS. PROCESS made an estimation of the direct and indirect effects and provided all the information required for input into a view tests, with the objective of keeping the number of tests as low as possible (Hayes, 2013). First, an analysis was performed without control variables for the direct effect between organizational culture (X) and job-related affective well-being (Y). This was then followed by an analysis calculating the mediation effect of psychological empowerment (M₁). Second, an analysis was performed twice with another control variable (age/gender). This provided insight into which control variable added the most value to the available data. R² was used to determine how much of the variance in the dependent variable was explained by the model (Pallant, 2007). To analyse the indirect effect, a bias corrected bootstrap method was used using 1000 samples with a confidence interval of 95%.

4 Results

4.1 Correlations

Table 1 presents the means, the standard deviations (SD) of the variables, the Cronbach’s alphas (α), and the correlation coefficients (Pearsons’ r). These values are derived from the significant correlation that exists between organizational culture with job-related affective well-being (r=.327**, p<.01) and with psychological empowerment (r=.232**, p<.01). The results indicate that the organizational culture can affect the psychological empowerment, the experiences, and the job-related affective well-being of employees. Psychological empowerment significantly correlates with job-related affective well-being (r=.414**, p<.01) and also with age, (r=.214**, p<.01). This relationship indicates that psychological empowerment, together with the age, can affect the job-related affective well-being of employees. In addition, there is a small but significant correlation between job-related affective well-being and age (r=.126*, p<.05). This relationship indicates that job-related affective well-being positively affects older employees. Gender does not seem to significantly influence organizational culture, psychological empowerment, or job-related affective well-being. Therefore, only age was taken into account as a control variable in the regression analyses.
**Table 1** Descriptive correlations means, standard deviations (SD) and Cronbach’s alphas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Organizational culture</th>
<th>Psychological empowerment</th>
<th>Job-related affective well-being</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational culture</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological empowerment</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>.820</td>
<td></td>
<td>.232**</td>
<td>(α=.879)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job-related affective well-being</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td></td>
<td>.327**</td>
<td>.414**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>38.36</td>
<td>13.64</td>
<td></td>
<td>- .081</td>
<td>.214**</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>-.096</td>
<td>-.040</td>
<td>-.039</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

Gender was labelled as 1 (men) and 2 (women)

N= 312

4.2 Regression Analyses

In order to test the previously stated hypotheses, the Hayes method (Hayes, 2013) was used to conduct multiple regressions. The results are presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4, followed by a description of the results for each hypothesis. Table 2 provides evidence for Hypotheses 3 and 4, while Tables 3 and 4 are used to prove Hypotheses 1 and 2.
Table 2 Regression results Organizational Culture (total)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome: Psychological empowerment</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X= Organizational Culture (total)</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R² =.109**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F= (2,309) = 18.812**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome: Job-related affective well-being</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁= Psychological Empowerment</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X=Organizational Culture (total)</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R² =.233**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F = (3,308) = 31.162**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct effect of X on Y</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct effect (Sobel) of X on Y =.254**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect effect (Sobel) of X on Y =.085</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01
*p<.05
| Table 3 Regression results Organizational Culture AB=Clan/Adhocracy |
|--------------------------|----------------|------|
| **Outcome: Psychological empowerment** | Coeff. | SE   | P     |
| Constant                 | .000         | .052 | 1.000 |
| X=Organizational Culture AB | .342         | .052 | .000  |
| Control variable Age     | .245         | .052 | .000  |
| $R^2 = .162^{**}$        |              |      |       |
| $F = (2,309) = 29.970^{**}$ |            |      |       |
| **Outcome: Job-related affective well-being** | Coeff. | SE   | P     |
| Constant                 | -.244        | .153 | .111  |
| $M_1 =$ Psychological Empowerment | .303         | .054 | .000  |
| X=Organizational Culture AB | .287         | .053 | .000  |
| Control variable Age     | .087         | .051 | .092  |
| $R^2 = .245^{**}$        |              |      |       |
| $F = (3,308) = 33.256^{**}$ |            |      |       |
| Direct effect of X on Y  | .053         |      | .000  |
| Indirect effect (Sobel) of X on Y | .025 |      | .000  |

$^{**}$p<.01  
*p<.05
Table 4 Regression results Organizational Culture CD=Hierarchy/Market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome: Psychological empowerment</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = Organizational Culture CD</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable Age</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²= .047**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F = (2,309) = 7,633**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome: Job-related affective well-being</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁ = Psychological Empowerment</td>
<td>.401</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = Organizational Culture CD</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable Age</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²= .189**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F = (3,308) = 23,904**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct effect of X on Y = 0.127 *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect effect of X on Y = 0.014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01
*p<.05

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis states that in a clan/adhocracy culture the level of job-related affective well-being is higher than in a hierarchy/market culture. Tables 3 and 4 indicate that job-related affective well-being is higher in a clan/adhocracy culture (B = .287**, p<.01), in comparison to a hierarchy/market culture (B = .127*, p<.05). Hypothesis 1 is therefore supported by the findings that in comparison to employees in a hierarchy/market culture, those in a clan/adhocracy culture have more positive emotions regarding their work, which indicates more job-related affective well-being.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis states that in a clan/adhocracy culture, the level of psychological empowerment will be higher than in a hierarchy/market culture. Tables 3 and 4 indicate that the level of psychological empowerment is higher in a clan/adhocracy culture (B = .342**, p<.01) than it is in a hierarchy/market culture (B = .035, not significant). These results support this hypothesis.
It can therefore be concluded that people who have more flexibility and discretion in their work environments will experience more psychological empowerment.

**Hypothesis 3.** The third hypothesis states that a higher degree of psychological empowerment is associated with higher job-related affective well-being. The results revealed in Table 2 indicate that psychological empowerment is associated with greater job-related affective well-being (B= .339**, p<.01). The emotions of employees who experience psychological empowerment will therefore be more positive and these employees will feel more capable of doing their jobs.

**Hypothesis 4.** The fourth hypothesis states that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being. According to Table 2, there is a significant direct effect between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being (B= .254**, p<.01). The effect between organizational culture and psychological empowerment is also significant (B= .251**, p<.01). Moreover, the effect between psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being can also be regarded as significant (B= .339**, p<.01). To assess whether the mediation effect is significant, a bootstrap with 1000 samples was performed. The results indicate that the samples were completely above zero (BootLLCI .038, BootULCI .161). The effect size of the mediation effect was .085 according to the Sobel test. The mediation effect is partially significant because there is evidence of the direct effects between each variable. The findings therefore support Hypothesis 4.

5 Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Interpretation

Recent developments of new technology and globalization, together with the competitive climate in which companies currently operate, forces them to become more efficient and effective (Cummings & Worley, 2015). This process also requires the good mental health of a company’s employees (Macik-Frey & Cooper, 2007). Therefore, the related variables that may possibly apply to the mental health of employees, i.e. job-related affective well-being, were the subject of investigation in this study. Data from 312 working Dutch respondents were used to test the research model. All the relevant hypotheses were supported. The results of this study confirm that the organizational culture influences job-related affective well-being and that this relationship is partially mediated by psychological empowerment.

The intention of this research project was to shed more light on the relationships involved in organizational culture, and its impact on job-related well-being. This is in keeping with the widespread interest in psychological empowerment. The intention of this research project was to shed more light on the relationships, the impact of organizational culture on job-related well-being, and the widespread interest in psychological empowerment.
This study found support for Hypothesis 1 and argues that the differences in employee well-being can be explained by organizational characteristics (culture, work context) (de Sousa & Porto, 2015). The organizational culture influences the level of job-related affective well-being. It has been established that employees who work in a clan/adhocracy culture have greater job-related affective well-being than employees in a hierarchy/market culture. This is in keeping with the JD-R theory of Bakker and Demerouti (2014) and the Vitamin Model of Warr (1987). The JD-R theory states that job demands and job resources can influence employee well-being and performance (Demerouti et al., 2001, 2014). Employees in a clan/adhocracy culture who experience flexibility and discretion in their work environment can buffer their job resources and demands, which can in turn can positively affect their job-related well-being. For example, such employees are more able to handle work pressure and task complexity, and they assume more autonomy in their role, which eventually leads to a positive contribution to achieving the organizational goals. Warr’s (1987) Vitamin Model proposes that certain job attributes, such as job autonomy and job demands, function like “vitamins” that can be desirable up to certain levels but can be harmful or ineffective at excessive levels (Warr, 1987, 2007; de Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998). According to Briner (2000), aspects of the work environment are likely to affect the well-being of employees. Consequently, an organizational culture that is flexible and discrete can be compared to positive vitamins that contribute positively to achieving organizational goals, in addition to contributing to job-related affective well-being.

This research study also found support for Hypothesis 2. The results indicate that organizational culture positively impacts psychological empowerment. This perception is in keeping with the research of Spreitzer (1995). As discussed previously, people who work in a clan/adhocracy culture experience higher levels of psychological empowerment in comparison to those who work in a hierarchy/market culture. Consequently, employees with a clan/adhocracy culture that is characterized by flexibility and discretion will experience more psychological empowerment than employees who work in a hierarchy/market culture in which stability and control are typically common. Employees who feel psychologically empowered will experience flexibility and discretion. These employees will be more actively orientated towards their work role and individuals or teams will perceive that they have greater control in their work situations (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). This behavior is in keeping with the concept of ‘Enfranchisement’ (Eisman, 1991; Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991; Sparrowe, 1994; Heinemann et al., 2013), which also confirms the positive relationship between psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being stated in Hypothesis 3. Likewise, it is in keeping with the widely-accepted view that employees enjoy their jobs more when they find their work meaningful, feel that they are capable of performing their jobs well, have the autonomy to make decisions about their work, and feel that their work has an impact on organizational outcomes (Gregory, Albritton & Osmonbekov, 2010). For example, employees who feel psychologically empowered have greater self-determination and impact, feel more autonomous, and feel that they can influence strategic, administrative, or operative outcomes at work (Deci et al.,
1989; Ashforth, 1989). Such feelings can lead to employees experiencing more positive emotions towards their work, having a strong sense of self-efficacy, and feeling that they are capable of doing their job well and making things happen (Johns & Saks, 2011). These feelings can eventually lead to more job-related affective well-being.

In addition, this study also found evidence supporting Hypothesis 4. This hypothesis examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being. Psychological empowerment is partially mediated because of the direct effects between each variable in the research model. It can be argued that the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being is also influenced by other variables such as motivational resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Moreover, the results from a study by Seibert, Silver and Randolph (2004), indicate that psychological empowerment mediates the effects of the empowerment climate on job satisfaction, and that it also serves as a link in an indirect relationship between the empowerment climate and job performance. Therefore, the likelihood of a full mediating effect of psychological empowerment is minimal.

5.2 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

A number of limitations should be considered when interpreting the results of this study. One of the drawbacks of this study is the use of a cross-sectional design, which means that the data was collected at one specific point in time. A limitation of a cross-sectional design is that it makes it difficult to make any statements about causality (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). This study can therefore only confirm linear relationships between the variables, but a causal relationship between the variables studied cannot be determined. In order to overcome this limitation, a longitudinal study design is suggested in which the data is gathered and measured several times. This could provide more insight into the causation that exists between the variables studied in this research project.

Another limitation of this study is the use of Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) OCAI as a 7-point Likert scale. Cameron and Quinn (2011) originally developed the OCAI as an ipsative rating scale in which individuals have to distribute 100 points among the possible answers. Because ipsative scales do not result in independent responses, this research project used a 7-point Likert scale. The main disadvantage of using a Likert scale rather than an ipsative scale is that less differentiation tends to occur between the four types of culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). If sufficient resources are available, it is recommended that future studies should make use of an ipsative scale to measure the organizational culture. Furthermore, this research was focused on current employee culture and only the “Now” culture of the OCAI was measured. Since organizational culture can change over time, it is suggested that the “Preferred” organizational culture should also be taken into account.

In addition, psychological empowerment consists of four cognitions, namely, meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. However, the present study measured the concept of
psychological empowerment as one construct. Future research could examine the four cognitions of psychological empowerment separately in order to gain more insight into which cognition contributes the most to job-related affective well-being. Alternatively, it could choose to consider only one of the four cognitions of psychological empowerment.

Moreover, the students of the thesis circle of ‘Psychological empowerment’ from the study Human Resource Studies used convenience sampling and the snowball technique to collect the data. A disadvantage of these sampling techniques is that the sample was not chosen randomly, which reduced the ability to generalize results of the population sampled. To make the results more generalizable, a random sampling method or a stratified sampling method is recommended (Bryman, 2001; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

Another limitation of the research was the length of the questionnaire, which contained 180 questions. While analysing the data, it became clear that 388 people had started completing the questionnaire but only 312 had finished it, which resulted in a response rate of 80.4%. The reasons for not completing the questionnaire were that the participants found it too long. In addition, it also was not totally clear to the respondents that they could pause and resume it as they chose. In order to maximize the number of respondents, this option should have been specifically highlighted. Moreover, the completion time needed for the questionnaire should have been tested by a larger number of individuals prior to its distribution.

The above limitations and suggestions for future research need to be taken into account. Future studies on this subject will definitely benefit from more time and resources, which will enable future researchers to conduct a longitudinal study followed by an empirical study. These studies should also focus on identifying a different set of values from those of the Competing Values Framework. In addition, such studies should measure the impact of change over time within an organizational culture as this relates to psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being. It may also be interesting to compare different organizational cultures around the globe in one study in order to see how these organizational cultures influence the psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being of employees. With more time and resources invested, the extensive pilot testing of a proposed survey could be carried out, which would definitely ensure a better result.

5.3 Theoretical Contributions
Despite its limitations, this study seeks to contribute to the existing literature in several ways. The present study examined the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being by assessing the mediating role of psychological empowerment. This is a very new perspective that until now has not often been considered in the existing literature. Previous studies have linked organizational culture to outcome variables such as total quality management (Giminez-Espin et al., 2013), job satisfaction (Chow, Lo, Sha & Hong, 2006; McKinnon, Harrison, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000), and performance outcomes (George et al., 1999). But job-related
affective well-being has not often been examined as a dependent variable. The same is true of the mediating role of psychological empowerment and the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being. Furthermore, this research adds to the evidence of a number of studies (e.g. Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Lawler, 1992; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997; Randolf, 1995; Spreitzer, 1996) that propose that empowerment is directly influenced by the work context. The results of this research indicate that employees in a clan/adhocracy culture characterized by flexibility and discretion experience higher levels of psychological empowerment and job-related affective well-being than employees within a market/hierarchy culture. This means that the culture can contribute to a positive working climate and working context. Such an environment provides employees with opportunities for empowerment that in turn affect their well-being (Briner, 1997). In addition, this research contributes evidence to the work of Carless (2004) as its findings confirm that employee perceptions of their work environment directly influence their perceptions of empowerment and, as a result, influence their level of job satisfaction. It also confirms the results of a study by Russel (2008), who found a curvilinear association between job autonomy and job satisfaction. Russel’s findings are also in keeping with the findings of this study, which confirms that people who work in a clan/adhocracy culture with flexibility and discretion have a higher degree of job-related affective well-being.

5.4 Practical Implications
The results presented earlier not only provide useful insights for scholars but they are also helpful for practitioners. Some examples of their practical implications can therefore be highlighted. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), there are different ways of increasing psychological empowerment that enhance job-related affective well-being. One way is to change the employees’ thinking processes. This could change the environment or the organizational culture. This study’s findings provide a number of “levers of change” that organizations can use to enhance job motivation and job satisfaction (Carless, 2004). At the individual level, managers can ensure that employees have a clear understanding of the scope of their job and responsibilities. This scope should be in keeping with organizational and individual goals. In addition, managers should provide employees with support and encourage them to participate in decision making. At the organizational level, human resource departments can also facilitate the access of employees to suitable professional development programs. Managers should have access to training in appropriate behaviors, such as participative decision making and supportive leadership behavior (Carless, 2004). It is essential that organizations are aware of the importance of the organizational culture in which they operate, and how this organization can influence the ways in which people feel empowered. Professional organizations need to recognize the type of organizational culture in which they operate as this can help them to improve the ways in which people will feel psychologically empowered. The same applies to the employees, who need to be aware of the culture in which they are working. They need to know the possibilities for psychological empowerment and how this can positively affect their emotions towards their work and
environment. It is important that organizations do not ignore the organizational context/culture when it comes to the job-related affective well-being of employees. If employees experience more positive emotions towards their work, their performance will improve and there will be less chance of them developing negative emotions.

5.5 Conclusion

The well-being of employees is becoming more and more important in today’s working environment. This should not only be about pushing workers’ performance levels to (and possibly even beyond) their upper limits, but it should also be about maximizing worker health and well-being (Peeters et al., 2014). This study’s research results provide increased insight into the mediating role of psychological empowerment in the relationship between organizational culture and job-related affective well-being.

In this research, it’s found that a clan/adhocracy culture can lead to higher levels of job-related affective well-being and therefore to more positive emotions towards the work environment. In addition, a clan/adhocracy culture can lead to increased feelings of psychological empowerment, including feelings of competency, a sense of control, and a capacity for efficiency that will encourage individuals to act and participate (Speer, Peterson, Armstead & Allen, 2013), which in turn can encourage job-related affective well-being.
6 Reference list


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Subject: Completing questionnaire for research

Dear Sir/Madam,

For our study Human Resource Studies at Tilburg University, we are executing a scientific research. We chose to examine psychological empowerment and related concepts.

Data collection is necessary to investigate the above mentioned subject. Therefore, we created a questionnaire. Our request to you is to complete this questionnaire. Filling in the questionnaire will take about 15 minutes of your time. The completion of the questionnaire will be entirely anonymous and will only be used for scientific purposes.

If you have any questions, you can contact us.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours Sincerely,

Marloes van Caulil
Esther Moerman
Karin Postma
Vera Immerzeel
Elly van den Eertwegh
Kim Sumter
Appendix 2 Questionnaire (English)

The following questions are related to your background:

You are a:

- Man
- Woman

What is your age? (in years)

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How would you classify your current job? Please only focus on the actual tasks and activities you are performing in your job (not taking your educational level into account)

- Unskilled blue collar worker (e.g. plant/machine operator, assembly line worker, …)
- Skilled blue collar worker or foremen (e.g. electrician, fitter, technician, …)
- Lower level white collar worker (e.g. typist, secretary, telephone operator, computer operator, shop assistant, …)
- Intermediate white collar worker or supervisor of white collar workers (e.g. computer programmer, school teacher, sales representative, …)
- Upper white collar worker, middle management/executive staff (e.g. store/shop/sales manager, office manager, engineer, university lecturer, …)
- Management or director (e.g. departmental/section manager, senior manager, headmaster, rector, …)

With what kind of contract are you employed for your current employer?

- Fulltime
- Part-time

What is your current employment status for your current employer?

- Permanent
- Temporary
In what sector do you work?

- Agriculture, forestry and fishing
- Mining, electricity, gas, water and waste management
- Manufactured products
- Construction
- Trade
- Accommodation and food services
- Transport and communication services
- Financial and insurance services
- Professional services; administrative and support services
- Public administration
- Education, healthcare and welfare
- Arts and recreation services, other services
- Other, namely

How many years are you employed in your current organization?

How many years are you employed in your current position?
Can you indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

**Psychological empowerment (Strongly disagree – strongly agree 1-7)**

1. The work I do is very important to me
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me
3. The work I do is meaningful to me
4. I am confident about my ability to do my job
5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities
6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job
7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job
8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work
9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job
10. My impact on what happens in my department is large
11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department
12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department

**Affective well-being (Never – All of the time 1-5)**

Thinking of the past few weeks, how much of the time has your job made you feel each of the following?

1. Tense
2. Optimistic
3. Contented
4. Gloomy
5. Worried
6. Miserable
7. Calm
8. Enthusiastic
9. Relaxed
10. Depressed
11. Cheerful
12. Uneasy

**Organizational culture (Strongly disagree – strongly agree 1-7)**

1. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

2. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

3. The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

4. The organization is a very controlled and structured. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

5. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating or, nurturing.

6. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation or, risk taking.

7. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive or results-oriented focus.

8. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing or, smooth-running efficiency.

9. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

10. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, and uniqueness.

11. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.
12. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, and stability in relationships.

13. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.

14. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

15. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.

16. The glue that holds the organization together is formal and policies. Maintaining a smoothly running organization is important.

17. The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.

18. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

19. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

20. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.

21. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people.

22. The organization defines success on the basis of having unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

23. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

24. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.
Onderwerp: Onderzoek werkbeleving

Geachte heer, mevrouw,

Voor onze opleiding Human Resource Studies aan de Universiteit van Tilburg, voeren wij een onderzoek uit naar factoren in de organisatie en afdeling die de werkervaringen van werknemers positief of negatief beïnvloeden.

Dataverzameling is van essentieel belang om het bovenstaande onderwerp te kunnen onderzoeken. Wij hebben een vragenlijst ontwikkeld met vragen die voor ons onderzoek van belang zijn. Onze vraag aan u is deze vragenlijst volledig in te vullen om ons op deze manier verder te helpen met ons onderzoek. Het invullen van de vragenlijst vraagt ongeveer 20 minuten van uw tijd. De gegevens van het onderzoek worden volledig anoniem verwerkt en gerapporteerd en worden alleen gebruikt voor wetenschappelijke doeleinden.

Mocht u vragen hebben, kunt u contact met ons opnemen.

Bij voorbaat dank voor uw medewerking.

Met vriendelijke groet,

Marloes van Caulil

Esther Moerman

Karin Postma

Vera Immerzeel

Elly van den Eertwegh

Kim Sumter
Appendix 4 Questionnaire (Dutch)

De volgende vragen hebben betrekking op uw achtergrond.

Bent u een:

o Man

o Vrouw

Wat is uw leeftijd? (in jaren)

Welke categorie sluit het best aan bij uw huidige baan? Houd alleen rekening met de taken en het werk die bij uw baan horen (en niet met uw opleidingsniveau)

o Ongeschoolde arbeid (bijvoorbeeld lopende band medewerker, machinebediende,....)

o Geschoold uitvoerend arbeid of ploegleider/voorman (bijvoorbeeld elektricien, installateur, lasser,....)

o Uitvoerend kantoorpersoneel (bijvoorbeeld typist(e), secretaresse, telefonist(e), receptionist(e), winkelbediende,....)

o Middelbaar kantoorpersoneel (bijvoorbeeld computerprogrammeur, leraar/lerares op basis- of middelbare school, vertegenwoordiger,....)

o Hoger kantoorpersoneel, midden management/staf (bijvoorbeeld winkel/verkoop manager, office manager, ingenieur, leraar/lerares op hogeschool/universiteit,....)

o Hoger management of directie (bijvoorbeeld departement/sectie manager, senior manager, directeur, rector/rectrix,....)

In wat voor dienstverband bent u werkzaam bij uw huidige werkgever?

o Fulltime

o Parttime, gemiddeld aantal uur per week:

Wat is uw huidige contract situatie bij uw huidige werkgever?

o Vast

o Tijdelijk
In welke sector bent u werkzaam?

- Landbouw, bosbouw en visserij
- Energie en waterleidingbedrijven
- Industrie
- Bouwnijverheid
- Handel
- Horeca
- Vervoer en communicatie
- Financiële instellingen
- Zakelijke dienstverlening
- Services
- Openbaar bestuur
- Onderwijs, gezondheids- en welzijnszorg
- Cultuur en overige dienstverlening
- Anders, namelijk

Hoeveel jaar bent u werkzaam in uw huidige organisatie?

Hoeveel jaar bent u werkzaam in uw huidige functie?
Kunt u aangeven in welke mate u het eens bent met de volgende stelling?

**Empowerment (geheel mee oneens – geheel mee eens 1-7)**

1. Het werk dat ik doe is erg belangrijk voor mij.
2. Mijn werkactiviteiten zijn voor mij van persoonlijke betekenis.
3. Mijn werk betekent veel voor mij.
4. Ik heb veel mogelijkheden om onafhankelijk en in vrijheid mijn werk uit te voeren.
5. Ik heb autonomie in het uitvoeren van mijn werk.
6. Ik kan zelf beslissen hoe ik mijn werkzaamheden uitvoer.
7. Ik heb vertrouwen in mijn bekwaamheden om mijn werk goed te doen.
8. Ik ben zelfverzekerd over mijn capaciteiten om mijn werktaken adequaat te volbrengen.
9. Ik beheers de vaardigheden die nodig zijn voor mijn werk.
10. Ik heb een grote invloed op wat er gebeurt in mijn afdeling.
11. Ik heb veel controle over wat er gebeurt in mijn afdeling.
12. Mijn invloed op het reilen en zeilen in mijn afdeling is groot.

**Welzijn (nooit – altijd 1-5)**

Neem de afgelopen paar maanden in gedachte. Hoe vaak voelde u zich door uw werk:

1. Gespannen
2. Optimistisch
3. Voldaan
4. Somber
5. Bezorgd
6. Ellendig
7. Rustig
8. Enthousiast
9. Ontspannen
10. Gedeprimeerd
11. Opgewekt
12. Onbehaaglijk

Organisatiecultuur (geheel mee oneens – geheel mee eens 1-7)

Houd alleen rekening met uw beleving in de huidige situatie (en niet zoals u het in de ideale situatie zou willen zien).

1. De organisatie is een zeer persoonlijke plek. Het is als een familie. Men deelt veel van zichzelf met anderen.
2. De organisatie is een dynamisch en ondernemende plek. Men is bereid zijn nek uit te steken en risico’s te nemen.
3. De organisatie is erg resultaat georiënteerd. Het is erg belangrijk om de taak af te krijgen. Men is erg competitief en prestatiegericht.
4. De organisatie is een erg gecontroleerde en gestructureerde omgeving. Formele procedures leiden wat men doet.
5. Het leiderschap in de organisatie wordt over het algemeen gezien als begeleidend, faciliterend of verzorgend.
6. Het leiderschap in de organisatie wordt over het algemeen gekarakteriseerd door ondernemerschap, innovatie of het nemen van risico’s.
7. Het leiderschap in de organisatie wordt over het algemeen gekenmerkt door een no-nonsense, offensieve, resultaatgerichte focus.
8. Het leiderschap in de organisatie wordt over het algemeen gezien als coördinerend, organiserend of goedlopend en efficiënt.
10. De managementstijl in de organisatie wordt gekenmerkt door risico’s nemen, innovatie en uniekheid.
11. De managementstijl in de organisatie wordt gekenmerkt door competitie, hoge eisen en prestaties.

12. De managementstijl in de organisatie wordt gekenmerkt door werkzekerheid, conformiteit en stabiliteit in relaties.

13. Wat de organisatie bijeengroopt, is loyaliteit en onderling vertrouwen. Betrokkenheid bij de organisatie staat hoog in het vaandel.

14. Wat de organisatie bijeengroopt, is betrokkenheid bij innovatie en ontwikkeling. Het is belangrijk om voorop te lopen.

15. Wat de organisatie bijeengroopt, is de nadruk op prestaties en het bereiken van doelstellingen.

16. Wat de organisatie bijeengroopt, zijn de formele regels en beleid. Het in stand houden van een soepel draaiende organisatie is belangrijk.

17. De organisatie legt de nadruk op menselijke ontplooiing. Een grote mate van vertrouwen, openheid en participatie voeren de boventoon.


20. De organisatie legt de nadruk op behoud van de bestaande situatie en stabiliteit. Efficiëntie, beheersbaarheid en een soepele bedrijfsvoering spelen de hoofdrol.

21. De organisatie meet het succes af aan de ontwikkeling van de mensen in het bedrijf, teamwork, de betrokkenheid van het personeel en zorg voor de mensen.

22. De organisatie definiert succes als het kunnen beschikken over zo uniek mogelijke of de nieuwste producten. Ze kan worden beschouwd als innovatief en als toonaangevend wat haar producten betreft.

23. De organisatie definiert succes als winnen in de markt en de concurrentie de loef afsteken. Concurrerend marktleiderschap staat centraal.