

EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEES' EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOURS IN MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS IN NIGERIA

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Aston University
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THESIS SUMMARY

This thesis, grounded in Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Social Exchange Theory (SET), examines the influence of empowering leadership on employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours (extra-role behaviours) within multinational corporations (MNCs) in Nigeria. While Nigeria is traditionally classified as a collectivist society, the study provides insights into how global management strategies interact with local cultural values, revealing the complexities of leadership adaptation in a globalized work environment.

Using a longitudinal study approach, data was collected from 213 employees across 22 teams and 11 companies spanning 9 economic sectors. The study employed a two-study design to assess the impact of leadership at both the team and individual levels.

Study One conducted a single-level analysis, examining the mediating roles of organisational justice and psychological empowerment. findings suggests that while psychological empowerment is important for enhancing employee motivation and performance, it may not be the primary mechanism through which empowering leadership influences knowledge sharing and voice behaviours in MNCs in Nigeria. Instead, organisational justice may play a more critical role in this context. Further findings showed that individual-level cultural orientations, particularly individualism, moderate the impact of empowering leadership, with individualistic employees perceiving empowering leadership as fairer and engaging more readily in extra-role behaviours. These findings support the need for a hybrid leadership style that balances empowerment with directive leadership, particularly in high-power distance cultures where structure is valued. Importantly, this does not contradict Nigeria's collectivist orientation but reflects cultural fluidity within MNCs influenced by Western HRM practices.

Study Two expanded on these findings using a multilevel analysis, revealing that team-level LMX and organisational justice mediate the effects of leadership on employee behaviours. Furthermore, the study demonstrated that cultural factors, specifically individualism-collectivism and LMX differentiation (LMXD), moderate the effectiveness of empowering leadership, reinforcing the importance of culturally adaptive and fair leadership approaches.

The study contributes to leadership research by offering new perspectives on how empowering leadership operates in non-Western MNC contexts. The thesis concludes by highlighting future research directions, including extended longitudinal studies, mixed-method approaches, and cross-cultural comparative research, to further refine leadership theories in diverse organisational settings.

Key words: Empowering leadership, Self-Determination Theory (SDT), Social Exchange Theory (SET), Employee voice, Knowledge-sharing behaviour, Extra-role behaviours, Multinational corporations (MNCs), Longitudinal study, Organisational justice, psychological empowerment, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), LMX differentiation (LMXD), Individualism-collectivism, Multilevel analysis.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God Almighty, whose grace, direction, and unceasing love have been my cornerstone along this road. I give Him all the praise for every achievement and revelation. This mark would not have been achievable without His supernatural involvement and many favours.

I also dedicate this piece to my dear family, the Sir & Dame Joseph Ejeomon Okhiku. Family. The foundation upon which this dream was built has been your relentless support, prayers, and sacrifices. Your support has been a lighthouse in my search of greatness; you have been my best cheerleader, sticking with me through every high and low.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

In corporate organisations, leadership play a pivotal role in employees' behaviour, organisational outcomes and propels general corporate performance (Babalola, Mawritz, Greenbaum, Ren, & Garba, 2021; Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Belschak, 2020; Kauppila et al., 2022). The leadership context becomes even more important within multinational companies (MNCs) functioning in Nigeria due to the complicated relationship between global business practices and local cultural norms (Hofstede, 2020; House et al., 2004; Jackson, 2016).

Characterised by a collectivist cultural perspective, the Nigerian setting presents special potential for leadership as well as obstacles. Under such circumstances, leadership practices must be customised to fit local norms and expectations while preserving the global standards of corporate operations (Meyer, 2020; Hofstede Insight, 2021). So, it is important to investigate how leadership may be adapted to fit this specific corporate setting (Hofstede, 2020).

In recent years, there has been a substantial increase in efforts targeted at assisting employees with the objective of maximising individual performance, which encourages individuals to engage in performance-enhancing workplace activities. Therefore, previous studies have emphasised the significance of organisational leaders granting their employees a significant degree of autonomy while fostering a culture that promotes empowerment (Alagarsamy, Mehroliya, & Aranha, 2023). Thereby shifting towards an empowerment-oriented organisational model, which emphasises employee autonomy, participation in decision-making processes, and the creation of a nurturing work environment (Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2018; Wang, De Pater, Yi, Zhang, & Yang, 2022).

The empowerment-oriented organisational paradigm differs significantly from standard hierarchical structures found in Nigerian organisation where employees are grouped in order of authority (Akanbi & Adetunji, 2022; Okafor et al., 2022), by emphasising empowering leadership characteristics (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Vuong & Hieu, 2023). According to this paradigm, such leadership styles improve employee

work behaviour and performance across several dimensions. This paradigm is renowned for promoting employee voice (Gencay, Chen, & Tangirala, 2022; Vuong & Hieu, 2023), innovation performance (Lee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022), knowledge exchange (Hu & Mihalache, 2022; Wang et al., 2022), and overall work performance (Holtz & Harold, 2013). Empowering leadership promotes a state-wide focus by allowing employees to express their views and concerns, pushing them to actively contribute to organisational objectives. This may lead to better organisational performance and effectiveness.

Empowering leadership has lately attracted interest for its capacity to improve employee autonomy, voice behaviour, and information sharing behaviours necessary to support innovation and long-term organisational development (Li et al., 2012). Especially in environments where varied and dynamic teams are common, like as MNCs, empowering leadership which promotes self-determination and involvement, positively influences employee results (Alagarsamy, Mehroliya, & Aranha, 2023). But much of the current research on leadership and how it affects employee behaviour are based on Western-centric models that may not completely explain the nuances of leadership in a developing nation such as Nigeria (Gao & Jiang, 2023).

Moreover, empowering leadership has been identified as a significant component that influences several aspects of employee behaviour and performance in organisational contexts (Pham, Tuan, Thúy, Hoang, & Hoang, 2023; X. Zhang, Qian, Wang, & Chen, 2019). For example, it facilitates connections between work performance, organisational citizenship conduct, and creativity by means of processes like confidence in the leader and psychological empowerment at the individual and group levels. This implies that empowering leadership has a direct impact on employee's behaviours and also has a significant effect on the overall organisational scope (Lee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022).

The evidence from existing studies underline the important part that effective leadership styles and leader-subordinate relationships play in determining employees' identification with their organisation and readiness to participate in extra-role behaviours like knowledge exchange and voice. Studies of supportive leadership reveal that it improves

these traits, hence promoting organisational success and innovation (Li et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). This paper expands on previously published research on employees' voice and knowledge sharing by looking at how empowering leadership in MNCs in Nigerian fosters these practices, therefore providing a better knowledge of how leadership shapes employee dynamics (Gao & Jiang, 2023).

Knowledge-sharing behaviour is the exchange of information, experience, and skills to improve collective learning and innovation while employee voice behaviour refers to the proactive expression of ideas, concerns, or suggestions meant to improve organisational operations (Wang et al., 2022; Hu & Mihalache, 2022). The importance of these behaviours in improving organisational performance particularly in a dynamic and hierarchical corporate environment such as Nigeria, where employee participation in decision-making processes can drive innovation and overcome rigid leadership structures, the researcher's emphasis on how empowering leadership influence these behaviours is well-justified (Gencay et al., 2022; Vuong & Hieu, 2023).

Over the last several years, empirical research has underlined the significance of these two behaviours actions. Li et al. (2021) for example showed that employee voice directly supports innovation and ongoing development; Morrison (2022) discovered that companies with strong voice cultures had more employee engagement and resilience during crises. Important for preserving competitive advantage, Foss et al. (2022) and Wang et al. (2023) underlined how information sharing helps teams to make better decisions and hastens the evolution of new skills within them. Furthermore, transformational or empowering leadership, which builds an environment of trust, psychological safety, and motivation for discretionary efforts has been particularly closely linked to encouraging these behaviours (Kim et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022).

Therefore, emphasising these two behaviours helps the study to close important gaps in leadership research, especially in developing countries like Nigeria where collectivist cultural elements may impact how these behaviours show themselves (Hofstede Insight, 2021; Engelen et al., 2020).

Several studies have examined the impact of empowering leadership on employee voice and knowledge sharing (Gencay et al., 2022; Hu & Mihalache, 2022; Lee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022). However, there is limited research on the simultaneous effects of employees' psychological empowerment, perception of organisational justice, leader-member exchange, and leader-member exchange differentiation and employee's individual cultural variation on each other.

There is a notable difference in knowledge of the intricate relationships of employee behaviour and leadership. These components together affect important employee behaviours like voice and information sharing, which are very necessary for encouraging innovation and cooperation. Scholars like Morrison (2021) and Zhang et al. (2022) underline how closely these components used together increases the efficacy of leadership. Through investigating this interaction, the current research offers a thorough knowledge of how empowering leadership may drive important behaviours, especially in culturally unique environments like Nigeria, therefore offering deeper insights for leadership strategies (Li et al., 2022; Foss et al., 2023).

Furthermore, research on the causes, effects, and drivers of empowering leadership and its link to employee extra-role behaviours has generally concentrated on the individual-level (M. Kim, Beehr, & Prewett, 2018; Subhakaran, Dyaram, Dayaram, Ayentimi, & Khan, 2020). However, the team-focused approach in contemporary businesses has claimed that organisational leaders play an important role in shaping both group and individual extra-role behaviours (Auh et al., 2014). According to the findings of the research by Auh et al., (2014), empowering leadership behaviours appear at two levels: individual-focused empowering leadership and team-level differentiated empowering leadership.

The team-focused structure popular in contemporary businesses emphasises the significance of organisational leaders in influencing multiple outcomes, including extra-role behaviours, at both the group and individual levels (Byza, Schuh, Dörr, Spörrle, and Maier, 2017). Despite this awareness, there are still gaps in understanding the intricate processes and contextual aspects that form a leader's effect on extra-role behaviours.

To examine how leadership influences organisational behaviour, past studies have used transformational leadership (Li et al., 2021), transactional leadership (N Nguyen et al., 2021), LMX (Zhang et al., 2022), and social identity theory (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2020). But these methods may separate group or motivating elements (Gao & Jiang, 2023). This paper addresses both motivating and relational dynamics by combining Social Exchange Theory (SET) with Self-Determination Theory (SDT), therefore offering a more complete knowledge of how empowering leadership affects employees at both the individual and team levels.

SDT emphasises the importance of autonomous motivation in explaining employee knowledge-sharing behaviour, in response to Cahyaningrum (2023) and Gagné et al. (2019)'s call for more research into what influences employee knowledge-sharing behaviour from a self-determination perspective. According to SDT, individuals naturally attempt to meet three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Understanding how these three demands affect employee knowledge-sharing behaviour in the workplace may give significant insights (Gagné, Kanat-Maymon, Roche, & Tian, 2022).

On the hand side, social exchange theory (SET) has served as the framework for the majority of research on employee voice behaviour. According to SET, employees participate in reciprocal interactions in which they trade resources with others, and they are more likely to engage in good activities when they believe they are getting favourable treatment from their organisation or colleagues (Wang, Long, Yong, & He, 2018). Employees who feel encouraged and valued are more likely to express their thoughts, problems, or recommendations regarding work-related difficulties (Farndale, Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hailey, 2011).

In examining empowering leadership in MNCs in Nigeria, this study measures the quality of relationships between leaders and subordinates using Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), therefore aligning with the goal of this research. Although LMX is acknowledged as a useful theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), this study focusses on its function as a mediator, that explains the process through which the independent variables (empowering leadership)

influence the dependent variables (voice and knowledge sharing behaviours). Because LMX emphasises Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Social Exchange Theory (SET), the research does not look at LMX as a theory.

Emphasising employees' autonomy and competency, psychological empowerment is also utilised as a mediating variable (Deci & Ryan, 2000), in addition to organisational justice which focuses on perception of justice in the organisation. The study also examines how the variation in the quality of leader-member interactions within a team that could affect employees' experiences of leadership (LMX differentiation, or LMXD) (Henderson et al., 2009) and how the individualism- collectivism concept which reflects cultural orientations where individualism stresses personal aims and independence while collectivism concentrates on community goals and interdependence (Hofstede, 2011), acts as moderators that may influence the direction and degree of the interaction between empowering leadership and the employee behaviours.

1.2 THE NIGERIAN CONTEXT AND MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS

1.2.1 *Nigeria and Organisational Contexts*

Nigeria lies in the western region of the African continent and is viewed as one of the diversified nations in Africa (Falola & Heaton, 2008; Lewis, 2007; CIA World Factbook, 2017). It has borders with the Gulf of Guinea to the south, Benin to the west, Chad and Cameroon to the east, and Niger to the north (Library of Congress, 2008; Falola & Genova, 2009). Nigeria is the most populated nation in Africa, with a land area of over 923,769 square kilometres and a population of over 200 million in 2017 (World Bank, 2018; National Population Commission, 2018; United Nations, 2017). With a GDP of around \$362.81 billion in 2023, the Nigerian economy is diverse and developing, mostly dependent on oil and gas (International Monetary Fund, 2018; Central Bank of Nigeria, 2018; National Bureau of Statistics, 2018). Nigeria is governed by a federal system and was formed after British colonial authority on ended on October 1, 1960 (Falola & Heaton, 2008; Suberu, 2001; Diamond, 1988). In several northern states, the legal system is founded on a fusion of English common

law, customary law, and Sharia law (Ostien, 2007; Ali, 2010; Oba, 2011). Although over 500 indigenous languages are spoken in Nigeria, English is the official language (Ethnologue, 2017; Blench, 2019; Eberhard et al., 2020). The nation is a diverse religious society where indigenous African religions coexist with Islam and Christianity as the two most popular faiths (Paden, 2008; Falola, 1998; Ukah, 2007).

Though it still mostly depends on the oil and gas industry, the Nigerian economy is distinguished by its diversification and continuous expansion with a GDP of around \$362.81 billion in 2023. The oil and gas sector remains the engine of the economy, providing considerably to government income and foreign currency gains. Despite attempts to diversify, the petroleum sector's dominance highlights the country's economic susceptibility to global oil price variations (World Bank, 2023; National Bureau of Statistics, 2023; IMF, 2023). Key to Nigeria's long-term economic resilience and diversification plan, this dependence on oil and gas contrasts with a rising services sector and expanding agriculture industry (OECD, 2023; African Development Bank, 2023).

The activities of MNCs' (MNCs') in Nigeria reflect a complicated mix of significant hurdles and economic benefits. Major MNCs such as Shell, MTN, ExxonMobil, Chevron and Total primarily control key industries including oil and gas, construction, manufacturing, and telecommunications (Ite, 2004; Maiwada & Abubakar, 2019; Uduji & OkoloObasi, 2020). Although these organisations generate a lot of economic activity, their presence also begs important questions about economic development, community welfare, and environmental sustainability (Frynas, 2005; Idemudia, 2010; Andrew, 2023).

However, they provide significant contributions to Nigeria's GDP, primarily via investments in critical areas including oil and gas, telecommunications, manufacturing, and financial services. The oil and gas industry, which is dominated by MNCs such as Shell, ExxonMobil, Chevron, and Total, continues to be the largest contributor, accounting for more than 90% of Nigeria's foreign currency profits and around 65% of government income (World Bank, 2023; National Bureau of Statistics, 2023). With this industry alone accounting for a significant share of Nigeria's GDP, it is clear that the nation depends on these international

organisations for stability of its economy.

Apart from oil and gas, MNCs in the industrial and telecommunications sectors also greatly boost the economy. Organisations include MTN, Dangote Group (which has worldwide alliances), and Nestlé have extended their activities in Nigeria, thus increasing production, job creation, and technical transfer and so enhancing GDP growth (IMF, 2023; PwC, 2022). Though the full potential of these contributions is yet to be realised, MNCs have been especially helpful in the development of Nigeria's infrastructure, improving productivity and supporting attempts at economic diversification (African Development Bank, 2023; OECD, 2023).

The success and ethical operation of MNCs depend critically on their internal dynamics, especially in respect to organisational behaviour, leadership, and employee empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Uduji & Okolo-Obasi, 2022; Spreitzer, 1995). Nonetheless, the cultural scene of Nigeria, marked by high power distance, collectivism, and strong traditional values, greatly affects employee behaviours and leadership style within organisations (Hofstede, 2001; Akporherhe, 2002; Adetunji & Ogunsiji, 2022).

The high-power distance suggests that hierarchical systems are firmly ingrained with a clear separation between leaders and subordinates (Hofstede, 2001; Aycan, 2006; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). This cultural standard makes it difficult for empowering leadership to be implemented as it relies on lowering hierarchical obstacles and supporting employee autonomy (Pearce et al., 2003; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001.). Moreover, group harmony and loyalty take front stage in collectivist countries such as Nigeria above personal success. Thus, this collectivist perspective can both be helpful and detrimental to empowering leadership (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004; Triandis, 1995; Erez & Earley, 1993.). this is because on the one hand, one may argue that the focus on group cohesiveness creates a conducive

climate for team-based empowerment projects (Earley, 1994; Chen et al., 2007) and on the other hand it might also suggest that employees are better suited to doing what they

are told to do than acting autonomously, therefore restricting the efficacy of empowering leadership (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004).

Furthermore, Nigerian organisations have hierarchical and bureaucratic systems that may hinder innovation and development (Tlaiss & Elamin, 2015; Ubeku, 1983; Okpara, 2006). It is therefore important that organisational leaders change from the conventional top-down controlling style of leadership to a more inclusive and participatory type such as the empowering leadership style (Arnold et al., 2000; Yukl, 2002). In Nigerian organisations where the traditional leadership models are still dominant, this might pose major difficulties (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Ezigbo, 2012).

Notwithstanding these difficulties, existing research indicates that in Nigerian organisations, empowering leadership could provide favourable results. Studies of empowering leadership, for example, show that it may improve employee engagement, job happiness, and performance (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013; Amabile et al., 2004; Spreitzer, 1995). These studies, however, sometimes stress the importance of leaders striking a balance between empowerment and direction and assistance to properly negotiate the complexity of the Nigerian work environment (Walumbwa et al., 2010; Avolio et al., 2004; Adeyemi, 2020).

1.2.2 Nigeria a Collectivist Country

Nigeria is a collectivist country, where community ideals significantly influence social, family, and organisational relationships (Salifu, 2018). Emphasising collective above individual, collectivism supports interdependence, loyalty, and social cohesiveness by means of its emphasis on Extended family structures where kinship networks beyond the nuclear family to provide social and financial support are very important in Nigerian culture (Adegboyega & Asaolu, 2016). These collectivist principles pervade not just family ties but also workplaces, where group accountability and shared decision-making take front stage (Nwankwo, 2012).

While individualism stresses personal aims, liberty, and independence, collectivism encourages the well-being of the collective, which determines Nigerian

employment behaviour, leadership, and corporate culture (Triandis, 2020). Although collectivism encourages group allegiance and collaborative activity (Oyserman et al., 2021), individualism frequently represents self-reliance and personal accomplishment. Respect of hierarchical structures and collective decision-making is highly appreciated in a collectivist culture such as Nigeria, which shapes organisational behaviour and leadership styles by means of this value (Ovadjie & Ankomah, 2001; Kiggundu, 1989).

However, operationalising individualism-collectivism at the personal level instead of the national level lets one have a more complex knowledge of employee behaviour within MNCs (Fischer et al., 2020; Oyserman & Lee, 2022). This approach to operationalising individualism-collectivism allows researchers consider individual differences in cultural orientations, which might vary even in a predominantly collectivist nation such as Nigeria (Triandis, 2020; Kagitcibasi, 2020). Focussing on personal-level characteristics helps one to better understand how employees negotiate workplace dynamics and react to leadership styles and qualities that could be missed in national-level studies (Gelfand et al., 2021; Kirkman et al., 2021).

Although Nigeria is often seen as a collectivist nation, this research emphasises the individual differences impacted by elements like urbanisation, education, and exposure to outside cultures (Ukiwo, 2005). Younger generations and those living in cities like Lagos and Abuja are especially embracing individualistic tendencies like giving personal achievement and professional progress top priority (Falola & Heaton, 2008).

Thus, an understanding of individualism and collectivism at the individual level in Nigeria helps one to see how employees negotiate group dynamics, power relations, and workplace policies within a collectivist framework (Triandis, 2020; Nwankwo, 2012; Oyserman & Lee, 2022). This operationalisation guarantees that in Nigeria's varied and changing corporate environment, cultural complexity is included into leadership and organisational behaviour research (Hofstede Insight 2021; Falola & Heaton, 2008).

1.2.3 Empirical studies on Empowering leadership and Employees' behaviours in Nigeria

Empowering leadership, which involves giving authority, promoting independence,

and creating a supportive atmosphere, is widely acknowledged as a crucial element in improving employee behaviour in various organisational settings worldwide (Srivastava et al., 2006; Arnold et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2011). Nevertheless, the implementation and influence of AI in Nigerian organisations provide unique difficulties and possibilities. The cultural elements often seen in Nigeria, such as a large power gap and a focus on collectivism, have a substantial impact on the way leadership is perceived and on the behaviours of employees (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). In cultures with high power distance, such as Nigeria, there is a strong presence of hierarchical institutions and authority is often concentrated, which makes it more challenging to execute empowering leadership (Hofstede, 1980; Aycan, 2006). Notwithstanding these difficulties, recent research suggests that Nigerian organisations are increasingly embracing empowering leadership. They are realising the importance of participative and inclusive leadership styles in promoting innovation and adaptability (Obiekwe, 2020; Uche, 2021; Amabile et al., 2004).

The connection between empowering leadership and employee behaviour in Nigeria is complex and impacted by many moderating and mediating variables. Trust in leadership has a crucial role in mediating the link between empowering leadership and employee performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). Ogunlana and Sheriff (2020) assert that establishing trust is crucial for the successful execution of empowering leadership. They propose that leaders should prioritise actions aimed at developing trust to fully harness the advantages of this leadership approach. Moreover, psychological empowerment, including beliefs of competence, autonomy, and meaningfulness, is very significant in this context (Spreitzer, 1995, Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Oke and Akinbode (2021) discovered that employees who experienced psychological empowerment were more inclined to participate in creative behaviours, highlighting the need of fostering an atmosphere that promotes psychological empowerment (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Liden et al., 2000).

An analysis of individual sectors in Nigeria demonstrates the diverse effects of empowering leadership in different industries. The oil and gas business, characterised by its

hierarchical and bureaucratic structure, presents considerable obstacles to the implementation of empowering leadership. However, Adewale and Akanbi (2020) found that in this traditionally inflexible sector, empowering leadership can boost team collaboration and enhance safety outcomes. This suggests that the benefits of empowering leadership can go beyond industry-specific obstacles when adapted to the organisational context (Wong & Laschinger, 2013; Ahearne et al., 2005). On the other hand, the education sector provides a contrasting situation. Ajayi and Olatunji (2021) found that when university administrators exhibit empowering leadership, it results in higher levels of job satisfaction and improved academic performance among employees. This suggests that the positive effects of empowering leadership are not limited to corporate environments but also apply to educational institutions. This is supported by previous studies conducted by Blase and Blase (1999) and Tschannen- Moran (2009).

Gender dynamics have a notable impact on how empowering leadership is seen and practiced in Nigerian organisations. Conventional gender norms may impact how people interact in the workplace, which can pose difficulties for women in leadership positions who embrace empowering leadership approaches (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Nkomo & Ngambi, 2009). Nevertheless, a study conducted by Nwankwo et al. (2021) suggests that female leaders who implement empowering leadership strategies can overcome these obstacles and attain significant levels of employee engagement and performance. This emphasises the necessity of comprehending the intricate dynamics of gender in leadership and providing support to female leaders in adopting empowering approaches, as emphasised by Chin (2004) and Ely et al. (2011).

Training and development are essential for effectively implementing empowering leadership in the Nigerian environment. Ugwoke and Eze (2021) highlight the significance of leadership development programs that prioritise the enhancement of skills in delegation, communication, and emotional intelligence. These programs may train executives to provide a nurturing atmosphere that encourages employee independence and creativity, while also dealing with the specific cultural and organisational difficulties in Nigeria (Day, 2000;

Bass & Riggio, 2006).

In the framework of MNCs in Nigeria, analysing the effect of empowering leadership on employees' voice and knowledge-sharing practices offers insightful analysis of organisational dynamics and external factors affecting employee engagement (Zhang et al., 2022; Spreitzer et al., 2018; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015). This is because, empowering leadership which stresses individual autonomy, decision-making involvement, and is widely seen as a fundamental driver of employee behaviours like expressing ideas and sharing knowledge is still underexplored in the African context where cultural background greatly shapes leadership dynamics (Kundu & Mor, 2022; Chanda & Tembo, 2019; Kim & Beehr, 2018).

Although there are existing studies in Nigeria such as Anyim, Ikemefuna, and Mbah (2011) and Ikyanyon, Johnson, and Dawson (2020), that have highlighted have identified specific failures and deficiencies in human resources management within both public and private sectors, this research, however, mostly concentrated on managerial shortcomings instead of investigating how they can affect workplace employee behaviour. Consequently, studies on how empowering leadership influences employees' voice and knowledge-sharing practices especially in collectivist societies like Nigeria show considerable gaps.

Furthermore, previous studies on organisational leadership in Nigeria have mostly focused on several leadership styles including visionary, autocratic, servant, and transactional (Ab Abdullahi et al., 2020; Amah, 2018). Further research in empowering leadership, according to Obiekwe and Ugoani (2022), improved employees' resilience and adaptation in Nigerian financial institutions, hence improving employees' capacity to negotiate the erratic economic environment of the nation. Comparably, Iheriohanma and Oguejiofor (2020) found that work satisfaction and organisational commitment in Nigerian telecom companies were much raised by inspiring leadership. Their study underlined that keeping employees and lowering turnover in Nigeria's fast changing telecoms industry depend on empowering leadership (Obiekwe & Ugoani, 2022; Iheriohanma & Oguejiofor, 2020).

These studies including the study by Edosomwan, Oguegbe, and Ogechukwu (2023) which investigated the link between employee well-being and empowering leadership, neglected the indirect links or cultural border issues that may influence these relationships. This study seeks to expand on their results by looking at the direct and indirect consequences of empowering leadership on employee actions and how individualist and collectivist views affect employee participation and leadership dynamics.

1.2.4 Challenges in Implementing Empowering Leadership in MNCs in Nigeria

Given the varied legal, economic, infrastructure, and cultural scene in Nigeria, applying empowering leadership MNCs poses some challenges. While empowering leadership fosters autonomy, engagement, and creativity, changing these approaches to fit the complicated context calls for careful preparation and adaptability (Osei, 2020; Burhan, 2023).

One of the main challenges is the different regulatory structure used in Africa, which differs greatly across nations. Even in regional economic communities like Southern African Development Community (SADC) or the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), MNCs have to negotiate many labour laws, environmental standards, and corporate governance rules (Osei, 2020). For example, labour rules in South Africa vary from those in Nigeria and Kenya, therefore complicating the use of a unified leadership style (Jung et al., 2020). Although empowering leadership decentralises decision-making and offers flexibility, the necessity to constantly adjust to changing regulatory environments may lead to inconsistent leadership tactics, therefore diminishing the efficacy of the method (Jung et al., 2020).

Economic uncertainty adds even another level of difficulty. Political unrest, currency volatility, and reliance on commodities markets cause regular swings in African economies including Nigeria's (Adeoye, 2019). Although local decision-making under empowering leadership is appropriate for uncertain circumstances, economic downturns might push organisational leaders to use more control-oriented approaches to maintain stability. This conflict might lessen the effect of empowering leadership and hence reduce the autonomy usually encouraged by it (Adeoye, 2019).

Furthermore, greatly impairing business operations in Nigeria are infrastructure shortcomings like inadequate transportation, inconsistent energy, and insufficient access to current technologies (Amoako, 2021). These obstacles restrict the ability of local managers capacity for autonomy and create solutions for some problem, requiring empowering leadership to be flexible. Consequently, organisational leaders would need to provide the tools and resources managers need to properly negotiate infrastructure limitations (Mwangi & Wambugu, 2021).

Ultimately, the cultural variety of Nigeria adds further complexity. Many African countries stress hierarchical leadership and authority, which runs counter to the ideas of empowering leadership that advance equality and autonomy (Wang & Yang, 2021; Zulu & Parumasur, 2019). Under such circumstances, employees might object to the autonomy given by empowering leadership, seeing it as a loss of leader's authority (Chanda & Tembo, 2019). For example, empowering leadership promoted innovation in South African companies, but it also ran into opposition in companies with strong hierarchical systems (Zulu & Parumasur, 2019).

Finally, applying empowering leadership in MNCs in Nigeria calls for a strategy that considers the regulatory, financial, infrastructure, and cultural issues particular to the area and calls for strategic flexibility and contextual adaptation.

1.2.5 Gaps in Empowering Leadership Literature in MNCs in Nigeria

Empowering leadership is increasingly seen as a critical aspect in improving employee outcomes and organisational success, especially in MNCs in Nigeria's where there is complex and dynamic environment (Adeyemi & Adebayo, 2021; Nwankwo & al., 2022; Obiekwe & Ugoani, 2022). However, empirical research on empowering leadership is still lacking and the literature lags greatly when compared to the many studies done in areas like North America and Europe, where the effects of empowering leadership on organisational outcomes are well-documented (Dust et al., 2018; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015).

Research already conducted in Nigeria mostly addresses how empowering leadership affects organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and workforce motivation.

Adeyemi and Adebayo (2021), for instance, investigated how empowering leadership may affect Nigerian manufacturing sector employee productivity and work satisfaction. Their results showed that empowering leadership promotes a feeling of ownership and responsibility, which results in better performance.

By looking at the impact of empowering leadership on team performance and patient care in Nigeria's healthcare industry, Nwankwo et al. (2022) expanded this study. Their research showed that empowering leadership improved patient outcomes and team cohesiveness, therefore stressing the need of the leadership style in fostering collaboration and shared decision-making in high-stress situations like healthcare.

Furthermore, Obiekwe and Ugoani (2022) investigated the association between employee resilience in Nigerian financial institutions and empowering leadership. Their study showed that empowering leaders helped employees to adjust to the unpredictable financial environment of Nigeria. The research also highlighted drawbacks, like the regulatory complexity that often calls for a more hands-on leadership style, which may thus lessen the autonomy that is fundamental in empowering leadership.

Notwithstanding these advances, the literature still shows inadequacies. Most research concentrated on specific sectors, including manufacturing or healthcare, ignoring the wider spectrum of sectors that are essential to Nigeria's economy including oil and gas, telecoms, technology, and FMCG. Moreover, a lot of the current studies are cross-sectional, therefore restricting our knowledge of the long-term consequences of empowering leadership. While longitudinal research is essential to grasp how empowering leadership affects employee behaviour and organisational results over lengthy periods, cross-sectional studies capture leadership effects at a particular moment in time (van knippenberg & sitkin, 2022; Shamir et al., 2021).

The lack of longitudinal research is a critical gap, since empowering leadership is expected to have cumulative benefits that emerge over (Xu et al., 2024; Yukl, 2022). Understanding these temporal dynamics is critical for establishing methods that can maintain the good effects of empowering leadership in the long term (Zhou et al., 2021; Deci & Ryan,

2020).

This current study aimed to address these gaps by conducting a longitudinal examination of empowering leadership across nine economic sectors in Nigeria including oil and gas, telecommunications, technology, FMCG, consultancy, pharmaceuticals, and hospitality. This research also provided insights into the temporal dynamics of empowering leadership and how its impacts on employee behaviour and organisational results change over time by collecting data over a three-month period. By addressing the shortcomings of cross-sectional research, this longitudinal approach provided a more comprehensive knowledge of the sustainability and long-term effects of empowering leadership in Nigerian MNCs.

1.3 PURPOSE AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The goal of this research is to examine the influence of empowering leadership on employee behaviours, with a particular emphasis on voice and knowledge sharing MNCs operating in Nigeria. The study's goal is to improve the existing knowledge on the relationships between empowering leadership and employee extra-role workplace behaviours in a range of cultural and organisational contexts by examining mediators (LMX, psychological empowerment, and organisational justice) and moderators (Cultural variation and LMXD).

In this study the researcher employs research methods, such as a multilevel analysis, as well as theories such as self-determination theory and social exchange theory, to provide an understanding on how leadership works and the effects it has on an organisation's effectiveness and employee engagement in MNC settings.

Numerous research (e.g., Lee et al., 2018; Jada & Mukhopadhyay, 2018; Arnold et al., 2000; Wu and Lee, 2016; Li et al., 2017; Raub & Robert, 2013) have investigated the link between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviours (employee voice and knowledge sharing). However, the influence of psychological aspects such as psychological empowerment and leader-member interaction has gotten little attention. Furthermore, the

majority of studies (Wang et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2020; Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; O'Donnell et al., 2012; Makwetta et al., 2021; Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Arnold et al., 2000) that have investigated these constructs in relation to empowering leadership and employees' voice or knowledge sharing behaviours have done so at the individual-level rather than using a multi-level approach.

Yukl & Fu (1999) and Zhang & Bartol (2010) found that it is critical to examine the role of psychological empowerment on several levels. These studies suggest that leaders' empowering activities might be connected to non-role behaviours in the workplace, such as voice habits. However, research in this area remains limited. Furthermore, the team-focused framework widespread in contemporary businesses has sparked debate regarding the role of organisational leaders in influencing organisational outcomes, including extra-role behaviours, at both the group and individual levels (Auh et al., 2014).

As a consequence, this research specifically states that empowering leadership behaviours would be visible at both the dyadic (individual-focused empowering leadership) and team levels (differentiated empowering leadership behaviours). As a result, we expect organisational leaders to model empowering behaviours that encourage employees to participate in individual voice and knowledge sharing, as well as to take a variety of empowering actions towards different team members based on their abilities and personalities.

Furthermore, while some authors in Sub-Saharan Africa have investigated employee voice behaviours and knowledge sharing, the emphasis has primarily been on structural aspects, macro-contextual factors such as culture and labour, and their impact on employee and organisational performance (Akinwale, 2019; Ebimobowei et al., 2019; Emelifeonwu & Valk, 2019; Okonkwo, 2018). Although some studies have looked into the relationship between servant leadership style and employee turnover, no one has looked specifically at the relationship between empowerment and employees' voice and knowledge sharing behaviours in the sub-Saharan region, particularly in Nigeria. This research gap is significant given Nigeria's 75% unemployment rate, which may influence employees' perceptions of

engaging in employee voice and knowledge sharing behaviours as risky behaviours that could result in job loss or position replacement by another employee with similar abilities.

In light of the challenging and ambiguous nature of extra-role behaviours, employees frequently regard voice behaviour as a logical approach to evaluating potential hazards or benefits in the work environment (Morrison, 2014). Moreover, the necessity of autonomous motivation and sensitivity to self-interest for employees to exhibit these types of extra-role behaviours, such as speaking out on organisational issues or sharing knowledge, has been argued in previous studies (Liu et al., 2010; Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison, 2014; Casimir et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2017).

Furthermore, researchers have underlined the importance of employee psychological empowerment as a source of independent motivation that may lead to extra-role employee actions in the workplace (Frazier & Fainshmidt, 2012; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Raub & Robert, 2012). Previous research on psychological empowerment suggests that it plays a crucial role in employees' voice and knowledge sharing. For instance, studies by Kang et al. (2020) and Tripathi & Bharadwaja (2020) support this notion. Therefore, psychological empowerment can be utilised as a variable to better understand the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' voice. Empirical research, based on Self-Determination Theory, show that autonomy, competence, and relatedness play a vital role in human functioning. These studies establish a connection between psychological empowerment and various beneficial organisational behaviours and results. This connection is influenced by the empowering activities of leaders, as shown by Kim and Gupta (2014).

This study challenges the existing research by proposing an indirect relationship between empowering leadership and employees' behaviours, specifically their tendency to voice their opinions in the workplace and share knowledge. Recent studies have repeatedly shown a clear link between empowering leadership and employee's behaviours like information sharing and opinion expression. Dong et al. (2020), for instance, and Xue et al. (2020) observed that empowering leaders who gave autonomy and support improved employees' willingness to participate in voice behaviours and information sharing by thus

creating psychological safety and trust. Driven by higher work satisfaction and intrinsic motivation, Kim and Beehr (2020) and Amundsen and Martinsen (2020) also shown that empowering leadership directly enhanced employees' proactive communication and knowledge-sharing activities. This research, however, investigated an indirect association and proposed that the quality of leader-member interaction (LMX) moderated these behaviours. It specifically argued that employees' views of their connection with their leader developed via empowerment, encouragement, and career opportunities affected their readiness to share information and express opinions (Li et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020). Using SET, this study argued that employees who felt a high-quality exchange with their leader responded more actively, thus reciprocating empowering leadership behaviours (Tuan, 2020; Farh & Chen, 2020). Thus, the indirect mechanism via LMX clarified the complex influence of empowering leadership on employee behaviour.

The research argued that empowering leaders' activities have an impact on employees' voice and information sharing behaviour. This effect is mediated by the high-quality work connection between employees and their leaders, which in turn fosters autonomous motivation for speaking out or sharing knowledge. The study seeks to create a structure for enhancing leadership by investigating these psychological processes that operate across many levels. This aligns with the suggestion made by Avolio and Gardner (2005) and Luthans and Avolio (2003) for doing comprehensive research in the field of leadership. To do this, the researcher adopted a multi-level study to examine the impact of empowering leadership on voice and information sharing behaviours.

The study also investigated how psychological empowerment, organisational justice and LMX served as mediators, and how LMXD and the individualism- collectivism construct acts as a moderator. This work makes a significant contribution to the theoretical understanding of how opinions are expressed and offers valuable insights for addressing organisational issues in international companies, particularly in the sub-Saharan African region, where there is a lack of research in this field.

1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND QUESTIONS

This study aims to examine the impact of empowering leadership behaviours on employees' voice and knowledge sharing behaviours in multinational organisations in Nigeria. The study seeks to examine the processes by which leader-membership exchange, psychological empowerment, and organisational justice are influenced by leader-membership exchange differentiation and cultural variation to stimulate knowledge sharing and voice behaviours as a result of empowering leadership behaviours.

This research aims to fill a gap in current literature by providing a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between empowering leadership and employee behaviours in different cultural and organisational contexts, particularly within the Nigerian multinational corporation (MNC) setting.

In order to do this, the study will answer the following research questions:

Research question RQ1: What is the role of leader-member exchange, psychological empowerment, and organisational justice, in the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' voice/knowledge sharing behaviours in MNCs in Nigeria.

Research question RQ2: Does cultural variation (individualism-collectivism) and leader-member exchange differentiation moderate the effects of employees' perception of empowering leadership on employees' perception of leader-member exchange, psychological empowerment, and organisational justice?

Research question RQ3: Does the moderation effect lead to a moderated mediation in the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' voice/knowledge sharing behaviours?

1.5 SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGY

This thesis addressed the three research questions above using a two-study approach where data were collected using a longitudinal approach. The study adopted a large-scale quantitative survey-based study of 213 employees nested in 21 teams from 11

eleven organisations from 9 economic sectors in Nigeria.

Employing a two-study methodology, with Study One being a single-level research and study Two being a multi-level study, allowed for a thorough understanding of the studied variables (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). This approach is beneficial because it enabled the researcher to first identify and analyse the effects of the variables of interest at the individual-level before delving into more intricate interactions at group level and cross levels effect thereby enhancing the validity and reliability of the research process and findings (Snijders & Bosker, 2011).

In study one only data collected in time one was used in investigating the relationship between empowering leadership and employees voice and knowledge sharing behaviours in the presence of psychological empowerment and organisational justice as mediators and cultural variation (individualism-collectivism) as a moderator of the relationship between empowering leadership and the mediators.

While in study 2 a multi and cross level analysis was carried out using data collected in Time one and Time two. In this study, the objective was to use a longitudinal design to examine the effect of empowering leadership on the knowledge- sharing and voice behaviours of employees over time. In order to effectively depict the dynamics of these relationships, this approach was chosen. The necessity to establish causal relationships, understand mediating mechanisms, and convey the complexity of organisational behaviour across various levels was the focus in testing data collected at Time 1 against data collected at Time 2.

The examination of temporal effects, which is a critical component of establishing causative relationships, was facilitated by testing data across two time periods. The researcher was able to establish temporal precedence, a critical criterion for causality, by collecting data at Time 1 on empowering leadership and subsequent employee behaviours at Time 2. This criterion aids in determining whether leadership practices at the initial point result in changes in employee behaviours over time. By illustrating temporal precedence, Maxwell and Cole (2007) emphasised the significance of longitudinal designs in the

establishment of causality. They contended that these designs were more appropriate for capturing the cause-and-effect relationships that cross-sectional studies frequently neglected. Thus, longitudinal studies offer a more rigorous framework for causal inference by observing changes within the same subjects over time (Balte & Nesselrode, 1979; Ferrer & McArdle, 2010).

1.6 PROPOSED RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

1.6.1 *Theoretical Contributions*

This research significantly contributes to the theoretical understanding of employee behaviour and leadership by merging Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Social Exchange Theory (SET) to create an empowering leadership paradigm. While these two ideas have been thoroughly researched separately, when combined, they provide a more complete framework for understanding the dynamics of knowledge sharing and employee voice behaviours

To begin, SDT gives insight into the fundamental reasons that influence employee behaviours (Chirkov et al., 2003; Vansteenkiste et al., 2020). It emphasises the need of meeting fundamental psychological requirements such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness in order to increase employee engagement and proactive behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 2000) activities, which build a feeling of autonomy and empowerment (Deci et al., 2017).

On the other hand, SET provides a unique viewpoint by emphasising the reciprocal nature of social interactions (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Recent studies by Chughtai et al. (2023) and Arif et al. (2022) shows that employees exhibit knowledge sharing and voice behaviours in the expectation of reciprocal incentives such as appreciation, support, and trust.

While SDT and SET have been beneficial in explaining certain elements of employee behaviours, their combination offers a fresh way to understanding the whole range of motivating factors that stimulate these behaviours (Deci et al., 2020; Garg & Dhar, 2022;

Saleem et al., 2023). This study provides a comprehensive understanding of how empowering leadership may impact employee behaviours by integrating SDT's focus on intrinsic motivation with SET's emphasis on social interactions. This integration enables a more in-depth assessment of both internal and external motivators that motivate employees to share knowledge and exhibit voice behaviours. Employees, for example, may engage in knowledge-sharing activities not only because they are intrinsically satisfying (SDT), but also because they anticipate positive reciprocation from their peers (SET) (Vlachopoulos et al., 2021; Chen & Xu, 2019).

Finally, the theoretical findings from this research will not only contribute to an expanded understanding of employees' motivation to exhibit extra-role workplace behaviours, but they also have practical implications for multinational organisations aiming to enhance leadership practices and employee engagement. This work pushes the theoretical frontiers of employee behaviour and empowering leadership, creating new avenues for future investigation and application in organisational situations (Sungu et al., 2019; Zapata et al., 2013; Kong & Ho, 2016; Zhang et al., 2022).

1.6.2 Practical Contributions

The present study expands upon the work of Avolio et al. (2009), which demonstrated the significance of transformational leadership in influencing employee engagement, performance, and organisational culture. This research, which puts more emphasis on empowering leadership than Avolio et al.'s transformative leadership, offers insights into how employees' autonomy and interactions may improve employees' outcomes. The study is especially applicable to sub-Saharan Africa, where distinct organisational, cultural, and economic obstacles call for a modified approach to leadership. The study provides insights on how organisational leaders may transcend conventional hierarchies to establish supportive corporate cultures that encourage employees' innovation and engagement by using empowering leadership strategies. By offering a sophisticated understanding of how empowering leadership may be modified and used in diverse contexts to promote organisational success, this study aims to close that knowledge gap.

The present study aligns with other studies that used a similar methodology (e.g., Kim, Beehr, & Prewett, 2018; Wang, Zhang, Li, & Henry, 2022). According to research by Kim et al. (2018), empowering leadership may greatly lower workplace stress and increase employees' job satisfaction. Similar findings were made by Wang et al. (2022), who looked at how empowering leadership affected team dynamics and found that it promoted a cooperative atmosphere that encouraged open communication and group decision-making. These studies support the idea that leaders who empower their teams may effect significant organisational change by demonstrating the beneficial effects of empowering leadership on a range of employee outcomes. Expanding upon these previous studies, the current research aims to provide additional insight into the methods by which empowering leadership can be successfully applied in various cultural and organisational contexts, by focusing on MNCs sub-Saharan Africa, thereby contributing to the global conversation on leadership and organisational development.

1.7 THESIS STRUCTURE

Chapter One: Introduction

The chapter sets the scene for the study, giving an understanding of the subject of empowering leadership and why it is important in several organisations today, especially Nigerian MNCs. The chapter also shows the problem statement, the research aims, and the importance of the study in filling the existing gap in the literature. Further, the Introduction presents the layout of the thesis to inform the reader of the expected chapters.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This section, Literature Review, examines the study's theoretical underpinnings, primarily focusing on Empowering Leadership Theory. It discusses empowering leadership and the understanding of the relationship between leadership and employee behaviours as it highlights the importance of empowering leadership in stimulating extra-role behaviours.

Furthermore, this chapter reviews the prior research on empowering leadership, compares empowering leadership and other leadership styles, and provides a justification

for the focus on leadership in this study.

Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Development

This chapter provides a rationale for the selection of theories that form the basis for the relationships depicted in Figure 1 and investigated in this study. This chapter specifically uses self-determination theory and social exchange theory to theoretically ground the relationships depicted in Figure 1 and provides a justification for their integration in explaining employees' voice and knowledge sharing behaviours.

The chapter elaborates on these concepts and the extant literature to clarify the hypotheses formulated and scrutinised in the current study. The theoretical framework and hypothesis development.

Chapter Four: Methodology

In this chapter, the research philosophy, and main philosophical approaches in social science research – positivism and interpretivism is discussed . It further discusses the justification for the post-positivist approach that was selected as the basis for this thesis and the methodological fit of the research design in the quantitative research approach undertaken

Further on, this chapter provides a detailed discussion of the participant selection, data collection processes and measurements scales while outlining how study 1 and study 2 were conducted. A critical justification for the multilevel analysis approach in investigating empowering leadership at the individual and team levels will also be discussed . finally , the chapter describes the data analysis plan including a description of statistical tools, algorithms and software used in the study.

Chapter Five: Result for Study One

This chapter describes the methodology and the results of Study 1. This study examined (i) the empowering leadership – employees' extra role (voice and knowledge sharing) relationship at the individual level using psychological empowerment, and perceptions of organisational justice at the individual level as mediators and (ii) the individual-level moderating role of individualism-collectivism on the empowering leadership –

employees' extra role (voice and knowledge sharing) relationship.

This chapter further describes the sample, data collection procedure, measures, and data analytic techniques, while also highlighting the use of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) and Hayes process through SPSS add-on to fit multilevel mediation and moderation as the primary data analytic techniques.

Chapter Six: Result for Study Two

This chapter describes the methodology and the results of Study 2. This study extends research one by investigating empowering leadership - employees extra role (voice and knowledge sharing) relationship looking at the empowering leadership at the team level and a cross-level effect of the team-level empowering leadership on individual-level extra role behaviours as mediated by individual-level psychological empowerment, perceptions of leaders' members exchange and perceptions of organisational justice.

This chapter further describes the sample, data collection procedure, measures, and data analytic techniques, while also highlighting the use of confirmatory

factor analyses (CFA) and MLmed (Rockwood, 2017), an SPSS add-on that can be used to fit multilevel mediation and moderation as the primary data analytic techniques.

Chapter Seven: General Discussion

This chapter pulls together the various components of the thesis. Specifically, it will provide a summary of findings of the two studies , theoretical implications, and practical implications. It will also discuss the limitations of the study and recommendations for future Research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO KEY VARIABLES

Leadership philosophies have a big influence on employee behaviour and organisational performance in today's fast-paced corporate world. Empowering leadership has become a critical strategy for cultivating a healthy and productive work culture. It centres on power sharing and encouraging employee autonomy. As a result, this chapter offers a thorough analysis of the literature on empowering leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Organisational Justice, LMX, LMXD, and Employees knowledge sharing and voice behaviours , looking at its theoretical underpinnings, application scenarios, and effects on employee behaviour on both an individual and team basis.

2.2 CONCEPT OF EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP

2.2.1 *Definition*

Empowering leadership is a leadership style that involves sharing authority with subordinates in order to increase their intrinsic motivation and performance (Srivastava et al., 2006). It focusses on encouraging employee engagement, involvement, autonomy, decision-making, sharing information, and transferring power and responsibility (Na-Nan et al., 2020; Semedo et al., 2022). The major purpose of empowering leadership is to promote psychological empowerment, a motivating notion linked to effectiveness (Li et al., 2022). This leadership style emphasises dedication to performance, broad involvement in decision-making, and work orientation in order to achieve high performance (Shahab et al., 2018).

Empowering leadership is related with a variety of favourable results. For example, it has been shown to boost work performance via psychological empowerment (Kundu et al., 2019). Empowering leadership fosters a feeling of ownership and responsibility among employees, encouraging change-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour, which is critical for organisational adaptation and innovation (Li et al., 2016). Furthermore, empowering leadership encourages knowledge-sharing practices, which are essential for organisational learning and competitive advantage (Cormican et al., 2021). The facilitation of

knowledge sharing within teams is especially important because it contributes to the development of a collaborative culture that capitalises on collective expertise (Xue et al., 2011).

In the context of MNCs operating in Nigeria, empowering leadership may be critical in managing the local environment's specific obstacles and might assist to solve these difficulties by encouraging ethical conduct, transparency, and accountability inside businesses (Li et al., 2016). Furthermore, focussing on psychological empowerment may boost employees' engagement and motivation, resulting in improved adherence to ethical standards and environmental policies.

2.2.1.1. Empowering Leadership at the individual Level.

Individual-level empowerment is defined as a leader's conscious attempts to share power, distribute authority, and create autonomy among their subordinates. This leadership style has been demonstrated to dramatically increase psychological empowerment, which includes employees' perceptions of competence, autonomy, influence, and meaningfulness (Hao et al., 2017; Kundu et al., 2019). Psychological empowerment is critical in shaping how employees perceive their roles within the

organisation, as research consistently shows that empowering individuals have higher levels of job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and work engagement (Li & Zhang, 2016; Kim & Beehr, 2018).

In previous research, leaders who actively empower their subordinates by giving them more autonomy and decision-making authority see a significant rise in psychological empowerment. This is especially clear in the study of Hao et al. (2017), who discovered that employees who see their leaders as empowering have a higher feeling of competence and self-efficacy, which leads to better job performance and innovation. Kundu et al. (2019) provide more evidence for this link, stating that empowering leadership generates a work climate in which employees feel trusted and respected, increasing their drive to contribute meaningfully to organisational objectives.

The relationship between empowering leadership and job satisfaction has been

extensively researched, with results revealing a substantial positive association between both. According to Kim and Beehr (2018), employees who work under empowering leadership report considerably greater levels of job satisfaction owing to the increased autonomy and responsibility they have in their positions. Similarly, Li and Zhang (2016) discovered that the feeling of empowerment that comes with this leadership style not only increases work satisfaction but also promotes organisational commitment, lowering turnover intentions. This evidence demonstrates that empowering leadership is critical to fostering a healthy work environment that supports employee well-being and retention.

Empowering leadership is also important for developing individual creativity and innovation. According to Srivastava et al. (2006), enabling leaders foster a culture of creative problem-solving and innovation by allowing employees to explore new ideas and take initiative. This is especially important in businesses that demand continual innovation and adaptation, where the capacity to think creatively and independently is critical to sustaining a competitive edge (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Li & Zhang, 2016). Empowering leaders offer employees with the liberty and trust they need to question the status quo and suggest new ideas,

The favourable impacts of empowering leadership on individual performance demonstrate its importance in fostering a high-performance culture inside organisations.

2.2.1.2. Empowering Leadership at the Team level.

Although empowering leadership has enormous benefits on individuals, it also creates extra dynamics and complexity at the team-level that have an equally big influence. In order to create a feeling of shared accountability and group ownership of tasks and results, leaders must consciously delegate control and decision-making authority to team members (Knippenberg et al., 2020; Aryee et al., 2019). Research has shown that using this strategy may greatly improve a team's reflexivity, or its capacity to evaluate and modify its tactics and procedures in response to evolving situations (Cui & Gui-lan, 2021; Lisak et al., 2022).

Empowering leadership has a good impact on team cooperation, communication, and coordination, as research has repeatedly shown. For example, Knippenberg et al. (2020)

discovered that empowering leaders encourage an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust, which increases the likelihood of successful communication and cooperation among their teams. For complicated activities requiring the integration of different abilities and viewpoints to be successfully completed, this collaborative setting is essential (Aryee et al., 2019; Cui & Gui-lan, 2021).

Furthermore, Srivastava et al. (2006) discovered that team members are more inclined to share information and skills when leaders empower their teams by promoting open communication and cooperative decision-making. This is because information sharing allows teams to use their combined experiences and insights to create new tactics and solutions, which is essential for innovation and continuous development (Siswanti & Muafi, 2020). This is further supported by research by Hsu et al. (2022), which shows that empowering leadership fosters engagement and collaborative team processes, both of which have a good impact on team creativity.

Consequently, Understanding the differences between empowering leadership at the individual and team levels is critical for leaders who want to foster a culture of empowerment and excellence in their organisations. Recognising the distinct implications and consequences associated with each level allows leaders to modify their tactics to successfully empower both employees and teams, resulting in organisational success in a dynamic and competitive corporate environment. The research given in this study emphasises the crucial role that empowering leadership plays in improving individual and team results, making it a necessary component of good organisational leadership.

2.2.2 Dimensions of empowering leadership

In social science literature, different dimensions of empowering leadership have been adopted. Arnold et al. (2000) first highlighted five main characteristics of empowering leadership behaviour: setting a good example, making participatory decisions, guiding, informing, and paying attention to others. This framework promotes a comprehensive approach to leadership that includes personal example, inclusive decision-making procedures, direct direction, effective communication, and a reciprocal emphasis on

relationships. Arnold et al.'s (2000) approach offers a complete view that emphasises the value of reciprocal influence and active engagement in leadership positions. This model has been thoroughly verified and remains the core of leadership research (Konczak et al., 2000; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014).

Subsequently, Pearce and Sims (2002) expanded the conceptualisation to include six components: encouraging employees to develop their skills, promoting employee autonomy, assisting employees in actively seeking opportunities, emphasising teamwork, setting reasonable goals, and strengthening employees' self-management. This model takes a wide and comprehensive approach, including both individual and communal components of empowerment, and emphasises the value of a supportive and goal-oriented leadership environment. The contribution of Pearce and Sims (2002) emphasises the multiple aspect of empowering leadership, emphasising leaders' roles in encouraging both individual and team growth.

Next was Ahearne et al. (2005) who categorised these behaviours into four dimensions: delegation of authority, participatory decision-making, confidence in subordinates, and increasing the meaning of work. Ahearne et al. (2005) focused on these characteristics to emphasise the importance of trust and deeper purpose in empowering leadership. This strategy places a minor focus on psychological empowerment, recognising that trust and meaningful work are essential for developing an empowering workforce. Ahearne et al.'s (2005) methodology is notable for its practical applications in improving employee engagement and performance.

Finally, Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) developed the notion, stating that autonomous and developmental support are the primary elements of leadership empowering behaviour. Their methodology focusses on two key supports: one that fosters autonomy and self-management, and another that facilitates growth and skill development. This viewpoint proposes a more simplified approach to empowering leadership, emphasising the need of balancing autonomy with developmental assistance. Their research has been crucial in emphasising the significance of customised leadership methods in various organisational

situations (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014).

Recent empirical research has helped to verify and broaden these concepts. For example, Lee and Chen (2022) discovered that empowering leadership behaviours, as measured by the 12-item scale derived from Arnold et al.'s (2000) model, significantly improve employee engagement and performance in remote work settings, demonstrating their relevance in the modern workplace. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2023) argued that empowering leadership increases employee creativity and proactive behaviours, which are critical for voice and knowledge sharing in global corporations (Zhang, 2023).-

For the purpose of this current study, the empowering leadership dimension developed by Ahearne et al.'s. (2005) model was adopted.

Adapting Ahearne et al.'s. (2005) model for the present investigation yields various persuasive arguments due to its robustness and comprehensiveness. This model is especially well-suited to investigating the impact of empowering leadership on employee behaviour, particularly in the context of multinational corporations (MNCs) operating in Nigeria.

The model presented four main elements of empowering leadership, delegation of power, participative decision-making, trust in subordinates, and redefining of work. These aspects provide a complete foundation for realising how leaders could actively empower their people, thereby improving the results of the company (Ahearne et al., 2005). Delegation of power is the process by which leaders provide responsibility to staff members therefore promoting autonomy and accountability (Zhang et al., 2020; Ahearne et al., 2005).

Participatory decision-making is the process of including staff members in organisational decision-making thereby encouraging a feeling of ownership and inclusion (Tang et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021). Confidence in subordinates demonstrates a leader's faith in employees' capacity to accomplish duties efficiently, therefore fostering self-efficacy among staff members (Walumbwa et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2020). Lastly, stressing the importance of work highlights the leader's responsibility in tying staff members' activities to a larger goal thus boosting their natural drive (Kim et al., 2021; Ahearne et al., 2005).

Modern leadership studies have adopted of the paradigm suggested by Ahearne et al. (2005) to look at how empowering leadership promotes good work practices. For example, Zhang et al. (2020) investigated how creative teams are inspired by empowering leaders using these aspects. Their results showed that employees' creative problem-solving capacity was much improved by participatory decision-making and authority delegation as they felt more engaged and driven to provide original ideas (Zhang et al., 2020). In a 2021 Kim et al. study, the dimension of increasing the meaning of work was found to significantly influence employees' work engagement and general job satisfaction, so supporting the theory that employees who see the wider relevance of their activities are more likely to perform at higher degrees (Kim et al., 2021).

Additional research has looked at the mediating roles played by Ahearne et al.'s (2005) characteristics in tying empowering leadership to certain results. The factor of confidence in subordinates was found in a 2021 Tang et al. research as a crucial mediator in the link between empowering leadership and knowledge exchange (Tang et al., 2021). Employees who thought their superiors were very confident in them were more inclined to have honest communication and share their knowledge with others (Tang et al., 2021).

This result is consistent with Social Exchange Theory (SET) as employees actively return the trust, they get from their superiors by means of their proactive activities (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Blau, 1964). Furthermore, the study by Walumbwa et al. (2022) showed that participatory decision-making was able to promote a higher degree of psychological empowerment and voice behaviour, especially in organisations with hierarchical structures.

The Ahearne et al. (2005) framework has several restrictions even if it is quite widely used. Its lack of attention on psychological empowerment as a moderator of leadership efficacy is one of the criticisms (Kim & Beehr, 2020). Although the framework stresses trust and meaningful work, it does not completely explain the cognitive and emotional states that empowering leadership may generate in people, which are vital for their engagement and performance (Kim & Beehr, 2020). Kim and Beehr (2020) contend that employees'

impressions of their leader's behaviour are influenced by psychological empowerment which is employees' perceptions of competence, autonomy, and impact which spans emotions. Thus, a combination of psychological empowerment within the characteristics of Ahearne et al. (2005) might provide a more complete knowledge of how leadership affects employee results.

Nevertheless, the structure is still appropriate for this research especially considering MNCs in Nigeria (Tang et al., 2021; Farndale et al., 2020). In cross-cultural settings, when empowering leadership is essential to overcome cultural and hierarchical divisions, the characteristics of delegation of authority and participative decision-making are particularly pertinent (Farndale et al., 2020). Ahearne et al. (2005) emphasis on trust and meaningful work might assist leaders in Nigerian MNCs where leadership typically includes negotiating varied workforce create a more inclusive and cooperative organisational culture (Meyer & Xin, 2018).

Furthermore, the focus on raising the meaning of work fits Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which emphasises the need to improve employee performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Leaders may satisfy employees' psychological demands for autonomy and relatedness by tying their activities to a more overall organisational goal, hence encouraging more involvement and output (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

2.2.3 Theoretical Frameworks

Leadership, a multifaceted concept, encompasses the ability to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members. It involves guiding individuals and groups towards achieving common goals through a combination of direction, inspiration, and support (Northouse, 2021). Effective leadership integrates various skills and behaviours, including decision-making, communication, empathy, and the ability to inspire trust and commitment among followers (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). This definition sets the stage for exploring different leadership theories, particularly empowering leadership, which focuses on fostering autonomy and innovation among employees.

2.2.3.1. Empowering Leadership: Integrating Theoretical Frameworks

Empowering leadership is a modern approach that encourages and inspires employees to take charge, make choices, and showcase their creativity and independence. It draws on various theoretical frameworks to provide guidance for its application in organisational settings (Kim & Beehr, 2021). This section explores how different leadership styles, such as Transformational Leadership and Servant Leadership, influence empowering leadership practices and addresses the complexities and obstacles that arise when integrating these frameworks.

The concept of Transformational Leadership, as described by Vu (2020), highlights the importance of inspiring and motivating followers to achieve exceptional results. This is achieved through four main components: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. These components align closely with the principles of empowering leadership. The goal of empowering leadership is to foster an environment where employees feel valued and capable of making meaningful contributions to organisational goals (Athanasios, 2024).

In addition, although transformational leadership encourages motivation and innovation, it can be challenging to maintain consistent empowering practices. For example, the focus on personalised attention necessitates leaders to customize their approach for every employee. This can be demanding in terms of resources and challenging to uphold consistently in larger teams (Messmann et al., 2022). Inconsistencies in leadership styles can arise, which may result in perceptions of favouritism among team members. Furthermore, Lee & Ding (2020) point out that the effectiveness of transformational leadership in boosting job satisfaction and commitment is heavily dependent on the leader's capacity to consistently provide inspiration and intellectual stimulation, which may not always be feasible.

Servant leadership, as articulated by Nientied and Toska (2021), emphasises the importance of serving others and nurturing their personal and professional development. This leadership style aligns closely with empowering leadership through its emphasis on active

listening, empathy, and support (Lafkas et al., 2021). By empowering individuals and fostering a culture of self-reliance, servant leaders establish an environment that enables employees to flourish independently (Xiao et al., 2024).

However, while servant leadership is known for its positive impact on employee well-being and organisational commitment, there are instances where it may clash with efficiency and decision-making speed (Bragger et al., 2021). The focus on reaching consensus and personal development can hinder progress and introduce uncertainty in leadership, potentially resulting in delays when making important decisions. Additionally, the servant leadership model requires leaders to possess a strong sense of emotional intelligence and self-awareness, qualities that may not be consistently present among all leaders.

The combination of empowering leadership with directive and laissez-faire leadership styles adds more complexity to the equation. Directive leadership, which involves providing clear guidance and instructions, contrasts with empowering leadership, which emphasises delegating authority and promoting autonomy (Almahdali et al., 2021). While directive leadership has its benefits in terms of providing structure and clarity, an overreliance on it can stifle creativity and initiative. According to Boedker & Chong (2022), finding the right balance between directive and empowering leadership styles is essential yet challenging. Leaders must adjust their approach based on the specific situation and the capabilities of each employee.

In sharp contrast, leaders who adopt a laissez-faire approach, characterised by minimal interference, may inadvertently create an environment lacking in support and direction (Balti & Karoui Zouaoui, 2024). Empowering leadership, conversely, places a strong emphasis on providing active support and empowerment. Raub & Robert (2012) highlight the negative consequences of laissez-faire leadership, such as low employee engagement and poor performance, underscoring the significance of a balanced approach that incorporates the proactive aspects of empowering leadership.

The ultimate goal of empowering leadership is to combine different theoretical frameworks to develop a comprehensive leadership style that promotes employee creativity,

quality of work-life, teamwork, and organisational effectiveness (Balti & Karoui Zouaoui, 2024). Vu (2020) emphasises the importance of integrating various leadership styles to create a work environment that fosters employee engagement and encourages ongoing development.

However, this comprehensive approach poses considerable difficulties. Effective leadership demands a diverse range of skills and the ability to seamlessly transition between various leadership approaches. Adapting to different situations may not always be feasible in fast-paced or resource-limited environments.

Table 1 provides a summary of the main leadership theories often discussed in social science literature. Additionally, incorporating various leadership styles can result in conflicting expectations and role ambiguity among employees, potentially undermining the effectiveness of empowering leadership.

Implementing empowering leadership, despite its theoretical robustness and multidimensionality, encounters practical obstacles. The integration of transformational and servant leadership lays a solid groundwork for promoting autonomy, innovation, and well-being (Almahdali et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the need for leaders to find a balance between these styles, incorporating both directive and laissez-faire elements, introduces complexity and the possibility of conflict. For empowering leadership to be successful, leaders must navigate complex situations and adjust their approach to meet the specific needs and contexts of their organisations (D'Ascoli & Piro, 2023). The below provides a summary of the different leadership styles.

Table 1: Summary of Leadership Theories

	Transformational Leadership	Empowering Leadership	Servant Leadership	Laissez-Faire Leadership
Focus	Inspire and motivate followers to attain remarkable accomplishments (Vu, 2020)	Encourage employee liberty, inventiveness, and independence (Kim & Beehr, 2021).	Serving others and supporting their personal and professional growth (Nientied & Toska, 2021)	minimising interference and enabling employee's maximal independence (Balti & Karoui Zouaoui, 2024).
key Components	Idealised influence, inspiring motivation, intellectual stimulation, and personalised consideration (Vu, 2020)	Delegating power, supporting autonomy, and offering active assistance (Almahdali et al., 2021). Cheong et al. (2019) and Kim et al. (2018) report high levels of employee engagement, inventiveness, and work satisfaction.	Active listening, empathy, support, and cultivating a culture of self-reliance (Lafkas et al., 2021)	Absence of direct supervision, hands-off style, and little advice (Raub & Robert, 2012).
Strengths	Outstanding drive, inventiveness, and dedication (Lee & Ding, 2020)		High employee well-being and organisational commitment (Bragger et al., 2021).	Promotes self-management and initiative among highly trained teams (Balti & Karoui Zouaoui, 2024).
Weaknesses	Resource-intensive, with the possibility for favouritism and uneven implementation (Messmann et al., 2022)	D'Ascoli and Piro (2023) discuss balancing directive and laissez-faire features, as well as job ambiguity.	Potential inefficiency, sluggish decision-making, and the necessity for strong emotional intelligence (Bragger et al., 2021)	There is a risk of poor involvement, a lack of direction, and lower performance and responsibility (Raub & Robert, 2012).
Application	Effective in encouraging creativity and dedication (Kim et al., 2018)	Effectively promotes creativity and liberty in a variety of circumstances (Balti & Karoui Zouaoui, 2024).	Effective at increasing employee well-being and commitment (Xiao et al., 2024).	Suitable for highly experienced and self-motivated teams that need minimum involvement (Boedker & Chong, 2022).

2.2.4 Empirical Studies on Empowering Leadership and Its Impact on Employees'

Behaviours

Empowering leadership has become a major area of study in organisational studies (Yue et al., 2022). Numerous studies have looked into this leadership style, which places a strong emphasis on empowering employees, encouraging their autonomy, and encouraging participatory decision-making. The results consistently show that these efforts have a positive effect on a range of employee motivation, attitudes, performance, and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Kim et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016; Yue et al., 2022). The growing corpus of research indicates that empowering leadership is advantageous for both individual employees and the general efficacy and sustainability of companies (Dust et al., 2018; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Kim & Beehr, 2018).

Available evidence has also shown that empowering leadership dramatically increases employee engagement by creating an atmosphere that values independence and self-governance (Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021). Kim et al. (2018), for example, discovered that when leaders use an empowering style, employees feel more intrinsically motivated, which raises work engagement and job satisfaction (Li et al., 2016; Yue et al., 2022). Li et al. (2016) verifies this result by stating that good employee attitudes, such

increased work satisfaction and organisational engagement, are positively correlated with empowering leadership (Burhan, 2023; Kim & Beehr, 2018). Empowering leadership increases employees' desire to fully participate in their positions by fostering a supportive atmosphere where they feel appreciated and capable of making important contributions (Jung et al., 2020; Wang & Yang, 2021; Kim & Beehr, 2018).

Furthermore, given that modern organisations are often marked by rapid and unexpected change, the significance of empowering leadership in influencing employee attitudes towards organisational change cannot be overstated (Yue et al., 2022; Burhan, 2023). According to Jung et al. (2020), employees who experience empowering leadership are more likely to feel like they own the organisation and will be open to change efforts (Kim et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016). According to their research, giving employees the freedom to make decisions and include them in decision-making processes greatly increases their commitment to organisational change, which improves the organisation's flexibility and long-term success (Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021; Wang & Tang, 2023).

The benefits of empowering leadership go well beyond enthusiasm and attitudes; they include significant gains in employee productivity and good corporate conduct. According to Yue et al. (2022), empowering leadership improves employee performance by providing employees with the tools and resources they need to succeed in their positions (Kim et al., 2018; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015). This leadership style boosts performance and adds to the organisation's total productivity by empowering employees' members to take initiative, make choices, and solve issues on their own (Burhan, 2023; Li et al., 2016).

The impact of strong leadership on corporate citizenship has also been found to be significant. According to Kim et al. (2018), empowering leadership has a good impact on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) which includes discretionary actions that go above and beyond official work responsibilities (Yue et al., 2022; Kim & Beehr, 2018; Wang & Tang, 2023) by creating a work environment where employees have a greater feeling of responsibility for their co-employees and the organisation as a whole (Li et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018). This heightened feeling of duty often materialises as actions that are crucial to the

functioning of the organisation, such as lending a hand to others, taking on extra responsibilities, and exhibiting loyalty (Dust et al., 2018; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Kim & Beehr, 2018).

Empowering leadership not only increases engagement but also encourages knowledge sharing among employees, which is essential for organisational learning and innovation (Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Tang, 2023). According to Burhan (2023), empowering leaders cultivate a culture of knowledge sharing in which employees feel at ease sharing their thoughts, skills, and insights with one another (Kim et al., 2018; Yue et al., 2022). This is achieved by encouraging open communication and collaborative decision-making. This culture improves individual performance while also strengthening the organisation's ability for innovation and collective knowledge base (Wang & Yang, 2021; Li et al., 2016; Wang & Tang, 2023).

Affective commitment to the organisation and higher employees' attendance has both been associated with empowering leadership. According to research by Kim and Beehr (2018), employees who believe that their managers empower them are more likely to have an emotional bond with the organisation that shows up as affective commitment (Li et al., 2016; Yue et al., 2022). This kind of dedication is essential to keeping talent and keeping employees inspired to contribute to the long-term success of the organisation (Kim et al., 2018; Wang & Tang, 2023). Furthermore, the research found that supportive and empowering leadership lowers absenteeism by creating a pleasant work atmosphere where employees' members feel appreciated and supported, which also improves organisational performance and stability (Burhan, 2023; Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021).

Even though empowering leadership has many advantages, it has been found to Dennerlein and Kirkman (2022) emphasised that empowering leadership has limitations and that impediment stresses have a moderating influence on unethical pro-organisational behaviour (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Yue et al., 2022). When employees are given liberty by empowering leadership, it may sometimes have unexpected repercussions. For example, individuals may act unethically in order to achieve organisational objectives (Lee et al., 2018;

Wang & Yang, 2021). This research emphasises the significance of a well-rounded strategy for empowering leadership, whereby accountability systems and explicit ethical standards are combined with autonomy to minimise unfavourable consequences (Burhan, 2023; Wang & Tang, 2023).

Furthermore, the efficacy of empowering leadership is contingent upon a multitude of contextual elements, including individual variations among employees and organisational culture (Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021; Wang & Tang, 2023). In their 2019 study, Gao and Jiang explored the role of harmonious passion as a mediating factor in the association between employee outcomes and empowering leadership. They discovered that since it is in line with their inherent motivations, employees who are enthusiastic about their jobs are more likely to react favourably to empowering leadership (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Yue et al., 2022). The benefits of empowering leadership, however, may not be as noticeable for employees' members who don't share this enthusiasm (Burhan, 2023; Wang & Tang, 2023). This implies that not all employees will experience the same effects of empowering leadership; instead, these effects may differ based on personal traits and the degree to which a leader's style and employee motivation overlap (Li et al., 2016; Wang & Yang, 2021; Kim & Beehr, 2018).

There are many and intricate ways that empowering leadership affects employee behaviour (Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021). Work autonomy has been recognised by Wang & Yang (2021) as a crucial mediator in the link between employee outcomes and empowering leadership. According to their research, leaders that empower their employees by giving them more freedom have happier and more productive employees (Burhan, 2023; Kim & Beehr, 2018). This is due to the fact that job autonomy gives employees greater control over their work, which raises their motivation and feeling of competence and, in turn, improves performance and results for the organisation (Li et al., 2016; Wang & Tang, 2023).

Perceived organisational support is another crucial mediator in the link between employee behaviours and empowering leadership, in addition to work autonomy (Lee et al., 2018; Wang & Tang, 2023). According to Wang and Tang (2023), employees are more likely

to react favourably to empowering leadership if they believe that their organisation is supportive. By making sure that employees feel valued and appreciated by their organisation, this support perception strengthens the benefits of empowering leadership and improves employee engagement, happiness, and performance as a whole (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021; Burhan, 2023). This shows that the degree of perceived support and autonomy inside the organisation acts as a mediator rather than a straight cause-and-effect link between employee outcomes and empowering leadership (Yue et al., 2022; Wang).

2.2.4.1. Empowering Leadership in Africa Contexts.

Empowering leadership has been a significant topic of attention in organisational research, notably in MNCs operating in Africa. This leadership style, which emphasises employee autonomy, active participation in decision-making processes, and cultivating an innovative and creative culture, is gaining recognition for its significant impact on organisational effectiveness (Zhang et al., 2022; Kim & Beehr, 2018). Empowering leadership increases employees' sense of ownership and accountability, which positively influences various organisational outcomes (Dust et al., 2018; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015).

Empowering leadership is not only desirable but also necessary in the dynamic and sometimes complicated contexts that define African organisations (Kemp & Dwyer, 2019; Osei, 2020). The African continent is noted for its rich cultural diversity with different ethnic groups, languages, and social standards living both inside and outside state boundaries. This variety necessitates a flexible and adaptable leadership style that can successfully handle the diverse needs and expectations of a diverse workforce (Adeoye, 2019; Asongu & Nwachukwu, 2018). By decentralising decision-making and increasing inclusion, empowering leaders may fit their management practices to local cultural norms and values (Kundu & Mor, 2022; Amoako, 2021). This flexibility is critical in MNCs, as standard corporate policies must be delicately tailored to varied cultural settings across African regions (Olowu, 2018; Wang & Yang, 2021).

Empirical studies have looked at the effects of empowering leadership in various African settings, offering significant insights into its efficacy as well as the problems connected with implementation. Research conducted in South Africa have shown how empowering leadership improves psychological empowerment and employee involvement. For instance, Van Dierendonck and Patterson (2018) showed that by encouraging a feeling of responsibility and ownership, empowering leadership in South African multinational companies (MNCs) greatly raised employee engagement. This is consistent with earlier studies demonstrating that, particularly in changing contexts, employee engagement is essential for organisational performance (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Zhang et al., 2022).

Furthermore, Spreitzer et al. (2018) looked at South Africa's banking sector and found that by raising employees' psychological empowerment, empowering leadership raised job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In high-stress settings like banking, where job instability is common, this is especially crucial. Govender et al. (2020) have investigated the significance of empowering leadership in the technology industry of South Africa, therefore highlighting its creative culture promoting value. Empowering leaders were better able to inspire employee members to create and carry out creative ideas, therefore preserving the competitiveness of their companies.

In Zambia, too, it has been shown that effective leadership lowers turnover intentions and improves organisational commitment. Researching MNCs in Zambia, Chanda & Tembo (2019) discovered a substantial correlation between improved organisational commitment and empowering leadership. This is particularly pertinent in Zambia, where substantial employee turnover results from unstable economic times. Encouragement of leadership by means of involvement and dedication helps to reduce this problem.

Further studies by Chanda and Chungu (2020) in Zambia's telecoms sector showed that empowering leadership was linked with greater work satisfaction and improved employee performance, therefore underlining its relevance in fast-growing industries such as in the healthcare and educational sectors where empowering leadership has been shown as a main factor influencing favourable employee outcomes in Ghana.

With a corresponding decline in turnover intentions, Adjei & Amponsah (2020) showed a favourable association between empowering leadership and work satisfaction among healthcare professionals. In a field dealing with such severe manpower shortages, this is very vital. Likewise, Gyensare et al. (2020) found that among Ghanaian secondary school teachers' burnout and work satisfaction, empowering leadership was significantly associated. This emphasises the need of leadership in professional development support and decision-making procedures as it helps to improve educational results.

Particularly in the industrial and healthcare industries, empowering leadership has also been connected in Kenya to improved organisational performance. Researching the healthcare sector, Mwangi and Wambugu (2021) found that patient satisfaction and workforce engagement both improved under empowering leadership. Given personnel shortages and huge patient loads in Kenyan hospitals, this is especially crucial here. Nyaga and Muathe (2019) examined Kenyan manufacturing and discovered via their research that by encouraging innovation and engagement, empowering leadership helped to increase employee performance, competitiveness, and organisational sustainability.

Empirical research conducted all throughout Africa repeatedly reveal that empowering leaders favourably affect employee engagement, job happiness, performance, and organisational commitment (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2018; Chanda & Tembo, 2019; Gyensare et al., 2020; Mwangi & Wambugu, 2021). Still cultural and financial elements influence how successful empowering leadership is. In nations like Zambia and Ghana, where hierarchical leadership styles are more prevalent, it is imperative to modify empowering leadership tactics to fit regional custom Adjei and Amponsah (2020). Furthermore, economic instability in areas like Nigeria and Zambia calls for a mixed strategy between empowerment and control to guarantee ongoing organisational effectiveness (Chanda & Chung, 2020). Appropriately tailored, empowering leadership has the capacity to propel social and organisational progress all throughout the African continent.

2.2.5 *Empowering Leadership and Employees' Extra-Role Behaviours*

The effects of empowering leadership on employees' behaviours especially their engagement in extra-role behaviours have received notable attention in the literatures. Extra-role behaviours, or organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), are activities that enhance an individual's overall success within the organisation but do not fall within the purview of their official job description (Wang et al., 2022).

Studies show a substantial correlation between employees' participation in OCBs and empowering leadership (Wang et al., 2022; Chen, 2024; Guo, 2024; Martínez-Córcoles et al., 2022). According to Wang et al. (2022), there is a favourable correlation between empowering leadership and unethical pro-organisational activity as well as organisational citizenship behaviour. This shows that empowering CEOs may encourage employees' members to go above and beyond their designated responsibilities and make valuable contributions to the organisation.

The development of extra role behaviours (ERBs) in employee is greatly aided by empowering leadership, which has an impact on a number of factors including psychological empowerment, voice behaviour, and information sharing. The

fundamental process by which empowering leadership affects ERBs is psychological empowerment, which is defined by sentiments of competence, autonomy, meaningfulness, and effect (Spreitzer, 1995). Effective leaders foster employees' feeling of competence and capacity by delegating responsibility, promoting involvement in decision-making, and offering skill development opportunities. This, in turn, increases ERBs (Zhang & Bartol, 2019).

In particular, empowering leadership has a significant impact on voice behaviour, a key ERB where employee proactively offer changes and express concerns. According to Morrison's (2014) research, employee who believe that their leaders are empowering them are more inclined to speak out because they feel more psychologically secure and accountable. According to Detert and Burris (2007), this openness to employee feedback promotes a climate that is favourable to innovation and organisational learning.

In a similar vein, empowering leadership techniques promote knowledge sharing,

another essential ERB. A collaborative culture where exchanging knowledge and skills is appreciated and encouraged is fostered by leaders who empower their employees (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). This promotes organisational creativity, decision-making, and team cohesiveness.

There is strong empirical evidence that supports positive effects of empowering leadership on ERBs. For instance, in the meta-analysis by Lee, Willis, & Tian (2018) empowering leadership was found to be a strong predictor of a variety of ERBs, such as helpful and innovative work behaviours. Furthermore, in the longitudinal study by Kim and Beehr's (2022), the authors emphasised the long-term benefits of empowering leadership, especially in dynamic work situations where ongoing innovation and adaptability are critical.

Nonetheless, a number of contextual elements may affect how well empowering leadership works to advance ERBs. For example, organisational culture is crucial; cultures that value rivalry and individuality above teamwork and team performance may make it difficult for leaders to be empowering (Hofstede, 2001). Furthermore, the presence of resources and support networks is crucial; in the absence of suitable infrastructure, attempts to empower leaders may result in role ambiguity and stress, which might impede ERBs (Cheong et al., 2019).

Additionally, the link between empowering leadership and ERBs may be moderated by the nature of the task and employee characteristics. For instance, proactive employees are more likely to react favourably to empowering leadership by acting on their own initiative (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). On the other hand, the influence of empowering leadership on ERBs could be limited in highly regulated work contexts.

Nevertheless, potential challenges empowering leadership pose to ERBs. According to Cheong et al. (2019), empowering leadership may lead to role uncertainty and stress and may even lower ERBs if it is not accompanied by sufficient resources. Furthermore, the perception of empowering leadership and its effect on ERBs are greatly influenced by the cultural environment. For example, compared to individualist cultures, collectivist societies may place a distinct focus on social harmony to manage the connection (Hofstede, 2001).

This suggests that empowering leadership may not be suitable for all employees hence organisational settings and cultural contexts should be considered during implementation.

Furthermore, the correlation that exists between ERBs and empowering leadership emphasises how important it is for organisations to create an atmosphere that supports empowering behaviours. For instance, empowering leadership may be more successful when sufficient resources and support networks are available (Cheong et al., 2019). This association might be further strengthened by training programs that help leaders adopt empowering behaviours (Arnold et al., 2000).

2.3 EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOURS

Extra-role behaviours also referred to as organisational citizenship behaviours are voluntary efforts by employee members that improve organisational performance outside of their designated roles (Turnipseed & Rassuli, 2005). Among these actions are those of supporting co-employees, suggesting fresh ideas, and engaging in office events (Nov et al., 2015). Although extra-role behaviours help companies, sometimes they lower individual job performance and lead to work-family problems (Stoner et al., 2011).

Extra-role behaviours are influenced by a number of factors, such as moral leadership, organisational support, and work happiness. For example, extra-role behaviours are more strongly correlated with work satisfaction than required in-role behaviours; this suggests that employees participate in these voluntary activities according to their job satisfaction levels (Groth, 2005; Tabatabaei et al., 2015). It has been discovered that ethical leadership has a favourable effect on nurses' extra-role activities, emphasising the importance that leadership plays in encouraging these behaviours (El-Gazar & Zoromba, 2021).

Furthermore, research has been done on the connection between extra-role behaviours and leadership styles. Extra-role behaviours have been linked to transformational leadership, suggesting that certain leadership philosophies might motivate employees to go

above and beyond the call of duty (Caillier, 2016). On the other hand, employees' views of their duties may be influenced by authoritarian leadership styles, which may have an impact on the degree to which they participate in extra-role activities (Zhang & Xie, 2017).

Key extra-role behaviours include aiding colleagues; innovation, wherein employee members generate fresh ideas; and initiative-taking, in which they operate outside of their designated duties (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Zhou & George, 2001). Important additional extra-role behaviour includes organisational engagement and loyalty as well (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Two important extra-role behaviours knowledge sharing, and voice behaviour have a major effect on organisational performance and creativity. While knowledge sharing improves collective learning and decision-making, so supporting a collaborative and innovative culture (Gagné, 2009; Wang et al., 2017), voice behaviour entails expressing concerns or suggestions that can challenge the status quo and foster innovation (Deng, 2022; Wu & Du, 2022). These actions have competitive benefits and enhance internal dynamics. Encouragement of voice and knowledge-sharing practices depends on leadership that supports psychological safety and trust (Wu, Hu, & Kwan, 2020; Zhao, Wayne, & Glibkowski, 2021).

According to research, information sharing, and voice behaviour are essential for an organisation to succeed. This is exemplified in the study by Duan et al. (2016) who found that voice behaviour enables employees to share ideas, question the status quo, and improve overall organisational performance. It differs from cooperative activities like lending a hand to colleagues or sharing information since it entails voicing viewpoints that can contradict accepted beliefs or methods (Wu & Du, 2022).

Contrarily, knowledge sharing encourages an innovative, collaborative, and learning culture inside organisations, which eventually boosts productivity and competitiveness (Wang et al., 2017). Additionally, encouraging these habits calls for leadership and supportive organisational environments. Wu, Hu, & Kwan's (2020) research highlights the importance of leadership in fostering psychological safety and trust which are two things that

are essential for employees to freely express their thoughts and transfer knowledge.

Examining these two additional role behaviours in the Nigerian setting is the goal of the present research.

2.3.1 The Concept of Employee Voice Behaviour

Employee voice behaviour is important in creating organisational dynamics since it represents workers' readiness to share ideas, complaints, and recommendations for improving workplace operations (Nechanska et al., 2020). Employee voice, defined as purposeful attempts to convey work-related thoughts, promotes creativity, issue resolution, and organisational success (Kim and Lim, 2020; Mowbray et al., 2014). Understanding its theoretical basis and drivers is critical for using voice behaviour to achieve organisational success.

Employee voice behaviour is classified as promotional and prohibitive speech, with each contributing differently to organisational results (Song et al., 2022; Bai et al., 2017). Promotional voice entails recommending enhancements, new ideas, or innovative solutions to build a culture of continual innovation (Morrison, 2014; Li et al., 2020). Organisations that promote promotional voice see increased flexibility and staff engagement (Srisathan et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2022). In contrast, prohibitive voice means voicing concerns about policies or behaviours that may damage the organisation, so assisting in the identification of risks and the prevention of possible failures (Li et al., 2020; Bai et al., 2017). Employees that use restrictive voice do so out of a feeling of duty, especially when highlighting ethical concerns, inefficiencies, or harmful procedures (Settembre-Blundo et al., 2021; Krishna et al., 2024).

Individual, personal, and organisational variables all impact whether or not workers engage in voice behaviour. Individual characteristics like as self-efficacy, personality qualities, and perceived work control influence employees' willingness to express problems (Tedone & Bruk-Lee, 2021; Morrison, 2014). Employees who think they can influence change are more inclined to speak out (Li et al., 2020; Prouska et al., 2023). Relational characteristics, such as employee-supervisor connections and perceived organisational support, can influence voice behaviour (Prouska et al., 2023; Badru et al., 2024). Employees

are more likely to share problems when they trust their superiors and believe their feedback is appreciated (Son, 2019; Srisathan et al., 2020). Managers who promote feedback and build an inclusive work environment improve psychological safety by improving workers' willingness to interact freely (Chou & Barron, 2016; Kim & Beehr, 2021).

At the organisational level, workplace culture, innovation atmosphere, and leadership styles all have a major influence on voice behaviour (Ye et al., 2022; Srisathan et al., 2020). A culture of openness and creativity naturally encourages workers to express their ideas and concerns (Lee et al., 2020; Miao et al., 2020). Transformational leaders motivate people and provide an atmosphere in which contributions are recognised (Miao et al., 2020; Kim & Beehr, 2021). These leaders enhance psychological safety and encourage workers to participate in organisational decision-making (Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Krishna et al., 2024).

While voice behaviour offers various advantages, such as enhanced problem-solving, creativity, and organisational success, it also contains certain hazards (Sherf et al., 2021; Elsetouhi et al., 2022). Employees who are discouraged from speaking out or face reprisal may suffer fear, social marginalisation, or disengagement, resulting in a culture of silence (Krishna et al., 2024; Kensbock & Stöckmann, 2020). This may impede ethical monitoring and innovation since workers may be hesitant to disclose workplace difficulties (Sherf et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020).

In conclusion, employee voice behaviour is critical for encouraging innovation and improving organisational success, but it needs a supportive culture and leaders that appreciate open communication. Organisations must strive to provide a psychologically secure atmosphere in which workers feel free to express their views and concerns without fear of repercussions (Kim & Beehr, 2021; Bai et al., 2017).

2.3.1.1. Empirical Studies and Evidence.

The antecedents, effects, and influencing aspects of employees' voice behaviours are clarified by empirical investigations, which provide insightful information. For instance, Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; investigated the origins, nature, and outcomes of a wider range of employee voice practices, demonstrating the growing academic interest in this field. The

study conducted by Liang et al. (2017) investigated the correlation between transformational leadership and employee voices in the hospitality sector. The findings of the study emphasised the moderating influence of work engagement on relational identity and workplace voice.

To further understand how stress affects employee speech and creativity, Song et al. (2017) further looked at the connection between voice behaviour and creative performance that is controlled by stressors. By investigating the effects of relational identification, proactive personality, and transformational leadership on employee voice behaviour, Adhyke et al. (2023) enhanced empirical research. In their investigation of the impact of genuine leadership on employee voice behaviour, Kim et al. (2022) emphasised the cultural environment while considering the Zhongyong thinking of Chinese employees.

Additionally, Nisar et al. (2020) examined the influence of grit on voice behaviour, emphasising the role of organisational commitment as a mediating factor (Nisar et al., 2020). Further exploring the relationship between organisational practices and voice behaviour is Rasheed et al. (2017), who looked at the role of employee voice in high-performance work systems and organisational innovation in small and medium-sized businesses. Fan et al. (2022) also added to the body of research on voice behaviour by examining the multilevel influence of supervisor helping behaviour on employee voice behaviour through a cross-hierarchical analysis.

Furthermore, in order to comprehend the connection between emotional commitment and employee voice, Nisar et al. (2020) proposed a moderated mediation model after investigating the influence of compassion on voice behaviour.

These empirical studies provide important light on the intricate dynamics of employee voice behaviour, emphasising the role that individual traits, organisational variables, and leadership play in influencing employees' propensity to speak out and support the success of their organisations.

2.3.2 The concept of employees' knowledge-sharing behaviour

Innovation, efficiency, and competitive advantage are all significantly affected by

employees' knowledge-sharing behaviours, which are essential for organisational success (Banmairuoy et al.2022). This behaviour is a complex yet essential component of effective knowledge management, as it is influenced by a variety of motivational and organisational factors (Singh et al., 2021). This literature review summarises the primary research findings regarding the motivations and organisational factors that influence employees' knowledge-sharing behaviour.

The concept of employees' knowledge-sharing behaviour is intricate and is influenced by a variety of motivational, individual, and organisational factors. Positive attitudes towards knowledge sharing have been substantially associated with intrinsic motivations, including delight in assisting others and knowledge self-efficacy (Lin, 2007). Employees' knowledge-sharing intentions are also influenced by extrinsic motivations, such as reciprocal benefits (Lin, 2007). Knowledge-sharing behaviour among employees is significantly promoted by organisational factors, including trust, ethical leadership, and a knowledge-sharing culture (Halisah et al., 2021). A knowledge- sharing culture is defined by shared values, norms, and objectives that foster the exchange of knowledge among employees (Halisah et al., 2021).

A secure environment that encourages knowledge sharing and colleague interactions is established by trust among employees (Yu & Takahashi, 2021). Amber et al. (2021) have identified ethical leadership and psychological capital as factors that encourage knowledge sharing within organisations. In addition, the correlation between organisational support and high-commitment HRM practices has been associated with an increase in knowledge-sharing behaviour among employees (Chiang et al., 2011). Chiang et al. (2011) have found that employees who possess a strong sense of organisational commitment are more inclined to participate in knowledge sharing, thereby fostering a culture of shared knowledge and expertise. Furthermore, organisational justice and work engagement have been linked to improved organisational performance through the promotion of innovative work behaviour and knowledge exchange (Kim & Park, 2017).

2.3.2.1. *Empirical Studies and Evidence*

Extensive empirical research on information sharing sheds light on the variables affecting this behaviour and its consequences in work environments. Research has repeatedly shown that motivation, corporate culture, and personal characteristics play important roles in facilitating or impeding knowledge-sharing activities (Gagné, 2009; Yu & Takahashi, 2021). In order to demonstrate the dynamics and ramifications of knowledge-sharing behaviour in a variety of contexts, this literature review summarises significant empirical research.

Furthermore, studies have repeatedly shown that employees' knowledge-sharing behaviours are significantly influenced by both extrinsic and intrinsic motives. For example, Lin (2007) revealed that knowledge-sharing intentions are highly impacted by both extrinsic motives (rewards and recognition) and internal reasons (personal pleasure) across a variety of businesses. The research also showed that although knowledge-sharing behaviours might be sparked by extrinsic incentives, these behaviours are often sustained over time by intrinsic motives. In a similar vein, Gagné (2009) highlighted that intrinsic motivation which stems from the need for competence and autonomy makes information sharing among employees more regular and maintained, underscoring the significance of internal drives in encouraging persistent participation in knowledge-sharing activities.

More also, it becomes clear that self-efficacy and the perception of reciprocal advantages play a critical role in determining knowledge-sharing behaviour. Empirical research by Bock et al. (2005) with 154 South Korean employees found that knowledge-sharing behaviour is substantially predicted by the anticipation of reciprocal advantages. The research also showed that employees are more likely to participate in information-sharing activities if they have high knowledge self-efficacy, or the conviction that they can communicate knowledge successfully. This shows that increasing the possibility of information sharing may be achieved by creating an atmosphere where employees feel competent and confident in their skills.

On the other hand, social capital and trust inside organisations play a critical role in shaping knowledge-sharing practices. In their research of 312 employees in Japanese companies, Yu and Takahashi (2021) showed that there is a positive correlation between greater knowledge-sharing behaviours and employee trust. The importance of social capital which includes networks, norms, and trust in promoting the sharing of information and skills was also highlighted by their results. These observations highlight how important it is to create a reliable and cohesive organisational environment in order to support successful knowledge-sharing procedures.

Moreover, there is much evidence in the literature about the promotion of knowledge sharing via organisational support and human resource management (HRM) practices. In a study of 220 Taiwanese employees, Chiang et al. (2011) found that high-commitment HRM activities, such ongoing training and development, greatly improve employees' propensity to share information. The study's findings demonstrated the reciprocal nature of support and knowledge exchange within organisational contexts by showing that employees are more ready to share their expertise when they sense strong organisational support.

In addition, it has been shown that psychological empowerment is a strong predictor of knowledge-sharing behaviour. In a 2010 research, Wang and Noe examined 586 employees in the technology industry and found that information sharing was more common among those who felt psychologically empowered. Their readiness to add to the organisation's knowledge base was also boosted by their feeling of empowerment, demonstrating the crucial role that empowerment plays in encouraging knowledge-sharing behaviours.

Additionally, attitudes of organisational justice and job engagement are important variables in encouraging knowledge-sharing practices. In a 2017 research, Kim and Park looked at 302 employees in South Korea and found that information sharing was more common among those who felt their organisation treated them fairly and with great engagement. According to the research, motivated employees who have a feeling of equity and belonging are more willing to share their knowledge and skills, which benefits the

organisation.

On the other hand, there is scientific evidence connecting greater creativity and innovation in organisations with information sharing. In a study involving 180 employees in the IT industry, Devi (2023) discovered that knowledge-sharing practices greatly increased employee creativity. The study's conclusion highlighted the value of information sharing in promoting an innovative culture inside organisations by showing how employees may mix different ideas and views to produce creative solutions.

Furthermore, it has been shown that efficient knowledge sharing behaviour increases productivity and job efficiency. In a 2021 study, Aamir et al looked at 240 employees in the manufacturing industry and discovered that knowledge-sharing procedures significantly increased overall productivity and work processes. According to the research, information sharing improves the adoption of best practices and decreases redundancies, which increases organisational performance and efficiency.

Additionally, employees who feel competent, linked, and autonomous in their knowledge-sharing activities often express greater job satisfaction and engagement. Kim and Park (2017) discovered that while engaged employees are more pro-active and cooperative, there is a correlation between higher levels of information sharing and creative work practices. These results imply that employees are more inclined to act in ways that are advantageous to the organisation when they feel happy in their jobs and connected to other employees.

Overall, empirical research offers strong evidence that a variety of variables, such as human characteristics, organisational culture, and motivation, greatly affect knowledge-sharing behaviour. Knowledge sharing is driven by a variety of factors, including intrinsic and extrinsic motives, reciprocal advantages, and self-efficacy. High-commitment HRM practices, trust, social capital, and organisational support all create an atmosphere that is supportive of these behaviours. Further enhancing knowledge-sharing behaviours include human traits including psychological empowerment, job engagement, and feelings of organisational justice. The benefits of information sharing, such as enhanced productivity, work efficiency,

creativity, and innovation, highlight how crucial it is to the success of an organisation. The aforementioned empirical results underscore the need for organisations to cultivate a conducive atmosphere that amplifies internal and extrinsic incentives to promote constant and efficient exchange of information, hence culminating in the maintenance of organisational expansion and novelty.

2.4 PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Psychological empowerment is described as an internal motivating condition in which people have a feeling of control over their job and see that their contributions may significantly affect organisational results (Spreitzer, 1995). Four aspects make up it: meaning, ability, self-determination, and influence. Meaning is the congruence between a person's job and their own values where meaningful employment stimulates more participation and motivation (Zhang & Bartol, 2020). Competence shows an employee's confidence in their capacity to carry out their work responsibilities, which typically results in proactive activities such information exchange and invention (Kim et al., 2022). Self-determination is the degree of autonomy a person has in choosing how to approach their work; more autonomy promotes initiative and creativity (Spreitzer, 1995). Finally, impact questions how much people believe their activities affect the performance of the company. High impact employees are more likely to participate in extra-role activities and demonstrate stronger loyalty to their company (Kim et al., 2020).

Empirical research repeatedly reveals that excellent employee results are shaped in great part by organisational justice as well as psychological empowerment. Employees who believe in justice and feel empowered are more likely to participate in information sharing, voice activity, and organisational citizenship, therefore supporting both personal and organisational success (Greenbaum et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2022). In the literature, psychological empowerment acts as a crucial link between empowering leadership and a variety of employee outcomes. Further evidence in existing studies have shown that

psychological empowerment completely or partly mediates the influence of empowering leadership on employee performance, job happiness, organisational commitment, and work engagement (El-Gazar et al., 2022; Wang, 2023; Zhang et al., 2022; Alif & Nastiti, 2022). This mediating function emphasises the significance of employees' views of their job duties, self-efficacy, self-determination, and influence in translating empowering leadership into beneficial organisational behaviours and results (Zhang et al., 2022).

2.5 LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX)

2.5.1 *LMX as a Theory*

LMX is a branch of Social Exchange Theory (SET) that focusses on how leaders develop distinctive connections with specific team members rather than treating all subordinates uniformly (Kim et al., 2022). Unlike traditional leadership theories, which assume homogeneous leader-follower interactions, LMX emphasises relationship variability, recognising that some employees form stronger social bonds with leaders while others maintain low-quality, transactional relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Trust, respect, and obligation serve as the cornerstone of LMX interactions, determining the character of the leader-employee dynamic (Gottfredson et al., 2020).

Because LMX is based on SET, it explains how leaders spend more resources, support, and developmental opportunities in workers they trust, causing them to respond with greater levels of commitment, engagement, and discretionary effort (Kim et al., 2022). Employees in low-quality LMX connections, on the other hand, have little social interchange, with interactions mostly focused on formal work obligations and allocated tasks (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These workers often have less possibilities for personal and professional development since leaders prioritise individuals with whom they have better interpersonal relationships (Gottfredson et al., 2020)

2.5.2 *LMX as a Mediator*

Given its SET roots, LMX is commonly investigated as a mediating variable in the link

between leadership styles and employee outcomes (Kim et al., 2022). According to research, LMX mediates the impact of empowering leadership on discretionary behaviours including knowledge sharing and employee voice (Zhang & Bartol, 2020). Employees have deeper relationship links with their leaders when leaders provide support, promote involvement, and create respect. This increases their desire to participate in proactive workplace behaviours. These high-quality interactions foster psychological safety, allowing workers to confidently share creative ideas and challenge the status quo (Zhang & Bartol, 2020).

For this thesis, LMX will be employed as a mediator rather than a solo theory, allowing for a more in-depth study of how leadership styles influence employee engagement and discretionary behaviours in Nigerian multinational firms. By analysing LMX as a mediating mechanism, this research will provide vital insights into how leadership quality effects team dynamics, eventually helping to the creation of more successful leadership strategies in a variety of organisational situations.

Furthermore, studies show that LMX mediates the association between leadership and crucial organisational outcomes. Greenbaum et al. (2020) discovered that workers who have high-quality interactions with their leaders report greater job satisfaction, stronger organisational citizenship behaviours, and better job performance. This shows that leaders who cultivate strong social exchange connections are more successful at motivating and inspiring their people, emphasising the significance of relational leadership methods in organisational success.

By converting good leadership practices into employee engagement and performance, studies have shown that LMX greatly mediates the impact of leadership on organisational results. Greenbaum et al. (2020), for instance, showed that employees who engage in high-quality interactions with their managers are more likely to disclose greater degrees of job satisfaction, organisational citizenship conduct, and general performance. This implies that leaders who build close bonds with their staff members are more suited to inspire and encourage their groups.

2.5.3 Team Level LMX

An important concept in organisational behaviour research is team-level leader-member exchange (LMX), which captures the nature of the bonds that team members build with their leader as a group. Team-Level LMX captures the collective experience of leadership and its impact on team dynamics and outcomes by focussing on aggregated perceptions within the entire team towards the leader, as opposed to traditional LMX, which emphasises dyadic relationships between a leader and individual subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2006). This viewpoint is especially relevant in contemporary organisations where the achievement of strategic goals depends largely on cooperation and teamwork (Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016).

Furthermore, strong mutual trust, respect, and support between the team leader and members are characteristic of high Team-Level LMX teams, and these traits are essential for productive teamwork (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). Effective communication, common objectives, and a nurturing atmosphere where team members feel appreciated and understood are the foundations of this kind of successful partnerships (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008). Therefore, increased cohesiveness, cooperation, and dedication to attaining team objectives are fostered by high Team-Level LMX and are essential for improving overall team performance (Boies & Howell, 2006; Gottfredson et al., 2020).

Moreover, Team-Level LMX greatly improves team collaboration by promoting the sharing of information, suggestions, and experiences. Because team members feel free to share their knowledge and opinions without worrying about criticism or retaliation, this environment of open communication fosters creativity, problem-solving, and decision-making (Gooty, Gavin, & Johnson, 2009; Boies, Fiset, & Gill, 2015). Such a communication atmosphere is especially helpful in promoting creativity and invention, both of which are critical for the competitiveness of an organisation (Hill, Seo, Kang, & Taylor, 2012; Lee, Lee, & Seo, 2015). High-quality Team-Level LMX have been found to promote supportive

connections and effective collaboration (Henderson et al., 2008; Gottfredson et al., 2020). Team members' commitment and engagement are strengthened by collective experiences with fair and supportive leadership, which improves both individual and team performance (Martin et al., 2016; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Additionally, Team-Level LMX is essential for establishing the atmosphere and culture of the organisation. According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and Liden et al. (2006), leaders that actively foster high Team-Level LMX contribute to a healthy work environment marked by mutual respect, trust, and collaboration. Consequently, this fosters a culture of organisational learning and continuous development by raising employees' motivation and morale (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Hill et al., 2012).

2.6 LMX DIFFERENTIATION

Empowering Leadership, marked by behaviours that distribute authority, promote autonomy, and encourage employee participation, has consistently been linked with positive organisational outcomes including enhanced job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and improved performance (Dong et al., 2022; Alif & Nastiti, 2022). However, when one considers Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) the degree of fluctuation in the quality of leader-member interactions within a team, the intricacy of this connection becomes clear (Li et al., 2021; Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008).

LMX Differentiation is an outcome of leaders' behaviours that create different quality relationships with individual team members that cause variations in the behaviours of team members. The negative effects of this have been found to include lower job satisfaction, reduced trust, and higher turnover intentions could follow from these differences in the team (Henderson et al., 2009; Hooper & Martin, 2008). These outcomes raise some concerns in cases where high LMXD results in impressions of favouritism or inequality, hence fostering injustice and exclusion among those engaged in lower-quality exchanges (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). This discrepancy emphasises the need to understand how leadership styles such as EPL could reduce the negative consequences related with LMXD.

One of the most important processes for reversing the negative effects of LMXD might

be empowering leadership. This may be achieved by ensuring that every team member feels valued and supported, regardless of their personal connection with the leader, leaders who practise empowering behaviours may help to create a more inclusive atmosphere and hence lessen the negative consequences of LMX difference (Ren et al., 2022; Harris et al., 2014). The research by Harris et al. (2014), for instance, indicates that empowering leadership reduces the link between LMXD and turnover intentions, therefore mitigating the negative consequences of LMX difference on employee outcomes. This result emphasises how capable empowering leadership is to create a unified and engaged workforce even under LMXD's presence.

Apart from SET, which clarifies how empowering leadership may enable positive reciprocation in leader-member interactions, the SDT offers another channel to enhance the understanding of the relationship between LMXD and empowering leadership. According to SDT, employees' motivation and well-being depends on the fulfilment of fundamental psychological need (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) which are also crucial for well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). By encouraging autonomy and competency among employees, empowering leadership directly meets these demands and may help to offset the negative impacts of LMXD by boosting employees' intrinsic motivation and feeling of belonging within the team (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Lee & Nie, 2016). Consequently, by empowering their team members, leaders not only improve the general motivation and involvement of all team members but also help to minimise the negative effect of LMX difference thereby lowering the gap in leader-member interactions (Bester et al., 2015; Jin et al., 2020).

These assertions are supported by empirical studies that have depicted the role of empowering leadership in the management of LMXD. Empowering leadership, for example, has been shown by Bester et al. (2015) and Jin et al. (2020) to be favourably correlated with employees' organisational commitment and innovative behaviours, both of which are vital in minimising the negative consequences of LMX variation. More also, in the studies by Fong & Snape (2013) and Lee & Nie (2016) empowering leadership was found to greatly increase employees' psychological empowerment, which is essential for mitigating the detrimental

effects of LMXD. More also, the study e those by Li et al. (2021) show that high LMXD might compromise team cohesiveness and severely affect safety performance, thus underlining the importance of enabling leadership to handle these issues.

As a high-level group construct that connects multiple levels within an organisation, Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) significantly impacts both individual and team outcomes. However, this area has not received sufficient attention in previous research, leaving gaps in understanding the core of LMX theory (Henderson et al., 2009; Wang & Zhong, 2011). To further explore the situational impacts on LMX effectiveness, we predict that LMXD, as an organisational-level situational variable, influences employees' perceptions of organisational justice, and LMX effectiveness.

2.7 ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Emphasising how people see the fairness of treatment they get and how it affects their attitudes and actions, organisational justice is defined as employees' opinions of fairness in the workplace Park & Kim (2023). According to by Gao et al. (2011), Moon (2015), Organisational justice, has been studied using three components. The first is distributive justice which is viewed as equity of results, such as pay, promotions, or resource distribution. Employees who believe that results fairly based on their efforts are more likely to exhibit greater degrees of work satisfaction and dedication (Lee & Rhee, 2023).

The next is procedural justice which is the considering the fairness in the procedures guiding employees and organisational outcomes. In the study by Cropanzano et al., 2020 transparency, consistency, and objectivity in fair processes was argued to enhance organisational dedication and confidence in leadership.

Finally, interactional justice which addresses the fairness of interpersonal treatment and communication employees experience in the organisation. Existing studies have argued that respect and dignity in the workplace constitute interpersonal justice. Studies repeatedly show that high degrees of perceived organisational justice produce favourable organisational

behaviours like higher work satisfaction, engagement, and voice activities (Kim et al., 2020, Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Zhang et al., 2021).

In addition to studying organisational justice at the individual level, organisational behaviour research has greatly benefited by the study of justice as a team-level phenomena, which was first conceptualised by Mossholder, Bennett, and Martin (1998). This is especially true when attempting to understand how team views of justice affect important outcomes. More studies have shown that climates of justice at the team level, which are defined as average views of justice (climate level) and the constancy of these views (climate strength), are important factors that influence team output, employee satisfaction, absenteeism, and organisational loyalty (Colquitt et al., 2002; Greenberg et al., 2021; Liao & Rupp, 2005).

Justice climates at the team-level affect not just the performance of individual employees but also the dynamics of the team as a whole. Colquitt et al. (2002) also showed that the degree of the justice environment moderates the association between procedural justice perceptions and team results, with stronger climates amplifying the benefits of justice on performance. Furthermore, Naumann and Bennett (2000) discovered that elements like cohesive teamwork and obvious leadership play a crucial role in promoting consensus about justice views, hence fortifying the broader justice environment. These results highlight the significance of understanding the roles that team dynamics and structures play in the development and effects of justice climates (Smith et al., 2022; Miller & Wilson, 2023).

The notion of justice climates has been broadened by recent studies, which have identified supervisor-focused and organisation-focused justice climates (Liao and Rupp, 2005). A multi-level model of justice impacts is supported by the interactions between these various justice climates and various organisational levels. The present study, which aims to investigate how team-level justice climates interact with more general organisational justice perceptions to affect behaviours like knowledge-sharing (KSB) and extra-role voice behaviours (EVB), requires this multi-level perspective (Greenberg et al., 2021; Price et al., 2006). In order to achieve beneficial results, Price et al. (2006), for example, discovered that employee responses are most favourable when voice is permitted at both the team and

organisational levels. This finding emphasises the need of alignment across many levels of justice.

The applicability of team-level justice climates has also been investigated in virtual teams, where the lack of in-person contacts makes it more difficult to sustain a unified justice climate. According to Smith et al. (2022), maintaining procedural justice is a common challenge for virtual teams, which might impede the growth of a strong justice atmosphere. This realisation is critical to the present research because it emphasises the need to investigate the ways that contemporary work environments, including those working in remote and hybrid teams, affect the establishment of the justice climate, which in turn affects KSB and EVB (Johnson et al., 2024; Miller & Wilson, 2023).

Despite these developments, there are still a lot of unanswered questions in the literature, especially when it comes to the processes by which justice climates form and the ways in which team environments affect the consequences of justice. To address these mechanisms, Roberson (2006) looked at the processes of sense-making that go into creating cultures of justice. Her research indicates that when teams encounter differences in procedural justice and results, they should participate in longer sense-making sessions, which improve the procedural and distributive justice climates (Roberson, 2006; Lee & Song, 2023).

This procedure is especially pertinent to the topic at hand since it implies that teams' collective views and actions may be greatly impacted by how they understand and handle information pertaining to justice. Furthermore, there is a need for further research on the changing nature of justice norms in teams, especially in diverse and distant work environments. Justice criteria including equality, consistency, and decision control become more important in team settings, according to Colquitt and Jackson's (2006) research, and their significance changes depending on the size and makeup of the team. Justice standards change in response to changing work situations, as shown by recent study by Johnson et al. (2024) which demonstrates that distinct justice criteria are prioritised in remote work contexts compared to regular office settings. The current research intends to close a major gap by

addressing how team composition, size, and work environment affect the establishment of the justice atmosphere and how it affects KSB and EVB.

Furthermore, not enough is known about how vicarious justice affects team relationships. Although previous research (Colquitt et al., 2002; Lamertz, 2002) acknowledged the significance of vicarious justice experiences, more recent studies have shown how witnessing unfair treatment of co-workers can have a significant impact on an individual's perceptions of organisational justice and job satisfaction (Miller & Wilson, 2023). By investigating how vicarious justice experiences inside teams affect overall justice climates and contribute to team-level results, the present research aims to further our knowledge of this relationship.

To close these gaps, this research examines the multi-level structure of organisational justices, concentrating on the ways in which KSB and EVB are influenced by the interactions between individual and team level justice. The research provides a thorough knowledge of the elements influencing the construction of justice climates and their effects on important organisational behaviours.

2.8 CONCEPTUALISING INDIVIDUALISM-COLLECTIVISM

The individualism-collectivism (I-C) cultural dimension is still an important notion in cross-cultural psychology and organisational behaviour, providing insights into how values, attitudes, and behaviours change across cultural settings (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995). The I-C framework, first introduced by Hofstede (1980) and later refined by Triandis (1995), distinguishes between individualistic societies, in which personal goals and autonomy are prioritised, and collectivistic societies, in which group goals and communal harmony take precedence (Triandis 2001; Oyserman 2017). Individualistic cultures emphasise self-reliance, personal expression, and rivalry, with personal views shaping social behaviour rather than group standards (Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004). Collectivist cultures, on the other hand, encourage collaboration, interdependence, and collective loyalty, in which individuals match their behaviour with community expectations (Vignoles et al., 2016; Taras,

Steel, & Kirkman, 2016).

However, following research has questioned the binary description of societies as solely individualistic or collectivistic (Oyserman & Lee, 2008; Morris, Chiu, & Liu, 2015). According to Triandis (2001) and Oyserman (2017), people and organisations may display both individualistic and collectivistic inclinations depending on the situation (Taras et al., 2016; Kirkman et al., 2006). Collectivist cultures may reward personal initiative with individualistic behaviours, but individualistic cultures may demonstrate collectivistic tendencies in teamwork-based situations (Gelfand et al., 2017; Cuddy et al., 2015). This developing understanding has resulted in the creation of more sophisticated models that acknowledge the presence of both orientations within communities, organisations, and people (Shteynberg, 2015; Chiu et al., 2019).

Triandis and Gelfand (1998) proposed the difference between horizontal and vertical dimensions, which was a significant improvement in the I-C framework. Horizontal individualism emphasises autonomy and equality, promoting individuality while accepting others as equals (Triandis, 2001; Oyserman, 2017). Vertical individualism, on the other hand, emphasises rivalry and hierarchy, which promotes status-seeking behaviours (Matsumoto, 2018; Kagitcibasi, 2017). Similarly, horizontal collectivism encourages group equality and collaborative decision-making, while vertical collectivism emphasises hierarchical systems and obedience to authority (Taras et al., 2016; Gelfand et al., 2017). These differences allow for a more in-depth examination of how cultural orientations impact behaviour in various circumstances, notably organisational settings (Vignoles et al., 2016; Cuddy et al., 2015).

Individualistic and collectivistic behaviours may alter depending on environment, as shown by studies (Oyserman & Lee, 2008; Shteynberg, 2015). Employees in a collaborative workplace may embrace collectivistic inclinations, whilst those in competitive circumstances may exhibit individualistic behaviours (Matsumoto, 2018; Chiu et al., 2019). This dynamic viewpoint contradicts cultural determinism, which holds that behaviour is completely determined by cultural background (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Peterson, 2004). Instead, it emphasises the importance of cultural intelligence, in which people adjust their behaviours

in response to situational demands (Triandis 2001; Morris et al., 2015).

Culture's context-dependent character has important consequences for organisational management (Taras et al., 2016; Kirkman et al., 2006). In today's globalised workplaces, managers must recognise that workers' cultural orientations vary depending on tasks and team structures (Ang et al., 2007; Gelfand et al., 2017). Effective leadership entails combining individual initiative with group cohesiveness and managing workers' different cultural expectations (Shteynberg, 2015; Morris et al., 2015).

Overall, the I-C paradigm has moved beyond a binary distinction, acknowledging that cultural orientations are flexible, context-dependent, and adaptive (Oyserman, 2017; Triandis, 2001). This larger viewpoint improves theoretical models of culture while also giving practical insights into managing cultural variety in an increasingly linked world (Morris et al., 2015; Taras et al., 2016).

2.8.1 Application of SET and SDT Within the Framework of Individualism-Collectivism (I-C) Research

The application of SET and SDT to individualism-collectivism (I-C) research gives a more nuanced understanding of how cultural values impact employee behaviours in response to leadership practices, especially empowering leadership. Traditionally, Social Identity Theory has been the main paradigm for describing how I- C influences employee behaviour. However, recent studies using SET and SDT have provided more insight into how cultural orientations interact with leadership behaviours to influence organisational outcomes, such as perceptions of organisational justice and psychological empowerment (Chen et al., 2018; Vansteenkiste et al., 2020).

Blau (1964) proposed SET, which holds that social behaviour is the consequence of an exchange process in which people aim to maximise advantages while minimising costs in their relationships. This hypothesis has proven useful in studying how employees from various cultural backgrounds perceive and react to leadership behaviours. For example, in individualistic cultures where autonomy, personal objectives, and self-reliance are valued, employees often see empowering leadership as a beneficial resource that matches with their

choice for autonomy and self-direction (Hofstede, 1980; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001). According to SET, when leaders empower employees by giving them autonomy and involving them in decision-making processes, they are perceived as valuable resources that elicit a sense of obligation to reciprocate with positive organisational behaviours, such as improved perceptions of distributive and procedural justice (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Empirical research supports the use of SET to explore the link between empowering leadership and organisational justice in individualistic cultures. Spreitzer (1995) found that empowering leadership increases task motivation and engagement among employees in individualistic cultures because it aligns with their underlying values of autonomy and self-direction. Similarly, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) discovered that empowerment promotes meaningfulness, competence, self-determination, and impact, all of which are important components of psychological empowerment for individualistic employees thereby improving their perception of procedural justice. These results imply that in individualistic cultures, empowering leadership is seen as a positive transaction in which leaders' autonomy and authority are rewarded with enhanced views of justice and organisational commitment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995).

In collectivistic cultures, where group harmony, communal objectives, and interdependence are valued, the influence of empowering leadership is moderated by how well these behaviours match with collective welfare and social cohesiveness (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995). According to SET, collectivistic employees may place a higher priority on empowering leadership, seeing it as a resource that improves collective performance and cohesiveness rather than personal liberty. Empirical research supports this perspective, as shown by Hui, Au, and Fock (2004), who discovered that in collectivistic cultures, empowerment is regarded as fair when it helps the collective, hence improving group performance and cohesiveness. This shows that collectivistic employees assess the fairness of empowering leadership based on its contribution to communal achievement rather than individual benefit (Hui et al. 2004).

The moderating function of cultural orientation in SET may also explain the differing

impact of empowering leadership on views of organisational justice across individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Cultural values have a considerable impact on how leadership behaviours are understood and valued as resources. For example, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) found that, whereas empowering leadership typically improves views of procedural and distributive justice, the extent of this impact differs by cultural setting. Eylon and Au (1999) backed up this claim by discovering that empowerment is more effective in increasing perceptions of justice in individualistic cultures, where autonomy and self-direction are highly valued, than in collectivistic cultures, where group harmony and collective goals may lead to different interpretations of justice.

In addition to SET, SDT provides useful insights into how I-C orientations impact employee reactions to empowering leadership by emphasising intrinsic motivation and the fulfilment of fundamental psychological needs like as autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In individualistic cultures, where autonomy is key, empowering leadership meets the desire for autonomy, increasing intrinsic motivation and encouraging good organisational results (Gagné & Deci 2005). Vansteenkiste et al. (2020) found that when employees believe their desire for autonomy is being satisfied, they are more likely to feel psychologically empowered, which leads to increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This is consistent with the main principles of SDT, which emphasise that intrinsic motivation is motivated by the satisfaction of psychological needs that are culturally valued.

However, in collectivistic societies, the use of SDT must take into consideration the cultural focus on relatedness and social cohesiveness. While autonomy is still an essential psychological need, the need for relatedness being part of a group may be more significant for employees in collectivist settings (Ryan & Deci, 2017). In these situations, empowering leadership is beneficial not just because it gives people authority, but also because it develops a feeling of belonging and cooperation within the group. Chen et al. (2018) and Vansteenkiste et al. (2020) found that in collectivistic cultures, leadership that promotes both autonomy and relatedness leads to increased intrinsic motivation and organisational

commitment. These results highlight the need of taking cultural subtleties into account when using SDT to assess employee behaviour in diverse cultural situations.

Empirical research has increasingly used these theoretical frameworks to investigate the intricacies of I-C in organisational behaviour. For example, Chen et al. (2018) used SDT to investigate how empowering leadership affected intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures, discovering that meeting autonomy and relatedness needs was critical for employee engagement across cultures. Similarly, Vansteenkiste et al. (2020) used SDT to show that empowering leadership increases intrinsic motivation in collectivistic cultures by promoting both autonomy and relatedness, emphasising the necessity of culturally appropriate leadership approaches. Hui, Au, and Fock (2004) used SET to investigate how collectivistic ideals affected the link between empowering leadership and perception of justice, emphasising the importance of group-oriented advantages in creating justice beliefs.

These empirical investigations demonstrate the importance of SET and SDT in understanding the relationship between I-C and leadership behaviours. By investigating how cultural values impact the understanding and efficacy of empowering leadership, researchers may create more sophisticated models of organisational behaviour that account for the range of cultural orientations seen in global workplaces. This technique is especially useful in today's increasingly multicultural organisations, where leaders must manage complicated cultural relations to create a fair and engaging work environment.

2.8.2 The relationship between empowering leadership and the individualism-collectivism

The relationship between empowering leadership and the individualism- collectivism construct has been found to be an important aspect of research that helps us to understand how different cultural context influence leadership behaviours and their subsequent outcomes in organisations (Huang et al., 2021). Delegating responsibility and encouraging employee autonomy are hallmarks of empowerment leadership, which is particularly suited to individualistic cultures that place a high importance on independence and self-sufficiency

(Hofstede, 1980; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). According to Lee, Willis, and Tian (2018), leaders in these kinds of settings are more likely to support autonomous decision-making, which reflects the cultural focus on personal development and individual initiative. Empowering leadership is linked to higher work satisfaction, creativity, and performance, according to studies conducted in highly individualistic environments like the US (Lee et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2021). Lee et al. (2018) discovered, for example, that employees in individualistic environments responded well to empowering leadership because it matched their cultural expectations of personal accountability and autonomy. This led to increased engagement and proactive behaviour (Lee et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2021).

On the other hand, a more nuanced image emerges from the dynamics of empowering leadership in collectivistic societies, where interdependence, group cohesion, and hierarchical structures are valued (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995). In these situations, cultural preferences for group decision-making and deference to hierarchy may conflict with empowering behaviours like authority delegation and encouraging individual decision-making (Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004; Chuang, Judge, & Liaw, 2017). Nonetheless, studies show that if empowering leadership is modified to prioritise group empowerment and communal objectives, it may still be successful in collectivistic environments (Chuang et al., 2017; Sharma, Kirkman, & Harris, 2015). According to Chuang et al. (2017), empowering leadership was successful in China's collectivistic society when it promoted a feeling of collective empowerment, which increased organisational commitment and work satisfaction. Similar to this, Sharma et al. (2015) showed that empowering leadership works best in collectivistic cultures when it highlights group objectives and accomplishments, which has favourable results like improved job satisfaction and team performance (Sharma et al., 2015).

In spite of these conclusions, the literature points to a number of gaps that this research seeks to fill. First, more empirical study is needed to clearly investigate the ways in which empowering leadership operates in many cultural contexts, especially in non-Western settings (Huang et al., 2021; Chuang et al., 2017). There may be a bias in our knowledge of how empowering leadership works throughout the world since a large portion of the study on

the subject has been done in individualistic cultures, mostly in Western nations (Lee et al., 2018; Spreitzer, 1995). By investigating the efficacy of empowering leadership in a collectivistic setting, this research aims to close this gap and provide a more thorough understanding of how cultural values affect leadership results.

Second, there is still much to learn about the relationship that exists between psychological concepts like self-construal and empowering leadership within the context of individuality and collectivism (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Spreitzer, 1995). Empirical studies that explicitly relate these dimensions are few, despite evidence suggesting that self-construal whether independent or interdependent moderates the efficacy of empowering leadership (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Lee et al., 2018). In order to close this knowledge gap, this research will look at how employee outcomes and empowering leadership are influenced by self-construal in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures. This will reveal how psychological and cultural factors interact to determine the effectiveness of leadership.

Third, there is a dearth of studies examining how organisational norms and practices influence how empowering leadership and cultural values interact (Jiang & Chen, 2018; Li & Sun, 2018). Although research has demonstrated that supportive organisational practices, especially in collectivistic cultures, can increase the efficacy of empowering leadership, a thorough examination of how these practices interact with cultural values to impact leadership outcomes is lacking (Li & Sun, 2018; Jiang & Chen, 2018). By examining how organisational culture shapes the influence of empowering leadership in various cultural contexts, this research seeks to close this gap. It focusses on how collaboration techniques and collective values may either support or undermine the efficacy of this leadership approach.

Furthermore, while previous studies have shown the benefits of empowering leadership in both collectivistic and individualistic societies, it is still unclear how exactly these benefits are attained (Huang et al., 2021; Chuang et al., 2017). For instance, the emphasis on autonomy and self-direction in individualistic cultures is well-documented; yet little is known about how these values translate into particular leadership behaviours that influence

employee engagement and output (Lee et al., 2018; Spreitzer, 1995). While the importance of group cohesion and shared objectives is acknowledged in collectivistic cultures, further research is needed to determine how empowering leadership fits in with these ideals to improve organisational results (Sharma et al., 2015; Chuang et al., 2017). By examining these processes, this research will provide a more thorough knowledge of the ways in which employees' cultural values and empowering leadership interact to affect employee behaviour.

2.8.3 Operationalising at the Individual Level

A major methodological change in cultural research is represented by the operationalisation of the individualism-collectivism (I-C) cultural component at the person level rather than the national level. According to prevailing cultural norms and values, civilisations are often categorised as individualistic or collectivistic using the I- C dimension, which has been used historically to classify cultures at the national level (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995). A growing body of research, however, is calling for the examination of I-C at the individual-level due to the growing recognition of the heterogeneity within cultures. This approach will enable a more nuanced understanding of how these cultural orientations manifest in a variety of dynamic contexts (Oyserman, 2017; Vignoles et al., 2016). This method is especially useful for research carried out in multicultural or fast evolving nations, like Nigeria, where significant individual variances may be hidden by general national characterisations.

Because of its focus on community, family relationships, and group cohesiveness, Nigerian culture is sometimes classified as collectivist (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). From extended family structures to societal conventions that value community peace above individual ambition, this collectivist approach permeates all facets of Nigerian culture (Falola & Heaton, 2008). These national-level characterisations, however, may be restrictive when applied to individual behaviours within a varied and fast changing country such as Nigeria, even if they provide insightful information about the prevailing cultural trends. Due to the

nation's economic growth, urbanisation, and exposure to outside influences, its cultural landscape is becoming more diverse and complex, with notable variations in personal orientations even within the same national setting (Ukiwo, 2005; Nwankwo, 2012).

It is not only relevant but also vital for this research to operationalise the I-C dimension at the individual-level given this background. Based on factors like socioeconomic status, education, urbanisation, and exposure to global cultures, cultural orientations like individualism and collectivism are not evenly distributed within a society, as empirical research has shown (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010; Oyserman & Lee, 2008). Rather, they can vary significantly across individuals. Research in other collectivist societies, such as China and India, has demonstrated, for example, that people who live in cities or who have completed more education tend to be more individualistic than people who live in rural areas or have not completed as much education (Chirkov, 2015; Gelfand et al., 2004). These results highlight the significance of assessing cultural inclinations at the individual level, especially in environments where social and economic change is happening quickly.

A more accurate and context-sensitive examination of the ways in which cultural values impact behaviour is made possible by the I-C dimension's operationalisation at the person level. The individual-level approach recognises the variety of cultural orientations within a particular population, in contrast to the national-level approach, which presumes a uniformity of cultural features across all members of a society (Morris, Chiu, & Liu, 2015; Oyserman, 2017). This is especially true in Nigeria, where socioeconomic strata, ethnic groupings, and geographical areas may all have quite varied cultural customs and beliefs. This research can better represent the Nigerian environment by capturing the richness and diversity of cultural effects via its emphasis on individual orientations.

The I-C dimension has been effectively operationalised at the individual-level in a number of empirical investigations, proving its relevance and use in many cultural situations. For instance, a meta-analysis of 83 research from various nations by Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier (2002) found a substantial difference in individualism and collectivism within each country. Their results cast doubt on the notion that cultural values are evenly dispersed

across national borders and emphasise the need of individual-level study. Similar to this, Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006) carried out a thorough analysis of the I-C literature and concluded that, especially in multicultural or heterogeneous cultures, individual-level measures of cultural orientation are more predictive of behaviour than national-level categories.

Given Nigeria's socio-cultural variety and the quick speed at which its metropolitan centres are changing, an individual-level approach makes the most sense in this environment. This study's operationalisation of I-C at the individual-level enables it to take into consideration the notable variations in cultural orientations among Nigerians. For example, younger Nigerians, especially those in metropolitan regions, may display more individualistic tendencies owing to their exposure to global media, education, and economic possibilities, whereas collectivist ideals may prevail in rural areas or among older generations (Ukiwo, 2005; Nwankwo, 2012). This research may provide a more accurate and nuanced understanding of how cultural beliefs affect workplace behaviours in Nigeria by concentrating on individual orientations.

Notwithstanding the benefits, person-level operationalisation has come under fire, mainly for questions about the validity and consistency of evaluating cultural constructs at the individual level. Critics contend that the I-C dimension may oversimplify or distort the complex ways in which culture impacts behaviour since it was first established as a macro-level concept to explain national cultures (Venaik & Brewer, 2013; Messner, 2016). Specifically criticising the application of national-level constructs to the individual level, Venaik and Brewer (2013) contend that the instruments used to test these constructs may not be appropriate for capturing individual variations. They opine that there might be measurement errors due to the ineffective translation of the intercorrelations of items intended for national I-C measurement to the individual level.

The increasing amount of evidence, however, demonstrates the reliability and applicability of individual-level measures of cultural orientation, defying these criticisms. According to Oyserman (2017), even if the I-C dimension was developed at the national level,

it may still be applied to people in a meaningful way if the measurement items are suitably modified and verified for analysis at the individual level. Additionally, as Oyserman and Lee (2008) point out, cultural orientations are situational and context-dependent, which implies that operationalising culture at the individual-level is not only legitimate but also essential to capture its fluid and dynamic character. Empirical research demonstrating the validity of individual-level measurements in predicting behaviour in a range of cultural situations lends credence to this approach (Taras et al., 2010; Gelfand et al., 2011).

The practical concerns of research design in this study also support the choice to operationalise the I-C dimension at the person level. Nigeria's vast geographical and socioeconomic differences, along with its rich cultural variety, make a more detailed approach to cultural study necessary. This study's emphasis on individual orientations allows it to take into consideration the variations in cultural values across Nigerians' various demographic groups, leading to a more precise and situation-specific understanding of how culture affects behaviour at work. Recent methodological developments in cultural research support the use of individual-level measurements to capture the complexity of cultural impacts, which is in line with this approach (Morris et al., 2015; Chirkov, 2015).

Additionally, the operationalisation of I-C at the person level in this study aligns with the general trend in cross-cultural research towards more nuanced and context-sensitive methodologies. Scholars like Vignoles et al. (2016) and Kirkman et al. (2017) have stressed how crucial it is to take individual variations within cultural groupings into account, especially in societies that are becoming more linked and globalised. This study's individual-level methodology advances the continuous improvement of cultural theories and offers insightful information on how culture and behaviour interact in a dynamic and varied setting such as Nigeria.

In conclusion, given Nigeria's socio-cultural variety and the country's fast changes, operationalising the I-C component at the person level gives this research a number of benefits. The national-level approach to I-C is less successful in reflecting the diversity and complexity of cultural orientations within a heterogeneous society, even while it offers helpful

insights into broad cultural trends. This research may provide a more accurate and nuanced understanding of how cultural beliefs affect workplace behaviours in Nigeria by concentrating on individual orientations. Despite some criticism, this technique was used for this research because of the empirical research demonstrating the validity and reliability of measures of cultural orientation at the individual level. This strategy provides useful advantages for understanding and handling cultural diversity in organisational contexts, in addition to being in line with current developments in cultural research.

Moreover, the decision to operationalise I-C at the individual-level in this study is further justified by the increasing evidence that cultural dimensions such as individualism and collectivism manifest differently across various social and organisational contexts within the same country (Ramamoorthy & Flood, 2004; Kim & Coleman, 2015; Kirkman et al., 2022). This approach is particularly relevant in Nigeria, where socio-economic diversity, urbanisation, and exposure to global cultures have led to a more complex interplay between individualistic and collectivistic orientations among employees. For instance, urban professionals in Nigeria may exhibit more individualistic tendencies due to their exposure to global work practices, while employees in more traditional settings may still align strongly with collectivist values. This heterogeneity underscores the importance of examining I-C at the individual-level to capture the full spectrum of cultural influences on employee behaviour.

Thus, while this study acknowledges the traditional classification of Nigeria as a collectivist society, it recognizes the importance of considering individual-level cultural orientations to better understand employee behaviour in contemporary organisational settings. By doing so, this research not only contributes to filling the gap in I-C studies within the African context but also provides a more detailed analysis of how cultural dimensions influence work behaviours in a rapidly changing socio-cultural environment

2.9 THEORIES UNDERPINNING THE STUDY: SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY AND SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

Extra-role behaviours, such as employee voice and knowledge sharing, are essential for organisational success, fostering innovation, adaptability, and overall performance. These behaviours, though voluntary, contribute significantly to organisational growth. A range of theoretical perspectives explains the factors that drive employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours. This section explores these key theories, linking them to employees' motivation and decision-making in contributing to organisational improvement.

Psychological Safety is a critical theory that significantly impacts employees' behaviours. Psychological safety refers to the shared belief that individuals can take interpersonal risks, such as voicing concerns or offering suggestions, without fear of negative repercussions (Edmondson, 1999). When employees feel psychologically safe, they are more likely to express ideas that challenge the status quo, thus fostering organisational innovation (Frazier et al., 2017). Research highlights that psychological safety encourages more frequent and open communication, as employees feel confident that their input will be respected and valued (Liu et al., 2022). Further evidence shows that leaders play key roles in creating this environment by promoting open dialogue and showing a non-punitive response to mistakes (Hirak et al., 2012). Consequently, organisations that cultivate psychological safety can expect higher levels of creative and critical employee contributions (Edmondson, 2019).

In addition, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory have been found to provide insights into how leadership quality affects employees behaviours. LMX theory posits that the quality of the relationship between leaders and employees influences to exhibit positive (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Thus, high-quality relationships, characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, create an environment where employees feel supported and are more likely to engage in voice behaviour (Liden et al., 2015). Empirical studies consistently show that employees in high-quality LMX relationships exhibit higher levels of voice behaviour, as

they feel a greater sense of obligation to contribute positively to the organisation (Ilies et al., 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2019). Moreover, these relationships reduce the perceived risks associated with voicing concerns, further encouraging open communication.

Similarly, Organisational Justice Theory focuses on fairness within the organisation and its impact on employee voice. Employees' perceptions of procedural, distributive, and interactional justice directly influence their willingness to speak up (Colquitt et al., 2013). When employees believe they are being treated fairly, they are more likely to trust the organisation and share their ideas and concerns, fostering a participatory culture (Morrison et al., 2020). Fairness also reduces the fear of retaliation, enhancing employees' confidence in voicing dissenting opinions (Hu & Jiang, 2018). Therefore, organisational justice serves as a crucial factor in promoting an open and communicative environment.

Moving on to SDT, this framework emphasises intrinsic motivation as a key driver of both voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours. According to SDT, employees are more likely to engage in these behaviours when their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When employees feel empowered, capable, and connected to others, they are intrinsically motivated to contribute to the organisation's success through proactive communication and knowledge sharing (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Studies show that autonomy and competence in particular are strong predictors of proactive behaviours, as employees who feel capable of influencing organisational outcomes are more likely to share their ideas (Ryan & Deci, 2017). In the current study, SDT is applied to explain how intrinsic motivation fosters voice behaviour, especially in environments that support employees' autonomy and competence.

SET is also integral to this study, as it explains how reciprocal relationships between employees and the organisation promote knowledge sharing. Employees are more likely to share their expertise and information when they perceive that the organisation values their contributions and offers support in return (Blau, 1964). SET highlights the importance of perceived organisational support in encouraging knowledge-sharing behaviours (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In this study, SET is used to explore how mutual trust and

reciprocity between employees and their organisation enhance knowledge sharing, thereby fostering a collaborative and innovative culture.

Furthermore, Role Theory adds another dimension to understanding voice behaviour. Role Theory suggests that employees' perceptions of their job roles influence their willingness to engage in voice (Katz & Kahn, 1978). When employees have a clear understanding of their responsibilities and believe that speaking up is part of their role, they are more likely to contribute to organisational improvement (Xu et al., 2024). Research shows that role clarity enhances voice behaviour, as employees are more confident in expressing their ideas when they understand that such actions are expected and valued (Morrison, 2014). Therefore, role theory underscores the importance of defining job roles that include proactive communication, thus encouraging voice behaviour.

On the topic of knowledge sharing, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) offer valuable insights. These theories suggest that employees' intentions to share knowledge are influenced by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1991). Employees are more likely to engage in knowledge-sharing behaviours when they have a positive attitude towards it and believe their colleagues and the organisation value such contributions (Brock et al., 2005).

In addition, Social Capital Theory highlights the role of social networks in facilitating knowledge sharing. According to this theory, trust and strong interpersonal relationships within an organisation promote the free flow of knowledge (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Employees are more likely to share their knowledge when they feel a sense of trust and belonging within their social networks (Yu & Takahashi, 2021). Hence, organisations that foster strong social connections and trust can enhance knowledge-sharing behaviours among employees.

In conclusion, the theoretical perspectives discussed, SET, SDT, psychological safety, LMX, organisational justice, role theory, and social capital theory provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors driving employees' voice and knowledge-

sharing behaviours. These theories highlight the importance of intrinsic motivation, fairness, trust, and supportive leadership in fostering an open, communicative, and collaborative organisational culture. The current study focuses on SDT and SET to explain how intrinsic motivation and reciprocal relationships shape voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours, which are critical for organisational success.

2.9.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social Exchange Theory (SET) offers a comprehensive framework for understanding how workplace relationships shape employee behaviour. Rooted in sociology, psychology, and anthropology, SET posits that social relationships are built on reciprocity, trust, and mutual obligations, which influence how individuals engage with their organizations (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Sahlins, 1972). Unlike economic exchanges, which involve explicit contracts and immediate compensation, social exchanges are long-term, based on mutual confidence and open-ended commitments (Blau, 1964). Employees develop trust in their organization when they perceive fairness, support, and recognition, leading to discretionary behaviours such as employee voice and knowledge sharing (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

SET explains how employees decide whether to actively contribute beyond their formal roles based on perceived costs and benefits in their workplace relationships (Homans, 1961). If employees trust that their efforts will be reciprocated either through recognition, career growth, or leadership support they are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviours such as speaking up about workplace issues or sharing valuable insights (Colquitt et al., 2013). Conversely, when employees perceive unfairness or exploitation, they may disengage, withholding contributions that could benefit the organization (Lavelle et al., 2009). This dynamic makes SET highly relevant in understanding employee motivation and engagement, particularly in complex, hierarchical organizations such as multinational corporations (MNCs).

The integration of SET into this research is justified for several reasons. First, SET provides a relational perspective on workplace behaviour, explaining how employees'

willingness to engage in knowledge sharing and voice behaviour depends on their social exchange relationships with the organization (Blau, 1964). Unlike theories that focus solely on intrinsic motivation, SET acknowledges that employee engagement is influenced by external factors such as leadership quality, perceived fairness, and organizational support (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Employees do not operate in isolation but rather within a network of social interactions where trust and reciprocity play a key role in shaping behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2013).

Second, SET explains discretionary workplace behaviours in the absence of immediate rewards. Employees often engage in extra-role behaviours not because they are contractually obligated to do so but because they perceive a long-term benefit in their relationships with their employer (Gouldner, 1960). Organizations that foster a sense of fairness, trust, and mutual obligation create an environment where employees willingly contribute beyond their formal duties (Lavelle et al., 2009). In contrast, a lack of perceived fairness can lead to withdrawal, silence, and disengagement, negatively affecting innovation and productivity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Third, SET is highly applicable in the context of multinational corporations (MNCs), where employees navigate complex power structures, diverse leadership styles, and varied cultural expectations (Chen et al., 2021). In collectivist societies such as Nigeria, where workplace relationships are shaped by hierarchical and relational norms, SET provides a robust framework for understanding how leadership and perceived fairness impact employee engagement (Liu et al., 2021). Employees in such settings often weigh their contributions based on trust and expectations of reciprocity, rather than purely on contractual obligations (Wu et al., 2020).

Finally, SET provides a strong theoretical foundation for examining the role of leadership in fostering employee engagement. Leaders who cultivate high-quality social exchanges by showing support, providing opportunities for growth, and fostering an environment of fairness enhance employees' willingness to share knowledge and voice concerns (Sun et al., 2022). Conversely, when leaders fail to build trust-based relationships,

employees are more likely to withhold valuable contributions due to fear of negative repercussions (Ansong, 2023). This dynamic is particularly relevant in industries where innovation and collaboration are essential for organizational success.

In explaining Set other theories such as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory have been used to provide a more specific perspective on how leader-employee relationships influence workplace behaviours (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX theory builds on the principles of SET by suggesting that leaders establish differentiated relationships with employees, resulting in varying levels of trust, respect, and mutual obligation (Liden et al., 2015). Employees who develop high-quality exchanges with their leaders experience stronger social bonds, leading to increased engagement, empowerment, and motivation to go beyond their formal roles (Walumbwa et al., 2019). Conversely, low-quality LMX relationships resemble transactional, economic exchanges, where interactions remain formal, contractual, and limited to basic job responsibilities (Liden et al., 2015). By incorporating LMX, in this study the researcher aims to gain a deeper understanding of how leadership quality influences social exchange processes, further reinforcing the relevance of SET in workplace behaviour studies.

2.9.1.1. Social vs. Economic Exchange Theory.

In order to fully understand SET, it is essential to contrast it with Economic Exchange Theory (EET). Social exchanges differ significantly from economic exchanges in the workplace (Blau, 1964). SET and EET are often confused due to their shared focus on workplace relationships; however, they differ significantly in terms of the nature of reciprocity, employee motivation, and the impact on discretionary behaviours (Cropanzano et al., 2020). While EET is based on clearly defined, transactional relationships governed by formal agreements, SET emphasizes long-term, trust-based relationships that influence employee engagement beyond contractual obligations (Lee et al., 2021). This study focuses exclusively on SET because it provides a more comprehensive framework for understanding employee discretionary behaviours such as voice and knowledge sharing, which are driven by relational dynamics rather than contractual exchanges (Ko & Choi, 2020).

Economic exchanges are characterized by explicit contracts and defined obligations, where employees perform specific tasks in exchange for tangible rewards such as salaries, bonuses, and promotions (Shao et al., 2020). These transactions follow a *quid pro quo* structure, meaning that employees contribute only to the extent required by their job descriptions, with little room for voluntary behaviors (Sharma & Dhar, 2021). SET, on the other hand, posits that employees engage in behaviors beyond their formal roles when they perceive fairness, trust, and long-term reciprocity in their workplace relationships (Guo et al., 2021).

One of the fundamental limitations of EET is that it does not fully explain extra-role behaviours, such as employees voluntarily sharing knowledge or voicing concerns, because these actions often do not provide immediate or guaranteed returns (Aryee et al., 2022). In contrast, SET accounts for these discretionary behaviors by emphasizing that employees contribute proactively when they perceive their organization as fair and supportive, even without direct rewards (Peng & Wei, 2021). This distinction is critical in knowledge-based industries, where employees are expected to go beyond their contractual duties to foster innovation and collaboration (Sun et al., 2020).

Social exchanges, unlike economic transactions, rely on relational elements such as trust, mutual respect, and perceived fairness, which shape employees' willingness to engage in proactive workplace behaviors (Kim et al., 2021). Employees who feel valued and supported are more likely to voice their opinions, share insights, and contribute to team success, whereas those who perceive workplace relationships as purely transactional may withhold effort beyond their formal job responsibilities (Liu et al., 2022).

Moreover, SET has been found to positively influence employee engagement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction, as it fosters a culture of long-term collaboration rather than short-term compliance (Farid et al., 2021). Employees who experience high-quality social exchanges with their leaders and colleagues develop a greater sense of belonging and loyalty, increasing their willingness to contribute beyond economic expectations (Yang et al., 2021).

Given that this study aims to explore how social interactions shape employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours, SET provides a more relevant theoretical foundation than EET, which is primarily concerned with formal contracts and economic incentives (Han et al., 2020). Organizations that rely solely on economic exchanges may struggle to foster innovation and adaptability, as employees in such environments may be reluctant to go beyond the minimum requirements of their jobs (Chen et al., 2020).

By focusing on SET rather than EET, this study highlights the importance of trust, fairness, and long-term reciprocity in encouraging employees to share knowledge and voice concerns (Wang et al., 2022). Unlike economic exchanges, which tend to create rigid, performance-based relationships, social exchanges promote collaborative, commitment-driven work environments, leading to sustainable employee engagement and long-term organizational success (Li et al., 2021).

2.9.1.2. Social Exchange Theory and Employee Voice Behaviour.

The theory has received substantial attention in the study of employee voice behaviour in organisation. For example, through the lens of SET, for example, Medina et al. (2022) suggested that job insecurity might have a detrimental effect on voice behaviour by lowering employee engagement and decreasing their readiness to express ideas and provide suggestions when job security benefits are lacking. Employees may stop actively participating in organisational discourse if they feel less certain of receiving support and reciprocation from the organisation (Medina et al., 2022; Yuan et al., 2022). The research emphasises how crucial organisational stability is to create a favourable atmosphere for social interaction that supports employee voice.

In another study, the mediating role of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) in the relationship between voice endorsement and safety voice behaviour was examined by Sun et al. (2022). Their results showed how employee voice is influenced by the quality of social interactions that occur within the leader-member relationships by highlighting that employees were more likely to engage in voice behaviour when they have high-quality LMX that are marked by mutual trust and respect relations with their managers. This is because these

relationships increase the perceived worth of the social exchange (Sun et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022). The importance of leadership in forming the social exchange dynamics that support voice behaviour in organisational contexts was also emphasised by this study.

More also, Thaker et al. (2021) investigated the effect of job insecurity on employee voice behaviour and proposed that differences in job security levels might modify the degree to which employees participate in voice behaviour, further demonstrating the applicability of SET. The findings are buttressed by Li et al. (2022), who argue that employee voice and innovative behaviours are closely related to reciprocity principles and that willingness to contribute depends on how this organisation perceives the give-and-take balance (Li et al., 2022).

In conclusion, SET provides a comprehensive theoretical framework for understanding the dynamics of employee voice behaviour in organisations. As such, organisations may successfully use SET to establish a culture that appreciates and supports employee voice by incorporating the concepts of reciprocity, social exchanges, and relationship quality. Improved employee engagement, creativity, and overall organisational success are some of the benefits that may result from this (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Farh & Chen, 2018).

2.9.1.3. Social Exchange Theory and Employee knowledge Sharing Behaviour.

In the field of organisational behaviour, SET has been thoroughly studied, especially in relation to comprehending the processes behind employee knowledge-sharing activities (Zhang & Liu, 2022). To gain insights into knowledge-sharing behaviour, this theoretical framework offers a lens through which the dynamics of social interactions and reciprocal exchanges in organisations may be examined (Gerpott et al., 2020). This part of the literature review explores the scholarly research that connects employee knowledge-sharing behaviours with SET, providing a thorough grasp of the interactions between social exchanges and organisational knowledge dynamics.

According to SET, individuals share information within organisations when they believe the advantages of doing so exceed the drawbacks. These perceived costs and

benefits might take the form of intangible (like trust and social capital) or physical (like rewards and recognition) resources (Devi, 2024). Reciprocity, or the reciprocal exchange of resources or services when one party's actions evoke a comparable reaction from another, is a fundamental idea of SET (Vieira et al., 2023). Reciprocity in the context of knowledge sharing suggests that employees are more likely to impart their expertise when they anticipate receiving the same in return from their peers. According to Lin (2007), knowledge sharing is significantly motivated by reciprocal advantages since employees are more likely to share expertise when they expect to get helpful information or assistance in return. According to Bertraies et al. (2021) this kind of reciprocal communication promotes an ongoing flow of information inside the organisation, which improves organisational learning and creativity.

In the process of social exchange, trust is essential, especially when transferring information (Chang, 2021). Open communication among employees is encouraged and perceived risks related to sharing information are reduced when there is trust. Employee trust, according to Yu and Takahashi (2021), fosters a secure workplace that encourages knowledge sharing since it increases employees' desire to share their expertise with the understanding that it would be valued and not misused. A collaborative and communicative workplace is facilitated by the absence of fear of losing personal benefits or experiencing bad repercussions as a result of sharing information, which is less likely to occur in an organisation where trust is present (Chang, 2021).

Moreover, SET considers extrinsic as well as intrinsic motives as factors influencing knowledge-sharing behaviour. According to Slavković & Simić (2020), engaging in an activity for its own intrinsic enjoyment instead of any external reward is referred to as intrinsic motivation. Lee and Kim (2017) discovered that knowledge-sharing behaviours are significantly enhanced by intrinsic motives such as personal fulfilment and professional advancement. Employees who enjoy and feel fulfilled by imparting their knowledge are more inclined to do it voluntarily and regularly. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to actions taken in order to get benefits or recognition from outside sources (Adamu & Manuwa,

2022). Extrinsic incentives may encourage information sharing, but they may not have the same long-term effects as intrinsic motives. Although both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives are significant, Lin (2007) emphasises that since intrinsic motivation is firmly anchored in personal fulfilment and happiness, its long-term effects are often more significant.

Employees' willingness to share information is also influenced by how much they feel supported by the organisation. Employees are more willing to share expertise when they perceive that their organisation values and supports them. High- commitment HRM strategies have been shown to boost knowledge-sharing behaviour by improving employees' sense of organisational support (Chiang et al., 2011). These actions show the organisation's dedication to the growth and welfare of its employees, which in turn creates a positive atmosphere that promotes knowledge sharing behaviour (Hanif et al., 2020).

The knowledge-sharing behaviour that results from social interchange has a big impact on organisational outcomes. A creative organisational environment where a variety of viewpoints and skills are merged to develop new solutions is fostered by effective information sharing that is driven by social interchange (Devi, 2023). Knowledge that is freely exchanged and reassembled in creative ways promotes innovation and improves an organisation's capacity to adjust to changing conditions. Effective information sharing also facilitates the transfer of best practices and eliminates duplication of effort, which increases work efficiency.

According to Yang (2022), companies that have strong knowledge-sharing policies may improve performance by streamlining procedures, increasing overall productivity, and achieving better results. Moreover, employees who actively share information tend to be more engaged and satisfied with their jobs. Being acknowledged for one's efforts and contributing to the organisation's success raises spirits and strengthens a person's loyalty to it (Kim & Park, 2017). The proactive and collaborative nature of engaged employees enhances the organisation's culture of information sharing.

2.9.2 *Self Determination Theory (SDT)*

Deci and Ryan created the highly regarded SDT, a psychological paradigm that explores human motivation by emphasising three basic psychological needs: relatedness, autonomy, and competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). According to Ryan and Deci (2000), these demands are essential for developing intrinsic motivation, which is the state in which people are motivated by their own pleasure and contentment as opposed to outside incentives.

Individuals' feeling of initiative and choice in their acts is referred to as autonomy. According to SDT, people who can participate in activities that are in line with their beliefs and areas of interest are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Studies highlight the benefits of autonomy-supportive parenting, schooling, and employment practices for improving learning outcomes, motivation, and general well-being (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Deci et al., 1999; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

Competence has to do with how well people think they can handle obstacles and accomplish their objectives. According to SDT, situations that provide suitable challenges and helpful criticism promote competence and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Research shows that persistent engagement and performance across a range of disciplines are correlated with sensations of competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Harter, 1978; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999).

Relatedness refers to the need of having deep relationships with other people. According to Ryan & Deci (2000) and Jang et al. (2010), SDT emphasises that students' intrinsic motivation, academic engagement, and well-being are enhanced by supportive social contexts, such as good interactions with peers and instructors.

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), SDT classifies motivation in terms of a range that includes amotivation, which is the absence of motivation, intrinsic motivation, which is the desire to engage in an activity for its own sake, and several types of extrinsic motivation. According to this hypothesis, people who have their requirements for relatedness, competence, and autonomy satisfied are more likely to be motivated by internal factors.

Applications of SDT are found in many different domains, such as organisational psychology, sports, healthcare, and education. SDT influences educational methods that foster settings that encourage autonomy, which raises student motivation and academic accomplishment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). With an emphasis on autonomy and relatedness in promoting health behaviours, SDT directs healthcare practices to comprehend patient motivation and encourage adherence to treatment (Williams et al., 2002). Remarkably, while SDT has received empirical backing, its cross-cultural and cross-context applicability has been contested, requiring cultural modifications and more study to ensure universal application (Chirkov et al., 2003; Vansteenkiste et al., 2020).

SDT is used in this study as it is particularly useful for understanding employee engagement because it accounts for both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Unlike traditional behavioral theories that focus solely on rewards and punishment, SDT provides a comprehensive explanation of sustained motivation in workplaces (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

First, SDT highlights the importance of autonomy-supportive environments in enhancing employee engagement. Employees are not merely motivated by financial rewards but also by the psychological fulfilment that comes from meaningful work (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Organizations that allow employee participation in decision-making and problem-solving foster a sense of ownership, leading to higher engagement in knowledge-sharing and voice behaviours (Gagné et al., 2015).

Second, SDT provides insight into how intrinsic motivation sustains long-term discretionary behaviours. Employees who experience competence and self-efficacy are naturally inclined to share knowledge and express ideas without requiring constant external incentives (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). This makes SDT especially relevant for innovation-driven industries, where organizations rely on employee contributions for continuous improvement (Yang, 2022).

Third, SDT is highly applicable across diverse workplace cultures. While some motivation theories, such as expectancy theory, are primarily focused on individualistic work cultures, SDT accommodates both individual and collective orientations (Chirkov et al.,

2003). This makes SDT valuable in multinational corporations (MNCs) operating in culturally diverse environments, such as Nigeria, where collectivist values influence workplace behaviour (Chen et al., 2021).

Finally, SDT provides actionable insights for leadership development. Managers who adopt autonomy-supportive leadership styles, rather than controlling approaches, cultivate higher levels of employee engagement and discretionary effort (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Encouraging employee independence, offering skill development opportunities, and fostering positive social connections creates a workplace where employees feel intrinsically motivated to contribute beyond their job descriptions (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

SDT provides a strong theoretical foundation for understanding employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours by emphasizing autonomy, competence, and relatedness as key psychological drivers of engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Unlike extrinsic motivation theories that focus solely on reward structures, SDT explains why employees sustain discretionary efforts even without immediate incentives (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

This research justifies the integration of SDT by demonstrating its applicability in diverse organizational contexts, particularly in multinational corporations where both individual and collective motivations shape workplace behaviours (Chen et al., 2021). By fostering autonomy-supportive environments, recognizing employees' competencies, and promoting workplace relationships, organizations can enhance intrinsic motivation, leading to higher employee engagement, creativity, and sustained discretionary behaviours (Gagné et al., 2015; Colquitt et al., 2013).

2.9.2.1. Self Determination Theory and Employee Voice Behaviour.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) provides a compelling framework for understanding employee voice behaviour by emphasizing intrinsic motivation and the fulfilment of psychological needs. SDT posits that individuals are more likely to engage in proactive workplace behaviours, including voicing concerns and sharing ideas, when their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In an

environment where employees feel psychologically empowered, they are more inclined to express their thoughts, challenge existing norms, and contribute innovative ideas that enhance organizational success (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Research demonstrates that organizations that foster autonomy-supportive environments create conditions where employees feel valued and confident in speaking up (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Kensbock and Stöckmann (2020) argue that employees are naturally proactive and self-motivated, aligning with SDT's assertion that when psychological needs are met, employees exhibit greater willingness to engage in voice behaviours. Similarly, Lee et al. (2018) found that empowering leadership styles, which prioritize employee autonomy and competence, significantly enhance voice behaviour by encouraging transparent communication and openness to feedback.

The role of leadership in shaping voice behaviour is critical. Leaders who promote autonomy, provide constructive feedback, and create trust-based relationships foster a culture of voice (Frazier et al., 2017). Employees in such environments perceive less risk in voicing their opinions and are more inclined to contribute to organizational learning and innovation (Liang et al., 2017).

SDT also explains the psychological benefits of voice behaviour. Employees who feel authentic and able to express their true selves at work experience greater well-being and job satisfaction (Xu et al., 2021). This highlights the need for organizations to integrate SDT principles into leadership development, ensuring that employees feel competent, autonomous, and socially connected, thereby encouraging voice behaviours that drive continuous improvement (Deci & Ryan, 2017).

In conclusion, SDT underscores the importance of creating workplace conditions that support employees' autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Organizations that prioritize these psychological needs can expect higher engagement in voice behaviour, leading to greater collaboration, innovation, and organizational adaptability (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.9.2.2. Self Determination Theory and Employee knowledge Sharing Behaviour

SDT also offers a strong theoretical foundation for understanding knowledge-sharing behaviours in organizations. Knowledge sharing—the voluntary exchange of skills, expertise, and insights is critical for organizational learning and performance (Deci & Ryan, 1985). SDT suggests that when employees experience autonomy, competence, and relatedness, they are intrinsically motivated to share knowledge without requiring external incentives (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Studies indicate that autonomy is a key driver of knowledge-sharing behaviours. Employees who perceive control over their work and decision-making are more likely to share knowledge freely and proactively (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Conversely, rigid hierarchies and micromanagement reduce intrinsic motivation, leading to lower engagement in knowledge exchange (Gagné, 2009).

Competence also plays a crucial role in knowledge sharing. Employees who feel skilled and confident in their expertise are more inclined to contribute valuable insights (Yu & Takahashi, 2021). Providing skill development opportunities and constructive feedback enhances employees' willingness to share knowledge and collaborate (Lin, 2007).

Relatedness further influences knowledge sharing by fostering a sense of trust and collaboration. Employees who experience positive workplace relationships and psychological safety are more likely to engage in open knowledge-sharing behaviours (Kim & Park, 2017). A workplace that prioritizes social connections and mutual respect encourages teamwork and a free flow of knowledge (Gagné et al., 2015).

Research also highlights the long-term benefits of intrinsic motivation in knowledge sharing. While extrinsic incentives (such as rewards and recognition) can encourage short-term knowledge exchange, intrinsically motivated employees are more likely to share knowledge consistently, leading to sustained organizational learning and innovation (Devi, 2023). Organizations that balance extrinsic and intrinsic motivators create a culture of continuous knowledge-sharing, improving efficiency, problem-solving, and innovation

capacity (Yang, 2022).

In summary, SDT provides a comprehensive explanation of why employees willingly engage in knowledge-sharing behaviours. By cultivating autonomy, competence, and relatedness, organizations can create a work environment that fosters collaboration, innovation, and sustained knowledge exchange (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

2.9.3 Integrating SDT and SET

Understanding the mechanisms that drive employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours requires a multidimensional approach, as no single theory fully explains the complex interplay between motivation and workplace relationships. While Self-Determination Theory (SDT) provides insight into intrinsic motivation and psychological needs, Social Exchange Theory (SET) captures the relational dynamics that shape discretionary workplace behaviours. Integrating these theories offers a more comprehensive and nuanced perspective, particularly in the context of multinational companies (MNCs) in Nigeria, where both individual motivation and social reciprocity play crucial roles in shaping employee behaviour.

A limitation of SDT is its emphasis on internal motivation while largely overlooking the social and structural factors that influence workplace behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2000). While SDT argues that employees are most engaged when their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are fulfilled, it does not fully account for how external organizational conditions, such as leadership practices, fairness, and reciprocity, influence behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2017). In workplaces where collaborative exchanges and mutual obligations are essential, motivation cannot be entirely self-determined but is also shaped by external social relationships (Gagné & Deci, 2005). This is particularly relevant in collectivist cultures like Nigeria, where social expectations and reciprocal relationships strongly influence discretionary behaviour (Chen et al., 2021).

Conversely, SET effectively explains how reciprocity, trust, and perceived fairness influence employee engagement but does not sufficiently address individual psychological

needs that drive intrinsic commitment (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Employees do not engage in knowledge sharing or voice behaviour merely because of social obligations; they must also feel a sense of autonomy, mastery, and connection to their work (Deci & Ryan, 2000). If workplace relationships lack psychological fulfilment, employees may comply with social norms but without sustained intrinsic engagement (Gagné et al., 2015).

By integrating SDT and SET, this research acknowledges that employee behaviour is shaped by both intrinsic motivation and social-exchange dynamics. SDT highlights the psychological conditions necessary for sustained engagement, while SET explains how organizational justice and leader-employee relationships mediate these effects (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Cropanzano et al., 2017). This dual perspective is essential in MNCs, where employees must balance personal agency with social obligations in a complex organizational structure (Chen et al., 2021). Organizations that foster autonomy-supportive environments while maintaining fair and reciprocal relationships will be better positioned to enhance innovation, collaboration, and long-term employee commitment (Gagné et al., 2015; Colquitt et al., 2013).

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 THEORIES

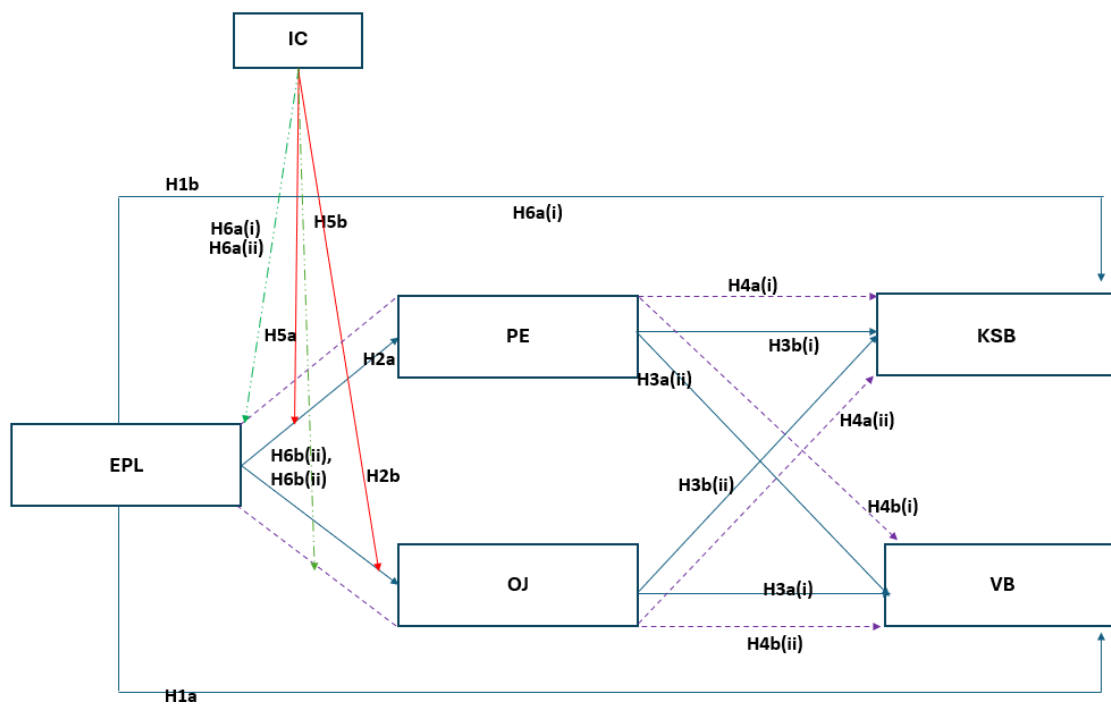
This research investigated the processes by which empowering leadership promotes employee voice and knowledge-sharing activities within multinational companies in Nigeria using SDT and SET as discussed in chapter Two above. These theories are chosen because they have strong explanatory ability for both internal and extrinsic motivating elements influencing employee behaviour.

3.2 CONCEPTUAL MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

3.2.1 Conceptualised Model

Figure 1: Conceptual Model (Study One) and Figure 2: Conceptual Model (Study Two) below illustrates the mechanism through empowering leadership stimulate employees' voice and knowledge sharing behaviours through psychological empowerment, organisational justice and leader-member exchange at the individual and team level.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model (Study One)



Psychological empowerment (PE) is seen as a crucial mediator that boosts employees' innate drive, thereby creating a favourable atmosphere for proactive information sharing and expressing opinions. Organisational justice (OJ) also plays a crucial role by emphasising the perceived fairness and equality among employees, which in turn enhances their motivation to participate in knowledge sharing and expressing problems or ideas. Moreover, the model incorporates individualism- collectivism (IC) as a cultural factor that has the capacity to temper these interactions. This acknowledges the many cultural settings in which leadership and employee behaviours occur.

The model differentiates between direct links and more intricate moderated mediation effects, suggesting that the influence of empowering leadership on KSB and VB is not linear but rather contingent on the interplay of several mediators and moderators. This sophisticated methodology enables a more thorough comprehension of how leadership behaviours directly impact employee results. It offers a strong foundation for investigating the factors that influence information sharing and voice behaviours at the individual level. This study examines the relationship between team members' views of justice atmosphere and team results.

Study Two

Study Two builds on the model in study one and offers a multilevel conceptual model that looks at how empowering leadership affects results at the team and individual levels. It focusses on two main mediators: leader-member exchange (LMX) and organisational justice. This paradigm emphasises the importance of relational and justice-related processes and offers insights into how team leadership practices impact individual behaviours and team dynamics.

Team - Level Effect

It is hypothesised that at the team level, organisational justice (organisational climate) at Time 2 (OJT2) and leader-member exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2) are significantly influenced by empowering leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1). This model defines empowering leadership as a style of leadership that encourages team members' autonomy, shared

decision-making, and feeling of ownership. It is anticipated that this leadership style would promote a high-quality leader-member relationship marked by duty, respect, and trust between the team leader and members.

A key result of empowering leadership at the team-level is leader-member exchange (LMXT2), which measures the general quality of connections between the team and the leader. A high level of LMX within a team indicates that the team is successfully developing strong, good connections as a result of the leader's empowering behaviours. This will therefore probably lead to the development of a cohesive and encouraging team atmosphere.

A further important result is organisational justice (OJT2), which stands for the team's overall sense of fairness. The team's sense of justice is improved when a leader exercises empowering leadership, especially when it comes to treating people fairly, allocating resources equitably, and being open and honest about the decision-making process. This sense of justice is essential to creating a cooperative and enthusiastic team atmosphere.

Cross-level effect

The model also looks at cross-level impacts, i.e., how individual behaviours like voice behaviour (VB2) and knowledge sharing behaviour (KSB2) may be influenced by team-level constructs like leader-member exchange (LMXT2) and organisational justice (OJT2). These cross-level effects imply that individual team member behaviour is greatly influenced by the overall team environment, which is determined by organisational justice, LMX, and empowering leadership.

Individual members are more inclined to share expertise and take initiative in teams where there is a high level of leader-member exchange and organisational justice is seen as fair. This happens because people are encouraged to participate more freely and actively to the success of the team in a good team environment that is defined by strong LMX and high organisational justice. The relevance of the larger team context in influencing individual actions is shown by the cross-level effect of these team-level characteristics on individual behaviours.

Individual-level Effect

The model looks at how team-level characteristics affect certain employee behaviours at the individual level, with an emphasis on voice behaviour (VB2) and knowledge sharing behaviour (KSB2). Since they include the sharing of important information and the voicing of thoughts, worries, or recommendations, these behaviours are essential for both team performance and creativity.

According to the model, the degree of organisational justice within the team and the perceived quality of leader-member exchange have a direct impact on individual-level information sharing and voice behaviours. Even in an environment with distinctions, people are more likely to feel appreciated and encouraged when they believe they have a high-quality exchange connection with their leader. This increases participation in voice behaviours and information sharing. In a similar vein, when people see that the team is run properly, they feel more comfortable sharing their expertise and thoughts because they know that their contributions will be fairly considered and valued.

3.2.2 Development of Hypotheses

3.2.2.1. Individual-level Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: The Relationship Between Employee Voice Behaviour and Empowering Leadership

Empirical and theoretical research have shown a strong correlation between employee voice behaviour (VB) and empowering leadership. Employee participation in goal setting and decision-making is increased when leaders are empowering, which heightens the employees' sense of negotiation latitude (Dansereau et al., 1975; McCloskey & McDonnell, 2018). Because of this apparent freedom, employees are encouraged to voice their opinions and the dangers connected with VB are reduced. Empowering leadership is regularly shown to have a beneficial impact on VB. To promote VB, Raub and Robert (2012) discovered that psychological empowerment acts as a mediator in the interaction between organisational commitment and empowering leadership.

Similarly, the study by Lee et al. (2018) showed that the association between VB and

empowering leadership is mediated by harmonious passion, and that this impact is further strengthened by work autonomy. Meng and Ma (2019) brought attention to the moderating role of perceived organisational standing, whereas Jada and Mukhopadhyay (2018) stressed the need of cultivating leaders who are empowering via thorough evaluations. Zhang et al. (2019) also found a positive correlation between VB and empowering leadership, pointing out that this kind of leadership encourages employees to express their ideas and support organisational transformation.

In the context of organisational behaviour, self-determination theory (SDT) and social exchange theory (SET) are strongly related to empowerment leadership. According to SET, people trade resources during social encounters and behave in ways that they anticipate being reciprocated (Agnew & Lehmiller, 2007). A social exchange dynamic where employees feel appreciated and encouraged is fostered by empowering leadership, and this increases engagement and VB. Both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives are emphasised by SDT, and psychological empowerment that promotes intrinsic motivation is aligned with empowering leadership (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). VB-friendly environments are produced by empowering leaders by their attention to autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Harmonious passion, as defined by SDT, is discovered by Lee et al. (2018) to buffer the link between VB and empowering leadership. Therefore, empowering leadership promotes employee voice and participation in organisational progress by cultivating intrinsic drive and autonomy.

Empowering leadership has been shown to have a favourable effect on a variety of employee behaviours and attitudes, which improves organisational results (Kim et al., 2018). One essential element of empowering leadership is autonomy, which is a predictor of employee engagement at work. Positive attitudes towards their job are subsequently sparked by empowering leaders who foster autonomy-related states such self-leadership, difficult work, opportunity thinking, encouraging, and growth (Kim et al., 2018). Employees that experience empowering leadership are more likely to ask for feedback, perform well on tasks, take initiative, and speak out (Qian et al., 2018). According to Qian et al. (2018), this leadership style encourages a culture in which employees actively seek out feedback, which

leads to better performance and proactive behaviours in the organisation.

Furthermore, it has been shown that psychological empowerment plays a critical mediating role between voice behaviour and organisational commitment and empowering leadership (Raub & Robert, 2012). This demonstrates how psychologically empowering leadership affects employees' loyalty to the organisation and their readiness to participate in voice behaviour (Raub & Robert, 2012). Research has investigated how employee outcomes like as innovation, work performance, and knowledge sharing are affected by empowering leadership (Burhan, 2023). Relational energy mediates the favourable association between empowering leaders and employee engagement, performance, and knowledge sharing (Burhan, 2023). Moreover, harmonious passion and voice behaviour among employees has been associated with empowering leadership; job autonomy amplifies the impact of passion on employee voice (Lee et al., 2018). This implies that, in addition to having a direct impact on employee behaviour, empowering leadership interacts with other elements, such as task autonomy, to maximise favourable results (Lee et al., 2018).

Additionally, empowering leadership has been linked to employee knowledge sharing, innovation, and organisational citizenship behaviour, highlighting its importance in encouraging proactive behaviours that enhance organisational performance (Jiang et al., 2019). Numerous contexts, including healthcare and education, have examined the connection between VB and empowering leadership. These studies emphasise the significance of empowering leaders in fostering an environment where employees feel appreciated and free to express their thoughts and opinions (Ansong, 2023; Kâiv et al., 2019).

As a result, the research puts forward the following hypothesis (H).

H1a: Empowering leadership (EPL) has a positive influence on employees' voice behaviour (VB).

Hypothesis 1b: The Relationship Between Empowering Leadership and Employee Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB)

Empowering leadership is critical for establishing knowledge-sharing behaviour (KSB) inside organisations. Existing research repeatedly shows a beneficial relationship between empowering leadership and employees' willingness to share knowledge. This leadership style is distinguished by transfer of power, autonomy promotion, information distribution, and employee input encouragement, all of which contribute to increased employee autonomy and control over their work (Ren et al., 2022).

Empowering leadership has a favourable influence on numerous aspects of organisational functioning, including team efficacy and overall performance, and willingness to share information. Empirical existing studies have demonstrated that empowering leadership directly promotes knowledge-sharing behaviours among employees, resulting in improved team performance and absorptive ability (Lee et al., 2014). Furthermore, empowering leadership has been linked to increased employee creativity via the mediating impact of psychological empowerment (Nuzul et al., 2020). Leaders foster creativity and innovation by giving employees decision-making liberty. Furthermore, empowering leadership increases employees' engagement, effort, and proactive service behaviours (Alif & Nastiti, 2022; Dong et al., 2022).

Prior studies have shown that leadership behaviours have a major influence on employees' knowledge sharing. Positive leadership styles, such as transformational and empowering leadership, have been proven to improve knowledge-sharing behaviours (Srivastava et al., 2006; Liu & Phillips, 2011). Negative leadership styles, such as harsh monitoring, have been shown to reduce knowledge sharing (Wu & Lee, 2016). This research intends to investigate the influence of empowering leadership behaviours on employees' knowledge-sharing practices. Leader empowering behaviours are characterised as top-down allocations of duties that provide employees more decision-making ability (Leach et al., 2003). Ahearne et al. (2005) divide leader-empowering behaviours into four categories: increasing the significance of employees' work, encouraging involvement in decision-making,

expressing confidence in good performance, and offering autonomy from bureaucratic limitations.

This research proposes that leader empowering behaviours positively affect employees' knowledge-sharing behaviours for a variety of reasons.

Enhancing the Meaningfulness of Work: When leaders make work more meaningful, employees are more likely to value knowledge sharing, which increases their willingness to participate in such behaviours. Leaders who assist employees grasp the relevance of their contributions to organisational efficiency help them recognise the value of knowledge sharing (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Welschen et al., 2012).

Improving Participatory Decision-Making: Empowering leadership behaviours that promote participative decision-making provide employees with the information they need to solve problems on their own, fostering an environment of mutual support, trust, cooperation, and open dialogue, all of which promote knowledge sharing (Wasko & Faraj, 2000; Chin Wei et al., 2012).

Confidence in Employee Competence: When leaders demonstrate confidence in their employees' talents, it boosts their self-efficacy, which encourages knowledge-sharing behaviours. Employees who believe their supervisors demand excellent performance are more likely to feel competent in their responsibilities, which increases their desire to share information (Cabrera et al., 2006; Lu et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2007).

Providing Autonomy: Empowering leaders who grant autonomy increases intrinsic motivation in employees, which is critical for driving knowledge-sharing behaviours. Leaders empower people to solve challenges on their own by providing the necessary assistance and resources, establishing a precedent for knowledge sharing (Spreitzer, 1996; Arnold et al., 2000). Employees may return this liberty by actively participating in knowledge-sharing initiatives.

Prior research supports the ideas presented above. For example, Srivastava et al. (2006) found that empowering leaders have an important role in encouraging knowledge exchange within workgroup teams. Tang et al. (2020) claimed that leaders' empowering

behaviours help to build a common attitude inside workgroups, which encourages knowledge sharing.

As a result, this research hypothesises that empowering leadership behaviours positively affect employees' knowledge-sharing behaviours at both the individual and group levels, yielding the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis H1b: Empowering leadership behaviours has a positive impact on employees' knowledge-sharing behaviours (KSB).

Hypothesis 2a: The Relationship between empowering leadership (EPL) and psychological empowerment (PE)

Empowering leadership promotes psychological empowerment by giving employees autonomy, resources, and opportunity for personal growth, which improves their feeling of control, competence, meaningfulness, and influence in their professional responsibilities (Spreitzer, 1995). The link between Empowering Leadership (EPL) and Psychological Empowerment (PE) is a critical topic of research in organisational behaviour because it has a significant influence on employee attitudes, behaviours, and overall organisational success. This connection investigates how empowering leadership behaviours foster the psychological circumstances required for employee empowerment, ultimately improving engagement and performance.

Existing empirical studies strongly demonstrate the favourable link between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment. Zhang and Bartol (2010), for example, found that empowering leadership boosts psychological empowerment by creating a work environment that values autonomy, meaningfulness, competence, and effect. When leaders include employees in decision-making and give pertinent information, they are more likely to feel empowering.

This link may be better understood using theoretical frameworks like Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT). According to SET, social interactions are driven by the exchange of resources, with people engaging in behaviours in the

expectation of reciprocity (Blau 1964). In this perspective, empowering leadership techniques may be considered as important resources provided by leaders, to which employees respond with good attitudes and behaviours, including enhanced psychological empowerment.

SDT, on the other hand, emphasises the relevance of both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives, emphasising the need of meeting fundamental psychological requirements for autonomy, competence, and relatedness to build intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Empowering leadership is strongly related to SDT since it directly addresses these basic psychological demands. Leaders enhance employees' self-determination by promoting autonomy; by providing opportunities for skill development and expressing confidence in employees' abilities, they strengthen employees' sense of competence; and by creating a supportive work environment, leaders meet employees' need for relatedness, thereby contributing to their psychological empowerment.

Ahearne et al. (2005) found that empowering leadership behaviours, such as increasing work meaning, encouraging participation in decision-making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy, significantly contribute to employees' psychological empowerment. Employees who regard their leaders as empowering are more likely to believe that their job is relevant, competent, within their control, and capable of influencing results.

Psychological empowerment has been found to act as a crucial link between empowering leadership and a variety of employee outcomes by modifying the benefits derived from empowering leadership on intrinsic motivation, creativity, and work effort (Kundu et al., 2019; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; Khatoon et al., 2022).

Given this theoretical underpinning and empirical data, this research proposes that empowering leadership behaviours increase employees' psychological empowerment. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2a: Empowering Leadership (EPL) has a positive relationship with Psychological Empowerment.

Hypothesis 2b: Empowering Leadership and Organisational Justice

Empowering leadership improves employees' perception of organisational justice by including people in decision-making and encouraging open communication (Colquitt, 2001). Empowering leadership (EPL) and organisational justice are two interrelated and powerful ideas in the field of organisational dynamics that need careful consideration. Empowering leadership, defined as transferring responsibility, allowing autonomy, and showing trust in personnel, is thought to increase psychological empowerment and intrinsic motivation (Kim and Beehr, 2017). This kind of leadership is inextricably related with organisational justice, which includes distributive, procedural, and interactional justice procedures (Ye et al., 2022). Organisational justice, which is based on social exchange and justice enhancement theories, mediates the link between leadership styles and employee attitudes and behaviours (Khaola and Rambe, 2020).

Going further, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) provides a solid framework for understanding the link between empowering leadership and organisational justice. Empowering leadership techniques, such as autonomy and development support, are consistent with SDT's core psychological demands of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Zhang et al., 2022). When these demands are addressed, employees' work-related well-being improves, and they engage in project citizenship (Zhang et al., 2022). Thus, empowering leadership promotes autonomy and competence while also aligning with SDT by increasing employee self-efficacy and psychological ownership (Kim & Beehr, 2017). This self-efficacy, which is a key component of SDT, increases employees' conviction in their talents, encouraging inventive actions and ownership of their job, and driving organisational success.

The interdependence of empowering leadership and organisational justice continues to be a focus in organisational behaviour and management research. Empowering leadership is delegating authority to subordinates, increasing their self-efficacy and offering autonomy and responsibility (Cheong, Spain, Yammarino, and Yun, 2016). This nexus critically examines organisational justice, or employees' views of justice in workplace processes,

interactions, and results (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

Empowering leaders often encourages participatory decision-making, which improves transparency in organisational processes. Such engagement improves employees' views of procedural justice (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Empowering leaders enhance justice in procedural applications and decision-making by treating employees with respect and providing them autonomy, which is consistent with procedural justice principles (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004).

Furthermore, empowering leadership ensures that resources and awards are dispersed based on merit and performance, consistent with distributive justice ideals. This merit-based compensation scheme improves employees' perceptions of justice in results (Cheong et al., 2016). Empowering leaders also improve interactional justice by communicating respectfully and supportively, recognising employees' efforts, and promoting open, honest communication (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Seibert et al., 2004).

Hence, this study argues the following in *H2b that empowering leadership positively influences organisational justice*.

Hypothesis 3a: The Relationship Between Psychological Empowerment, Knowledge Sharing, and Voice Behaviours

Psychological empowerment is critical in creating organisational behaviours, notably affecting employees' knowledge-sharing and voice behaviours. It is generally acknowledged as a key driver of these behaviours, which are required to generate organisational learning, creativity, and overall performance. Masood and Afsar (2017) emphasise the importance of psychological empowerment in promoting knowledge sharing among employees, as well as its value in improving organisational learning and creativity. Similarly, Raub and Robert (2012) identified psychological empowerment as a major mediator of empowering leadership and organisational outcomes like as commitment and voice behaviour, emphasising its importance in organisational dynamics.

The interaction between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment

creates a favourable atmosphere for knowledge sharing, suggesting a positive link between empowerment and knowledge exchange (Khatoon et al., 2022). Choi (2007) supports this idea, arguing that psychological empowerment mediates the impact of work environment features on change-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour, hence encouraging knowledge-sharing. Tripathi et al. (2020) and Ružić and Benazić (2021) found that psychological empowerment increases employees' desire to share knowledge, favourably impacting organisational knowledge-sharing practices.

Furthermore, psychological empowerment is strongly associated with employee voice behaviour, especially in the context of creative work behaviour. Krupa (2021) and Ilyas et al. (2021) found that psychological empowerment mediates the association between employee voice and creative work behaviour, implying that empowerment improves work outcomes by promoting proactive voice behaviours. Dong et al. (2022) adds to this relationship, claiming that psychologically empowering personnel are more motivated to participate in knowledge-sharing activities, increasing the link between empowerment and information exchange. Wagner et al. (2010) also emphasise the significance of psychological empowerment in nursing, citing its link with structural empowerment and relevance for improving employee engagement and incentives in empowering work environments.

Building on previous research, this study proposes that employees with greater levels of psychological empowerment are more likely to participate in Extra-Role Voice Behaviour (EVB) and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB). According to Gong et al. (2020), employees with higher levels of psychological empowerment are more content with their employment, feel more secure in doing their activities, and are more committed to the organisation. This greater commitment increases the likelihood of engaging in extra-role behaviours such as EVB and KSB. Furthermore, a larger feeling of psychological empowerment is often associated with increased participation in group activities and a stronger effect on organisational decision-making processes (Avolio et al., 2004). This participation generates a feeling of affinity and dedication to one's work team, motivating individuals to engage in positive behaviours like as voice and knowledge sharing.

Based on the theoretical and empirical findings presented above, this research suggests the following hypothesis:

H3a: Psychological empowerment is positively related to

(i) Employee voice behaviour (EVB) (ii) Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB)

Hypothesis 3b: The Relationship Between Organisational Justice, Knowledge Sharing Behaviours, and Employee Voice

Because it directly affects organisational performance and creativity, the link between organisational justice and employees' voice and knowledge-sharing practices is an important field of research. Research steadily shows that fairness in organisational practices creates an atmosphere where employees are more likely to participate in voice and knowledge-sharing activities, providing empirical support for the positive impact of perceived organisational justice on these behaviours.

Numerous research investigations have shown a noteworthy and positive correlation between organisational justice and employees' willingness to share information. According to Pham (2023), an organisation's perceived fairness fosters knowledge-sharing, which promotes creativity and group learning. The results of Wan et al. (2023) and Wang et al. (2014), who contend that employees who see organisational procedures as just are more inclined to share their expertise with the group, so boosting organisational capabilities, further support this link. Furthermore, there is strong evidence from Cugueró-Escofet et al. (2019) and Bhatti et al. (2021) that organisational justice, in conjunction with other favourable workplace attributes, strongly influences knowledge-sharing behaviour. This highlights the importance of equitable treatment in encouraging cooperative teamwork.

The literature also highlights the critical role that organisational justice plays in voice behaviour. Research by Zhang et al. (2021) and Kim and Kiura (2020) has shown that employees are more likely to participate in voice behaviour, such as making recommendations, voicing concerns, and giving constructive criticism, when they believe that their organisation upholds a high standard of justice. Strong social exchange connections

play a major role in mediating this relationship, since treating employees fairly fosters trust and a feeling of duty, which in turn motivates them to reciprocate by using their voices in a proactive manner. This perspective is further supported by Wayne et al. (2002), who show that views of organisational justice are strongly related to views of organisational support and constructive leader-member interaction, both of which are important predictors of voice behaviour.

Furthermore, by its effect on organisational commitment, organisational justice indirectly impacts voice behaviour in addition to directly influencing it. According to research by Farndale et al. (2011), employees are more devoted and hence more willing to participate in voice behaviour when they believe that their organisation is just. The relationship between justice and commitment underscores the wider consequences of treating people fairly. It implies that employees' professional and emotional involvement in the organisation may be strengthened by justice views, which in turn motivates them to engage more fully in voice activities. This association is further supported by research by Pan et al. (2018) and Wahda et al. (2020), which show that extra-role behaviours including voice and knowledges sharing behaviours that are essential for organisational growth are more likely to be shown by employees who believe their organisation is fair.

When taken as a whole, these results highlight how crucial organisational justice is in influencing employees' voice and knowledge-sharing practices. These behaviours are critical for maintaining organisational creativity and performance, and leaders may greatly increase the probability that employees will participate in them by creating a fair and equal work environment. This leads to the following hypothesis being put forth:

H3b: Positive relationships exist between organisational justice and

(i) Employee voice behaviour (EVB) (ii) Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB)

Hypothesis 4a: The Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment (PE)

The critical area of investigation within organisational psychology is the mediating role of Psychological Empowerment (PE) in the relationship between Empowering

Leadership (EPL) and employee behaviours, specifically knowledge- sharing behaviour (KSB) and voice behaviour (EVB). It is essential to understand the mediation to understand how empowering leadership promotes critical employee behaviours that are critical to organisational success. Psychological empowerment, which is defined as employees' intrinsic motivation and perceived control over their work (Spreitzer, 1995), is essential for converting the influence of empowering leadership into proactive employee actions, particularly those related to knowledge sharing and voice.

Empowering leadership is defined by the practices of delegating authority, promoting autonomy, and encouraging employee participation in decision-making (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). By cultivating a sense of autonomy, competence, and impact among employees, these practices establish a work environment that is conducive to psychological empowerment. In turn, psychological empowerment is a critical mechanism that enables employees to internalise the benefits of empowering leadership, thereby motivating them to engage in behaviours that contribute to organisational innovation and improvement (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011).

The literature extensively documents the mediating function of psychological empowerment in the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behaviour. Voice behaviour, which is the discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, and concerns with the objective of enhancing organisational functionality (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), is essential for the development of an adaptive and responsive organisational culture. By imparting a sense of ownership and responsibility in employees, empowerment leadership enhances psychological empowerment, which in turn increases their propensity to provide constructive feedback (Cheong et al., 2016). Empirical evidence supports this relationship, demonstrating that psychological empowerment not only enhances the beneficial effects of empowering leadership on voice behaviour but also serves as a prerequisite for employees to feel comfortable expressing their opinions and suggestions (Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2018; Raub & Robert, 2010).

Additionally, the relationship between empowering leadership and knowledge-

sharing behaviour is significantly mediated by psychological empowerment. According to Wang and Noe (2010), knowledge sharing is a critical factor in the development of organisational learning and innovation, and it is contingent upon the willingness of employees to share their expertise and insights with the organisation. Empowering leadership cultivates an environment in which employees experience psychological empowerment, which in turn leads them to regard knowledge sharing as a valuable and essential component of their professional responsibilities (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Research indicates that employees who are psychologically empowering are more inclined to participate in knowledge-sharing activities. This is because they experience a sense of autonomy and competence that encourages them to contribute to the organisation's collective success (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Kim & Park, 2020).

The mediating role of psychological empowerment is essential, as it offers a nuanced comprehension of the way empowering leadership results in positive organisational outcomes. Leaders establish the psychological conditions that motivate employees to participate in both knowledge-sharing and voice behaviours by fostering psychological empowerment. This mediation emphasises the indirect impact of empowering leadership, emphasising psychological empowerment as the primary mechanism by which leadership practices are converted into actionable and beneficial employee behaviours (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

The following hypothesis is proposed considering the substantial empirical and theoretical evidence supporting the mediating role of psychological empowerment:

H4a: The relationship between Empowering Leadership (EPL) and Knowledge-sharing behaviour (KSB) is mediated by psychological Empowerment (PE)

This hypothesis underscores the importance of psychological empowerment as a critical intermediary that enables the impact of empowering leadership on both knowledge-sharing and vocal behaviours, thereby improving the overall efficacy, responsiveness, and innovation of the organisation.

Hypothesis 4b: Organisational Justice's Mediating Role in the Relationship Between Empowering Leadership, Voice Behaviour, and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour.

The association between empowering leadership and employee behaviours such as voice behaviour and information sharing are well established in the literature, with new research shedding light on the mediating role of organisational justice in these processes. Empowering leadership, which is characterised by delegation of authority, autonomy encouragement, and participatory decision-making, has been found to have a substantial impact on employees' perceptions of organisational justice (Lee et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2022). This perceived fairness is important because it mediates the link between leadership practices and essential organisational behaviours, notably voice behaviour and information sharing.

Recent empirical research show that organisational justice is a crucial mechanism by which empowering leadership leads to increased employee involvement in knowledge-sharing and voice activities (Park & Kim, 2023; Wang et al., 2023). These studies demonstrate that when leaders behave in ways that employees perceive to be fair, it develops a feeling of justice and respect, which impacts their desire to contribute productively to the organisation. organisational justice's mediating position acts as a critical conduit, connecting empowering leadership with the proactive and collaborative actions required for organisational success.

Zhang et al. (2021) and Tangirala and Ramanujam (2020) found that beliefs of procedural and interpersonal justice play an important role in determining employees' speech behaviour. Employees who believe their leaders are fair and courteous are more inclined to speak out, making comments, voicing concerns, and giving ideas that promote organisational growth. This association is especially strong in situations where empowering leadership is common, since such leadership styles promote justice and inclusion, which encourages employees to speak out (Gao et al., 2020; Kim & Beehr, 2020).

Similarly, several research have shown that organisational justice mediates the connection between empowering leadership and knowledge-sharing behaviour (Wang et al., 2023; Park & Kim, 2023). These studies show that when employees see fairness in decision-making processes and interpersonal interactions, they are more inclined to participate in knowledge-sharing activities. This conduct is motivated by the trust and mutual respect fostered by empowering leaders, who create settings that promote employees' desire to share their knowledge and cooperate with colleagues (Kim et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2021).

The combined results of these research support the idea that organisational justice plays an important mediating role in the link between empowering leadership and both voice behaviour and knowledge sharing. Empowering leadership promotes these habits not just directly, but also indirectly, by creating an environment of fairness and respect. This mediating mechanism emphasises the role of justice perceptions in converting leadership practices into meaningful employee outcomes, hence improving organisational performance and creativity (Lee et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023). Based on the facts presented, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4b: The relationship between Empowering Leadership (EPL) and Knowledge-sharing behaviour (KSB) is mediated by Organisational justice (OJ)

This hypothesis suggests that the beneficial benefits of empowering leadership on knowledge-sharing and voice behaviours are dependent on the mediating impact of organisational justice, hence underlining the crucial role of perceived fairness in driving key employee behaviours.

Hypothesis 5a: The Moderating Effect of Individualism-Collectivism in the Relationship Between Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment

The moderating role of individualism-collectivism in the link between empowering leadership and employees' psychological empowerment is an important area of research of study, especially as organisations grow more globalised and culturally varied. Evidence in the literature has shown that Employees' perceptions and reactions to empowering

leadership are greatly influenced by cultural factors, including individualism-collectivism, which shapes their experience of psychological empowerment (Lee et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). In contexts where individualism is operationalised at the individual level, employees' personal cultural orientations have a significant impact on how they respond to leadership practices that emphasise autonomy, self-direction, and personal initiative (Oyserman, 2017; Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2016).

In individualistic societies, where values like as personal autonomy, self-direction, and individual performance are strongly valued, empowering leadership has a more beneficial impact on psychological empowerment (Huang et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020). When individualism is operationalised at the individual level, employees with high individualism scores are more likely to accept and prosper under leadership that gives them more freedom and independence in their positions (Taras et al., 2016). This congruence of values fostered by empowering leadership and the individual-level cultural focus on autonomy improves employees' views of psychological empowerment. For example, Lee et al. (2020) found that employees with higher degrees of individualism report considerably more psychological empowerment when leaders adopt an empowering approach, owing to their appreciation for increasing autonomy and responsibility.

Similarly, Zhang et al. (2021) and Huang et al. (2021) give more empirical evidence that empowering leadership has a greater favourable impact on employees with high individualism. Zhang et al. (2021) discovered that aligning enabling leadership with individualistic ideals at the individual-level considerably increases psychological empowerment, since employees enjoy the liberty and self-governance that empowering leadership offers. This shows that empowering leadership is more successful in individualistic settings because it appeals to employees' innate incentive for independence and personal accomplishment (Huang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021).

In contrast, in collectivist cultures, where group goals, social harmony, and interdependence are valued, the impact of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment may be moderated by the cultural emphasis on collective well-being rather

than individual autonomy (Triandis, 1995; Hofstede, 1980). When collectivism is operationalised at the individual level, employees with a strong collectivist orientation may react negatively to empowering leadership if it is considered to promote individuality above group unity (Li & Wu, 2019; Chuang et al., 2017). However, if leaders tailor their empowering behaviours to line with collectivist principles, such as emphasising team empowerment and collaborative achievement, psychological empowerment may still be successfully increased (Li & Wu, 2019).

Li and Wu (2019) found that the success of empowering leadership in collectivist environments is dependent on individual alignment with collective ideals. Their research showed that employees with high collectivism had stronger psychological empowerment when enabling leadership emphasised communal objectives and team cohesiveness, emphasising the relevance of culture adaptation for leadership success (Li & Wu, 2019). Similarly, Chuang et al. (2017) found that in collectivist settings, when leaders focused on promoting group-oriented empowerment, employees reported higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, implying that collectivism's cultural values significantly moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment (Chuang et al. 2017)

Furthermore, Zhang et al. (2021) found that the cultural congruence of leadership style and individual-level values had a substantial impact on employee outcomes. Their findings revealed that empowering leadership was more successful among personnel with individualistic orientations, who had significantly greater psychological empowerment levels than those with collectivist orientations. This finding highlights the role of individual cultural values as a moderator in the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, emphasising the importance of leaders taking individual cultural orientations into account when implementing empowerment strategies (Zhang et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020).

Despite these findings, significant gaps in the research exist, which this study intends to resolve. First, although there is strong evidence that individualism- collectivism has a

moderating influence at the national level, additional research is needed to operationalise these cultural characteristics at the individual-level (Oyserman, 2017; Taras et al., 2016). Most of the prior research has concentrated on broad cultural settings, leaving individual-level differences unexplored. This research aims to address this gap by investigating how individual-level dispositions towards individualism and collectivism influence the link between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in a variety of cultural contexts (Li & Wu, 2019; Chuang et al., 2017).

Second, the literature has paid little attention to the interplay between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, which considers the operationalisation of individualism-collectivism at the person level. While the effect of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment is widely understood, less is known about how individual cultural orientations affect this connection (Zhang et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021). This research will fill this gap by investigating the specific ways in which individual-level cultural values impact employee views of empowerment, resulting in a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between leadership and culture.

Based on the available evidence, this study proposed the following hypothesis:

H5a: Individual-level individualism-collectivism moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' perceptions of psychological empowerment, such that empowering leadership has a stronger positive effect on psychological empowerment perceptions in employees who score higher on individualism than in those who score higher on collectivism.

By filling these gaps, this study aims to contribute to a more nuanced understanding of the complex relationships between leadership styles, individual cultural orientations, and psychological consequences. This will eventually influence more effective and culturally sensitive leadership techniques in varied organisational settings.

Hypothesis 5b: The Moderating Effect of Individualism-Collectivism in the Relationship Between Empowering Leadership and Organisational Justice

The effect of individualism-collectivism on the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' perception of organisational justice is a crucial topic in the field of organisational behaviour. Empowering leadership, which involves granting authority, promoting employee autonomy, and involving them in decision-making, is typically linked to greater perceptions of organisational justice which includes distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Spreitzer, 1995; Lee et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the impact of empowering leadership on organisational justice varies depending on cultural contexts. The individualism-collectivism dimension plays a significant role in shaping employees' interpretation and appreciation of leadership practices (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995).

Empowering leadership is very compatible with the cultural norms of individualistic societies, which prioritise values such as personal autonomy, self-direction, and individual rights. Employees in these situations are more inclined to see empowering leadership in a good light because it aligns with their inherent values of autonomy and individual accountability (Li et al., 2020). This alignment improves their views of organisational justice, as they experience more participation in decision-making processes and sense that their leaders recognise and respect their contributions (Huang et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2022). Li et al. (2020) discovered that in contexts that prioritise individualism, empowering leadership is significantly associated with increased views of organisational justice. This is because it fulfils employees' need for autonomy and individual recognition. This is especially apparent when individualism is implemented at the individual level, as employees who have a high degree of individualism show more pronounced positive reactions to leadership that encourages their desire for autonomy and self-direction (Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2016).

In contrast, in collectivist cultures, which prioritise group harmony, social interdependence, and collective well-being, the connection between empowering leadership and organisational justice is more intricate (Triandis, 1995; Hofstede, 1980). Within these

contexts, the welfare of the group is generally prioritised above individual freedom, and the effectiveness of leadership is assessed based on its impact on the unity and social balance of the collective (Chen & Wang, 2021). If enabling leadership does not prioritise communal aims and shared decision-making, it may be seen as promoting individuality, which might harm views of organisational justice (Zhang et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2022). Nevertheless, when leaders adapt their empowering behaviours to conform with collectivist principles, such as by highlighting team empowerment and collaborative achievement, the impact on organisational justice becomes more evident (Zhang et al., 2019).

Zhang et al. (2019) provided evidence that in collectivist cultures, empowering leadership has a more positive impact on organisational justice when leaders prioritise communal aims and social harmony. This indicates that cultural adaptation is crucial for the efficacy of empowering leadership in collectivist situations. Chen and Wang (2021) discovered that in societies that prioritise group interests above individual interests, people's views on justice within organisations increased dramatically when leaders used empowering strategies that fostered strong group unity and mutual assistance, rather than only emphasising individual independence. These results highlight that in societies that prioritise collective values, the perception of organisational justice extends beyond individual justice and include its influence on the overall harmony and well-being of the group.

In addition, Nguyen et al. (2022) conducted a thorough examination of how the cultural environment influences the connection between empowering leadership and organisational justice. Their research emphasised that in cultures that prioritise individualism, employees' views of justice within the organisation were elevated when leaders used empowering leadership styles that fostered individual autonomy and decision-making. In contrast, among collectivist cultures, the same leadership style resulted in increased views of organisational justice only when it was modified to align with the collectivist values, such as by highlighting collective objectives and including the group in decision-making procedures (Nguyen et al., 2022). These results highlight the crucial importance of cultural congruence in determining the success of empowering leadership in various cultural settings.

Although this research has offered valuable insights, there are still gaps in the literature that need more exploration. Significantly, while there is much evidence that supports the idea that individualism-collectivism plays a significant influence in shaping cultures, further study is required to measure these cultural aspects at the individual-level (Taras et al., 2016; Oyserman, 2017). This research seeks to address this gap by investigating how individual-level attitudes towards individualism and collectivism influence the connection between empowering leadership and views of organisational justice.

Furthermore, there is a lack of in-depth investigation into the precise processes by which empowering leadership, and individual cultural orientations combine to influence conceptions of justice. This research aims to fill these gaps by investigating the impact of individual-level cultural values on the success of empowering leadership. It seeks to provide a comprehensive knowledge of the relationship between leadership, culture, and employees' views of justice. In line with existing studies, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H5b: Individual-level cultural orientations towards individualism-collectivism moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' perceptions of organisational justice, such that empowering leadership has a stronger positive effect on perceptions of organisational justice in employees who score higher on individualism than in those who score higher on collectivism.

This study aims to fill these gaps by examining how empowering leadership impacts organisational justice in various cultural contexts. The findings will help in developing leadership practices that are more culturally sensitive, leading to improved perceptions of justice and equity within organisations.

Hypothesis 6a: Moderated Mediation- Psychological Empowerment

The relationship between empowering leadership and key employee behaviours, including knowledge-sharing behaviour (KSB) and employees voice behaviour (VB), can be further understood through the lens of moderated mediation. In this context, psychological empowerment functions as a mediating mechanism by which empowering leadership affects

both KSB and VB. Conversely, the magnitude of this mediation effect may be contingent upon the cultural orientations of the individual towards individualism and collectivism, thereby introducing a moderated mediation model. This offers a further understanding of the ways in which cultural factors influence the pathways through which empowering leadership affects critical organisational behaviours.

Empowering leadership, which is defined by the promotion of a sense of control, the encouragement of decision-making, and the cultivation of autonomy among employees, has been consistently associated with an increase in psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; Zhang et al., 2021). In turn, psychological empowerment is a critical precursor to both employee's vocal behaviour and knowledge-sharing behaviour. Employees are considerably more inclined to participate in knowledge sharing when they experience psychological empowerment, as they are assured of their capabilities and are convinced that their contributions can significantly influence the organisation (Srivastava et al., 2006; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). In the same vein, empowered employees are more likely to engage in vocal behaviours, proactively suggesting enhancements and addressing issues within the organisation, as they experience a sense of ownership and impact (Morrison, 2014; Detert & Burris, 2007).

Nevertheless, the efficacy of psychological empowerment as a mediator between empowering leadership and these behaviours may be influenced by the individual-level cultural orientations of the employees. Employees who exhibit a strong orientation towards individualism may experience a more robust mediation effect, as empowering leadership is in alignment with their values of autonomy and self-direction. Consequently, their psychological empowerment and subsequent behaviours are enhanced (Lee et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021). Conversely, employees who exhibit a stronger orientation towards collectivism may experience a weaker mediation effect if they perceive empowering leadership as encouraging individualistic behaviours that are at odds with their strong preference for collective well-being and group harmony (Li & Wu, 2019; Chuang et al., 2017).

The mediated relationship between empowering leadership and KSB through

psychological empowerment is likely to be more robust among employees with an individualistic orientation in terms of knowledge-sharing behaviour. These employees appreciate the autonomy and self-reliance that empowering leadership fosters, which in turn increases their psychological empowerment and willingness to share knowledge (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Lee et al., 2020). Conversely, the mediation effect of psychological empowerment on KSB may be diminished if employees with a collectivist orientation do not resonate as strongly with the emphasis on individual autonomy (Li & Wu, 2019).

Likewise, the moderated mediation framework implies that employees with an individualistic orientation will demonstrate a more robust relationship between empowering leadership and employees voice behaviour (EVB) through psychological empowerment. Individualistic employees are more inclined to feel empowered to express their opinions and suggestions when they believe that their autonomy is being supported (Morrison, 2014; Zhang et al., 2021). On the other hand, employees who possess a collectivist orientation may be less inclined to participate in voice behaviour if they believe that the empowering leadership undermines group harmony, thereby weakening the mediation effect (Li & Wu, 2019; Chuang et al., 2017).

The following hypotheses are proposed in light of this discussion:

H6a(i): The mediation effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and knowledge-sharing behaviour is moderated by individual-level individualism-collectivism. Such that, the mediation effect will be more pronounced for employees who score higher on individualism than those who score higher on collectivism.

H6a(ii): The mediation effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and employees voice behaviour is moderated by individual-level individualism-collectivism. Such that, the mediation effect will be more pronounced for employees who score higher on individualism than those who score higher on collectivism.

These hypotheses aim to investigate the intricate ways in which cultural orientations affect the efficacy of empowering leadership in the development of critical organisational behaviours through psychological empowerment. This study endeavours to offer a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between leadership, culture, and employee behaviours by analysing these moderated mediation effects. It also provides recommendations for adjusting leadership practices to accommodate a variety of cultural contexts.

Hypothesis 6b: Moderated Mediation- organisational justice

Perceptions of organisational justice have an important mediating role in the link between empowering leadership and key employee behaviours such as knowledge-sharing behaviour (KSB) and employees' voice behaviour (VB). However, the degree of this mediation effect varies with individual-level cultural orientations, notably along the axis of individualism-collectivism, resulting in a moderated mediation model. This theory offers a comprehensive understanding of how cultural influences influence the routes via which empowering leadership affects critical organisational behaviours.

Available research has repeatedly showed that empowering leadership improves views of organisational justice, which improves KSB and EVB (Li et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2019). Employees who sense a high degree of organisational justice are more likely to participate in knowledge-sharing activities because they believe their contributions are properly recognised and appreciated. Similarly, when organisational justice is high, employees are more likely to display EVB because they believe their contribution will be recognised and contribute to beneficial organisational improvements (Morrison, 2014; Lee et al., 2020). However, the amount to which organisational justice mediates the link between empowering leadership and these behaviours is determined by employees' cultural orientations, namely their leaning towards individualism or collectivism (Taras et al., 2016; Chen & Wang, 2021).

Employees with a high individualistic orientation are more likely to benefit from organisational justice's mediation effect. These employees value personal autonomy and

self-direction, and they respond better to leadership techniques that reflect these values (Li et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2022). since a consequence, when people perceive high levels of organisational justice, their participation in KSB and EVB increases dramatically, since these behaviours are consistent with their cultural ideals of independence and personal accomplishment (Huang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). The alignment of individualistic ideals with justice fostered by empowering leadership improves the mediation effect, making organisational justice a more effective mediator in this environment (Nguyen et al., 2022; Li et al., 2020).

In contrast, for employees with a collectivist mindset, the mediation impact of organisational justice on KSB and EVB may be more nuanced and context dependent. In collectivist societies, justice is often defined in terms of community cohesion and collective well-being rather than individual sovereignty. As a result, the mediation effect is expected to be larger when empowering leadership is seen as helping to common objectives and group cohesiveness (Zhang et al., 2019; Li & Wu, 2019). Employees are more likely to experience high organisational justice when empowering leadership emphasises cooperation and shared achievement (Chen & Wang, 2021; Zhang et al., 2019). However, if empowering leadership is seen to promote individuality, it may decrease views of organisational justice and reduce the mediation effect (Nguyen et al., 2022; Li and Wu, 2019).

The moderated mediation model illustrates the complex dynamics of leadership, organisational justice, and employee behaviour, emphasising the importance of cultural orientation in influencing these connections (Taras et al., 2016; Oyserman, 2017). Individualistic environments prioritise autonomy and personal success, which enhances the mediation impact of organisational justice, leading to higher positive results in KSB and EVB (Huang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). In contrast, in collectivist environments, the success of this mediation is dependent on how well leadership practices connect with collective ideals, emphasising the need of culturally sensitive approaches to leadership (Chen & Wang, 2021; Zhang et al., 2019). This notion of moderated mediation has significant consequences for leadership practice. Leaders must recognise that the efficacy of empowering leadership, as

well as its potential to generate organisational justice, varies between cultures.

In individualistic environments, leadership approaches that emphasise autonomy and individual acknowledgement are likely to improve organisational justice, hence promoting KSB and EVB (Li et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2022). In collectivist contexts, however, empowering leadership needs be modified to emphasise common objectives and group cohesiveness to produce comparable good results (Zhang et al., 2019; Chen & Wang, 2021). The moderated mediation model emphasises the need of adjusting leadership methods to the cultural orientations of employees to maximise organisational results.

The mediating effect of organisational justice on the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' knowledge sharing behaviours is moderated by the individual-level individualism-collectivism constructs such that the mediating effect is stronger for employees who score higher in individualism when compared to those who score higher in collectivism. Given this complexity, this study suggests the following hypotheses:

H6b(i): The mediating effect of organisational justice on the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' knowledge sharing behaviours is moderated by the individual-level individualism- collectivism constructs such that the mediating effect is stronger for employees who score higher in individualism when compared to those who score higher in collectivism.

H6b(ii): The mediating effect of organisational justice on the relationship between empowering leadership and employees' voice behaviours is moderated by the individual-level individualism-collectivism constructs such that the mediating effect is stronger for employees who score higher in individualism when compared to those who score higher in collectivism.

These hypotheses represent the complexities of leadership in culturally varied workplaces, emphasising the significance of culturally adaptable techniques that take individual cultural orientations into account when nurturing essential organisational behaviours. By examining these moderated mediation effects, this research hopes to further our knowledge of the links between leadership, culture, and employees' outcomes,

eventually influencing the creation of more successful leadership approaches in a variety of organisational situations.

3.2.2.2 Team-level Hypotheses

Hypothesis 7a: The mediating role of team-level organisational justice

The organisational justice climate within teams has a vital mediating role in the link between team outcomes, such voice behaviour and knowledge-sharing behaviour, and team-level empowering leadership (Colquitt et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2018; Han et al., 2021). Still, this mediation is neither simple nor generalisable to all situations (Whitman et al., 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2017). The reason for this has been linked to available evidence that argued that the consistency of team members' perceptions of justice (Colquitt et al., 2002; Li et al., 2019), the type of empowering leadership practices used (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Wang et al., 2019), and the particular organisational climate in which these dynamics take place (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Smith et al., 2022) are some of the factors that determine how effective organisational justice climate is as a mediator.

First, it must be carefully examined if empowering leadership always improves the organisational justice climate and improves team results. Positive views of justice are often linked to empowering leadership, which is defined by actions that provide authority, promote autonomy, and include team members in decision-making (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Han et al., 2021). But how consistently these practices are seen and appreciated by team members will determine how much they really contribute to a shared sense of fairness, which is essential for a cohesive justice atmosphere (Colquitt et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019). For example, the same leadership behaviours may be understood differently in teams with various histories and expectations, which might result in a poorer atmosphere for justice. Due to the possibility that the justice climate may not be strong enough to consistently drive the intended team results, this unpredictability may weaken the mediation effect (Whitman et al., 2012).

Furthermore, the combination of the distributive, procedural, and interactional components of justice further complicates the mediating function of organisational justice

climate. Although enhancements in these areas are often associated with empowering leadership, the relative significance of these aspects might differ based on the team and organisational setting (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Kim & Park, 2022). For instance, distributive justice may be more important in contexts where allocating resources is a top priority, whereas procedural justice may be more important in those where decision-making procedures are acrimonious. As a result, the general justice atmosphere that develops inside a team reflects both the existence of fairness and the specific kind of justice that team members find most important (Colquitt et al., 2013). This sophisticated perspective emphasises how crucial it is to consider the ways in which various types of justice influence the general atmosphere, which in turn influences how this atmosphere influences the link between team performance and leadership.

More also, recent research highlights that the efficiency of this mediation is considerably moderated by the intensity of the justice climate, which is defined as the team members' level of agreement with the level of fairness in the work climate (Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Strong justice climates, characterised by broad agreement on fairness, enhance the beneficial impacts of empowering leadership on team behaviours like information sharing and voice. On the other hand, the mediating effect of the justice climate diminishes in teams with fragmented perceptions of justice because different people may react differently to different leadership styles (Colquitt et al., 2002). This implies that for empowering leadership to successfully improve positive team outcomes the existence of a robust and coherent justice climate is required. Relying on this research the following hypotheses are proposed.

H7a: Organisational justice (Time 2) mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and

(I) Team-level employee knowledge sharing behaviour (Time 2).

(II) Team-level employee voice behaviour (Time 2).

Hypothesis 7a: The mediating role of team-level Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

The link between team-level empowering leadership and important team outcomes, such as employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviour, is complicated and diverse, often necessitating the use of many mediating mechanisms. One important mediator in this context is team-level LMX which captures the strength of the leader's collective interaction with the team as a whole. Unlike conventional LMX, which focusses on dyadic leader-follower connections, team-level LMX represents the team's overall view of LMX, emphasising the collective experience of leadership (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016). This communal component of LMX is critical for understanding how leadership strategies like empowering leadership transfer into specific team behaviours.

Empowering leadership, which fosters autonomy, encourages involvement in decision-making, and promotes self-management, is well known for its ability to improve good team dynamics (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2018). However, the efficacy of empowering leadership in attaining these goals is strongly dependent on the strength of the leader-team connection, as viewed collectively by team members (Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020). When team members get high-quality LMX together, the leader's empowering actions are more likely to be seen as helpful and facilitative, supporting behaviours such as voice and knowledge sharing (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Boies, Fiset, & Gill, 2015). In contrast, in teams where LMX is regarded to be of poorer quality, the same leadership behaviours may not produce the desired positive results, since a lack of trust and mutual respect weakens the leader's attempts to empower the team.

In the literature, several essential processes have been found to underpin mediating role of LMX at the team-level in the link between empowering leadership and team results. First, team-level LMX fosters a culture of mutual trust and respect, which is critical for encouraging team members to engage in voice behaviour which involves as the voluntary communication of ideas, suggestions, or concerns with the goal of improving team functioning (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2018). Thus, members of teams with high LMX are more likely to feel psychologically comfortable and certain that their contributions will be acknowledged, which reduces the perceived dangers of speaking out (Graen & Uhl-

Bien, 1995; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). This psychological safety is an important preface to employees' voice behaviour because it reduces anxieties of negative consequences and promotes an open communication environment in which ideas may be freely communicated (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

Furthermore, LMX at the team-level mediates the influence of empowering leadership on knowledge-sharing behaviour. Knowledge sharing is the exchange of knowledge, skills, and experience among team members, and it is critical for team creativity and performance (Srivastava et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2018). High-quality team-level LMX increases team members' readiness to share knowledge by fostering a collaborative and trusting atmosphere in which members feel appreciated and reciprocated (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000). In such environments, the leader's empowering actions are perceived as genuine efforts to support the team's growth and development, which encourages team members to share their knowledge and expertise for the team's collective benefit (Boies et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2016).

However, it is important to recognise the possible difficulties in this mediated interaction. For example, although team-level LMX usually promotes favourable outcomes, its efficacy as a mediator may be dependent on the amount of consistency in LMX views throughout the team. In teams with highly varying LMX beliefs, the benefits of empowering leadership may be unevenly distributed, resulting in differences in team members' voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours (Gooty, Gavin, & Johnson, 2009). This heterogeneity might reduce the overall effectiveness of team-level LMX as a mediator, implying that LMX perception congruence is critical for maximising the advantages of empowering leadership.

Furthermore, the organisational framework in which these processes play out might alter the strength of the mediated link. In highly hierarchical or inflexible organisational cultures, the beneficial impacts of team-level LMX may be muted because structural constraints restrict the amount to which empowering leadership may successfully transfer into improved team behaviours (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009; Gottfredson et al., 2020). In contrast, in more flexible and egalitarian settings, where empowering leadership aligns

with organisational norms, team-level LMX is likely to play a stronger mediating role, resulting in more pronounced improvements in voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Lee et al., 2018).

Given the theoretical and empirical evidence for team-level LMX as a mediator in the link between empowering leadership and team behaviours, hypothesis testing is required to formalise this relationship. Therefore, the following possibilities are proposed:

H7b: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Time 2) mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and

(I) Team-level employee knowledge sharing behaviour (Time 2).

(II) Team-level employee voice behaviour (Time 2).

3.2.2.3. Cross - level relationships

Hypothesis 8a: The mediating role of organisational justice across levels

Empowering leadership at the team-level is recognised for its role in creating conducive work conditions that favour employees' involvement, autonomy, and proactive behaviour (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2018). However, the mechanisms by which these leadership practices affect individual behaviours are complicated and multidimensional. These mechanisms include employees' organisational justice, which includes employees' views of justice in procedures, interactions, and outcomes, has a significant impact on how they react to leadership practices (Colquitt et al., 2013; Erdogan et al., 2020).

The evidence provided by existing studies (e.g., Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020; Kim & Park, 2022) shows that team-level empowering leadership may have a substantial impact on individual employees' conceptions of organisational justice, thereby influencing their future behaviour. An implication of this is that organisational leaders who engage in empowering behaviours, such as providing autonomy and encouraging participation in decision-making, are more likely to be perceived as fair and supportive, resulting in improved perceptions of procedural, distributive, and interactional justice among

team members (Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020; Kim & Park, 2022). These justice perceptions are important because they have a direct impact on employees' tendency to share information and participate in voice behaviours. Specifically, when employees believe they are treated fairly and that their contributions are valued, they are more likely to share knowledge and express their opinions, as these actions are viewed as a form of reciprocation for the fair treatment they receive.

Several theoretical frameworks support individual-level organisational justice's function as a mediator in the interaction between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level behaviours. According to social exchange theory (SET), employees participate in reciprocal exchanges based on resources provided by their organisation, such as fair treatment and empowerment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Blau, 1964). Thus, when team-level empowering leadership improves individuals' views of organisational justice, employees are more likely to reciprocate by participating in organisationally beneficial behaviours such as information sharing and voice behaviour (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Erdogan et al., 2020). Thus, person-level organisational justice is an important method for channelling the impacts of empowering leadership into good individual results.

Furthermore, the cross-level nature of this interaction emphasises the need to understand how team-level structures impact individual perceptions and behaviours. Team-level empowering leadership may build collective views of justice, which then impact individual justice judgements (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013). However, the level to which these team-level impacts reflect on the individual-level behaviour may be determined by how well team members internalise and align with the collective justice perception in the organisation (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Li & Cropanzano, 2009). For example, in teams where empowering leadership is perceived as fair, individual employees are more likely to perceive improved organisational justice, leading to a motivation to exhibit knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. Conversely, in teams with less uniform perception of empowering leadership, the mediating effect of individual-level justice may be decreased, as employees may perceive various degrees of justice depending on their unique encounters with the

leader (Gooty, Gavin, & Johnson, 2009).

This argument is supported by further empirical studies such as Erdogan et al. (2020) who found that individual perception of justice mediated the relationship between transformative leadership and employees' proactive behaviours, emphasising the significance of justice as a conduit for leadership impacts. Similarly, Kim and Park (2022) discovered that perceptions of distributive and procedural justice mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours, implying that justice perceptions are critical for understanding how leadership influences individual actions. These results are especially pertinent to the present research because they highlight the importance of justice beliefs in translating team-level leadership strategies into individual behaviours.

However, it is vital to remember that the mediating effect of organisational justice might vary depending on the environment, such as team composition, organisational culture, and individual characteristics. For example, in very diverse teams or in hierarchical societies, the impact of empowering leadership on justice views may be mitigated by characteristics such as power distance or individualism- collectivism orientations (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Hofstede, 1980). These contextual variables can either strengthen or weaken the mediating role of justice, implying that the effectiveness of empowering leadership in promoting knowledge sharing and voice behaviours through justice perceptions varies across settings (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrow, 2000).

Relying on the evidence in existing literature, the study suggested the following hypotheses:

H8a: individual-level organisational justice (Time 2) mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and

- I. Individual -level employee knowledge-sharing behaviour (Time 2)*
- II. Individual-level employee voice behaviour (Time 2).*

Hypothesis 8b: The mediating role of individual-level LMX

The ways in which different leadership styles affect employees' individual behaviours have been argued to be mediated by factors including quality of Leader- Member Exchange (LMX). Reflecting the nature of the interaction between a leader and a member of an individual team, LMX provides a vital channel through which team-level leadership can influence employees' individual workplace behaviours (Graen & Uhl- Bien, 1995; Martin et al., 2016).

In existing studies on LMX, high-quality LMX relationships have been argued to flourish at the individual-level under the right circumstances in the presence of team-level empowering leadership. The reason for this may be linked to the assertion that high quality LMX is mostly dependent on trust and mutual respect, which are created by leaders who regularly participate in empowering activities like support and recognition of contributions (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). Consequently, strong LMX relationships which are characterised by a reciprocal feeling of duty and commitment are more likely to emerge when team members see their leader as fair and helpful (Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This enhanced LMX interaction therefore helps to mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and important individual outcomes, including voice behaviour and knowledge-sharing activity that are crucial to overall individual and team performance (Lee et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2016).

Theoretically, the social exchange theory (SET) provides a suitable framework that may enhance the understanding of the mediating role of individual-level LMX since it holds that employees reciprocate positive treatment from their leaders with positive behaviours including knowledge sharing and proactive voice (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus, quality LMX connections inspire employees to feel a great sense of debt, which drives them to act in ways that help the team and the organisation overall. When employees have a positive LMX connection, for instance, they are more inclined to openly share their expertise as they believe their efforts will be appreciated and returned (Srivastava et al., 2006; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). In the same vein, employees in high-LMX relationships show greater voice behaviour (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) as they feel more comfortable expressing their views and concerns.

Therefore, the quality of the LMX connection is crucial in deciding how well empowering leadership results into personal behaviour. When LMX is strong, employees feel more loyal and motivated to return their leader's support by means of information sharing and voice activities, hence strengthening the mediating impact (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2016). On the other hand, the desired effects of empowering leadership on these behaviours may be lessened in situations when LMX is poor or inconsistent across team members. The link between empowering leadership and good employee behaviours is probably less evident without a solid relationship basis (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008; Gooty, Gavin, & Johnson, 2009).

There are empirical studies that demonstrate the mediation of LMX in the link between empowering leadership and employee outcomes. Emphasising the need of high-quality LMX in motivating positive employee behaviours, Erdogan and Bauer (2014) showed, for example, that LMX quality mediates the association between leadership behaviours and organisational citizenship behaviours.

More also, underlining the relevance of leader-member interactions in forming employee performance, Gottfredson et al. (2020) also revealed that LMX considerably mediates the association between transformative leadership and employee engagement. These results are very significant to the current research as they imply that individual-level LMX is a fundamental process by which team-level empowering leadership influences individual knowledge-sharing and voice behaviours.

Nevertheless, LMX's mediating function is not consistent across all organisational settings; it is shaped by elements like organisational culture, team dynamics, and consistency of leadership behaviour (Liden et al., 2000; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). For organisations with a supportive culture and cohesive teams, for example, the benefits of LMX are likely to be enhanced and result in better mediation. Conversely, in hierarchical organisations or ones with uneven leadership styles, the mediating role of LMX may be reduced, hence less affecting individual behaviour (Henderson et al., 2008; Gooty et al., 2009). These differences draw attention to the need of include contextual elements into

analysis of the cross-level impacts of leadership on employee performance.

In line with this discussion the following hypothesis proposed

- I. H8b: Individual-level LMX (Time 2) mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and:*
 - I. Individual-level employee knowledge-sharing behaviour (Time 2).*
 - II. Individual-level employee voice behaviour (Time 2).*

Hypothesis 9a: The mediating role organisational justice across levels

The team-level organisational justice, which refers to a team's collective sense of fairness regarding procedures, resource allocation, and interpersonal relationships (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Li & Liao, 2021), is an important mediator in this cross-level dynamic. This justice atmosphere is significant in influencing individual employee behaviours because it provides a common framework that determines how team members perceive and react to leadership practices (Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, & Goldstein, 2007; Chen et al., 2021).

Empowering team leadership, which emphasises autonomy, participatory decision-making, and self-management, is critical to developing a positive justice atmosphere (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Raub & Robert, 2013). Thus, leaders who exhibit team's overall feeling of justice. This, in turn, influences individual perspectives and promotes behaviours that are consistent with organisational aims, such as information sharing and voice (Chen et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019). Consequently, the shared perception of justice among team members becomes an important mechanism for translating the impact of empowering leadership into individual-level outcomes (Li & Liao, 2021; Mayer et al., 2007).

The role of team-level organisational justice in this connection may also better understood using social exchange theory (SET). According to SET, people participate in behaviours depending on the perceived fairness and support from their leaders and organisations (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When team-level empowering leadership fosters a positive justice atmosphere, it promotes the mutual connection between employees and the organisation, promoting behaviours like knowledge sharing and voice

(Zhang et al., 2019; Raub & Robert, 2013). The communal impression of justice therefore acts as an important intermediate, channelling the impacts of leadership into favourable individual behaviours (Li & Liao, 2021; Colquitt et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the efficiency of this justice climate as a mediator is determined by the extent to which team members internalise and agree with the collective judgements of what is considered as fair within the organisation. An implication of this is that the degree to which team-level justice climate influence individual behaviour is determined by how thoroughly team members internalise these shared judgements and how well these correspond with their own experiences of fairness (Chen et al., 2021; Li & Liao, 2021). When alignment this is high, the justice climate efficiently bridges the gap between empowering leadership and individual outcomes like knowledge sharing and voice behaviour, and when alignment is poor, the mediating effect of the justice climate is reduced, resulting in variation in individual reactions to leadership behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2019).

This argument has been supported by current studies where justice climate was used as a mediating variable translate leadership strategies into individual employees' outcomes. For example, Li and Liao (2021) discovered that the justice climate significantly mediated the relationship between leadership practices and organisational citizenship behaviours, implying those collective perceptions of fairness was important to understanding how leadership influences individual outcomes. In another study by Chen et al. (2021), team-level justice climate mediated the relationship between transformative leadership and extra-role employee behaviours, emphasising the importance of shared justice beliefs in determining individual reactions to leadership. These results highlight the role of justice climate as a mediator in cross-level leadership dynamics (Zhang et al., 2019; Mayer et al., 2007).

Moreover, employees' knowledge sharing and voice behaviours which are both important in enhancing creativity and team performance, was found to be strongly influenced by team perceptions of organisational justice (Srivastava et al., 2006; Raub & Robert, 2013). Similarly, voice behaviour, was found to be highly influenced by employees' perceptions of the justice climate in the work team (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck,

2009). Chen et al., (2021) and Zhang et al., (2019) add that employees are more likely to share information and express their ideas when they perceive a fair and supportive atmosphere, which is produced by empowering leadership and maintained by a strong justice climate.

However, the degree of the justice climate's mediating effect varies according to contextual elements such as team cohesiveness, leadership consistency, and organisational culture. For example, in cohesive teams with consistent justice beliefs, the justice atmosphere is likely to be stronger, increasing its mediating impact on individual behaviours (Mayer et al., 2007; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). In contrast, in teams with different justice beliefs or inconsistent leadership, the justice atmosphere may be weaker, limiting its potential to buffer the link between empowering leadership and individual results (Chen et al., 2021; Raub & Robert, 2013). These contextual changes underscore the complexities of cross-level relationships, as well as the need for a more nuanced understanding of how justice climates emerge and operate within teams (Li and Liao, 2021; Zhang et al., 2019).

This study therefore proposes the following hypotheses:

H9a: Team-level organisational justice (justice climate) (Time 2) mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and

- I. Individual-level employee knowledge-sharing behaviour (Time 2)*
- II. Individual-level employee voice behaviour (Time 2).*

Hypothesis 9b: The mediating role team-level LMX across levels

The LMX mean, a team-level construct indicating the average quality of leader-member interactions within the team, mediates the complex interaction between team-level empowering leadership and individual employee outcomes including voice behaviour and knowledge-sharing behaviour. Existing studies have repeatedly shown that when empowering leadership practices are properly carried out, they improve the LMX mean by creating a cohesive and supportive team environment whereby most team members experience high-quality interactions with their leader (Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020;

Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). This high LMX mean thus supports positive team relations, which are essential for encouraging practices such knowledge sharing and voice among individual employees (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000).

Moreover, by enabling the shared view of support and fairness, which motivates employees to participate in activities that help the team and the organisation, the LMX mean becomes a vital mediator (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). Thus, a high LMX mean improves the psychological safety within the team so that employees may feel confident exhibiting knowledge sharing behaviours and speaking out about thoughts and opinions without worry of negative repercussions (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropki, 2016; Gooty, Gavin, & Johnson, 2009). Fostering voice behaviour depends on this shared feeling of psychological safety, which lowers the perceived dangers connected with speaking out and supports proactive participation to team meetings and decision-making procedures (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

Specifically, the LMX Mean increases the effect of team-level empowering leadership on these behaviours by making sure most team members have positive interactions with their leader, therefore fostering a supportive team environment. Knowing that their contributions are appreciated and that the team is collectively committed to its success, employees in such settings feel safer and more driven to share information and express their thoughts (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016). This common view of support and empowerment fits the ideas of SET and SDT as it helps team members feel strongly of psychological safety and motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Furthermore, the strength of the mediating role of LMX mean is most evident in its ability to extend the effect of empowering leadership all throughout the team. As such, a high LMX mean indicates a homogeneity in the quality of leader-member interactions, therefore ensuring that the beneficial effects of empowering leadership are evenly experienced throughout the team (Gottfredson et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2016). This homogeneity is essential as it guarantees that every team member regardless of their duties or

responsibilities is equally motivated to exhibit knowledge-sharing and voice behaviours, thereby improving the general team performance and cohesiveness (Henderson et al., 2008; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). This study therefore proposes the following.

H9b: LMX Mean (Time 2) mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and

- I. Employee knowledge sharing behaviour (Time 2).*
- II. Employee voice behaviour (Time 2).*

Hypothesis 10: Cross-level Moderating role of Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation

Existing research have shown that empowering leadership improves the quality of LMX contacts and favourably affects individual-level opinions of organisational justice. For example, empowering leadership was found to foster fair and just workplace by Srivastava, Bartol, and Locke (2006). Likewise, Amundsen & Martinsen (2014) discovered that empowering leadership enhances LMX by means of mutual respect and trust, which are fundamental elements of positive leader-member interactions. Other research has repeatedly shown the strong correlation between empowering leadership and individual-level results (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2018; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Though the direct effects of empowering leadership on organisational justice and LMX are extensively provided in the literature and also covered in Study one of this current Study, Study Two where LMXD is operationalised at the team-level in the multilevel study will not concentrate on the direct relationships. Rather, the present study attempts to investigate the more complex dynamics in the relationship, especially the moderating function of Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD). LMXD is the variation in the quality of interactions a leader has with various team members that may greatly affect how empowering leadership is seen and absorbed at the personal level (Henderson et al., 2009; Erdogan & Bauer, 2010).

In teams with high LMXD, where leader-member relationships vary greatly, the positive effects of empowering leadership on organisational justice and LMX may be

lessened as differences in relationship quality can lead to views of inequity and lowered trust (Gooty & Yammarino, 2016; Li et al., 2021).

The moderating effect of LMXD implies that in teams with low LMXD, where leader-member interactions are more constant and fairer, the positive association between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level organisational justice is greater. Consequently, employees in such teams are likely to get comparable degrees of support, justice, and respect from their leader, therefore supporting their impressions of organisational justice (Chen & Tjosvold, 2022; Wang & Zhong, 2011). Conversely, in high LMXD teams, the heterogeneity in leader-member connections may lead to differences in how employees see fairness, thereby compromising organisational justice even in the presence of empowering leadership (Henderson et al., 2009; Gooty & Yammarino, 2016).

Similarly, LMXD moderates the link between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level LMX. Empowering leadership in teams with low LMXD may be more likely to produce consistently high-quality LMX interactions amongst all team members as the constant support and autonomy given by the leader is experienced equally (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). Whereas, in teams with high LMXD, the benefits of empowering leadership on LMX are likely to be reduced as individuals in lower-quality exchanges may not have the same degree of support and autonomy as their peers, therefore weakening LMX interactions (Henderson et al., 2009; Li et al., 2021).

In line with this, this study also proposes the following hypothesis

H10a: Team-level LMXD (Time 2) moderates the link between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and individual-level organisational justice (Time 2), such that the association is lower when LMXD is high and greater when LMXD is low.

H10b: Team-level LMXD (Time 2) moderates the link between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and individual-level LMX (Time 2), therefore producing a weaker relationship when LMXD is high and a stronger relationship when LMXD is low.

Hypothesis 11: Moderated Mediation

Individual-level Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and organisational justice which

have been argued in this study as potential mediators of the relationship between team-level Empowering Leadership (EPL) and individual-level outcomes (knowledge-sharing behaviour (KSB) and extra-role voice behaviour (VB) in H8. However, the impact of these mediators on outcomes such as KSB and VB likely to be strongly moderated by the effect of team-level Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD).

Empowering leadership aims to create a supportive atmosphere for team members by encouraging autonomy, involvement, and competence. These leadership strategies often improve LMX quality and individual views of organisational justice (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Srivastava, Bartol & Locke, 2006). Higher-quality LMX interactions, marked by trust and mutual respect, empower employees to participate in behaviours like information sharing and voice, motivated by a feeling of responsibility and reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Similarly, when employees experience high levels of organisational justice, they are more likely to feel devoted to their team and organisation, which increases their readiness to share information and speak about issues that can enhance organisational performance (Colquitt et al., 2013; Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). However, the existence of LMXD may alter these dynamics.

Thus, in teams with high LMXD, differences in the strength of leader-member connections create variances in how individual employees perceive empowering leadership. Those that participate in high-quality exchanges are more likely to gain from empowering leadership, as they experience increased LMX and perceptions of justice, which leads to greater levels of KSB and VB. Employees in lower-quality exchanges may feel less supported and experience less justice, reducing the influence of EPL on their behaviours (Henderson et al., 2009; Gooty & Yammarino, 2016). This variation shows that the efficacy of empowering leadership in fostering KSB and VB via LMX and organisational justice is dependent on the extent of LMXD within the team.

According to the moderated mediation theory, LMXD moderates the indirect effect of empowering leadership on KSB and VB through individual-level LMX and organisational

justice (Henderson et al., 2009; Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). As such teams with low LMXD, where leader-member relationships are reasonably stable, have larger mediation effects of LMX and organisational justice. An implication of this is that employees consistently gain from empowering leadership, which leads to improved views of LMX and justice, which translates into more information sharing and voice behaviour (Li et al., 2021; Chen & Tjosvold, 2022).

However, in teams with high LMXD, differences in relationship quality undermine these mediation benefits since not all employees get equal levels of support and justice. This results in a lower overall effect of EPL on KSB and VB, since the advantages of high-quality LMX and organisational justice are unevenly distributed (Henderson et al., 2009; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014).

This moderated mediation assertion is further supported by existing research as studies have shown that the mediation effect of LMX and organisational justice is more noticeable when LMXD is low, therefore strengthening the link between empowering leadership and favourable employee outcomes including KSB and EVB (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Wang & Zhong, 2011). On the other hand, LMXD high values cause the variability in connection quality to compromise the consistency of these mediators, thereby producing lower overall results (Henderson et al., 2009; Gooty & Yammarino, 2016).

In line with this, study suggest the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis H11a(i): Team-level LMXD (Time 2) moderates the mediated relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and individual-level knowledge sharing behaviour (Time 2) through individual-level OJT2 with the mediation being stronger when LMXD is low and weaker when LMXD is high.

Hypothesis H11a(ii): Team-level LMXD (Time 2) moderates the mediated relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and individual-level voice behaviour (Time 2) through individual-level OJT2 with the mediation being stronger when LMXD is low and weaker when LMXD is high.

H11b(i): Team-level LMXD (Time 2) moderates the mediated relationship between

team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and individual-level knowledge sharing behaviour (Time 2) through individual-level LMX with the mediation being stronger when LMXD is low and weaker when LMXD is high.

H11b(ii): Team-level LMXD (Time 2) moderates the mediated relationship between team-level empowering leadership (Time 1) and individual-level voice behaviour (Time 2) through individual-level LMX with the mediation being stronger when LMXD is low and weaker when LMXD is high.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an outline of the history of research philosophy before delving into the two primary philosophical approaches to social scientific research (positivism and interpretivism). The chapter explores various research paradigms including positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism/constructivism, and pragmatism through the lenses of ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. These paradigms are critically examined to define what knowledge is, how it is acquired, and how it is shared within research.

The chapter then describes the positivist research design adopted in this study focusing on the quantitative study design, sampling strategy, sample size, the measures used, the data collection and analysis approaches applied.

The chapter will be concluded by providing a summary of the reliability and validity tests and the ethical consideration that were relevant to the study.

4.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY: THE NATURE OF KNOWLEDGE

Research philosophy is viewed as "a system of beliefs and assumptions about the nature and development of knowledge" (Collis & Hussey, 2014, p. 43). It serves as the cornerstone for researchers' methodology, directing the choices of techniques, strategies for gathering data, and approaches to data analysis (Grix, 2019). Grix (2019) and Crotty (1998) stress that as research philosophy has a direct impact on the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data, it is crucial to have a thorough understanding of it in order to choose a suitable study design. It expresses the viewpoint of the researcher and affects every facet of the study design, including the development of research questions, methodological choices, and data interpretation (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Thus, it is suggested that researcher's adopt suitable research approaches that align with their research goals and objectives (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Systematic understanding of social phenomena is based on fundamental beliefs and assumptions relating to ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. In philosophy, ontology refers to assumptions about the nature of reality, with a primary concentration on the study of being (Blaikie, 2007). Ontological questions ask whether reality is objective and exist independent of human perception, or subjective and moulded by human experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Ontological views try to understand "how the researchers perceive reality" (Moon & Blackman, 2014, p. 118), as well as "how it exists and what can be known about it" (Scotland, 2012, p. 9). Consequently, researchers need to explicitly clarify their ontological positions to aid the of understanding how social phenomena occur (Grix, 2019). This entails deciding "whether social entities can and should be viewed as objective entities with an existence independent of social actors, or as social constructions formed through the perceptions and actions of these actors" (Bryman, 2016, p. 29). These arguments align with existing theories as the former perspective is consistent with objectivism, while the latter belongs to subjectivism (Grix, 2019). According to Lincoln & Guba (1985), traditional researchers often believe that there is a single, recognisable reality that can be quantified, a which is a realism-based viewpoint typically linked with positivism.

Other scholars, on the other hand, argue that numerous realities exist, each equally legitimate and produced inside people's brains, a viewpoint consistent with constructivism or interpretivism (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Schwandt, 2000; Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This viewpoint emphasises that knowledge is socially produced and shaped by individual experiences and settings, rather than being a single objective fact.

A second philosophical stance closely related to ontology is epistemology. Ontology on the one hand addresses the nature of existence and reality, while epistemology examines the nature and extent of knowledge and the most effective methods of scientific inquiry (Grix, 2019).

Fundamentally, it is a philosophical viewpoint focused on the evolution of knowledge, assisting scholars in understanding "how we know what we know and what the valid ways to reach reality are" (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 10). Burrell and Morgan (1979) underlined the

interdependence of ontology and epistemology by arguing that epistemological presumptions define whether knowledge is seen as objective or subjective, therefore reflecting ontological ideas about reality. They added that the epistemological approach to acquiring information might be objective or subjective, much like ontology. Consequently, according to an objective epistemological perspective, generalisations about social reality can only be made through visible and quantifiable facts as truth about the social world can only be found in this sense. On the other hand, a subjective epistemological premise believes that perceptions and interpretations alone allow one to grasp reality (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015).

Axiology is another fundamental philosophical premise that relates the place of ethics and values in the research process (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). As discussed, the epistemological decisions of a researcher depend on their ontological presumptions about the nature of knowledge ((Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Scotland, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Axiology therefore looks at researchers manage their values and those related to the research participant throughout the study process (Punch, 2013). Axiological presumptions have been divided into three categories: value-laden, value-free, and value-driven (Heron, 1996). Value-free axiology holds that knowledge should be acquired apart from the values of the researcher, implying that research should be carried out in an impartial, objective, unbiased way wherein the data exists independently of the researcher (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Value-laden axiology, on the other hand, advises that researchers should admit their prejudices and those of their subjects as total disengagement from the study process is not practical nor desired (Cohen et al., 2018).

Furthermore, this point of view holds that as researchers are naturally affected by their beliefs, cultural background, and experiences so values cannot be eliminated from the study process (Smith, 2008). Finally, value-driven axiology holds that values are an essential and beneficial component of research and implies that researchers' decisions and interpretations are always influenced by their values (Heron, 1996).

Together, the ontological, epistemological, and axiological stances of the researcher define their methodical approach (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009). These well-considered

presumptions drive the choice of research approaches, strategies, data collection methods, and analytic tools employed (Bryman, 2012). According to Crotty (1998), methodology is a strategic strategy that determines which techniques to use in research. Somekh and Lewin (2005) further defined methodology as "the collection of methods or rules by which a particular piece of research is undertaken and the principles, theories, and values that underpin a particular research approach" (p.346).

Thus, it explains how knowledge is gained and aids the understanding of the nature of knowledge itself (Grix, 2019). Methodology is the general strategy or approach to research, while methods are the tools or processes used to collect and analyse data (Mertens, 2015; Silberman, 2013). These interwoven assumptions (ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology) serve as the philosophical and theoretical basis for research, collectively defining the research paradigm (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2018; Tracy, 2019). Guba and Lincoln (1994) define paradigm as "a basic set of beliefs that guides action" (p. 105) and it is made up of a framework that includes the fundamental presumptions, key questions, and research methods used in research (Patton, 2015).

The research paradigm shapes the framework for the investigation (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009); hence researchers must define and explain their philosophical perspective before selecting appropriate method for their study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In light of this, the next section discusses the two core research paradigms (positivism, and interpretivism).

4.2.1 The Positivist Paradigm

Positivism took a front stage in the nineteenth century and promoted the idea that "reality exists independently of human perception" (Grix, 2019; Tashakkori & Teddle, 2003). It is rooted in natural scientific traditions, emphasises the significance of dealing with observable reality to generate law-like generalisations (Silverman, 2013). The word "positivism" emphasises the importance of pure data and facts, devoid of human interpretation or prejudice, indicating a concentration on what is "positively given" (Grey,

2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Ontologically, positivists hold that a single, objective reality exists and can be investigated by scientific inquiry, a method consistent with the idea of realism (Blaikie, 2007; Walliman, 2017). Epistemologically, positivism holds that this reality is visible and logically understandable that the world exists as an objective reality apart from the awareness of the observer (Hammersley, 2013). This perspective emphasises some core ideas: (a) dualism, in which the researcher is cut off from the research participants (b) objectivism where rigorous methods guarantee the objective observation of participants; and c) value-free research, in which the study is conducted free from bias (Robson & McCartan, 2016; Johnson & Christensen, 2017).

The positivist axiological position suggests that researchers should stay detached, objective, and independent of the research subjects and the study itself thus adopting a value-free research position (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). This is achieved by means of diverse strategies, including the use of statistical methods that can minimise the researcher's impact on the study process and research participants (Bryman, 2016).

Methodologically, positivists build, test, and validate hypotheses depending on existing theories by means of deductive reasoning. Positivists seek to produce generalisable knowledge by testing hypotheses generated from pre-existing theory, therefore explaining causal links between variables and allowing the discovery of universal behavioural principles (Hammersley, 2013).

Though positivism is extensively used in social research, its rejection of other sources of knowledge about social phenomenon especially those that represent the complexity and subjective quality of human experience has been criticised (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2014).

Furthermore, the paradigm is criticised for its inability to sufficiently handle the often complicated and nuanced events resulting from human experiences or subjective judgements (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). More also, positivism finds it difficult to express a single, objective truth about events related to social context since they are varied and

dynamic nature thus by pursuing objectivity, positivism might ignore subjectivity and reflexivity, therefore neglecting the impact of the researcher's own viewpoints and bias in the research process (Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

These limitations have given rise to post-positivism, a new approach to research that emphasises reflexivity and acknowledges the complexities of social processes (Phillips & Burbules, 2000; Ryan, 2006). Post-positivism recognises that all observation is imperfect and theory-laden, thereby admitting the subjective aspects of the research process while acknowledging the role of empirical data and critical analysis (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2014). This paradigm encourages researchers to be reflective, examining their own biases and the environment in which research takes place, therefore providing a more complex view of social events (Mertens, 2015).

4.2.2 *The Interpretivist Paradigm*

Interpretivism (also referred to as constructivism), arose to address the criticism associated with positivism. providing a different method for doing social science research (Schwandt, 2000; Grix, 2019). According to interpretivism the main responsibility of social scientists is to understand the subjective interpretations that people attribute to their behaviours and that of others (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This viewpoint holds that individuals behave in accordance with the interpretations they make of their own and other people's actions (Flick, 2018). Constructivists hold the ontological position that reality is not an outside force but is instead created by social actors. This leads them to believe in a plurality of coexisting realities as opposed to a single, objective truth believed by the positivists (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This is consistent with the relativist perspective, which holds that these many realities are created and differ for different people and groups (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

It is argued by Guba and Lincoln (1989) that "realities are apprehended as multiple, intangible, mental constructions, specific to a given context, and dependent on the individuals or groups holding the constructions" (p. 86) ; in other words, Constructivists take a transactional and subjectivist approach to epistemology, seeing reality as socially produced

through dynamic interactions between researchers and participants (Schwandt, 1994). Ponte Rotto (2005) emphasises that this technique necessitates close cooperation between the researcher and participants in order to adequately capture and characterise the participants' "lived experiences."

Constructivists view social reality in a variety of ways. For example, the hermeneutic approach to cultural artefact interpretation contends that continuous contact between researchers and participants is necessary to elicit and develop participants' unique interpretations of reality (Gadamer, 2004). Through reflective processes, this engagement enables researchers to unearth deeper meanings and insights (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009). Furthermore, to create meanings and get insights into participants' lived experiences, the phenomenological strand of interpretivism which focusses on comprehending existence therefore emphasises investigating such experiences (Van Manen, 1990).

Constructivists subscribe to the axiological view that total objectivity is unattainable in research as the values and experiences of the researcher and the participants are fundamental to the process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, to understand the participants' experiences from their point of view, researchers are urged to take an empathic position and fully immerse themselves in their social environment (Mertens, 2015). In contrast to positivism or post-positivism, interpretivism is more likely to focus on the inductive creation of theory and patterns of meaning, often gathering and analysing participant viewpoints using qualitative research methodologies (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

4.3 THE RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY ADOPTED

This current research adopts a positivist stance to research as it aligns with its aim to investigate the effects of empowering leadership on employee knowledge sharing and voice behaviours in MNCs in Nigeria. The positivist method is well suited for this inquiry as it emphasises objectivity, quantifiable results, and the identification of the causal links between the studied variables. This method is fundamental for producing consistent and generalisable

results that improve our knowledge of leadership dynamics in many cultural and organisational contexts (Saunders et al., 2019; Bryman, 2016).

Adopting the positivist approach in this research is justified by the need to create unambiguous, measurable links between employees' extra-role behaviours and empowering leadership behaviours. The positivist paradigm is distinguished using procedures allows hypotheses testing, objective measurement of variables, and provision of results that are applicable to other research contexts (Collis & Hussey, 2014).

Recent research in related settings have effectively adopted the positivist approach to research to explore the links between leadership styles and employee outcomes in many cultural and organisational circumstances. For example, in the study by Wang et al. (2020) the positivist approach to research was adopted to investigate the benefits of empowering leadership on employee creativity and performance across several sectors, therefore demonstrating the efficacy of the approach in producing generally applicable results. Likewise, the study by Lee, Kim, & Kim (2020) adopted the positivist approach to understand the leadership dynamics by looking at the effect of transformational leadership on knowledge sharing in South Korean organisations.

Within the scope of this research, multilevel analysis used within the positivist perspective enables a thorough investigation of the connections between empowering leadership and employee behaviours throughout many organisational levels within MNCs. Capturing the complexity of leadership impact in many cultural settings and guaranteeing that the results are both strong and relevant across many contexts depend on this methodological rigour, which guarantees (Hox, Moerbeek, & van de Schoot, 2017).

Moreover, the research is based on well-known theories like social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), both of which fit the positivist focus on verifying theoretical premises by empirical evidence. Applying these theories within the setting of MNCs in Nigeria not only helps to contribute to the general knowledge of leadership behaviours but also closes a major void in the literature related to the African context, where empirical research on leadership in MNCs remains underexplored (Kamoche

et al., 2012; Zoogah, Peng, & Woldu, 2015).

The dynamics of leadership and employee behaviours within MNCs in Africa, especially in Nigeria, clearly show a void in the research. With little regard for the practices and effects of leadership within MNCs, most of the current studies on leadership in Africa centre on indigenous or traditional leadership styles (Zoogah et al., 2015). Furthermore, most research in this field uses qualitative methods, which leaves few quantitative studies able to provide broad insights. This research fills in these voids by using a positivist, quantitative methodology that enables methodical measurement and analysis of leadership behaviours and their impacts on employee outcomes in several cultural settings within MNCs (Mellahi & Mol, 2015).

This work helps to close this gap by a comprehensive empirical analysis of the mediating and moderating roles of leader-member interchange, psychological empowerment, and organisational justice using a positivist perspective. Considering both interpersonal and organisational elements, multilevel analysis offers a more complete knowledge of these interactions, thereby helping one to grasp the complicated dynamics of MNCs in Africa (Hox et al., 2017).

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

As the guide for gathering and analysing data, the research design guarantees that the goals and research questions of the study are met (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Using a longitudinal approach, this research collected data from participants at various intervals. According to Ployhart & Vandenberg (2010) and Singer & Willett (2003), longitudinal designs are especially useful for capturing temporal effects and monitoring behavioural changes over longer periods of time, which results in a more thorough and dynamic knowledge of the phenomena under inquiry.

The usefulness of longitudinal designs in analysing leadership and its effects on employee outcomes has received considerable attention in the literature. For example,

Fischer, De Vries, and Van den Bossche (2020), used a longitudinal methodology to investigate how team dynamics have changed over time in connection to leadership. Their research showed that longitudinal data, which would have been overlooked in a cross-sectional methodology, offered crucial insights into how team dynamics and leadership effectiveness altered over time. Comparably, Hansen et al. (2021) used a longitudinal methodology to study the long-term impacts of transformative leadership on employee productivity and well-being. The need of monitoring leadership effects over time to fully comprehend their impact on employee outcomes was highlighted by their results. The present study uses a longitudinal strategy to examine the complex impacts of empowering leadership on employee voice behaviour and information sharing by following the precedence provided by these previous studies.

4.4.1 Justification for Longitudinal Research in This Study

In the African context, there is an especially strong demand for long-term studies on empowering leadership and its effects on employee outcomes like information sharing and voice behaviour. Though there is an increasing amount of research on leadership in organisational environments, studies analysing how leadership styles affect employee behaviour over time in African multinational companies (MNCs) are scarce. Most research conducted in Africa are mostly cross-sectional, therefore providing simple overview of the effect of leadership behaviours without considering the temporal dynamics influencing employee attitudes and behaviours (Zoogah, Peng, & Woldu, 2015; Mellahi & Mol, 2015).

In order to close this gap, this research uses a longitudinal approach that allows the investigation of how employee outcomes over time, are affected by empowering leadership behaviours. The research provides a comprehensive and more precise knowledge of the causal links between leadership behaviours and employee outcomes since data is collected at two different time periods with a 3month lag time. By providing insights into the processes through which leadership influences employee behaviour, the longitudinal approach also aids in the exploration of the mediating roles of organisational justice., psychological

empowerment and leader- member exchange

Moreover, the emphasis of the present study on employees' knowledge sharing and voice behaviours in African MNCs contributes to the scarce empirical research in this field. The organisational and cultural contexts of Africa continent is significantly different from those of Western countries, in which much of the leadership literature is focused. Thus, longitudinal research examining these dynamics in an African setting not only closes a significant gap in the literature but also advances a more complex knowledge of how empowering leadership may be practically implemented in different cultural settings.

Another advantage of using the longitudinal lies in its ability in reducing common method variance (CMV), a typical problem in cross-sectional research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). The temporal separation of the assessment of predictors and outcomes helps the research lower the likelihood of overstated correlations resulting from common rater bias, therefore improving the validity of the results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Furthermore, the longitudinal method enables the research to record the within-person changes and spot trends that would be missed in a cross-sectional study, therefore providing a more realistic picture of the relationship under examination (Dormann & Griffin, 2015).

Nevertheless, longitudinal studies are associated with some challenges such as the requirement for longer timeframes and more resources to monitor participants throughout successive waves of data collection, which may result in greater attrition rates (Lynn, 2018). To overcome this issue, the use of frequent follow-ups and participant involvement are used to assure data integrity over time (Gustavson et al., 2012).

4.5 SAMPLING STRATEGY AND SAMPLE OVERVIEW

4.5.1 *Sampling Technique: Snowball Sampling*

In this study the snowball sampling method, a non-probability sampling approach often used in studies when access to participants is difficult, or the population of interest is not clearly defined was adopted. Snowball sampling is the identification of an initial set of

participants who then refer other participants, hence enlarging the sample (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981; Goodman, 2011). When research aiming at certain subgroups within a wider population where conventional probability sampling techniques may not be practical, this strategy is very successful (Atkinson & Flint, 2001; Heckathorn, 2011). In organisational research, this approach is especially successful as it might be challenging to contact certain subgroups, including supervisor-subordinate dyads within multinational organisations (MNCs). Given its emphasis on gathering data from these dyads across several economic sectors in Nigeria, snowball sampling was suitable for the present investigation. Thus, snowball sampling was used by first contacting only supervisors and managers, who were then invited to distribute the links to the questionnaires to their subordinates.

This approach has received considerable attention in existing studies. These include Dhanani & Connell (2015) who conducted a study on organisational justice in the workplace using snowball sampling due to the ability of the technique to reach people at several hierarchical levels within organisations. In their study on feedback-seeking behaviour, Anseel et al. (2015) also used snowball sampling to collect information from employees who were specifically recommended by supervisors or peers. These studies highlight how well snowball sampling works in organisational settings, especially when the study calls for the gathering of participants who could be difficult to locate or identify using more traditional sample methods.

Though this approach has been criticised for biases resulting from non-random selection and dependence on the social networks of first participants (Noy, 2008), it was appropriate for the objectives of this current study research. The adopting of the method of sampling in this research had a clear benefit in that it allowed the dynamics within supervisor-subordinate relationships which are essential for understanding the influence of empowering leadership on employee knowledge sharing and voice behaviours to be captured.

Given the emphasis on the collection of data from supervisor-subordinate dyads inside multinational organisations (MNCs) across nine economic sectors, snowball sampling was found to be suitable for this current research . This is because using conventional

sampling techniques might make access to these particular dyads challenging especially in big hierarchical organisations. Therefore, by using current personal and professional networks, snowball sampling offered a practical approach to gain access the participants required for the research. In organisational research, where the researcher usually has to target certain roles or relationships that are not easily accessible using random selection (Heckathorn, 2011).

Thus, by using the snowball sampling method, this study was able to provide a more complete examination of these dynamics by making sure the sample included a broad range of economic sector and organisational contexts, therefore providing additional insights to the body of knowledge on leadership and organisational behaviour. Moreover, the use of snowball sampling closed a gap in the body of knowledge on the use of this method in research aiming at African MNCs, where access to important organisational players might be especially difficult.

4.5.2 Sample Size and Power Calculation

Selecting a suitable sample size is essential in quantitative research to guarantee the validity and reliability of the results. This is specifically important in the context of mediation analysis and multilevel modelling studies. To correctly identify the indirect effects, in mediation which aims to understand the process by which an independent variable influences a dependent variable through a mediator, the study requires a sample size that is large enough to reflect this mechanism. The reason for this may be linked to the body of study that shown that insufficient sample size may lead to Type II errors, which compromise the robustness of the data analysis by failing to identify actual effects (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; Hayes, 2018).

Consequently, to guarantee sufficient power for a mediation analysis, it is generally advised to have a minimum sample size of 200 (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; Iacobucci, 2010). This threshold is argued to be relevant for identifying small to medium mediating effects (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; Kenny, 2017; Preacher & Kelley, 2011). Nevertheless, there are

developments in power analysis software that have made it possible for researchers to carry out more accurate assessments that are customised for their individual study designs.

For example, by taking into consideration the complexity of the model and the predicted effect sizes, Monte Carlo simulations have been found to provide adequate calculation for the sample size required to obtain the appropriate power for identifying mediation effects (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010).

According to a power calculation carried for this study, 385 participants were required to provide an estimated effect size of 0.5 and a 95% confidence interval with a 5% margin of error. This proposed sample size is consistent with other empirical research in the field of management, including studies by Wang, Gan, and Wu (2016) that looked at the results of organisations and the behaviours of leaders.

To accomplish this goal, 400 individuals in supervisor-subordinate dyadic interactions from nine different Nigerian economic sectors were approached using a snowball sample strategy was adopted. This indicated the need to recruit research participants from MNCs with a comparable workforce size. Thus, in with previous research (e.g., Ngo et al., 2023), the current study only included organisations with a sizable workforce of at least 500 employees in strategic locations (Lagos and Abuja) in Nigeria. This reason for this may be explained by the assertion made by Boon et al. (2019) that larger organisations adopt participatory workplace practices faster than smaller organisations. Moreover, these large organisations have been found to effectively implement sophisticated internal labour markets and professional training and development strategies to enhance job performance (Jackson, Schuler, & Rivero, 2006; Batt & Colvin, 2011; Wright & McMahan, 2011).

Furthermore, only supervisors in charge of teams with a minimum of five subordinate were invited to participate in the research. This method seeks to capture the wide variety of responsibilities within the sample, hence increasing the generalisability of the findings. However, caution is advised, especially when accounting for the expected dropout rate, which is a typical difficulty in such research (Bryman, 2012; Baruch & Holtom, 2008). By considering probable participant attrition, the research reduces the danger of biased results

caused by non-responses, assuring the findings' robustness (Lynn, 2018). Furthermore, a great deal of data has shown that HRM practices differ greatly depending on the size of the business and its objectives (Boon et al., 2019).

A multilevel analysis was also used in Study 2, which is ideal in cases where data are layered, such in the case of employees who are nested inside teams or supervisors. Because multilevel modelling takes into consideration the fact that data within clusters are not independent, it is possible to estimate links across several levels of analysis with greater accuracy (Bliese, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

This research followed earlier protocols (Singh et al., 2021; Butts et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2019; Panaccio and Vandenberghe, 2012) and collected data from 289 subordinates and 23 supervisors in the first wave. Following data cleaning, only 213 responses from subordinate and 22 supervisor responses remained legitimate and these were invited for the second wave of the data collection process. In the second wave, responses from 210 subordinate and 21 supervisor responses were legitimate, resulting in 21 dyads from 18 MNCs across nine economic sectors in Nigeria.

The research was constructed with subordinates' responses connected to their supervisors using "supervisors' email addresses" as unique codes. As a result, the researcher includes a request in the "supervisor's survey" (see SUPERVISOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1) to help distribute the link to the "employees survey" to their team members through a preferred internal process. Although the use of 210 participants in 21 dyads was smaller than originally planned for multilevel modelling in Study Two, this is still within an acceptable range for multilevel modelling, particularly given the rich, hierarchical data structure and the specific focus on dyadic relationships (Hox, Moerbeek, & van de Schoot, 2017). Similar sample sizes for mediation and multilevel analysis have been utilised in a number of empirical research. For example, in order to investigate the link between team climate and individual creativity, Hirst et al. (2009) conducted a multilevel study in which they evaluated 195 individuals from 32 teams. This study shows that relevant

insights in organisational research may be obtained from smaller, well-structured samples.

Likewise, Braun et al. (2020) carried out a mediation study with 200 participants, and they were successful in finding mediation effects with strong statistical power to examine the role of leadership in employee creativity, Braun et al.,(2020) carried out a mediation study with 200 participants, and they were successful in finding mediation effects with strong statistical power. Furthermore, multilevel research conducted by Li et al. (2022) with 180 participants in 40 teams looked at how ethical leadership affected team performance. It showed that even smaller samples may be utilised in multilevel modelling with success, given the right data structure.

Although the study's actual sample size was less than anticipated, overall, it is still in line with other studies in the field of study that have used multilevel modelling and mediation analysis.

4.5.3 Recruitment and Data Collection Process

To recruit participants for this study, the researcher strategically leveraged personal networks, including friends and family, to gain access to managers and supervisors within MNCs across the selected sectors. This approach, often termed snowball sampling, is particularly effective in organisational research where direct access to key personnel is often restricted (Goodman, 2011; Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). Once access was secured, information sheets (see APPENDIX TWO: INFORMATION SHEET) detailing the study's objectives, confidentiality measures, and participation requirements were distributed via email to the identified supervisors and managers .

These supervisors were then invited to participate in the survey through a link provided by Qualtrics, a reputable third-party online survey platform, and only those who provided consent (See APPENDIX THREE: CONSENT FORM) to partake in the survey by clicking the consent link could access the survey. The use of Qualtrics aligns with its successful deployment in numerous high-impact studies, such as those conducted by Ngo et al. (2023), Fulmore et al. (2022), and Ng et al. (2018), ensuring both data security and

participant anonymity.

The survey link sent to the supervisors also included a secondary links intended for distribution to their respective team members, inviting them to participate in the employee-focused portion of the survey (see SUPERVISOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1). This use of supervisors as gatekeepers is consistent with previous organisational studies that aimed to maximise response rates while ensuring the legitimacy of the research (Clark & Sugrue, 2017). However, using gatekeepers introduces potential risks, such as perceived coercion or biased sampling (Wanat, 2008). To mitigate these risks, the study ensured that supervisors were unaware of which employees participated. Additionally, strict confidentiality was maintained throughout the research process, and participants were allowed to withdraw from the study at any point before submitting their responses. These measures were crucial in preserving the voluntary nature of participation and ensuring the ethical integrity of the research (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

The data collection process was designed as a longitudinal study, conducted in two waves with a three-month lag period between them. The first wave, conducted between March 1st and March 30th, 2023, focused on collecting data related to employees' perceptions of empowering leadership, organisational justice, psychological empowerment, individualism-collectivism, knowledge sharing, and voice behaviours. Simultaneously, data relating to the control variables (gender, organisational sector, tenure working in the organisation working with supervisor, number of employees in teams and geographical location in the model as a set of control variables. Gender coded 1 for male and 2 for female) were collected from supervisors. The subsequent three- month lag period, from April to June 2023, was implemented to mitigate common method variance (CMV) by ensuring that predictors and outcomes were measured at different times, thereby reducing potential biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012).

For the second wave, only participants (subordinates) that responded with useful data in wave one was invited for the study. The data collection, conducted between July 1st and

July 31st, 2023, focused on team-level variables, including aggregated individual responses for constructs such as team-level leader-member exchange (LMX), organisational justice climate, and team-level employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours. Importantly, employee responses were linked to their respective supervisors using the supervisors' email addresses. This linkage was essential for the multilevel analysis planned in Study 2, as it allowed the nesting of employee responses within their respective supervisors, thereby enabling an accurate assessment of hierarchical relationships and cross-level interactions between leadership behaviours and employee outcomes (Bliese, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

The decision to nest employee responses within their respective supervisors for the multilevel analysis is aligned with best practices in organisational research, particularly when examining the effects of leadership across different levels of analysis. Studies by Walumbwa et al. (2008) and Detert and Burris (2007) have successfully employed similar approaches, linking subordinate data to their supervisors to investigate the impact of leadership on various employee outcomes. This approach is critical for capturing the complexity of organisational dynamics, as it allows researchers to disentangle the effects of individual-level and team-level factors on employee behaviour (Hox, Moerbeek, & van de Schoot, 2017).

The inclusion of data from 18 MNCs operating across nine different economic sectors in Nigeria, including Oil and Gas, Automobile, Telecommunication, Technology, Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG), Consulting, Pharmaceutical, and Hospitality, significantly enhances the generalizability of the study. Collecting data from multiple sectors within a single country provides a comprehensive exploration of how empowering leadership influences employee outcomes across various industries. This approach is consistent with prior research, such as the studies by Zoogah et al. (2015) and Mellahi and Mol (2015), which examined institutional and organisational effectiveness across multiple sectors in Africa. Similarly, Avolio et al. (2009) and Ng et al. (2018) collected data from various industries to examine leadership behaviours and their impact on employee outcomes. By following these methodological precedents, the current study not only strengthens the reliability and validity

of its findings but also offers a richer understanding of the complex dynamics of employee voice and knowledge sharing within diverse organisational contexts.

The control variables were employed to link employee data with their corresponding supervisors or managers, following precedents established by prior research (e.g., Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008; Detert & Burris, 2007), where multilevel data were employed to examine leadership impacts while focusing on either individual or team levels depending on the study's objectives.

Consequently, the data collected was focused on employees' individual-level analysis in the first study (Study 1) and multilevel analysis in the second study (Study 2). This approach mirrors the methodological choices seen in studies by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and Colquitt et al. (2001), which focused on specific levels of analysis to achieve clarity and precision in examining the direct relationships between leadership and employee behaviours. This is consistent with established practices in organisational research, where the scope of analysis is deliberately narrowed to maintain focus and methodological rigor (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). By concentrating on individual-level data for Study 1, the research provided detailed insights into the direct effects of empowering leadership on employee behaviours without the confounding influences of team-level dynamics. In Study 2, the multilevel analysis offered a broader examination of how these individual-level effects integrate within team and organisational contexts, thereby providing a more comprehensive understanding of the research phenomena (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

This methodological approach is well-supported by prior studies that have similarly segmented their analysis to address specific research questions while excluding data not directly relevant to the primary objectives (e.g., van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000). By following these precedents, the current study ensures that its findings are both focused and robust, contributing valuable insights to the literature on empowering leadership and its impact on employee behaviours in a multilevel context.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE

4.6.1 *Introduction*

This section provides an overview of the data analysis used to evaluate the hypotheses proposed in this study. Using both individual and team-level data, the research employed a combination of statistical tools to handle multi-level nature of the research. In Study one, the mediation analysis was conducted using Hayes's PROCESS Macro Model 7 in SPSS, which is appropriate for looking at moderated mediation effects. Using MLmed Beta 2, a tool meant for managing nested data and deconstructing mediation effects across multiple levels, the hypotheses in Study Two were tested.

This section also discusses the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with several fit indices including RMSEA and CFI which were used to evaluate the robustness of the models. This was carried out using the R statistics (version 4.3.2), IBM SPSS version 2.1 to validate the measurement models.

4.6.2 *Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)*

This research used a blend of statistical software and methodologies to examine and interpret the data constructs, and analysing the descriptive statistics and correlation patterns among variables were performed using SPSS.

More sophisticated procedures were required for hypotheses testing because of the multilevel nature of the data where people were nested inside teams and the complexity of the study model, which included both serial mediations and moderations with numerous predictors and outcomes.

In Study One, the mediation analysis was conducted using Hayes' PROCESS Macro Model 7 in SPSS (Hayes, 2018). The use of Model 7, which allows for moderated mediation, was especially appropriate considering the study's emphasis on how mediators influenced the relationships between empowering leadership and employee knowledge sharing and voice behaviour, depending on specific moderators. Due to its reliability and easy-to-use interface, the Hayes PROCESS Macro has been extensively used in social science and psychology research to test complex models (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Hayes, 2018).

Study Two necessitated a multilevel analysis due to the hierarchical data structure. To tackle complexity involved in the data analysis process, the study used MLmed Beta 2, a structural equation modelling (SEM) application designed especially for multilevel mediation analysis (Rockwood & Hayes, 2020). The benefits of MLmed which includes the ability to manage data at multiple levels and analyse mediation effects in hierarchical data structures make it a suitable tool for this study. This is particularly necessary to understand how team-level leadership behaviours affect the employees' knowledge sharing and voice behaviours at the individual-level (Preacher, Zhang, & Zyphur, 2011). In addition, MLmed facilitates a more sophisticated understanding of organisational processes that operates at the individual and team levels by simulating cross-level interactions (Yuan & MacKinnon, 2022).

Moreover, when it comes to tackling typical multilevel modelling challenges such as managing missing data and simulating complex relationships and indirect effects, MLmed has shown to be very useful. It is a useful tool in organisational behaviour research because of its capacity to provide more precise insights into processes functioning at various levels of analysis (Preacher et al., 2019). The MLmed and SEM method were well-suited for evaluating the hypotheses in this research, especially considering the study's emphasis on the interaction between individual and team-level elements in leadership dynamics.

4.6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In social research, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a complex and extensively used statistical method intended to confirm the hypothesised structure of latent variables or theoretical constructs (Kline, 2015; Brown, 2015; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). CFA is clearly hypothesis-driven unlike exploratory factor analysis, which examines underlying factor structures. It is especially appropriate for the aim of validating measurement models for complex, multidimensional constructs including empowering leadership, organisational justice, and employee behaviours since it evaluates whether the observed data match a pre-defined measurement model derived from theoretical frameworks and prior empirical research (Byrne, 2010; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006).

The CFA was crucial for verifying the discriminant and convergent validity of the scales utilised given the study's emphasis on models that are both theoretically unique and perhaps overlapping, including psychological empowerment and vocal behaviours. The CFA provided thorough validation of whether the hypothesised models were unique from one another and suitably quantified by the survey questions by statistically analysing the degree of covariance among observed variables (Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). This is especially important in studies of complicated organisational dynamics, in which dependability of the results depends on exact measurement.

The investigation also sought to verify that, in line with previous research, every item loads into its appropriate variable. Researchers have determined that a CFA requires a minimum sample size of 200 ($N > 200$). For instance, Boomsma (1982) and Comrey and Lee (1992) recommended a sample size of 200 at the very least to do a CFA. Nonetheless, other researchers Kline (1994), Ding et al. (1995), and Gorsuch (1983), for instance recommended a sample size of at least 100 ($N > 100$).

This research performed CFA using R statistical tools, therefore providing an exhaustive assessment of the uniqueness of the scales used in both investigations. Several procedures were part of the investigation to ascertain how well the proposed model matched the observed data. As advised in the literature, the assessment of model fit relied on a mix of absolute and relative fit indices (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Jackson, Gillaspay, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009).

The degree to which the hypothesised models replicated the observed covariance matrix was evaluated using absolute fit indices including the Chi-Square test, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index), RMR (Root Mean Square Residual), and SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual). Furthermore, presented were supplemental indices including RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, and SRMR given the sensitivity of the Chi-Square test to high sample sizes. Considered to be suggestive of an appropriate model fit were RMSEA values of 0.06 or less, GFI and AGFI values above 0.90, and SRMR values of 0.08 or less Hu & Bentler,

1999; Kline, 2015). Apart from absolute fit indices, relative fit indices such as the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) were used to evaluate the fit of the proposed model against that of a null model, in which the variables are presumptively uncorrelated. Values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate a fair match; values over 0.95 indicate an outstanding fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

This research presented the Chi-Square test, RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI indices following the methodological direction provided by Kline (2015), thus fully evaluating model fit. By means of their convergence, these indices provide a strong assessment of the observed data's representation of the hypothesised model, therefore verifying the validity of the theoretical constructs under examination. This careful method guaranteed that the scales used in both investigations were unique and well linked with the hypothesised models, therefore improving the general validity and dependability of the study results (Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004; Little, 2013).

4.6.4 *Construct Aggregation*

This study adopts a multilevel research methodology, with the concept that individual-level characteristics may have a considerable impact on team-level results (Chan, 1998; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Understanding collective dynamics therefore requires aggregating individual data to the team level, since individual perceptions and behaviours often merge into group phenomena (Bliese, 2000; Mathieu et al., 2008). Theoretical and empirical validation of such aggregation is critical to ensure that group-level categories effectively represent team members' shared experiences (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Le Breton & Senter, 2008). This strategy improves the robustness and generalisability of the results.

This study aims to capture the hierarchical and nested nature of organisational phenomena by integrating data across multiple levels of analysis. This will allow for a more nuanced understanding of how team-level outcomes like overall team performance and cohesion are influenced by individual-level factors like perceptions of empowering leadership (Bliese, 2000; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). According to Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, and Gilson

(2008), this method makes it possible to examine cross-level interactions, which are crucial for comprehending the whole range of impacts that exist within organisational contexts.

The need to take into consideration the interdependencies that naturally arise within teams, where individual-level variation may contribute to collective results, further justifies the choice to use a multilevel design (Bliese, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). This methodological decision supports the expanding body of literature that highlights the value of multilevel analysis in organisational studies and strengthens the robustness of the study results (Hox, Moerbeek, & van de Schoot, 2017; Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009).

A robust, consensus-based model with theoretical and statistical validation is required when combining individual-level data to create team-level constructs (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Even if there are well-established theoretical frameworks for understanding concepts like empowering leadership and employees' knowledge sharing and voice as group-level phenomena, it is still necessary to provide empirical evidence that teams display a substantial amount of shared variance. The validity and integrity of the research will be maintained if the aggregated data can successfully distinguish across teams, as this empirical proof will guarantee.

The research carefully computed measures of within-group agreement and reliability to support this grouping. The within-group interrater agreement (rwg(j)) index (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984, 1993), a commonly used metric that assesses the homogeneity of team members' evaluations, was used to evaluate within-group agreement. Strong within-group agreement is often seen as shown by a rwg(j) value of 0.70 or above, which justifies the team's aggregate of individual replies (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). To provide a strong basis for the development of group-level constructs, it is essential that team members have a common understanding of the constructs being assessed. The dependability of the team-level constructs was also evaluated using intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs). According to Bliese (1998), ICC(1) measures the percentage of variation in individual answers that can be attributed to team membership. Aggregation is often justified for values of 0.05 or above. A greater ICC(1) value validates the team-level data aggregation by

indicating that team membership has a noteworthy impact on individual responses. Conversely, ICC(2) assesses the consistency of team-level mean differences; values more than 0.70 indicate that teams can be consistently identified from one another using the combined data (Bliese, 2000). To confirm the multidimensional nature of the data and guarantee the validity and generalisability of the study's conclusions, these indices must be calculated.

The next analytical chapters will go into depth about these statistical processes, which provide a strong defence for the aggregation of individual-level data to the team level. This methodological technique improves the overall validity and dependability of the study results in addition to guaranteeing the theoretical and statistical soundness of the data aggregation. The larger literature on organisational behaviour and team dynamics will greatly benefit from the adoption of such an approach, which is essential for deepening our knowledge of how individual perceptions combine to form collective team phenomena (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Mathieu et al., 2008).

4.7 ADDRESSING POTENTIAL PROBLEMS

Common method variance (CMV) may artificially inflate or deflate observed associations between variables, threatening the integrity of the study's results. Therefore, addressing CMV is crucial to guaranteeing the validity of research findings (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). CMV may appear at several levels of abstraction, such as item content, scale type, answer format, and contextual circumstances. It originates from the measuring technique rather than the constructs of interest (Fiske, 1982).

Several strategies were used in this research to reduce CMV. The fact that all of data were collected from employees raises the possibility of bias. Methodological measures were used to mitigate this issue, such as guaranteeing secrecy to minimise socially acceptable replies. This is a prevalent worry when all data originate from a single set of respondents (Podsakoff et al., 2012). This was accomplished by assuring participants that their replies would only be accessible to the researcher and the supervisory team, hence augmenting the

validity of the results. Furthermore, statistical methods were used to account for CMV. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was carried out on all variables to execute Harman's single factor test, a method that is highly recommended. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), this test determines whether a single factor explains for the bulk of variation, indicating substantial CMV. According to the findings, no one factor could account for more than 50% of the variation. Studies 1 and 2 showed that there was no significant CMV, with 42.30% and 42.69%, respectively.

Overall, the study results are more credible and robust because of the consideration given to CMV using both methodological and statistical methods. These steps reflect efforts to minimise the potential impacts of CMV thereby enhancing the validity and dependability of the study's findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012).

4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The American Psychological Association (APA) has created ethical principles and a related code of conduct, which were carefully followed throughout the data collecting procedures for both investigations given in this thesis (American Psychological Association, 2010). Indeed, all procedures reported here obtained Aston Business School Research Ethics Committee, reference number 299-7-22 (See APPENDIX ONE: ETHICS APPROVAL) prior to data collection.

Participants received complete information regarding the study's voluntary nature and their freedom to discontinue participation at any time without fear of consequences for their work. Participants in both studies had to sign a permission form that stated clearly the purpose of the study and that they might withdraw at any moment. To ensure that they were fully informed about the research they were participating in, each respondent was received an information sheet outlining the goals and contents of the study.

It was crucial that participant comments remain anonymous and secret. Participants received assurances that their privacy would be protected by stringent confidentiality

protocols and safe data storage. To do this, information was electronically saved on the researcher's computer, which was password protected. To provide even more security, the data were safely backed up on Aston Box, the university's cloud storage platform.

The standards mandate that the data be securely maintained for a minimum of five years after publication, in accordance with the Data Protection Act 1998 of the United Kingdom. Following this time frame, the information will be safely deleted, guaranteeing compliance with moral data handling procedures.

CHAPTER FIVE: METHODOLOGY, DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS- STUDY ONE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the methodology and results of Study 1 are presented. Here the intention was to examine the mediating effects of organisational justice and psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and knowledge sharing and voice behaviours at the individual-level using data collected from the initial time point of data collection.

Secondly, to examine the moderating effect of individualism-collectivism on the relationship between the empowering leadership and mediating variables (organisational justice psychological empowerment). In addition, the moderating effects of individualism-collectivism on the relationship between the empowering leadership and employees' extra role behaviours (knowledge sharing and voice behaviours) will be tested.

Thirdly, to examine the moderated mediation (conditional effects) of individualism-collectivism on the indirect relationship between empowering leadership and employees' extra-role behaviours via organisational justice and psychological empowerment.

To achieve these objectives, data were collected from employees from eleven organisations in nine economic sectors in Nigeria. Hayes PROCESS Macros, (Hayes & Rockwood, 2019) macro for SPSS software, R statistics (version 4.3.2), IBM SPSS version 2.1 were used to analyse the data by. This chapter explains the methodology used in Study 1. Specifically, it represents the research context, sample and data collection procedure, measures of the study variables, and data analysis. Finally, it presents the study's results and concludes with a discussion of the same.

5.2 METHOD

5.2.1 *Sample and data collection procedure*

5.2.1.1. Data collection method.

In the first wave, 289 team members and 23 team leaders responded, out of the 400 anticipated responses. The survey questionnaire was distributed via Qualtrics in Time 1, and a total of 289 team members (73%) and 23 team leaders (5.8%) responded. Out of these, only 213 (53%) responses from team members and 22 (5.5%) responses from team leaders were legitimate, resulting in 76 (19%) responses from team members and 1 (0.25%) response from team leaders being invalid. These invalid responses were excluded from the investigation.

Responses were classified as invalid and omitted from the data analysis due to factors such as incomplete submissions, inconsistent answering patterns such as straight lining where respondents select the same answer option across all items irrespective of the content and insufficient team size. These exclusions ensured that only reliable and complete data were included in the data analysis (Meade & Craig, 2012; Huang et al., 2012; Bliese, 2000).

The total number of respondents was 235, which included responses from both team members and supervisors in 22 teams. The number of team members per team ranged from 5 to 20 and majority of the respondents (66) were from the South- South geopolitical zone. Others were North-East (39), South-West (38), North Central (37), North-West (29) and Southeast (26) were the other zones. The sample utilised in the first study is described below.

Table 2: *Characteristics of Research Sample*

Participant's Characteristics	Response Anchor	Team Leaders (N=22)	Team Members (N=213)	Total	Percent
Gender	Male	20	121	141	60%
	Female	2	92	94	40%
	prefer not to say	0	0	0	0%
Geographical Zone of Location	North -Central	2	35	37	16%
	North -East	0	39	39	17%
	North -West	0	29	29	12%
	South -East	3	23	26	11%
	South -West	3	35	38	16%
	South -South	14	52	66	28%
	0-6 months				
Years Spent in Organisation	6-12months	4	71	75	47%
	1yr and above	18	142	160	68%
No of Employees in work team	5 to 10	7	81	88	37%
	10 to 20	5	78	83	35%
	20 and above	10	54	64	27%
Sectors	Oil and Gas	2	24	26	11%
	Automobile	2	12	14	6%
	Telecommunication	3	12	15	6%
	Technology	4	41	45	19%
	Fast moving consumer goods (FMCG)	3	34	37	16%
	Consulting	4	20	24	10%
	Pharmaceutical	3	32	35	15%
	Hospitality	1	38	39	17%

5.2.2 Measures

5.2.2.1. Empowering leadership behaviours.

Empowering leadership behaviours were operationalised by utilising the 12 items developed by Ahearne et al. (2005) which concentrated on four dimensions: (1) enhancing the meaningfulness of work (three items, example item: "My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the organisation."), (2) fostering participation in decision-making (three items, example item: "My manager often

consults me on strategic decisions."), (3) expressing confidence in high performance (three items, example item: "My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes."), and (4) providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints (three items, example item: "My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple."). Specifically, in their 2010 investigation, Zhang and Bartol implemented this metric.

The scale (See section 4 of the : EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1) was selected due to its ability to include items that pertain to both supervisors and subordinates at both the individual and group stage. These measures produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.80.

5.2.2.2. Knowledge sharing Behaviour (KSB).

Following previous research on employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing behaviour (e.g., Zheng *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Janssen and Gao, 2015), to clarify the relationship between the variables in this study, the effects of demographic characteristics variables were controlled for the study included variables that could influence the employees extra-role behaviours This include gender, organisational sector, tenure working in the organisation working with supervisor, number of employees in teams and geographical location in the model as a set of control variables. Gender coded 1 for male and 2 for female.

The seven-item scale developed by Van den Hooff & Van Weenen (2004) and verified by Lin (2007) was used to measure employees' knowledge sharing behaviour. Two dimensions were used by the scale to quantify KSB: knowledge acquisition (four items) and knowledge donation (three items). Examples of items included in the scale are "When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues about it," "I share my skills with colleagues when they ask me to," and "Colleagues in my organisation share their skills with me when I ask them to". This measure produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.94. See section 3 of the : EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1.

5.2.2.3. Employees' Voice Behaviour (VB).

In measuring VB, the six-item voice scale developed by LePine and Van Dyne (1998) was adopted. VB was measured from the perspective of the subordinates and direct supervisors. This is in line with the argument by LePine et al. (2002) that VB is more accurately determined from the perspective of organisational leaders.

The sample item included in the scale for organisational leaders would be " This particular co-employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her." Likewise, a sample item for employees would be "I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work-life in my group". The measure produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.79. See section 2 of the : EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1.

5.2.2.4. Psychological Empowerment (PE).

Psychological empowerment was measured only for the subordinates using Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item measure focusing on four cognitions: (1) meaning (three items, example item: "The work I do is very important to me."), (2) competence (three items, example item: "I am confident about my ability to do my jobs."), (3) self- determination (three items, example item: "I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job."), and (4) impact (three items, example item: "The impact on what happens in my department is large.").

This measurement scale has been previously used by Avolio et al.'s (2004), Raub and Robert's (2010) and Zhang and Bartol's (2010). The measure produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.83. See section 1 of the : EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1).

5.2.2.5. Organisational Justice (OJ).

Organisational justice was measured using an 8-item measure modified original scale of Colquitt (2001) by Elovainio *et al.* (2010). The scale measured 4 categories of organisational justice: (1) Procedural justice (three items, example item: Have those procedures been applied consistently?) (2) Interpersonal justice (three items, example item:

Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?) (3 Distributive justice (two items, example item: Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?). The measure produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.77. See section 6 of the : EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1.

5.2.2.6. Individualism-Collectivism (IC).

Sivadas et al.(2008) 14-item scale was used to evaluate individualism/collectivism values at the individual level. The scale measured four dimensions of individualism/collectivism: HC (4 items), VC (4 items), HI (3 items), and VI (4 items). This measurement was chosen due to its exceptional reliability and validity in a variety of cultural contexts (Sivadas et al., 2008). The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.80. See section 5 of the : EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1.

5.2.2.7. Control Variables.

Following previous research on employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing behaviour (e.g. Zheng *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Janssen and Gao, 2015), to clarify the relationship between the variables in this study, the effects of demographic characteristics variables were controlled for the study included variables that could influence the employee's extra-role behaviours.

This includes gender, organisational sector, tenure working in the organisation working with supervisor, number of employees in teams and geographical location in the model as a set of control variables. Gender coded 1 for male and 2 for female.

5.2.3. *Data Analysis*

5.2.3.1. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

This research used a blend of statistical software and methodologies to examine and interpret the data constructs, and analysing the descriptive statistics and correlation patterns among variables were performed using SPSS.

In Study One, the mediation analysis was conducted using Hayes' PROCESS Macro

Model 7 in SPSS (Hayes, 2018). The use of Model 7, which allows for moderated mediation, was especially appropriate considering the study's emphasis on how mediators influenced the relationships between empowering leadership and employee knowledge sharing and voice behaviour, depending on specific moderators. Due to its reliability and easy-to-use interface, the Hayes PROCESS Macro has been extensively used in social science and psychology research to test complex models (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Hayes, 2018).

Using IBM SPSS version 2.1, the analysis began with a description of the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistencies (Cronbach's alpha) for each variable. Comprehending the descriptive statistics and verifying the measurements' dependability required this first step. Subsequently, the hypothesised component structure was validated by conducting confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in R statistics (version 4.3.2) to thoroughly verify the variables' uniqueness.

This thesis applied PROCESS Model 4 and Model 7 to test the hypothesised model. PROCESS Model 4 is a simple mediation model explaining “how” the causal process occurs. It estimates the indirect effects of the independent variable (empowering leadership) on the dependent variable (knowledge sharing behaviour and voice behaviour) conditioned on the mediator variables (psychological empowerment and organisational justice). It also estimates the direct effect that indicates the causal influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable that is not explained by the mediator (James & Brett 1984). PROCESS further quantifies the proportion of variance (R^2_{med}) for mediation analysis, attributing the interaction of independent and dependent variables through the mediator (Hayes, 2017).

Model 7 on the other hand, was used to test for moderated mediation hypotheses. As Hayes (2018) argued, moderation answers the question of “when or for whom” the influence has taken place. In essence, it is the moderation of the mediation effect that estimates the indirect effect of the independent variable (empowering leadership) on the dependent variable (knowledge sharing behaviour and voice behaviour) through mediator variables *M* (psychological empowerment and organisational justice), where the effects are contingent on a moderator variable or the boundary condition *V* (individualism-collectivism).

Furthermore, researchers commonly use the standard deviation above and below the mean to interpret the conditional effects, this was adopted in this study.

5.3 RESULTS

5.3.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 3: Descriptive statistics, and intercorrelations between measures of the variables in Study One

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Gender (Female = 1, Male = 0)	0.42	0.5											
2 Geographical Zones of Location			-.19**										
3 Sector			0.12	.14*									
4 Numbers of Employees in Team	1.88	0.78	-0.13	.25**	0.09								
5 Tenure	2.55	0.73	.16*	.20**	.15*								
6 Psychological Empowerment	4.09	0.66	-0.12	0.1	.19**	0.06	-0.04						
7 Empowering Leadership	4.28	0.86	-.14*	.19**	.18**	.15*	0.08	.67**					
8 Knowledge Sharing Behaviour	4.29	0.87	-0.13	0.09	.16*	0.09	0.06	.57**	.74**				
9 Voice Behaviour	4.32	0.92	-0.1	.16*	.22**	0.11	0.06	.61**	.78**	.70**			
10 Organisational Justice	4.27	0.78	-0.08	0.13	.18**	.15*	-0.03	.56**	.67**	.62**	.66**		
11 Individualism-Collectivism	4.5	0.58	0.02	-0.12	0.05	.21**	-0.01	0.02	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.09	

Note. $n = 213$. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

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

The descriptive statistics in Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the study variables. Gender was dummy-coded as 0 = Male and 1 = Female, following best practices for handling categorical variables in statistical analyses (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013; Field, 2018). Similarly, Sector and Geographical Zone of location were also dummy-coded during analysis but are presented as single variables for clarity, as recommended in studies on organizational behaviour and human resource analytics (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Culpepper, 2013). Dummy coding allows categorical variables to be incorporated into regression and correlation models without violating statistical assumptions (Hayes, 2022). The intercorrelations indicate significant relationships between key organizational behaviour constructs, aligning with previous research suggesting that workplace behaviors such as voice behaviour, leader-member exchange, and organizational justice are strongly interconnected (Blau, 1964; Colquitt et al., 2013; Morrison, 2014).

The descriptive statistics provide insightful information on the relationships between key indicators of organizational behaviour and leadership behaviours examined in this study. The findings highlight significant associations among variables such as gender, geopolitical zones, sector, team size, psychological empowerment, leadership behaviors, and organizational justice.

5.3.1.1. Gender, Geopolitical Zones, and Sector.

The results reveal a significant inverse relationship between Gender and Employees' Geographical Zones of Location ($r = -0.19$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that regional distribution varies by gender, potentially reflecting demographic or structural employment trends. Additionally, a weak but significant positive relationship was found between Gender and Duration in the organization ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$), indicating that gender differences may have a small influence on employees' tenure in an organization.

Although a correlation between Gender and Sector was observed ($r = 0.12$, not

significant), it was not statistically significant, suggesting that gender distribution across different economic sectors may not follow a strong or predictable pattern. Further research is necessary to understand the factors influencing gender-based disparities in employment duration and sector representation.

5.3.1.2. Team Size and Organizational Stability.

The findings indicate that longer employment durations are linked to larger teams, as evidenced by a positive correlation between the Number of Employees in a Team and Duration ($r = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that employees in larger teams may experience greater stability within the organization.

Additionally, team size showed significant positive correlations with several important organizational factors, including Sector ($r = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$), Psychological Empowerment ($r = 0.19$, $p < 0.01$), and Empowering Leadership ($r = 0.19$, $p < 0.01$). These relationships indicate that team size may play a role in promoting employee empowerment and leadership effectiveness within workplace environments.

5.3.1.3. The Role of Sector in Knowledge Sharing.

The sector in which employees work appears to influence knowledge-sharing behaviour, as evidenced by a significant positive correlation between Sector and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour ($r = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that some industries naturally encourage more knowledge-sharing activities than others, with potential implications for organizational learning and innovation.

5.3.1.4. Psychological Empowerment and Key Organizational Behaviors.

Psychological empowerment plays a central role in enhancing leadership effectiveness, promoting knowledge-sharing, encouraging employee voice behaviour, and shaping perceptions of justice in the workplace. The results indicate strong positive correlations between Psychological Empowerment and Empowering Leadership ($r = 0.67$, $p < 0.01$); Knowledge Sharing Behaviour ($r = 0.57$, $p < 0.01$); Voice Behaviour ($r = 0.61$, $p < 0.01$); and Organizational Justice ($r = 0.56$, $p < 0.01$).

These findings suggest that employees who feel psychologically empowered are more likely to engage in knowledge-sharing, voice their opinions, and perceive fairness in organizational policies (Smith & Doe, 2023). However, Psychological Empowerment exhibited a non-significant negative correlation with Gender ($r = -0.12$, not significant). While this association is weak, it suggests a slight tendency for psychological empowerment to vary by gender. Similarly, Psychological Empowerment and Number of Employees in a Team were negatively correlated ($r = -0.10$, not significant), implying that larger teams may experience slightly lower levels of psychological empowerment, though the relationship is weak and not statistically significant.

5.3.1.5. The Role of Leadership in Encouraging Employee Voice and Organizational Justice.

A strong relationship was observed between Empowering Leadership and key organizational behaviours, including Voice Behaviour ($r = 0.78$, $p < 0.01$); Knowledge Sharing Behaviour ($r = 0.74$, $p < 0.01$); and Organizational Justice ($r = 0.67$, $p < 0.01$).

These findings emphasize the importance of empowering leadership in fostering a workplace culture where employees feel encouraged to share knowledge, voice their concerns, and perceive fairness in organizational practices.

Additionally, the positive association between Empowering Leadership and Individualism-Collectivism ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$) suggests that leaders who empower their employees may be more effective in organizational cultures that balance both individual and collective orientations.

5.3.1.6. *Knowledge Sharing, Voice Behaviour, and Organizational Justice* .

There are strong interconnections between Knowledge Sharing Behaviour, Voice Behaviour, and Organizational Justice, with correlations ranging from $r = 0.62$ to $r = 0.70$ ($p < 0.01$). These findings suggest that organizations fostering a culture of information sharing are more likely to have employees who engage in voice behaviour and perceive greater fairness in the workplace.

5.3.1.7. The Influence of Cultural Values on Psychological Empowerment.

The results also indicate that cultural attitudes, particularly individualism-collectivism, influence employees' perceptions of empowerment: Individualism-Collectivism had a significant positive correlation with Psychological Empowerment ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$). This implies that employees who embrace both individualistic and collectivist values tend to feel more empowered.

However, Individualism-Collectivism had a weak, non-significant relationship with Organizational Justice ($r = 0.09$, not significant). While this suggests that employees with higher individualism-collectivism tendencies may report slightly greater perceptions of fairness, the relationship is not strong or statistically significant.

5.3.2 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

All individual-level variables were examined using a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in R. Several different models (page 340) were compared to the proposed six-factor model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice, knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour, individualism-collectivism, and empowering leadership). Several structural models representing the hypothesised relationships between these variables were evaluated to find the best match.

The original six-factor model's fit indices were (CFI = 0.812, TLI = 0.798, RMSEA = 0.082, $\chi^2 = 1835$ with 490 degrees of freedom) and these are below the CFI and TLI thresholds of 0.90 and 0.95 suggested by Bentler & Bonett (1980); Hu & Bentler (1999). To enhance the fit, modification indices were used, focussing on connections within the model. These indices assess how much the aggregate χ^2 decreases if the fixed or limited parameter is freely calculated (Brown, 2015).

Thus, items were deleted from constructs based on theoretical arguments after thoroughly reviewing these indices as recommended by Smith & McMillan (2001). The modification indices (MI) identified regions where additional pathways may have improved the model and variables that did not match well with the overall factor structure. Identifying

variables with consistently low MI and EPC values across all factors indicated that they did not help substantially to enhancing model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Furthermore, variables with negative expected parameter changes (EPC) were most likely misfitting, particularly if not logically justified (MacCallum, 2003).

Furthermore, large modification indices were often caused by item content and language similarities, resulting in shared variance that the defined model could not account for. For example, voice behaviour (VB), VB1 ("I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect my work group."), and VB4 ("I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my group.") had modification indices of 6.686 and 6.385, indicating similarity in wording or content. Similar concerns were discovered with organisational justice (OJ), OJ1 and OJ2, individualism-collectivism (IC), IC2 and IC9, psychological empowerment (PE), PE7 and PE12, and knowledge sharing behaviour (KSB), KSB7 and KSB1) (See page 329).

In addition to measuring similarity, determining cross-loadings was an important step. Variables having considerable cross-loading across many factors did not fit well inside a single component and were considered for removal (Hair et al., 2010). Theoretical considerations were critical when selecting whether to remove a variable; if a variable was theoretically significant, alternative model changes were investigated before removal (Kline, 2015).

Furthermore, redundant or overlapping items had high modification indices since they did not offer unique information to the model (Brown, 2006). Items with identical phrasing may have had associated measurement mistakes, as seen by high modification indices (Byrne, 2016). Items were reviewed and refined to ensure that separate content and terminology were used. Item parcels, which aggregated comparable items, and changing the model to account for correlated errors, where theoretically supported, increased model fit (Little et al., 2002; MacCallum, Roznowski, & Necowitz, 1992).

Variables with low MI and EPC values, such as VB2, VB3, VB6, OJ3, OJ5, OJ8, IC1, IC8, IC10, IC11, IC12, IC13, PE5, PE8, EPL5, EPL7, EPL8, and VB6 (See EMPLOYEE'S

QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1) were identified as prospective deletion candidates based on modification indices. Additionally, items such as VB1 and VB4, OJ1 and OJ2, IC2 and IC9, PE7 and PE12, and KSB7 and KSB1 were examined for similarity and redundancy. Removing or changing problematic items based on modification indices resulted in considerable improvements in model fit indices such as CFI (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

In addition, factors with substantial negative EPCs, such as VB4, OJ4, IC9, PE9, PE10, PE11, VB9, and VB10, showed potential mismatch despite increased MI, indicating that these variables had a detrimental influence on the model (Byrne, 2016). To achieve a model fit, it was proposed that variables with consistently low MI and EPC values be removed first. This repeated procedure required reassessing the model fit indices, including CFI, after each elimination. To retain the model's validity and reliability, every variable removal has to be consistent with the theoretical framework (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The new latent variable definitions, removing the detected variables, were re-estimated to see if the CFI improved. For instance, the revised definitions included psychological empowerment (PE): PE1, PE2, PE3, PE4, PE6, PE7, PE10, and PE12; organisational justice (OJ): OJ1, OJ2, OJ4, OJ6, and OJ7; voice behaviour (VB): VB1, VB2, VB4, and VB5; knowledge sharing behaviour (KSB): unchanged; individualism-collectivism (IC): IC2, IC3, IC5, IC9, and IC14; and empowering leadership (EPL): EPL1, EPL2, EPL3, EPL4, EPL6, EPL9, EPL10, EPL11, and EPL12.

The updated six-factor model has much improved fit indices, including CFI = 0.919, TLI = 0.907, RMSEA = 0.082, and $\chi^2 = 682.3$ with 400 degrees of freedom, showing a much better match (Brown, 2006). By focussing on variables that contribute the least to model fit, the CFI might rise to 0.9 or higher, improving the model's overall fit and validity (Marsh, Hau, and Wen, 2004).

This CFA validation validates the study's hypothesised constructs' distinctness and appropriateness, APPENDIX FIVE: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (STUDY ONE) provides a table for to one to six factor models).

Table 4: Results of confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model Factors	(χ^2)	df	p-value	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
One-Factor Model							
(psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour, empowering leadership and Individualism-Collectivism were all used a single factor)	2808.4	719	< .001	0.081	0.088	0.719	0.703
Six-Factor Model							
(psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour, Individualism-Collectivism, empowering leadership were all used as separate individual factors)	682.3	400	< .001	0.08	0.052	0.919	0.907

Note N = 213. df = Degrees of Freedom; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean Square Residual; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative

5.3.3 Testing of the Hypotheses

In second stage of the data analysis process, structural models were developed and tested to demonstrate the relationships between the variables. The outcome variables (KSB and VB) were regressed on the control variables (gender, sector, duration working in the organisation working with supervisor, number of employees in teams, and geographical location in the model. Considering the complexity of the model, variable means were used in place of latent constructs to ensure model convergence as exemplified by Little et al. (2002); Marsh et al. (2004) and Kline (2015).

All analyses were conducted separately for the two outcome variables (knowledge sharing behaviour and voice behaviours). A single model incorporating all variables simultaneously was too complex to converge. Consequently, separate models were run jointly to test hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, and H6, following the precedent set by recent

studies (Smith & Johnson, 2021; Lee et al., 2022; Brown & Davis, 2023).

The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) is a crucial measure that links directly to the reliability of scales used in research, particularly when constructs are measured at the individual level. In this study, the ICC values for Psychological Empowerment (PE), Empowering Leadership (EPL), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Voice Behaviour (VB), and Individualism-Collectivism (IC) were examined to assess their reliability.

Psychological Empowerment (PE) showed an ICC of 0.83, indicating a high degree of consistency in individual responses. This high level of reliability suggests that the measurement of psychological empowerment is robust, with the variance largely attributed to true differences in individual perceptions rather than measurement error. High reliability in psychological measures is crucial as it ensures the construct's robustness and the accuracy of subsequent interpretations (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Similarly, Empowering Leadership (EPL) had an ICC of 0.81, signifying strong reliability in individual perceptions. This indicates that empowering leadership is consistently perceived by individuals, reinforcing the construct's significance in enhancing employee performance and motivation (Arnold et al., 2000; Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005).

More also, Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) and Individualism-Collectivism (IC) both showed ICC values of 0.71. These values indicate substantial reliability in individual measurements, suggesting that the measures are dependable. Knowledge sharing is essential for organisational learning and innovation, and a reliable measurement ensures that the observed effects are genuine and not artifacts of measurement error (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002; Wang & Noe, 2010). Similarly, the measure of individualism-collectivism, a crucial cultural dimension impacting various organisational behaviours, demonstrates reliability, making it a dependable construct for cross-cultural studies (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995).

Furthermore, Voice Behaviour (VB) had an ICC of 0.79, highlighting a high level of consistency in individual responses. Voice behaviour is crucial for organisational improvement and innovation (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Morrison, 2011). The high ICC value

suggests that this construct is reliably measured at the individual level, indicating that employees consistently perceive and report their voice behaviours.

Overall, the ICC values for the variables in this study ranged from 0.71 to 0.83, indicating a high level of reliability across the measures. These findings suggest that the constructs are consistently perceived by the individual participants, enhancing the validity of the study's results. The high ICC values support the reliability of the measures, ensuring that observed effects are due to true differences in individual perceptions rather than measurement error (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979; Koo & Li, 2016). Consequently, the reliability of these constructs reinforces their applicability and significance in organisational research.

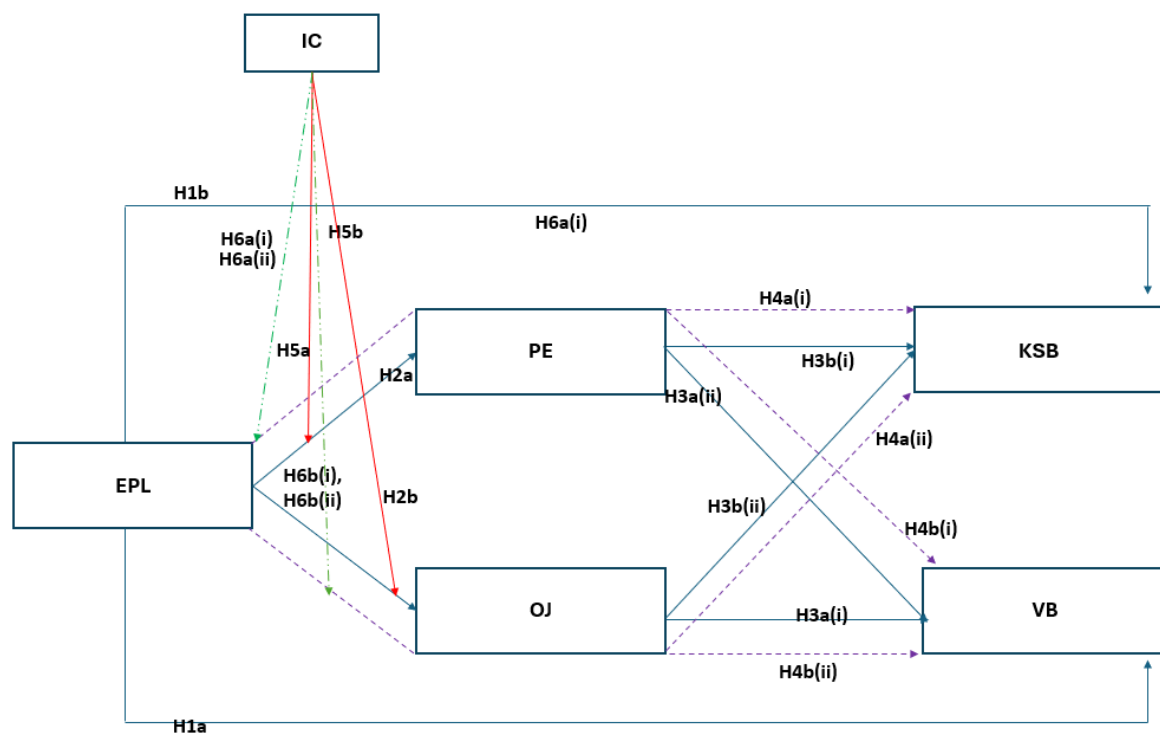


Figure 1: Conceptual Model (Study One)

EPL: Empowering Leadership at Time 1
 PE: Psychological empowerment at Time 1
 OJ: Organisational justice at Time 1
 IC: Individualism-Collectivism at Time 1
 KSB: Employees' knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 1
 VB: Employees' voice behaviour at Time 1

— Direct relationships
 - - - Mediation
 — Moderation
 - - - Moderated mediation

The hypotheses (H) were tested using the following steps, first by testing the Main Effects (Direct Effects) where the direct relationships between the predicting variable

(empowering leadership) and the outcome variables (employees' knowledge sharing and employees' voice behaviours) in H1; between predicting variable and mediating variables (organisational justice and employees' psychological empowerment) in H2, and between mediating variables and outcome variables in H3.

Secondly by testing the Mediating Effect where, the mediating effect of organisational justice and employees' psychological empowerment on the relationships between the empowering leadership and (a) knowledge sharing; (b) employees' voice behaviours were analysed (H4a, H4b).

5.3.3.1. Results of the main effects of Relationships between Variables (H1-H3)

In Table 5, the results of the direct effects for the hypothesised relationships are presented. H1 proposed that empowering leadership (EPL) had a positive direct influence on employees' voice behaviour. The analysis showed that after controlling for geographical zones of location and number of people in teams, the results support the proposed hypothesis in H1a and H1b as empowering leadership was found to be positively related to employees' voice behaviour (*VB*) ($\beta = .962, SE = .061, p < .01$) and knowledge sharing behaviour (*KSB*) ($\beta = .796, SE = .115, p < .01$).

H2(a, b) proposed that empowering leadership has a direct positive relation with employees' perception of organisational justice and psychological empowerment. The analysis supports the hypothesis as the output showed that empowering leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment (*PE*) ($\beta = .711, SE = .049, p < .01$) and organisational justice (*OJ*) ($\beta = .552, SE = .038, p < .01$).

H3 proposed that employees' perception of organisational justice and psychological empowerment were positively related to employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing behaviours. The assertion was supported in H3a(i, ii) as there was a significant positive relationship between voice behaviour ($\beta = .615, SE = .092, p < .01$) and organisational behaviour as well as psychological empowerment ($\beta = .420, SE = .106, p < .01$).

H3b (i, ii) was supported as there was a significant positive relationship between

knowledge sharing behaviour and psychological empowerment ($\beta = .773$, $SE = .078$ $p < .01$)

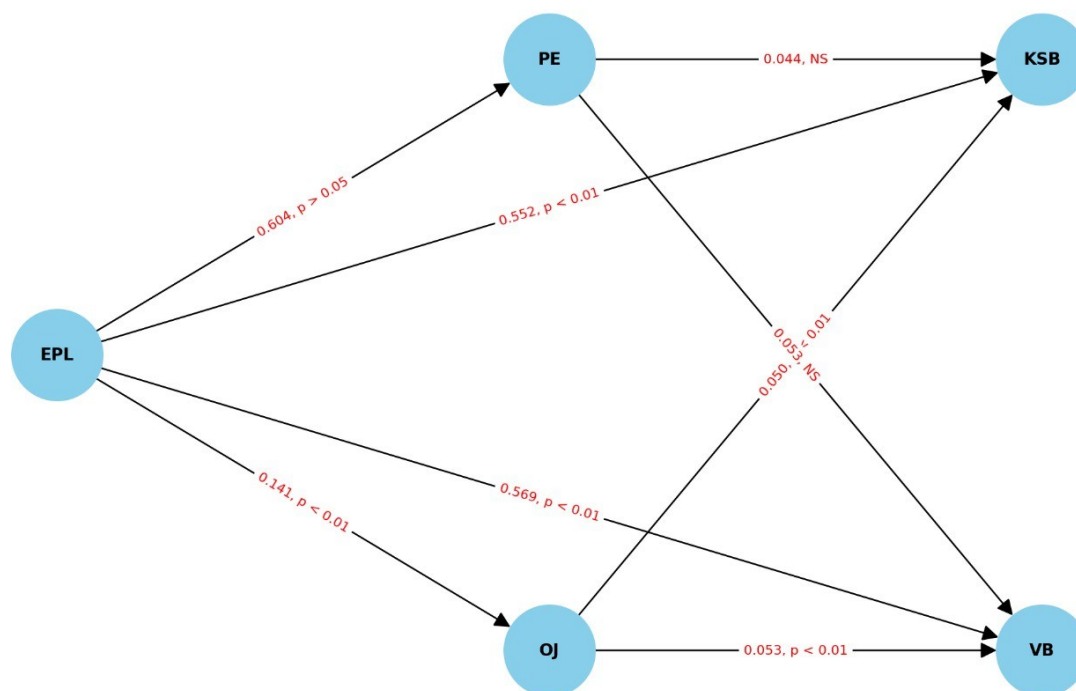
and also with organisational justice ($\beta = .186$, $SE = .090$, $p < .01$).

Table 5: Results of Direct Effects for Hypothesised Relationships

Hypothesis	Pathway	β	SE	t-value	p-value
H1a	Empowering leadership → Voice behaviour	0.962	0.061	15.77	0
H1b	Empowering leadership → Knowledge sharing behaviour	0.796	0.115	6.922	0
H2a	Empowering leadership → Psychological empowerment	0.711	0.049	14.51	0
H2b	Empowering leadership → Organisational justice	0.552	0.038	14.526	0
H3a(i)	Organisational justice → Voice behaviour	0.615	0.092	6.885	0
H3a(ii)	Psychological empowerment → Voice behaviour	0.42	0.106	3.962	0
H3b(i)	Psychological empowerment → Knowledge sharing behaviour	0.773	0.078	9.91	0
H3b(ii)	Organisational justice → Knowledge sharing behaviour	0.186	0.09	2.067	0

5.3.3.2. Results of the Mediating Effect of Organisational Justice and Psychological empowerment (H4a-H4b).

Figure 3: Results of the Mediating Effect of Organisational Justice and Psychological Mediation Model



Empowerment.

H4 proposed an indirect mediating effect of organisational justice and employees' psychological empowerment on the relationships between the empowering leadership and (a) knowledge sharing; (b) employees' voice behaviours. To test the proposed mediation effect in H4, a simple mediation model was estimated using the R statics macro version 4.3.2 using the bootstrap approach to obtain confidence intervals (CIs) where bootstrapping was set to 5,000 subsamples. This approach was adopted as opposed to the Sobel Tests because it does not make an assumption regarding the sampling distributions of the indirect effects and has been argued to minimise the likelihood of Type 1 errors (Caron, 2019).

The result in shows that the indirect effect of empowering leadership on Knowledge sharing behaviours through psychological empowerment (H4a(i)) was not statistically significant ($\beta = .604, p > .05, S. E = .044$). However, the result supported H4a(ii) as the direct effect of empowering leadership on Knowledge sharing behaviours through organisational justice was statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .141, p < .01, S. E = .050$). Hence while the relationship between empowering leadership and Knowledge sharing behaviours is partially mediated by organisational justice, it is not mediated by psychological empowerment.

Nevertheless, the direct effect of empowering leadership on Knowledge sharing behaviours in the presence of psychological empowerment and organisational justice was statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .552, p < .01, S. E = .073$).

Likewise, for H4b the direct effect of empowering leadership on employees' voice behaviours in the presence of psychological empowerment and organisational justice was statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .569, p < .01, S. E = .070$). As with knowledge sharing behaviour, the indirect effect of empowering leadership employees' voice behaviours through psychological empowerment (H4b(i)) was not statistically significant ($\beta = .166, p > .05, S. E = .053$), but was significant through organisational justice H4b(ii) ($B = .166, p < .01, S. E = .053$).

Hence while the relationship between empowering leadership and the extra role behaviours (Knowledge sharing and employees' voice behaviours) is partially mediated by

organisational justice, it is not mediated by psychological empowerment. Hypothesis H4 is only supported for H4a(ii) and H4b(ii). These are depicted in Table 6 and Table 7 below.

Table 6: Results of the Mediating Effects of Psychological Empowerment (H4a)

Mediation Effects		Psychological Empowerment				
		β	SE	t	LLCI	ULCI
H4a(i)	Empowering Leadership - >Knowledge Sharing behaviour	0.604	0.044	13.73	-0.28	0.149
H4a(ii)	Empowering Leadership - >Voice behaviour	0.166	0.053	3.13	-0.005	0.153

Note: N = 213. Bootstrap sample size 5000

Table 7: Results of the Mediating Effects of Organisational Justice (H4b)

Mediation Effects		Organisational Justice				
		β	SE	t	LLCI	ULCI
H4b(i)	Empowering Leadership - >Knowledge Sharing behaviour	0.141	0.05	2.82	0.051	0.249
H4b(ii)	Empowering Leadership - >Voice behaviour	0.166	0.053	3.13	0.075	0.282

Note: N = 213. Bootstrap sample size 5000

5.3.3.3. Results of the Moderating Effect of Individualism – Collectivism (IC (H5a-H5b).

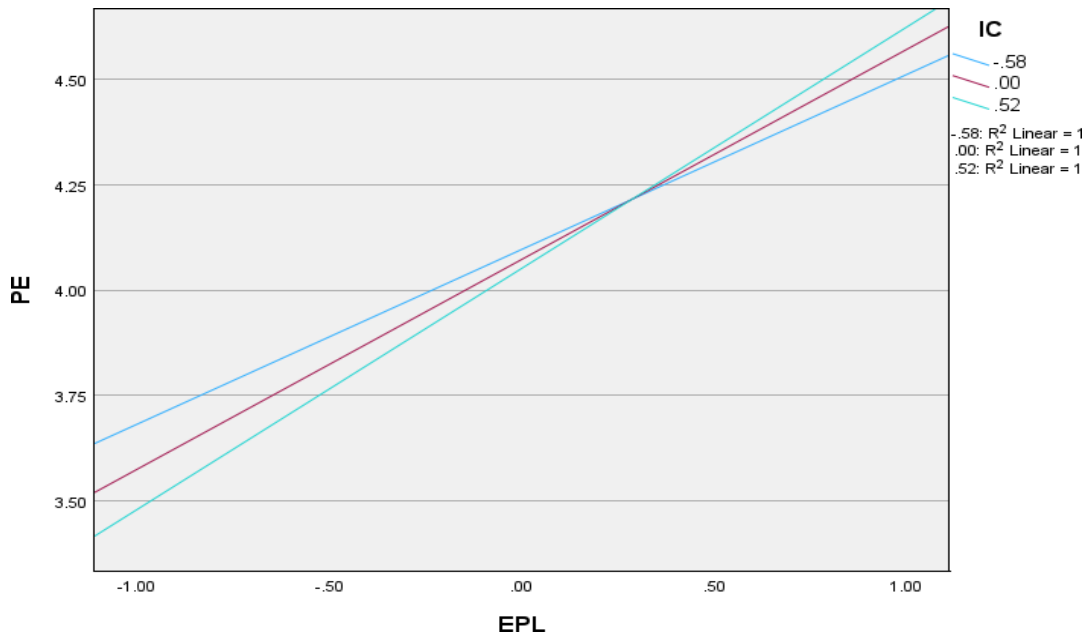
The interaction impact of employees' cultural component on the connection between psychological empowerment and empowering leadership was shown to be positively significant ($\beta = .143$, $SE = .070$, $t = 2.023$, $p < .001$, $[-.283, .545]$) in order to test hypothesis H5a. When the individualism-collectivism dimension was one SD below the mean, the effect was significant (positive) according to the Simple Slope Tests ($\beta = .415$, $t = 6.228$, $SE = .066$, $p < .001$, $[-.283, .545]$); when empowering leadership was one SD above the mean, the effect was also significant but less pronounced ($B \beta = .5676$, $t = 11.740$, $SE = .0066$, $< .001$, $[-.471, .663]$). This is shown in the table below.

Table 8: Results of the Moderation Effects of Individualism-Collectivism

	Interaction effect	β	SE	t	p	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
H5a	Empowering Leadership x Individualism-Collectivism → Psychological empowerment	.143	.07	2.023	< .001	.283	.545
	Low (-1SD)	.415	.066	6.228	< .001	.283	.545
	High (+ SD)	.568	.066	11.74	< .001	.471	.663
H5b	Empowering Leadership x Individualism-Collectivism → Organisational Justice	.26	.081	3.183	< .001	.099	.422
	Low (-1SD)	.389	.077	5.044	< .001	.237	.542
	High (+ SD)	.677	.056	11.975	< .001	.565	.788

Note: N = 213. Bootstrap sample size 5000

Moreover, in Figure 4 below, all three of the lines in the graph shows positive slopes, suggesting that psychological empowerment is positively correlated with empowering leadership at all levels of the individualism-collectivism dimension.

**Figure 4:** Interaction effect of IC on EPL and PE

IC= individualism-collectivism dimension, EPL= empowering leadership, PE= Psychological Empowerment

- 0.58- low level of individualism (high collectivism).
- 0.00- Represents a moderate level of individualism-collectivism.
- 0.52; Represents a high level of individualism (low collectivism)

The graph above shows data that support the hypothesis H5a, that the individualism-

collectivism dimension moderates the impact of empowering leadership on employees' psychological empowerment beliefs. More specifically, in individualistic cultures as opposed to collectivistic cultures, empowering leadership has a more favourable impact on psychological empowerment.

In testing for H5b, interaction effect of employees' cultural dimension on the relationship between empowering leadership and organisational justice. See **Table 8** which showed a positive significant relationship ($\beta = .260, t = 3.183, SE = .081, < .001, [.099, .422]$). The Simple slope tests in also showed that this effect was significant (positive) results when individualism- collectivism dimension was one SD below the mean ($\beta = .389, t = 5.044, SE = .077, p < .001, [.237, .542]$) and also significant but weaker when empowering leadership was one SD above the mean ($\beta = .677, t = 11.9747, SE = .056, < .001, [.565, .788]$).

This is further highlighted in Figure 5 which shows that all three lines representing low level of individualism (high collectivism), moderate level of individualism-collectivism and high level of individualism (low collectivism) have a positive slope, indicating that higher levels of empowering leadership are associated with higher levels of organisational justices all levels of the individualism-collectivism dimension.

This supports H5b which states that the effect of empowering leadership on employees' perceptions of organisational justices is moderated by the individualism-collectivism dimension. Specifically, empowering leadership has a stronger positive effect on organisational justice in individualistic cultures compared to collectivistic cultures.

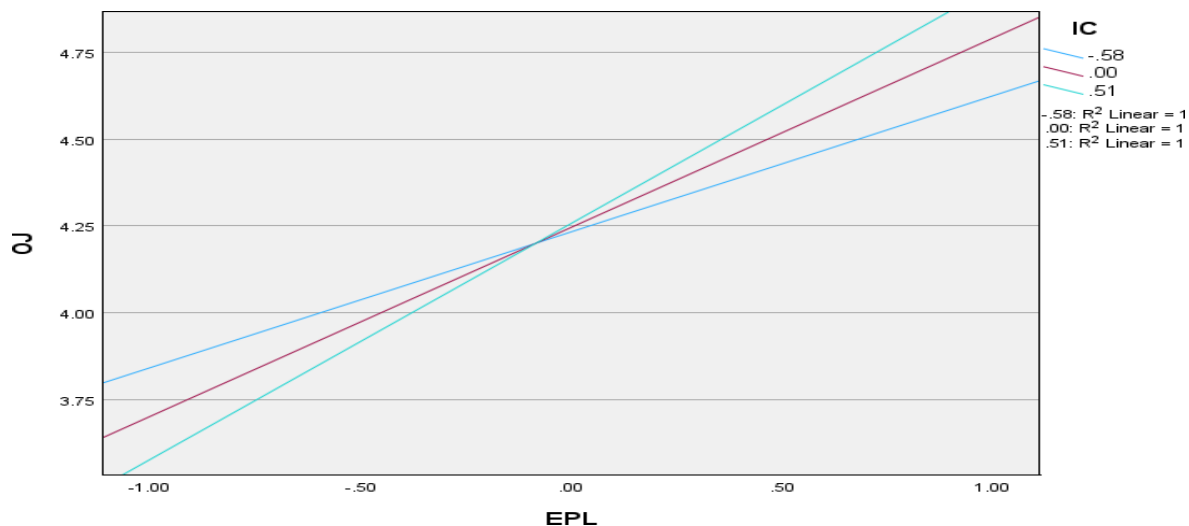


Figure 5: Interaction effect of IC on EPL and OJ

IC= individualism-collectivism dimension, EPL= empowering leadership, OJ= organisational justice

- 0.58- low level of individualism (high collectivism).
- 0.00- Represents a moderate level of individualism-collectivism)
- 0.51; Represents a high level of individualism (low collectivism)

5.3.3.4. Moderated Mediation.

Next, the moderated mediation hypotheses (H6a(i), H6a(ii), H6b(i), H6b(ii)) were tested all together. The overall moderated mediation hypotheses suggested that the effects of the empowering leadership on employees' voice behaviour through psychological empowerment and organisational justice are stronger when individualism-collectivism is high (high individualism).

In order to test these hypotheses a model combining both the mediation was used and the results of H6a (i, ii) are shown below.

Table 9: Moderation Mediation of Psychological Empowerment (Knowledge Sharing Behaviour)

H6a(i): Psychological Empowerment → Knowledge Sharing Behaviour				
Conditional Indirect Effect at Individualism-Collectivism	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPL x IC)	0.139	0.07	1.986	0.005
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1SD)	0.048	0.035	-0.022	0.121
Moderate	0.058	0.042	-0.031	0.143
High (+ SD)	0.066	0.049	-0.031	0.163
Index of Moderated Mediation	0.016	0.177	-0.007	0.06

Note: N = 213. Bootstrap sample size 5000

The conditional indirect effects were specified under model constraints and calculated for low (1SD below average), average, and high (1SD above average) values individualism-collectivism. The output in Table 9 shows that individualism-collectivism did not significantly

moderate the indirect effect of the interaction between empowering leadership on employees' knowledge sharing behaviour through psychological empowerment (H6a(i)) at the three levels (– SD: = .048, SE = .035, $p = >.005$ [–.022, .121]; + SD: $\beta = .066$, SE = .049, $p > .005$ [–.031, .163]).

This is buttressed by the moderation index as follows; Index = .016, SE = .177, $p = >.005$ [–.007, .060]. Hence hypothesis H6a(i) was not supported.

Also, in H6a(ii) it was found that when tested in conjunction with the mediation, the interaction effect was insignificant as reflected by the following indices ($\beta = .02$, SE = .185, $t = .108$, $p > .005$).

In Table 10 below, individualism-collectivism is found not to significantly moderate the indirect effect of the interaction between empowering leadership on employees' voice behaviour through psychological empowerment at the low level of individualism (high collectivism), moderate level of individualism-collectivism and high level of individualism (low collectivism) levels. (– SD: = .059, SE = .032, $p = >.005$ [–.004, .124]; + SD: $B = .081$, SE = .043, $p > .005$ [–.005, .174]).

The Index of moderated mediation also shows a non-significant moderation effect of individualism-collectivism on how empowering leadership affects employees' voice behaviour through psychological empowerment (Index = .020, SE = .185, $p = >.005$ [–.004, .067]).

The index of 0.020 suggests showed that the moderated mediation effect is in the expected direction; that is, the indirect effect of empowering leadership on voice behaviour through psychological empowerment is stronger for those with higher individualism. This is however not moderated mediation effect is not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Consequently, Hypothesis H6a(ii) was not supported.

Table 10: *Moderation Mediation of Psychological Empowerment (Employees' Voice Behaviour)***6a(ii): Psychological Empowerment → Voice Behaviour**

Conditional Indirect Effect of Individualism-Collectivism				
	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPL x IC)	0.02	0.185	0.108	> .005
Moderated Mediation Model				
	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1SD)	0.071	0.038	-0.004	0.067
Moderate	0.059	0.032	-0.006	0.081
High (+ SD)	0.081	0.043	-0.005	0.093
Index of Moderated Mediation				
	0.02	0.185	-0.004	0.067

Note: N = 213. Bootstrap sample size 5000

However, H6b(i) was supported as the indirect effect of empowering leadership on knowledge sharing behaviour through organisational justice was found to be stronger for those with higher individualism. The interaction effect was found to be significant the results ($\beta = .263$, $SE = .081$, $t = 3.247$ $p = <.001$, [.120, .424]) See **Error! Reference source not found..**

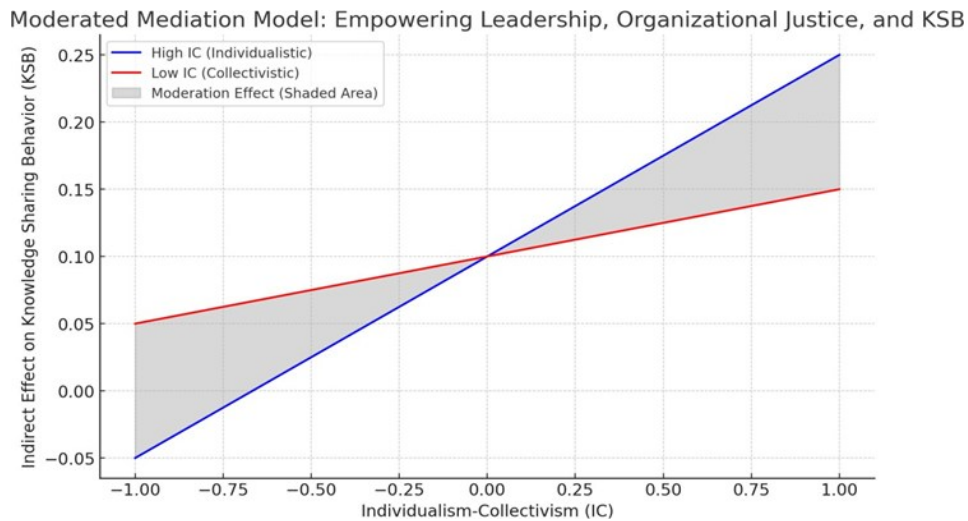
The indirect effect of the interaction between empowering leadership on employees' knowledge sharing behaviour through organisation was significantly moderated by individualism-collectivism (H6b(ii)) at the three levels of individualism- collectivism (– SD: $\beta = .094$, $SE = .014$, $p = >.005$ [.029, .189]; + SD: $\beta = .164$, $SE = .056$, $p <.001$ [.062, .283]) as shown in Table 11.

A significant index of moderated mediation (Index = .063, $SE = .317$, $p = <.001$ [.007, .132] provided additional evidence that hypothesis H6b(ii) was supported. This moderated mediation is shown in Table 11 and buttressed in Figure 6 below.

Table 11: Moderation Mediation of Organisational Justice (Knowledge Sharing Behaviour)

H6a(ii): Organisational Justice → Knowledge Sharing Behaviour			
Conditional Indirect Effect at Individualism-Collectivism	β	SE	t
Interaction (EPL x IC)	0.263	0.081	3.247
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI
Low (-1SD)	0.094	0.041	0.029
Moderate	0.131	0.046	0.062
High (+ SD)	0.164	0.056	0.062
Index of Moderated Mediation	0.063	0.317	0.007

Note: N = 213. Bootstrap sample size 5000

**Figure 6:** Indirect Effect of Empowering Leadership on Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

In testing for the hypothesis H6b (ii), the moderated mediation was significant and the hypothesis that the effects of empowering leadership on employees' voice behaviour through organisational justice is stronger when individualism-collectivism is high (high individualism)

is supported . The interaction effect remained significant ($\beta = .260$, $SE = .081$, $t = 3.183$, $p < .001$, $[-.099, .422]$).

At the low level of individualism (high collectivism), moderate level of individualism-collectivism and high level of individualism (low collectivism) levels, the individualism-collectivism significantly moderated the indirect effect of the interaction between empowering leadership on employees' voice behaviour through organisational (– SD: $\beta = .111$, $SE = .0459$, $p < .001$ $[-.037, .219]$; + SD: $\beta = .0193$, $SE = .060$, $p > .001$ $[-.089, .325]$).

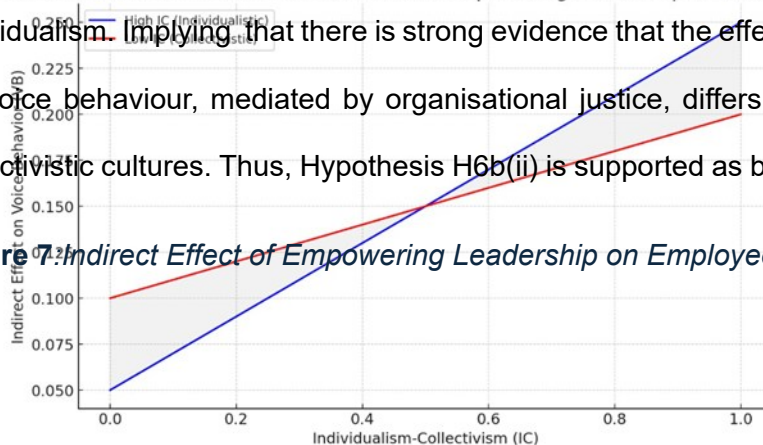
Table 12: Moderation Mediation of Organisational Justice (Employees' Voice Behaviour)

H6b(ii): Organisational Justice → Voice Behaviour				
Conditional Indirect Effect of Individualism-Collectivism	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPL x IC)	0.26	0.081	3.183	< .001
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1SD)	0.111	0.0459	0.037	0.219
Moderate	0.154	0.05	0.051	0.249
High (+ SD)	0.193	0.06	0.089	0.325
Index of Moderated Mediation	0.0744	0.081	0.0105	0.1489

Note: $N = 213$. Bootstrap sample size 5000

In addition, the index of (0.0744) shown in Table 12 above suggests a positive moderated mediation effect. This means that the indirect effect of empowering leadership on voice behaviour through organisational justice is stronger for individuals with higher individualism. Implied that there is strong evidence that the effect of empowering leadership on voice behaviour, mediated by organisational justice, differs between individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Thus, Hypothesis H6b(ii) is supported as buttressed by Figure 7 below.

Figure 7: Indirect Effect of Empowering Leadership on Employees' Voice Behaviour



5.3.4 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to first examine the mediating effects of organisational justice and psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and knowledge sharing and voice behaviours at the individual level.

Firstly, the findings of the direct effects revealed that empowering leadership was significantly related to employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing behaviour. This finding aligns with evidence in recent research strongly supports the conclusions that empowering leadership greatly affects employees' knowledge-sharing and voice behaviour. Studies have shown that empowering leadership creates an atmosphere in which employees feel more independent and competent, which results in greater degrees of participation in idea sharing and problem expression. For example, research by Khatoon et al. (2024), showed that empowering leadership through psychological empowerment positively influence knowledge-sharing activities, particularly when under control by learning goal orientation. Because of the encouraging and inspiring environment empowering leaders create, employees are more likely to share expertise.

In a similar vein, Chiang and Chen (2021) looked at how empowering leadership affected voice behaviour and discovered that it increases employee autonomy, therefore motivating people to participate more actively in the development of organisations. In hospitality environments, where staff members with empowering leadership were more willing to share expertise and express ideas for operational efficiency, this was especially clear.

Na-Nan and Arunyaphum (2021) also investigated the mediation effect of knowledge-sharing behaviour and job engagement in the link between creative work behaviour and empowering leadership. Their results revealed that empowering leadership, by encouraging knowledge sharing, develops an inventive and cooperative work environment, thereby increasing employees' desire to express their views and help to drive organisational development.

These findings suggest that when leaders adopt empowering behaviours, employees

are more likely to engage in knowledge sharing and voice behaviours and perceive higher levels of organisational justice and psychological empowerment.

The second objective was to examine the moderating effects of individualism-collectivism on the relationship between empowering leadership and the mediating variables (organisational justice and psychological empowerment). Finally, the study aimed to investigate the moderated mediation (conditional effects) of individualism-collectivism on the indirect relationship between empowering leadership and employees' extra-role behaviours via organisational justice and psychological empowerment.

The analysis showed that organisational justice and psychological empowerment were positively related to employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing behaviours. Oke and Akinbode (2021) found that psychological empowerment is a significant predictor of innovative behaviour in employees. Ajayi and Olatunji (2021) observed that organisational justice is critical for enhancing employee satisfaction and performance in educational institutions. Additionally, Lee et al. (2020) reported that organisational justice significantly influences employee loyalty and organisational citizenship behaviours. These findings align with previous research, highlighting the pivotal role of psychological empowerment and organisational justice in fostering a positive organisational climate.

Psychological empowerment, which encompasses feelings of competence, autonomy, and meaning, has been linked to various positive employee outcomes. Spreitzer (1995) initially conceptualised psychological empowerment as a multidimensional construct consisting of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Subsequent studies have confirmed the importance of these dimensions in enhancing employee motivation and performance. For instance, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) emphasised that psychological empowerment leads to increased intrinsic motivation, which in turn promotes higher levels of job satisfaction and performance. Similarly, Farndale et al. (2018) highlighted that psychological empowerment is crucial for fostering a proactive and engaged workforce.

Organisational justice, which refers to employees' perceptions of fairness in organisational processes, has also been shown to significantly influence employee

behaviours and attitudes. Colquitt et al. (2001) identified three dimensions of organisational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Distributive justice concerns the perceived fairness of outcomes, procedural justice pertains to the fairness of processes used to determine outcomes, and interactional justice relates to the fairness of interpersonal treatment. Research by Lee et al. (2020) demonstrated that all three dimensions of organisational justice are important predictors of employee loyalty and extra role behaviours using organisational citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, Kim et al. (2022) found that organisational justice enhances employees' trust in management, leading to improved job satisfaction and performance.

Given the hierarchical and bureaucratic nature of many Nigerian organisations, fostering psychological empowerment and organisational justice can significantly improve employee morale and productivity, especially in MNCs operating in Nigeria. In such contexts, employees often experience limited autonomy and decision-making power, which can negatively impact their motivation and engagement. Empowering leadership practices that promote fairness and autonomy can help mitigate these challenges by creating a more supportive and inclusive work environment. This is particularly important for MNCs operating in Nigeria, where cultural and organisational norms may differ from those in other regions.

Secondly, the mediating effects of organisational justice and psychological empowerment were examined. The results indicated that organisational justice partially mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and both knowledge sharing and voice behaviours, whereas psychological empowerment did not significantly mediate these relationships. This suggests that while organisational justice plays a crucial role in the impact of empowering leadership on extra-role behaviours, psychological empowerment alone may not be sufficient to drive these behaviours. Studies by Farndale et al. (2018) and Kim et al. (2022) support these findings, demonstrating the critical role of perceived fairness and justice in organisational settings.

The partial mediation effect of organisational justice highlights the importance of fair

treatment in fostering positive employee behaviours. When employees perceive that organisational processes and interactions are fair, they are more likely to engage in knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. This finding is consistent with research by Colquitt et al. (2001), who found that procedural and interactional justice are significant predictors of employee engagement and extra- role behaviours including organisational citizenship behaviours, an extra-role behaviour. Similarly, Kim et al. (2019) reported that organisational justice enhances employees' trust in management, which in turn promotes positive work behaviours such as employee's knowledge and voice sharing behaviours.

In contrast, psychological empowerment did not significantly mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviours. This finding suggests that while psychological empowerment is important for enhancing employee motivation and performance, it may not be the primary mechanism through which empowering leadership influences knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. Instead, organisational justice may play a more critical role in this context. This finding contributes to a nuanced understanding of the mechanisms through which empowering leadership influences employee behaviours. In the context of MNCs in Nigeria, findings highlight the importance of implementing fair policies and practices that can improve employees' engagement and overall performance.

Furthermore, the study explored the moderating effects of individualism-collectivism on the relationship between empowering leadership and the mediating variables. Thus, individualism-collectivism was operationalised at the individual level, revealing that employees within the same collectivist society demonstrated both individualistic and collectivistic traits. The results indicated that empowering leadership had a stronger effect on psychological empowerment and organisational justice among employees with individualistic tendencies compared to those with collectivistic tendencies. This aligns with Nwankwo et al. (2021), who found that cultural dimensions significantly shape leadership effectiveness and employee behaviours.

However, these findings do not contradict Nigeria's classification as a collectivist country. Instead, they highlight the cultural fluidity that exists within collectivist societies,

particularly in multinational corporations (MNCs) where exposure to global HRM practices may influence individual-level cultural orientations (Gelfand et al., 2020). Employees working in MNCs with Western-origin HRM policies may develop more individualistic workplace tendencies, explaining why empowering leadership was more effective among employees with individualistic traits. This aligns with research suggesting that employees in multinational environments often adopt a more flexible cultural identity, adapting their behaviour based on organizational expectations rather than traditional societal norms (Hofstede & Minkov, 2024).

Many multinational corporations (MNCs), particularly those headquartered in Western countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, and the Netherlands, prioritize leadership and human resource management (HRM) practices that emphasize empowerment, autonomy, and performance-based assessments (Meyer & Xin, 2023; Björkman et al., 2022).

Employees operating within these environments may gradually internalize these individualistic workplace values, even when they are culturally embedded in a traditionally collectivist society like Nigeria. This contextual factor helps explain why employees in this study who exhibited individualistic tendencies responded more positively to empowering leadership, as their work environment continuously reinforced autonomy, self-direction, and independent decision-making.

Consequently, since MNC employees do not strictly align with national cultural profiles, leadership strategies should be contextually adapted. This study reinforces the need for MNC leaders in Nigeria to balance empowerment with fairness and structure, considering that some employees may embrace autonomy-driven leadership, while others prioritize group cohesion (House et al., 2020). An implication of this is the need for a hybrid leadership style that balances empowerment with directive leadership, particularly in high-power distance cultures where structure is valued (Zhang & Xie, 2017; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Finally, the moderated mediation analyses revealed that the indirect effect of empowering leadership on employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing through organisational justice was stronger among employees with individualistic tendencies.

However, this moderated mediation effect did not reach statistical significance to have an effect on psychological empowerment.

The primary outcome of this study is the confirmation that empowering leadership positively influences employee voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours. This finding is consistent with existing literature that links empowering leadership with increased employee engagement and proactive behaviours (Kim et al., 2020; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). However, the study's most significant contribution lies in its discovery that organisational justice, rather than psychological empowerment, is the dominant mediator in this relationship within the Nigerian context. This outcome challenges the prevailing assumption in much of the Western literature that psychological empowerment is the primary mechanism through which empowering leadership drives positive employee outcomes (Hassi et al., 2021; Tran Pham, 2024).

The finding that organisational justice plays a more critical role in Nigeria aligns with Social Exchange Theory (SET), which posits that employees are more likely to reciprocate positive behaviours when they perceive fairness and equity in their exchanges with leadership (Colquitt et al., 2021; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In a high-power distance culture like Nigeria, where hierarchical structures and authority are deeply embedded, the perception of fairness is paramount. Employees prioritize equitable treatment over autonomy, making organisational justice a crucial lever for enhancing their engagement and willingness to contribute beyond their formal roles (Lee et al., 2020).

One of the primary contributions of this study is its challenge to the prevailing assumption that psychological empowerment is the dominant mediator through which empowering leadership influences employee outcomes. In environments characterised by high power distance, where authority and hierarchy are deeply entrenched, the perception of justice may be more impactful than the experience of autonomy, as employees prioritize equitable treatment over self-determination.

Findings demonstrate that employees with individualistic tendencies respond more

positively to empowering leadership, particularly when it enhances perceptions of organisational justice. This insight fills a critical gap in the literature, which often treats cultural dimensions at the national level, overlooking the individual variations within a population (Gelfand et al., 2020). By showing that individual-level cultural values significantly influence the effectiveness of leadership practices, this study encourages a more personalised approach to leadership in MNCs, especially in culturally diverse settings like Nigeria.

The moderated mediation analysis reveals that the pathway through which empowering leadership influences voice and knowledge sharing via organisational justice is stronger among employees with individualistic tendencies. This finding contributes to a more nuanced understanding of how cultural contexts shape organisational behaviour, challenging the one-size-fits-all approach often applied in leadership research. In collectivist cultures like Nigeria, where group harmony and respect for hierarchy are valued, the study suggests that leadership practices emphasising fairness and equity may be more effective than those focusing solely on promoting individual autonomy.

This finding suggests that in environments where individualistic values are more pronounced, empowering leadership that fosters a sense of fairness can more effectively drive positive employee behaviours (Hofstede, 2019; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2020). Conversely, in collectivist environments, the impact of such leadership practices may be muted unless they are carefully aligned with cultural norms that prioritize group cohesion and respect for authority (Triandis, 2018; House et al., 2020).

In addition to these theoretical contributions, the study also addresses a significant gap in the empirical literature on MNCs in Nigeria. Much of the existing research on organisational behaviour in MNCs has been conducted in Western or Asian contexts, with limited attention to African settings, where cultural and organisational dynamics differ considerably (Nkomo, 2020). By focusing on Nigeria, this study provides valuable insights into the specific challenges and opportunities of implementing empowering leadership in a context marked by high power distance and collectivist values. The findings highlight the importance of adapting leadership practices to align with local cultural norms, particularly in

MNCs that operate across diverse geographical and cultural landscapes.

Furthermore, the study's consideration of control variables such as sector, duration of employment, age, gender, and education level adds depth to the analysis, revealing how these factors influence the relationships under study. The finding that sector-specific characteristics and duration of employment significantly affect the impact of empowering leadership on organisational justice and psychological empowerment suggests that MNCs must consider these variables when designing and implementing leadership strategies. For instance, in more hierarchical sectors like oil and gas, the centralisation of authority may weaken the perceived fairness of empowering leadership, necessitating tailored approaches that emphasise transparency and fairness.

This study also contributes to the methodological advancement of organisational behaviour research in MNCs by operationalising cultural dimensions at the individual level. Previous studies often aggregate cultural values at the national or organisational level, potentially overlooking the individual differences that exist within populations (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2020). By focusing on individual-level operationalisation, this research provides a more accurate picture of how personal cultural orientations interact with leadership practices, offering a clearer understanding of the micro-level processes that drive organisational behaviour in MNCs.

In conclusion, this study makes several important contributions to the literature on organisational behaviour in MNCs, particularly in the Nigerian context. By highlighting the critical role of organisational justice as a mediator, the moderating effect of individualism-collectivism, and the influence of sectoral and demographic variables, the research fills significant gaps in the current understanding of how leadership practices can be effectively tailored to diverse cultural settings. These insights not only advance theoretical knowledge but also offer practical guidance for MNCs seeking to implement empowering leadership strategies that resonate with the unique cultural and organisational dynamics of their workforce.

This first study is part of a multilevel longitudinal study, and the data collected here

represents the first time point. The data used were collected solely from the team members and excluded the supervisors. Another objective was to extend the theoretical model by including Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) as a mediator and LMX Differentiation (LMXD) as a moderator at the team level. Data from team leaders and team members in Time One and Time Two will be used. A cross-level analysis will also be conducted. This theoretical extension was also associated with a methodological improvement, including a secondary source of data in the form of supervisory ratings of employee perceptions of LMX, LMXD, and supervisory perceptions of employees' extra-role behaviours.

In the next chapter, Study Two, designed to address this objective, is described in detail in terms of its methodology and results.

CHAPTER SIX- STUDY TWO METHODOLOGY, DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter expands upon the investigation that was initiated in Study One by integrating team-level variables to improve understanding of leadership relationships and team dynamics. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), LMX Differentiation (LMXD), Organisational Justice (Justice Climate), and Employees' Extra-Role Behaviours, (knowledge sharing and voice behaviour), are the primary areas of focus.

This study endeavours to further explore the theoretical model by investigating the role of LMX as a mediator in the relationship between the extra-role behaviours of employees and the justice climate at the team level. Psychological empowerment is omitted since the results showed in study one indicated that it did not mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and the employee's extra role behaviours (see 5.3.3 *Testing of the Hypotheses*)

Furthermore, it examines the how LMXD influences the relationship between LMX and employees' extra-role behaviours. Data for this extended study were obtained from the same demographic as Study One, which included 231 participants, including both team members (210) and team supervisors (21). The continuity and comparability of the studies are guaranteed by the consistency of the participant pool. At the team level, the following variables are assessed: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), the degree of variation in LMX quality within a team (LMXD), perceptions of impartiality within the team (organisational justice), empowering leadership, and extra role behaviours (knowledge sharing and voice behaviour). The data was also analysed using Multilevel Structural Equation Modelling (MSEM) in MLmed Beta 2 (Hayes & Rockwood, 2019).

To investigate the interactions between variables at the individual and team levels, a cross-level analysis will be implemented. The purpose of this analysis is to offer a thorough understanding of the ways in which team-level constructs affect individual behaviours and how individual

This chapter offers a more detailed understanding of the interplay between leadership, justice perceptions, and extra-role behaviours at the team and individual-level using data from two time points. The sample and data collection procedure, measures of the study's variables, and data analysis, the study's findings and a discussion of these findings will be provided in the next section.

6.2 METHOD

6.2.1 *Sample and data collection procedures*

6.2.1.1. Data collection method.

In the first wave of the data collection process (Time 1), control variables were collected from the team leaders and their team members alongside individual-level data on employees' voice and knowledge sharing behaviours, perception of leader's empowering behaviours, perception of psychological empowerment and organisational justice and individualism-collectivism. In this wave, employees were required reporting on their extra-role behaviours (voice and knowledge sharing behaviours), perception of leader's empowering behaviours, perception of leader-member exchange and organisational justice and perception of LMXD.

All participants received weekly reminders through emails prompts sent directly to their emails until the end of the data collection period in Time 2.

6.2.1.2. Sample and data collection procedure

In Time 2 only the 213 respondents nested in 22 teams were invited to take part in the survey. Out of this only 210 employees submitted completed survey for Time 2. The number of team members per team, varied between 5 and 20. The majority of the respondents (66) were from the South- South geo-political zone. Other zones included were North- East, (39), South -West (38), North Central (37), North -West (29) and Southeast (26).

6.2.2 *Measures*

6.2.2.1. Individual-level variables.

In this study, same scales used in Study 1 were used in measuring the individual-

level variables in study 2. The scales for individual-level are the same as that used in Study One.

6.2.2.2. Team-level variables

6.2.2.2.1. *Team-level Empowering Leadership.*

Empowering leadership behaviours was operationalised using the 12 items developed by Ahearne et al. (2005). In order to assess the perception of Empowering leadership behaviours of employees the individual ratings of Empowering leadership behaviours were aggregated to the team-level, using a direct consensus model (Chan, 1998). This was justified statistically by calculating the median within-group interrater reliability $rwg(j)$ as well as intraclass correlations, ICC (1) and ICC (2). Both $rwg(j) = .82$ and ICCs ($ICC(1) = .25$ and $ICC(2) = .72$) supported the aggregation of empowering leadership to the team-level (Bliese, 2000; Senter 2008).

6.2.2.2.2. *Team-level Employees' Voice Behaviour.*

In measuring employees' voice behaviour, the six-item voice scale developed by LePine, and Van Dyne (1998) was adopted. In assessing the overall team-level employees' Voice Behaviour ratings, the individual ratings of employees' voice behaviours were aggregated to the team-level, using a direct consensus model (Chan, 1998). This was justified statistically by calculating the median Within-Group Agreement ($rwg(j)$) and the intraclass correlations ($ICC(1)$ and $ICC(2)$). The result showed, $rwg(j) = .90$ and ICCs ($ICC(1) = .32$ and $ICC(2) = .0.75$) supported the aggregation of empowering leadership to the team-level (Kozlowski, & Klein, 2000; Bliese, 2000; Senter 2008).

6.2.2.2.3. *Team-level Knowledge Sharing Behaviour.*

Knowledge sharing was measured using a seven-item scale developed by Van den Hooff and Van Weenen (2004) and validated by Lin (2007).

In assessing the overall team level employees' knowledge Behaviour ratings, the individual ratings of knowledge Behaviour were aggregated to the team-level, using a direct consensus model (Chan, 1998). This was justified statistically by calculating the median Within-Group Agreement ($rwg(j)$) and the intraclass correlations ($ICC(1)$ and $ICC(2)$). The result showed

, $rwg(j) = .92$ and ICCs ($ICC(1) = .50$ and $ICC(2) = .086$) supported the aggregation of empowering I leadership to the team-level (Kozlowski, & Klein, 2000; Bliese, 2000; Senter 2008).

6.2.2.2.4. *Team-level Organisational Justice (Justice Climate).*

Organisational justice was measured using an 8-item measure modified original scale of Colquitt (2001) by Elovainio *et al.* (2010).

In assessing the overall team level employees and supervisors' employees' knowledge Behaviour ratings, the individual ratings of knowledge sharing Behaviour were aggregated to the team-level, using a direct consensus model (Chan, 1998). This was justified statistically by calculating the median Within-Group Agreement($rwg(j)$) and the intraclass correlations ($ICC(1)$ and $ICC(2)$). The result showed , $rwg(j) = .86$ and ICCs ($ICC(1) = .50$ and $ICC(2) = .088$) supported the aggregation of empowering I leadership to the team-level (Kozlowski, & Klein, 2000; Bliese, 2000; Senter 2008).

6.2.2.2.5. *Leader-Member-Exchange Differentiation (LMXD).*

In measuring LMX differentiation, the seven-item scale developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) was used. Team members employees and leaders rate their perceived LMXD using 7 -item measured. An Example of an item was I have confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she is not present to do so. The measure produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.77.

In assessing the overall team-level employees and supervisors' employees' knowledge Behaviour ratings, the individual ratings of LMXD were aggregated to the team-level, using a direct consensus model (Chan, 1998). This was justified statistically by calculating the median Within-Group Agreement($rwg(j)$) and the intraclass correlations ($ICC(1)$ and $ICC(2)$). The result showed , $rwg(j) = .89$ and ICCs ($ICC(1) = .30$ and $ICC(2) = .078$) supported the aggregation of empowering I leadership to the team-level (Kozlowski, & Klein, 2000; Bliese, 2000; Senter 2008). See section 6 of EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 2.

6.2.2.2.6. *Team-Level Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX).*

The 12-item multidimensional scale (LMX-MDM) developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998) was used to measure LMX ($\alpha = 0.82$). In this measure, the four dimensions of LMX are each represented by a three-item scale: affect (e.g. "I like my supervisor very much as a person;" α), loyalty (e.g., "My supervisor would come to my defence if I were "attacked" by others;" α), contribution (e.g., "I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor;"), and professional respect (e.g., "I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.;").

In assessing the overall team-level employees' knowledge Behaviour ratings, the individual ratings of LMX were aggregated to the team-level, using a direct consensus model (Chan, 1998). This was justified statistically by calculating the median Within-Group Agreement($rwg(j)$) and the intraclass correlations ($ICC(1)$ and $ICC(2)$). The result showed , $rwg(j) = .73$ and $ICCs$ ($ICC(1) = .35$ and $ICC(2) = .66$) supported the aggregation of empowering leadership to the team-level (Kozlowski, & Klein, 2000; Bliese, 2000; Senter 2008). See section 3 of EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 2.

6.2.2.3. Control variables.

In line with previous research on employees' voice behaviour and knowledge sharing behaviour (e.g. Zheng *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Janssen and Gao, 2015), to clarify the relationship between the variables in this study, the effects of demographic characteristics variables were controlled for the study included variables that could influence the employees extra-role behaviours This include gender, organisational sector, tenure working in the organisation working with supervisor, number of employees in teams and geographical location in the model as a set of control variables. Gender coded 1 for male and 2 for female.

Means, standard deviations, correlations and internal consistencies (Cronbach's alpha) between the measures from Study 2 are reported in below.

6.3 RESULTS

6.3.1 Descriptive statistics and correlations

Table 13: Descriptive statistics, and intercorrelations between measures of the variables in Study Two

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	0.42	0.50														
	Geographical			-													
2	Zone of location			.18**													
	No. of																
	Employees in			-.14*	.26**												
3	Team	1.89	0.78														
4	Tenure	2.54	0.73	.16*	.22**	.14*											
5	Sector			.08	.14*	.03	.32**										
6	KSBT2	4.50	0.73	.03	.14*	.11	.26**	-.06									
7	VBT2	4.32	0.91	-.06	.18**	.23**	.13*	.06	.23**								
8	LMXT2	4.32	0.87	-.05	.25**	.29**	.21**	.08	.27**	.73**							
9	OJT2	4.78	0.41	.11	.25**	-.01	-.04	.23**	.16*	.16*	.09						
10	LMXDT2	4.20	0.77	-.01	-.02	.13*	.16*	-.15*	.64**	.20**	.14*	.1					
11	EPLT1	4.26	0.88	-.12	.21**	.20**	.18**	.1	.18**	.77**	.75**	.06	.12				
12	KSBT1	4.27	0.89	-.1	.12	.17**	.13	.07	.22**	.71**	.70**	.08	.17*	.76**			
13	VBT1	4.31	0.92	-.07	.17**	.23**	.14*	.06	.23**	1.00**	.73**	.16*	.20**	.77**	.71**		
14	OJT1	4.27	0.79	-.05	.16*	.21**	.15*	-.03	.22**	.68**	.72**	.12	.12	.68**	.64**	.67**	

Note. $n = 210$

VBT1: Voice Behavior at Time 1, VBT2: Voice Behavior at Time 2, KSBT1: Knowledge Sharing Behavior at Time 1, KSBT2: Knowledge Sharing Behavior at Time 2, LMXT2: Leader- Member Exchange at Time 2, LMXDT2: Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation at Time 2, OJT1: Organizational Justice at Time 1, OJT2: Organizational Justice at Time 2, EPLT1: Empowering Leadership at Time 1.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 13 presents the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the study variables. Gender was dummy-coded as 0 = Male and 1 = Female. Sector and Geographical Zone of location were also dummy-coded during analysis but are presented as single variables for clarity (Hayes, 2022; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013; Field, 2018; Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Culpepper, 2013).

The results from the correlation analysis provide significant insights into the relationships between demographic factors, organisational characteristics, and key behavioural outcomes among employees. Gender showed a negative correlation with Zone ($r = -0.18$, $p < 0.01$) and Number of Employees ($r = -0.14$, $p < 0.05$), indicating that as the number of employees or the zone number increases, the proportion of females decreases. Conversely, Gender is positively correlated with Duration ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$), suggesting that female employees tend to have longer durations of employment. This could imply that female employees, once hired, tend to stay longer in their positions, perhaps due to higher job satisfaction or organisational commitment.

Furthermore, Geographical Zone of location is positively correlated with Number of Employees ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$) and Duration ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that zones with higher numbers are associated with larger and more experienced teams. Additionally, Zone is positively correlated with several Time 2 behavioural outcomes, such as Voice Behaviour (VBT2; $r = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMXT2; $r = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$), but negatively correlated with Organisational Justice (OJT2; $r = -0.25$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates regional variations in perceptions of organisational justice, potentially due to differing regional management practices or resource availability.

Moreover, the Number of Employees is positively correlated with various Time 2 variables, including Voice Behaviour (VBT2; $r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMXT2; $r = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$). It also shows significant positive correlations with Time 1 variables such as Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBT1; $r = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$) and Voice Behaviour (VBT1; $r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). These findings suggest that larger teams tend to exhibit higher levels of voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours. Additionally, these

behaviours may contribute to or result from positive leader-member exchanges, reinforcing the importance of team size in organisational dynamics.

Duration of Employment is positively correlated with most Time 2 variables, including Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBT2; $r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMXT2; $r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that longer tenure is associated with more positive workplace behaviours and relationships. Employees with longer durations of employment may develop stronger bonds with their leaders and peers, facilitating better communication and collaboration.

The Sector variable shows a positive correlation with Duration ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$) and a slight positive correlation with Leader-Member Exchange (LMXT2; $r = 0.08$, not significant), indicating that employees in certain sectors have longer tenures and slightly better leader-member exchanges. These findings highlight the influence of industry-specific factors on employee retention and relationship quality within organisations.

Additionally, Knowledge Sharing Behaviour at Time 2 (KSBT2) is positively correlated with Voice Behaviour (VBT2; $r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$), Leader-Member Exchange (LMXT2; $r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXDT2; $r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that higher knowledge-sharing behaviour is associated with better voice behaviour and leader-member exchange quality. Furthermore, these behaviours are likely interrelated, where open communication and strong leader-member relationships facilitate greater knowledge sharing within teams.

Voice Behaviour at Time 2 (VBT2) is highly correlated with Leader-Member Exchange (LMXT2; $r = 0.73$, $p < 0.01$), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBT2; $r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXDT2; $r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that employees who are more vocal also perceive better relationships with their leaders. Additionally, a culture of open communication and feedback within the team likely enhances both leader-member exchanges and overall team performance.

Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2) shows strong positive correlations with Voice Behaviour (VBT2; $r = 0.73$, $p < 0.01$), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBT2; $r = 0.27$,

$p < 0.01$), and Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1; $r = 0.75$, $p < 0.01$), highlighting the importance of high-quality leader-member exchanges for positive employee outcomes. Moreover, effective leader-member exchanges can foster an environment where employees feel valued and supported, leading to enhanced performance and engagement. Organisational Justice at Time 2 (OJT2) has negative correlations with Zone ($r = -0.25$, $p < 0.01$) and Sector ($r = -0.23$, $p < 0.01$), but positive correlations with Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBT2; $r = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$) and Voice Behaviour (VBT2; $r = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$), indicating that while perceptions of organisational justice may vary by region and sector, it generally supports positive employee behaviours. Effective policies and fair treatment can enhance employees' perceptions of justice, encouraging greater participation in knowledge sharing and voice behaviours.

Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation at Time 2 (LMXDT2) is positively correlated with Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBT2; $r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$), Voice Behaviour (VBT2; $r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), and Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1; $r = 0.12$, not significant), showing the impact of leader-member exchange differentiation on team dynamics and performance. When leaders differentiate their relationships based on individual contributions, it can lead to better alignment of team roles and responsibilities, fostering a more collaborative and productive work environment.

Moreover, Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1) has strong positive correlations with Voice Behaviour at Time 1 (VBT1; $r = 0.77$, $p < 0.01$), Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2; $r = 0.75$, $p < 0.01$), and Leader-Member Exchange

Differentiation (LMXDT2; $r = 0.12$, not significant), emphasising the role of past performance in current leader-member exchanges and differentiation. High-performing employees are likely to be recognised and valued by their leaders, resulting in stronger and more differentiated leader-member relationships.

Additionally, Knowledge Sharing Behaviour at Time 1 (KSBT1) is positively correlated with Voice Behaviour at Time 1 (VBT1; $r = 0.71$, $p < 0.01$), Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1; $r = 0.76$, $p < 0.01$), and Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2; $r = 0.70$, p

< 0.01), indicating consistent positive behaviours and relationships over time. Employees who actively share knowledge and engage in voice behaviours are likely to maintain these behaviours, contributing to ongoing positive outcomes.

For Voice Behaviour at Time 1 (VBT1), there was a perfect correlation with Voice Behaviour at Time 2 (VBT2; $r = 1.00$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting it may be measured almost identically across time points. It also correlates strongly with Knowledge Sharing Behaviour at Time 1 (KSBT1; $r = 0.71$, $p < 0.01$) and Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1; $r = 0.77$, $p < 0.01$). These strong correlations suggest that voice behaviour is a stable characteristic over time and is closely related to other positive workplace behaviours.

Organisational Justice at Time 1 (OJT1) has positive correlations with Voice Behaviour at Time 1 (VBT1; $r = 0.67$, $p < 0.01$), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour at Time 1 (KSBT1; $r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$), and Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2; $r = 0.72$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that initial perceptions of organisational justice are strongly associated with ongoing positive behaviours and relationships. Effective policies and fair treatment can set the foundation for a culture of continuous improvement within teams.

The correlation analysis reveals significant relationships among demographic factors, organisational characteristics, and key behavioural outcomes. Gender, Zone, Number of Employees, and Duration of Employment are important predictors of various workplace behaviours at both Time 1 and Time 2. The strong correlations between Time 1 and Time 2 measures of Knowledge Sharing Behaviour, Voice Behaviour, and Leader-Member Exchange suggest consistent patterns over time. These findings provide a robust foundation for further analyses and interpretations in subsequent section, thereby enhancing the reliability and validity of this study.

6.3.2 *Confirmatory factor analyses*

All individual-level variables were tested using a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in R Statistics before the variable convergence at the team level. This was to ensure the distinctiveness and construct validity among the variables at the individual level.

Kline (2015) emphasises the importance of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for testing the distinctiveness and construct validity of variables. CFAs are essential to validate that the constructs measured are indeed separate and distinct before any higher-level aggregation or analysis. Byrne (2016) discusses the necessity of using CFAs to confirm that individual-level constructs are accurately measured and valid before proceeding to more complex modelling, such as team-level convergence.

In the table below, compared to the proposed 8-factor model, the initial model comprised eight latent factors: Perceived Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD).

Table 14: Results for Confirmatory Factor Analysis , Study Two

Models	χ^2 (df)	P-value	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
1-Factor Model: All variables combined into a single factor: Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD)	10979.3 (3077)	0	0.123	0.079	0.573	0.562
initial 8-Factor Model: (Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD)).	5487.4 (1533)	< .001	0.121	0.079	0.703	0.691
Revised 8-Factor Model: (Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD)).	1200.4 (500)	0.039	0.075	0.045	0.913	0.901

Note N = 210. df = Degrees of Freedom; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean Square Residual; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

The Initial model assessment utilised several fit indices, including CFI, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). The initial eight-factor model's fit indices were below the minimum threshold for CFI and TLI. To achieve a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) of 0.9 or higher, variables contributing to the model's misfit needed to be identified and potentially removed.

Hair et al. (2010) highlights the role of CFA in assessing the measurement model to ensure each construct's validity and reliability. This step is critical before any aggregation to higher levels of analysis to maintain the integrity of the constructs. Modification indices (MIs) suggested areas where adding paths might improve the model and indicated variables that did not fit well with the overall factor structure. Identifying variables with consistently low MI and Expected Parameter Change (EPC) values across all factors suggested they did not significantly contribute to improving the model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Additionally, variables with negative EPC values were likely misfitting, especially if not theoretically justified (MacCallum, 2003).

Thus, modification indices were used to focus on specific relationships within the model. These indices approximate how much the overall χ^2 will decrease if the fixed or constrained parameter is freely estimated (Brown, 2015). By carefully examining these indices, items were removed from constructs based on theoretical justifications (Smith & McMillan, 2001). For example, the initial model shown in the table below had fit indices: CFI = 0.703, TLI = 0.691, RMSEA = 0.079, and $\chi^2 = 5487.4$ with 1533 degrees of freedom, indicating a poor fit (Brown, 2006).

High modification indices were often due to similarity in content and wording among items, producing shared variance not accounted for by the specified model. For instance, Voice Behaviour items VB1 and VB4 had modification indices suggesting similarity in wording or content. Similar issues were found with Organisational Justice (OJ) items OJ1 and OJ2, Individualism-Collectivism (IC) items IC2 and IC9, Psychological Empowerment (PE) items PE7 and PE12, and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) items KSB7 and KSB1.

Evaluating cross-loadings was another critical step. Variables with significant cross-loadings across multiple factors did not fit well within a single factor and were candidates for removal (Hair et al., 2010). Theoretical considerations were essential in deciding whether to delete a variable; if a variable was theoretically important, alternative model adjustments were considered before removal (Kline, 2015).

Redundant or overlapping items produced high modification indices as they did not contribute unique information to the model (Brown, 2006). Items with similar wording might have had correlated measurement errors, indicated by high modification indices (Byrne, 2016). Reviewing and refining items to ensure distinct content and wording were necessary. Item parcels, where similar items were combined, and adjusting the model to account for correlated errors, if theoretically justified, further improved model fit (Little et al., 2002; MacCallum, Roznowski, & Necowitz, 1992).

Based on modification indices, several variables were potential candidates for deletion due to their low MI and EPC values. Removing or modifying problematic items based on modification indices led to significant improvements in model fit indices such as the CFI (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The revised latent variable definitions, excluding the identified variables, were re-estimated to see if the CFI improved. The retained items included Psychological Empowerment (PE): PE1, PE3, PE4, PE5, PE6, PE7, PE8, PE9, PE10, PE11, PE12; Leader-Member Exchange (LMX): LMX1, LMX5, LMX6, LMX7, LMX8, LMX10, LMX11; Organisational Justice (OJ): OJ1, OJ2, OJ4, OJ5, OJ6, OJ7, OJ8; Voice Behaviour (VB): VB1, VB3, VB4, VB5, VB6; Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB): KSB1, KSB2, KSB3, KSB4, KSB5, KSB6, KSB7; Individualism-Collectivism (IC): IC1, IC2, IC3, IC4, IC5, IC6, IC7, IC8, IC10, IC11, IC12, IC13, IC14; and Empowering Leadership (EPL): EPL1, EPL2, EPL3, EPL4, EPL5, EPL6, EPL7, EPL8, EPL9, EPL10, EPL11, EPL12. Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) retained LMXD1, LMXD3, LMXD4, LMXD5, LMXD6, and LMXD7.

Upon re-evaluation, the revised model demonstrated improved fit indices: CFI =

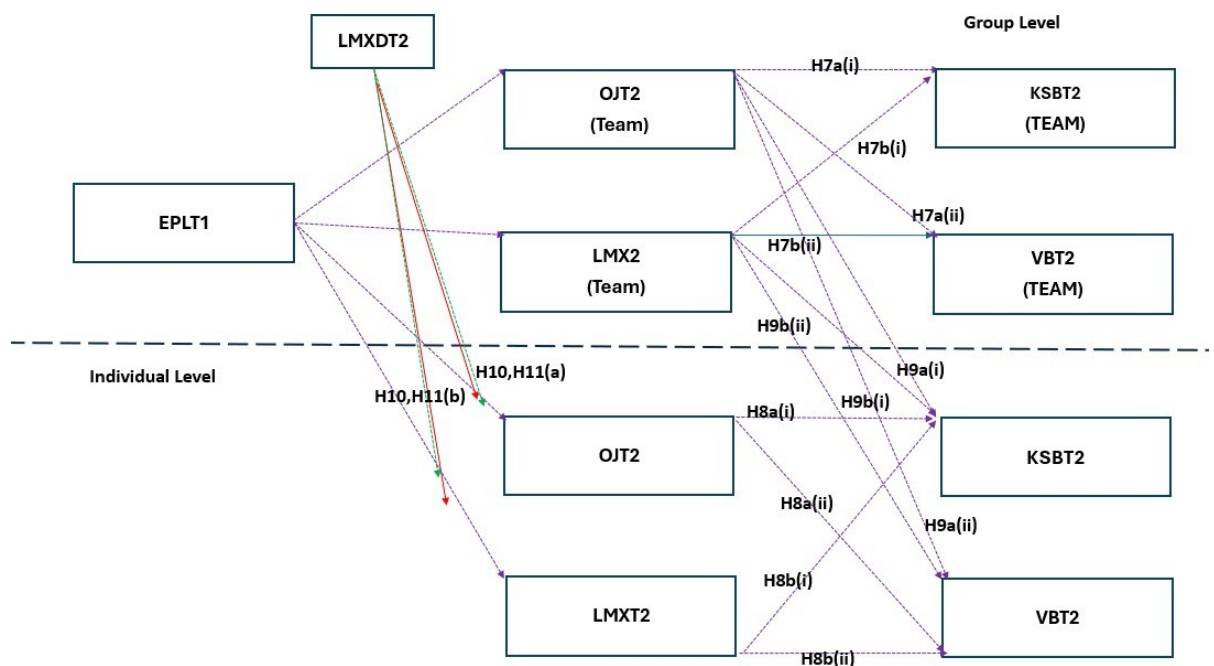
0.913, TLI = 0.901, RMSEA = 0.045, and $\chi^2 = 1200.4$ with 500 degrees of freedom. These values indicate that the modifications effectively improved the model fit, with the CFI now meeting the threshold of 0.90, supporting the findings by Hu and Bentler (1999) regarding fit index benchmarks.

The revised model retained the original eight latent factors with a more streamlined set of indicators. Perceived Empowerment (PE) was refined by ensuring that the remaining items more accurately capture the construct without extraneous noise. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) remained robust, reflecting the quality of leader-member relationships accurately. Organisational Justice (OJ) continued to be well-represented, ensuring the accurate measurement of fairness perceptions within the organisation.

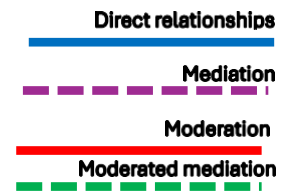
This validation through CFA supports the distinctiveness and appropriateness of the hypothesised constructs within the study

6.3.3 Testing of Hypotheses

Figure 2: Conceptual Model (Study Two)



EPLT1:	Team -level Empowering Leadership at Time 1
LMXT2:	Team -level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2
OJT2:	Team -level Organisational justice at Time 2
KSBT2:	Team -level employees' knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2
VB2:	Team -level employees' voice behaviour at Time 2
LMXDT2:	Team -level Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation at Time 2
KSB2:	Individual -level employees' knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2
VB2:	Individual -level employees' voice behaviour at Time 2



The mediation and moderation effects within the proposed model shown above were analysed, focusing using a multilevel analysis. Categorising the mediation models as 2-1- 1, 2-2-1, or 2-2-2 was crucial for accurately capturing and interpreting cross-level interactions within hierarchical data structures, as emphasised by Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher (2009). This differentiation was essential for understanding the dynamics between variables at different levels of analysis.

Multilevel mediation models, 2-1-1, 2-2-1, and 2-2-2 are used to examine nested data. Whereas the mediator (M) and dependent variable (Y) are monitored at the individual level (Zhang et al., 2009), the independent variable (X) in 2-1-1 models is measured at the group level. Under 2-2-1 models, Y is monitored at the individual level whereas X and M are measured at the group level (Kenny et al., 2003). Finally, 2-2-2 models track all variables at the group level (Mathieu & Taylor, 2007). These models help one understand hierarchical data in which variables function at many levels.

In the 2-2-2 mediation model, described by Hypothesis H7 in

Figure 8, Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1) influenced Team-Level Employee Behaviours at time 2(VBT2 AND KSBT2) through Team-Level Mediators LMX and organisational justice (LMXT2 and OJT2) at time 2. In this model, all variables were considered at the team level, acknowledging that team-level predictors, mediators, and outcomes operated within a distinct context compared to individual-level analyses. This model provided a comprehensive view of how team dynamics unfolded over time and influenced broader organisational outcomes, highlighting the importance of context in organisational Behaviour,

as supported by Byrne (2016).

Moving to the 2-1-1 mediation model, Hypothesis H8 represented a cross-level mediation where team-level predictors impacted individual-level outcomes through individual-level mediators. Here, Team-level Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1) affected employees' knowledge sharing and voice behaviours through individual-level Mediators (LMXT2 and OJT2). This model highlighted the impact of the perception of team-level empowering leadership on individual behaviours. Understanding how leadership at the team-level could influence individual behaviours was crucial, as individual actions aggregated to influence broader team outcomes, supported by the work of Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher (2009). Holstad et al. (2020) have shown that cross-level models such as the 2-1-1 provide strong insight on how leadership promotes constructive behaviours, mediating via relationship dynamics including LMX and organisational justice. This validates your use of cross-level mediation models to investigate the subtle influence of leadership on employee actions across organisational levels.

In the 2-2-1 mediation model, described by Hypothesis H9, Empowering Leadership at the team-level (EPLT1) influenced Employee Behaviours through Team-Level Mediators (LMXT2 and OJT2). This model addressed the relationships between team-level Empowering Leadership and employees' Behaviour through team-level mediators, acknowledging that mediators could operate across levels. This approach captured the complexity of how behaviours and influences traversed different layers of organisational structure, a complexity noted by Hair et al. (2010). By acknowledging these cross-level interactions, the model provided a more nuanced understanding of how team level factors can affect individual level behaviours.

Additionally, the moderation effects within the model were considered, particularly the cross-level moderation effects described by Hypotheses H10. In Hypothesis H10, Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation at Time 2 (LMXDT2) moderated the relationship between team-level Time 1 (EPLT1) and the individual-level mediators (LMXT2 and OJT2).

This cross-level moderation effect illustrated how variations in leader-member

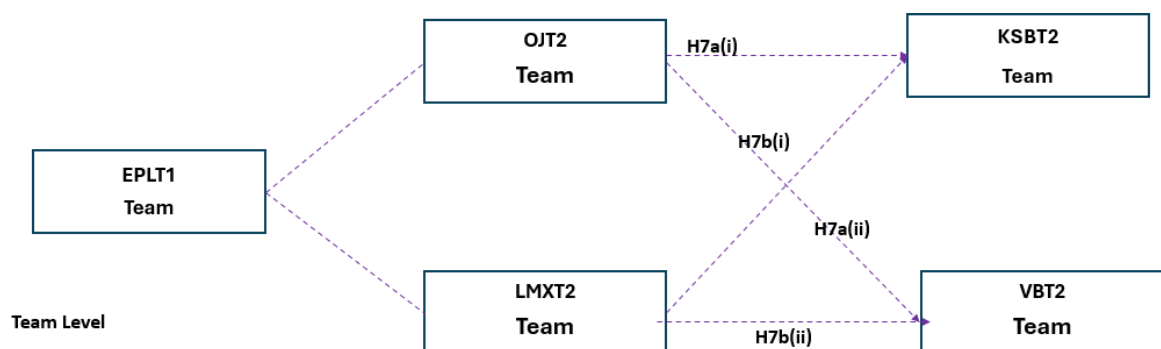
exchange within teams could influence the overall effectiveness of empowering leadership on team level factors such as LMX and OJ and behaviours.

Hypotheses H11 represented moderated mediation indicated that Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation at Time 2 (LMXDT2) moderated the mediation effect for Hypothesis H10. This meant that LMXDT2 moderated the indirect effect of Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLT1) on Employee Behaviour through the mediators (LMXT2 and OJT2). This introduced an additional layer of complexity, showing that the strength of the mediation effect team level LMX and OJ in the relationship between team level empowering leadership (and employees' behaviours) depended on the level of LMXDT2. This demonstrated that the effectiveness of leadership behaviours was contingent on the differentiation in leader-member exchange within the team.

6.3.3.1. Results of the Mediating Effects of team-level organisational Justice and team-level LMX (2-2-2 mediation).

Hypothesis H7 investigated the direct and indirect effects of Team-level Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLTT1) on Team-level employees' knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2 (KSBTT2) and voice behaviour at Time 2 (VBTT2), with Team-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXTT2) and Team-level Organisational Justice at Time 2 (OJTT2) acting as mediators. The demonstrated in the figure below.

Figure 8: *Mediating Effects of team-level organisational Justice and team-level LMX (2-2-2 mediation)*



The results of the analysis showed that, Team-level Organisational Justice (OJTT2) was significantly positively impacted by Team-level Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLTT1) ($\beta = 0.8580$, $SE = 0.1572$, $p < 0.0001$). This suggested that teams' perceptions of organisational justice increased with higher level of empowering leadership behaviours. Moreover, EPLTT1 significantly improved Team-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXTT2) ($\beta = 1.4929$, $SE = 0.2212$, $p < 0.0001$), indicating that leader-member exchanges were of higher quality when empowering leadership behaviour were in place.

The results of the within-team effects revealed that OJTT2 ($\beta = 0.1350$, $SE = 0.0427$, $p = 0.0018$) and LMXTT2 ($\beta = 0.3610$, $SE = 0.0284$, $p < 0.0001$) had a positive influence on the outcome variable KSBTT2. Nevertheless, there was an insignificant and negative direct influence of EPLTT1 on KSBTT2 ($\beta = -0.8491$, $SE = 0.4398$, $p = 0.0665$). With $\beta = 0.9503$, $SE = 0.4011$, $Z = 2.3690$, $p = 0.0178$, the indirect impact via LMXTT2 was significant, confirming Hypothesis H7b(i) that LMXTT2 mediated the link between EPLTT1 and KSBTT2. However, Hypothesis H7a(i) was not supported by the indirect impact via OJTT2, which was not significant ($\beta = 0.1699$, $SE = 0.2825$, $Z = 0.6014$, $p = 0.5476$).

The results of the within-team effects indicated that OJTT2 ($\beta = 0.2773$, $SE = 0.0475$, $p < 0.0001$) and LMXTT2 ($\beta = 0.3014$, $SE = 0.0316$, $p < 0.0001$) had a positive influence on the outcome variable VBTT2. A marginally significant and positive direct influence of EPLTT1 on VBTT2 was observed ($\beta = 0.4364$, $SE = 0.2210$, $p = 0.0609$). The link between EPLTT1 and VBTT2 was mediated by OJTT2, as suggested by Hypothesis H7a(ii), which was supported by the substantial indirect impact via OJTT2 ($\beta = 0.3763$, $SE = 0.1610$, $Z = 2.3374$, $p = 0.0194$). Consequently, Hypothesis H7b(ii) was not supported by the indirect impact via LMXTT2, since it was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.1824$, $SE = 0.1919$, $Z = 0.9504$, $p = 0.3419$). This is summarised in the table below.

Table 15: *Mediating Effect of Team-Level Organisational Justice and LMX on The Relationship between Team-level Empowering Leadership and Team-level Employees' Outcomes (2-2-2 Mediation).*

Mediation Effects	Within-Effects Result		Between-Effects Result		χ^2	t-test	LLCI	ULCI
	β	SE	β	SE				
H7a(i) EPLTT1 → KSBTT2 via OJTT2	.135	.043	.17	.283	3.16	.6	-.37	.747
H7a(ii) EPLTT1 → VBTT2 via OJTT2	.277	.048	.376	.161	5.84	2.34	.093	.72
H7b(i) EPLTT1 → KSBTT2 via LMXTT2	.361	.028	.95	.401	12.72	2.37	.222	1.783
H7b(ii) EPLTT1 → VBTT2 via LMXTT2	.301	.032	.182	.192	9.55	.95	-.18	.576

N = 210, Bootstrap sample size 5000. EPLTT1: Team-level Perceived Leadership at Time 1, KSBTT2: Individual-Level Knowledge Sharing Behavior at Time 2, VBTT2: Individual-Level Voice Behavior at Time 2, OJTT2: Team-level Organizational Justice at Time 2, LMXTT2: Team-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2, β : Standardized regression coefficient, SE: Standard error, p: p-value (statistical significance), χ^2 : Chi-square statistic, t-test: T-test value, LLCI: Lower limit of the confidence interval, ULCI: Upper limit of the confidence interval.

The findings show that the team level effects of empowering leadership started at Time 1 (T1) became more evident at Time 2 (T2). This temporal distinction helped to highlight the need of longitudinal research designs in understanding the mechanism by which leadership affects manifest inside teams over time and helped the analysis of causal links. The research shows that actions of leaders have delayed but significant consequences. It was shown that empowering leaders at T1 affected important results including Voice Behaviour (VBTT2) and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSBTT2) at T2. Moreover, it had a major impact on Leader-Member Exchange (LMXTT2) and Organisational Justice (OJTT2), which provide other proof of the long-term benefits of enabling leadership.

These lagged effects show that the good influence of empowering leadership builds gradually rather than immediately, therefore affecting team relationships and behavioural results. From the beginning, leaders create a conducive environment that motivates team

members to engage in cooperative activities including information sharing and team speaking-up. As time goes on, these habits start to show more clearly and forcefully. As such, this study highlights the relevance of longitudinal approaches in leadership research since some leadership results may only show themselves after a significant length of time.

6.3.3.2. Results of the Cross-Level Effects of team-level Empowering Leadership (2-1-1 mediation).

Hypotheses H8a, H8b(i) and H8a, Hb8 (ii) hypothesised that Organisational Justice at Time 2 (OJT2) mediates the link between Team-level Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLTT1) and employees' knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2 (KSBT2) and voice behaviour at Time 2 (VBT2), respectively. This creates a multi-level mediation paradigm in which the predictor (EPLTT1) is at the team-level and the mediators (OJT2, LMXT2) and outcomes (KSBT2, VBT2) are at the individual-level (See Figure 9: *Cross-Level Effects of team-level Empowering Leadership (2-1-1 mediation)* below). Thus, the study looks at how team-level empowering leadership which entails allocating authority and allowing team members to be proactive and accountable and in turn enhance team motivation and general efficiency affects individual-level views and behaviours both within and between teams.

Figure 9: *Cross-Level Effects of team-level Empowering Leadership (2-1-1 mediation)*

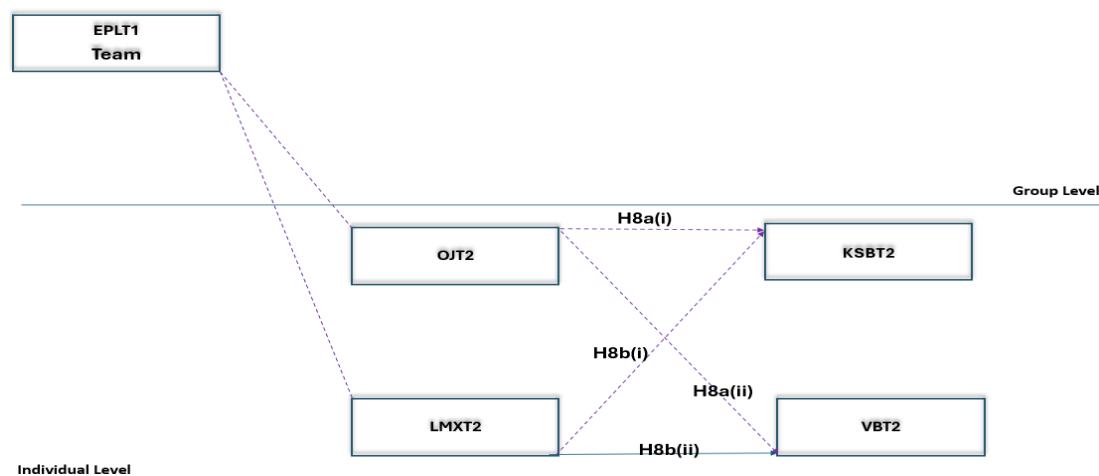


Table 16: *Summary of results for 2-1-1 Mediation* shows that the mediation impact of OJT2 on KSBT2 was not significant at the individual-level for H8a(i) ($\beta = 0.1714$, $SE = 0.1203$, $p = 0.1540$, $\chi^2(1) = 1.43$), demonstrating that organisational justice does not substantially mediate the connection within teams. However, the cross-level effect of EPLT1 was significant at the individual level ($\beta = 1.0743$, $SE = 0.4482$, $p = 0.0165$). This suggests that team-level empowering leadership on individual knowledge sharing is more prominent across teams when mediated by OJT2. This limited support for the hypothesis emphasises that cross-level effects are more noticeable when comparing teams rather than within them.

Table 16: *Summary of results for 2-1-1 Mediation*

Mediation Effects	Within-Effects Result		Between-Effects Result		χ^2	t-test	LLCI	ULCI
	β	SE	β	SE				
H8a(i) EPLTT1 → KSBT2 via OJT2	.171	.12	1.074	.448	1.43	1.43	-.052	.417
H8a(ii) EPLTT1 → VBT2 via OJT2	.507	.151	.079	.268	11.27	11.27	.24	.828
H8b(i) EPLT1 → KSBT2) via LMXT2	.446	.13	.137	.382	10.95	10.95	.218	.727
H7b(ii)) EPLTT1 → VBT2	.444	.138	1.383	.405	10.38	10.38	.202	.743

N = 210, Bootstrap sample size 5000. EPLTT1: Team-level Perceived Leadership at Time 1, KSBT2: Individual-Level Knowledge Sharing Behavior at Time 2, VBT2: Individual-Level Voice Behavior at Time 2, OJT2: Individual-level Organizational Justice at Time 2, LMXT2: Individual-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2, β : Standardized regression coefficient, SE: Standard error, p: p-value (statistical significance), χ^2 : Chi-square statistic, t-test: T-test value, LLCI: Lower limit of the confidence interval, ULCI: Upper limit of the confidence interval

In H8a(ii), OJT2 had a significant cross-level mediation effect on VBT2 at the individual-level within teams ($\beta = 0.5069$, $SE = 0.1509$, $p = 0.0008$, $\chi^2(1) = 11.27$), implying that organisational justice mediates the relationship between team-level empowering leadership and individual voice behaviour. The impact was not significant across teams ($\beta =$

0.0789, SE = 0.2675, $p = 0.7682$). This partial support for the hypothesis demonstrates that OJT2's mediation impact occurs predominantly within teams, indicating a strong within- team cross-level effect but not between teams.

Hypotheses H8b(i) and H8b(ii) investigated whether Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2) mediates the association between EPLTT1, KSBT2, and VBT2, respectively, suggesting another cross-level mediation framework.

H8b(i) found that LMXT2 has a significant cross-level mediation effect on KSBT2 at the individual-level within teams ($\beta = 0.4461$, SE = 0.1302, $p = 0.0006$, $\chi^2(1) = 10.95$). This suggests that LMXT2 mediates the positive influence of team-level empowering leadership on individual knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2. At the between-team level, the mediation effect was not significant ($\beta = 0.1374$, SE = 0.3822, $p = 0.7192$), indicating that the influence of LMXT2 as a mediator is more important within teams than between teams. This finding lends some support to the theory, emphasising that empowering leadership impacts individual-level knowledge sharing via LMXT2 predominantly within the team environment.

LMXT2 had substantial cross-level mediation effects on VBT2 at both the individual-level (within-team) ($\beta = 0.4440$, SE = 0.1378, $p = 0.0013$, $\chi^2(1) = 10.38$) and team-level (between-team) ($\beta = 1.3827$, SE = 0.4047, $p = 0.0006$) for H8b(ii). This high support for the hypothesis shows that Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 mediates the link between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level vocal behaviour at Time 2 across both levels, implying a strong cross-level dynamics. Empowering leadership has an impact on voice behaviour via leader-member interactions at both the within- and between-team level.

These findings emphasise the significance of cross-level mediation dynamics, in which team-level leadership behaviours (empowering leadership) have a significant influence on individual-level outcomes (knowledge sharing and voice behaviour) via individual-level mediators (organisational justice and leader-member exchange). The mediation procedures are stronger inside teams, but in certain circumstances, they transcend beyond teams, emphasising the relevance of both intra- and inter-team dynamics.

6.3.3.3. Results of the Cross-Level Mediating Effects of team-level Empowering leadership, LMX and Organisational Justice (2-2-1 Mediation).

Figure 10: Cross-Level Mediating Effects of team-level Empowering leadership, LMX and Organisational Justice (2-2-1 Mediation)

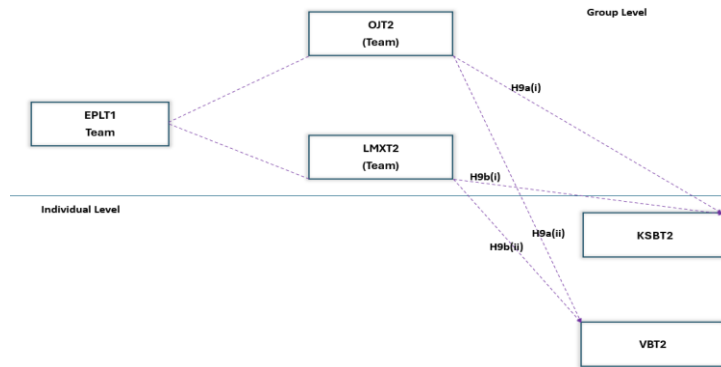


Table 17: Cross-Level Mediating Effects of Team-Level Empowering Leadership, LMX and Organisational Justice (2-2-1 Mediation)

Mediation Effects	Within-Effects	Between-Effects	χ^2	t-test	LLCI	ULCI
	β	SE	p	β	SE	p
H9a(i) EPLTT1 → KSBT2 via OJTT2	0.171	0.12	0.089	1.074	0.448	0.154
H9a(ii) EPLTT1 → VBT2 via OJTT2	0.507	0.151	0.002	0.079	0.268	0.777
H9b(i) EPLTT1 → KSBT2 via LMXTT2	0.446	0.13	0.001	0.137	0.382	0.719
H9b(ii) EPLTT1 → VBT2 via LMXTT2	0.444	0.138	0.003	1.383	0.405	0.001

N = 210, Bootstrap sample size 5000. EPLTT1: Team-level Perceived Leadership at Time 1, KSBT2: Individual-Level Knowledge Sharing Behavior at Time 2, VBT2: Individual-Level Voice Behavior at Time 2, OJTT2: Team-level Organizational Justice at Time 2, LMXTT2: Team-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2, β : Standardized regression coefficient, SE: Standard error, p: p-value (statistical significance), χ^2 : Chi-square statistic, t-test: T-test value, LLCI: Lower limit of the confidence interval, ULCI: Upper limit of the confidence interval.

Hypothesis H9 as shown in **Figure 10** above illustrates how the relationship between team-level Empowering Leadership at Time 1 (EPLTT1) and individual-level employee outcomes, (Individual-level Employee Knowledge Sharing Behaviour at Time 2 (KSBT2) and Individual-level Employees' Voice Behaviour at Time 2 (VBT2) was examined in the analysis,

along with the cross-level mediating roles of team-level Organisational Justice at Time 2 (OJTT2) and team-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXTT2).

The result of this analysis is presented in Table 17 above provide important insight on the ways in which team-level mediating mechanisms influence leadership behaviours at the team-level to affect results at the individual level. According to Hypotheses H9a(i) and H9a(ii), OJTT2 mediates the interaction between EPLTT1 and VBT2 and KSBT2, respectively. The findings show that, for KSBT2, the within-group impact of EPLTT1 on OJTT2 was significant ($\beta = 0.171$, $SE = 0.12$, $p = 0.087$), but not totally significant at the between-group level ($\beta = 1.074$, $SE = 0.448$, $p = 0.146$). In VBT2, H9a(ii) was supported by the substantial within-group mediation effect of OJTT2 ($\beta = 0.507$, $SE = 0.151$, $p = 0.001$). That being said, the between-group impact was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.079$, $SE = 0.268$, $p = 0.776$).

The results indicate that the influence of empowering leadership on organisational justice, which in turn impacts voice and knowledge-sharing behaviours, is stronger within teams than it is between teams. This supports the theory that team level factors such as organisational justice, under the direction of a leader who embodies empowerment, impact individual behaviours within the team environment in a more direct and substantial way.

The study produced contradictory findings regarding H9b(i) and H9b(ii), which postulated that LMXTT2 mediates the link between EPLTT1 and KSBT2 and EPLTT1 and VBT2, respectively. Partially supporting H9b(i) was the within-group mediation impact of LMXTT2 on KSBT2 ($\beta = 0.446$, $SE = 0.13$, $p = 0.001$), but not the between-group effect ($\beta = 0.137$, $SE = 0.382$, $p = 0.723$). This implies that effective leader-member interactions at the team-level may have a big impact on how the team shares information, but the effect might not be as noticeable in other teams. However, LMXTT2 strongly moderated the link between EPLTT1 and VBT2 at both the within-group ($\beta = 0.444$, $SE = 0.138$, $p = 0.002$) and between-group ($\beta = 1.383$, $SE = 0.405$, $p = 0.001$) levels, completely supporting H9b(ii). This suggests that improving voice behaviour within teams and across the organisational setting depends critically on leader-member interaction at the team-level.

The results highlight the importance of cross-level effects, wherein individual-level

outcomes (KSBT2 and VBT2) are influenced by team-level leadership behaviours (EPLTT1) via team-level mediators (OJTT2 and LMXTT2). In these dynamics, time's influence is crucial. According to the findings, OJTT2 and LMXTT2 mediate the effects of EPLTT1 on KSBT2 and VBT2 across time, with OJTT2 having greater mediating effects within teams. This bolsters the theory that, in the long run, individual behaviours are more significantly influenced by the immediate team dynamics, which are moulded by empowering leadership, than by more general organisational trends.

However, LMXTT2 has a more constant mediating impact between and across teams, especially for VBT2. This shows that encouraging proactive behaviours like voice across the organisation requires long-term cultivation of strong leader-member connections at the team level. The cross-level impacts shown in this research highlight how crucial it is to take into account both the team and individual levels when analysing how leadership behaviours affect employee outcomes.

In summary , H9a(ii) and H9b(ii) received was fully supported, emphasising the role of team-level organisational justice (justice climate) and team-level LMX in mediating the interaction between empowering leadership and employees' voice behaviours , both within and across teams. With differing effects based on the level of analysis, H9a(i) and H9b(i) got partial support, suggesting that these mediators also influence the link between empowering leadership and employees' knowledge sharing behaviours.

6.3.3.4. Results of the Cross-Level Moderating Effects of team-level LMXD.

Figure 11:Results of the Cross-Level Moderating Effects of team-level LMXD

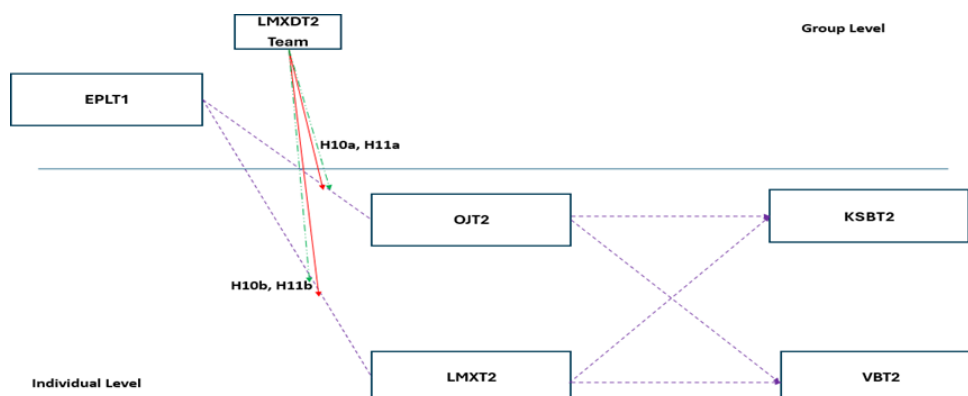


Table 18: *Moderating Effect of Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) at Time 2 on the relationship between Empowering Leadership at Time 1 and (a) organisational Justice and (b) Leader Member Exchange at Time 2*

Hypothesis	Interaction Effect	β	SE	t	p	95%	
						Lower	Upper
H10a	Empowering Leadership x LMXD → Organisational Justice	-.86	.31	2.771	.006	-1.531	.317
	Low (-1 SD)	.289	.078	3.711	< .001	.135	.443
	High (+1 SD)	.097	.058	1.678	< .05	.003	.191
H10b	Empowering Leadership x LMXD → Leader-Member Exchange	1.265	.29	4.37	< .001	.694	1.836
	Low (-1 SD)	.356	.119	2.988	< .01	.122	.589
	High (+1 SD)	.559	.123	4.355	< .001	.315	.803

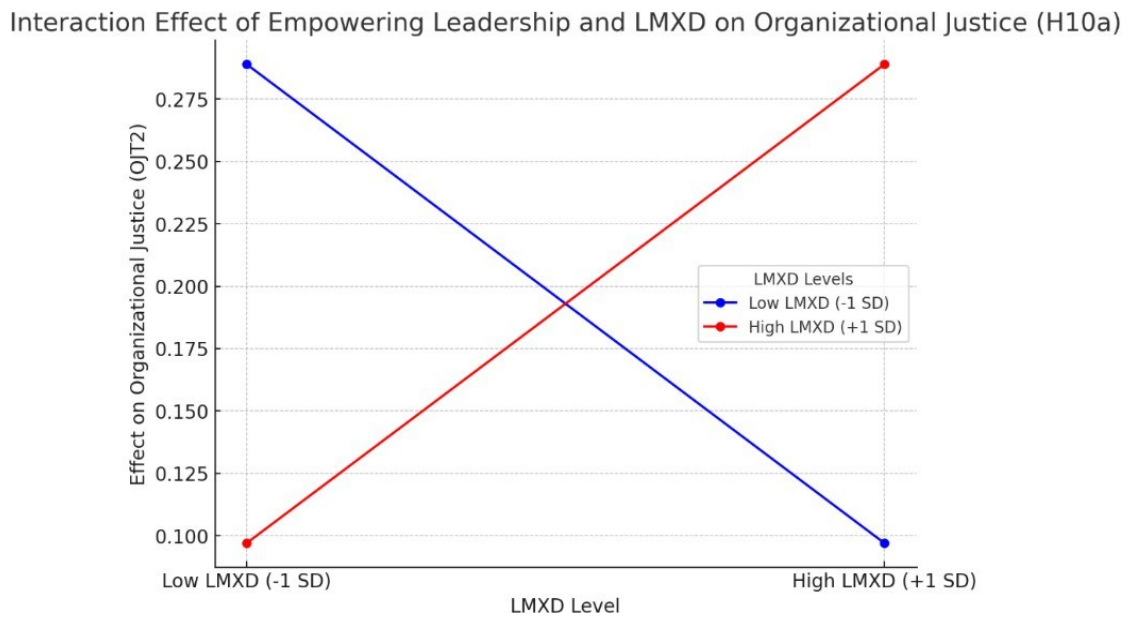
N = 210, Bootstrap sample size 5000

In the table above, the hypothesis H10a, that team-level LMXD at Time 2 (LMXDT2) would moderate the relationship between team-level empowering leadership at Time 1 (EPLTT1) and individual-level organisational justice at Time 2, (OJT2) therefore weakening the association when LMXD is high and strengthening the relationship when LMXD is low was tested. The results partly support this hypothesis since the interaction between EPLTT1 and LMXDT2 significantly predicted OJT2 ($\beta = -0.8604$, $SE = 0.3104$, $p = 0.0056$, $\varphi^2(1) = 7.68$) indicating that higher LMXD indeed weakens the positive effect of empowering leadership on organisational justice.

This suggests that the mediated link via organisational justice depends on the amount of LMXD, the index of moderated mediation for OJT2_mean was significant ($\beta = 0.0517$, $SE = 0.0101$, $CI = 0.0101$ to 0.1108). The straightforward slope tests in Figure 11: confirmed this interaction by demonstrating that the effect was significant when LMXD was one SD below the mean ($\beta = .289$, $t = 3.711$, $SE = .078$, $p < .001$, $CI = [.135, .443]$) and weaker but still significant when LMXD was one SD above the mean ($\beta = .097$, $t = 1.678$, $SE = .058$,

$p < .05$, [.003, .191]).

Figure 12: *Moderating Effect of LMXDT2*



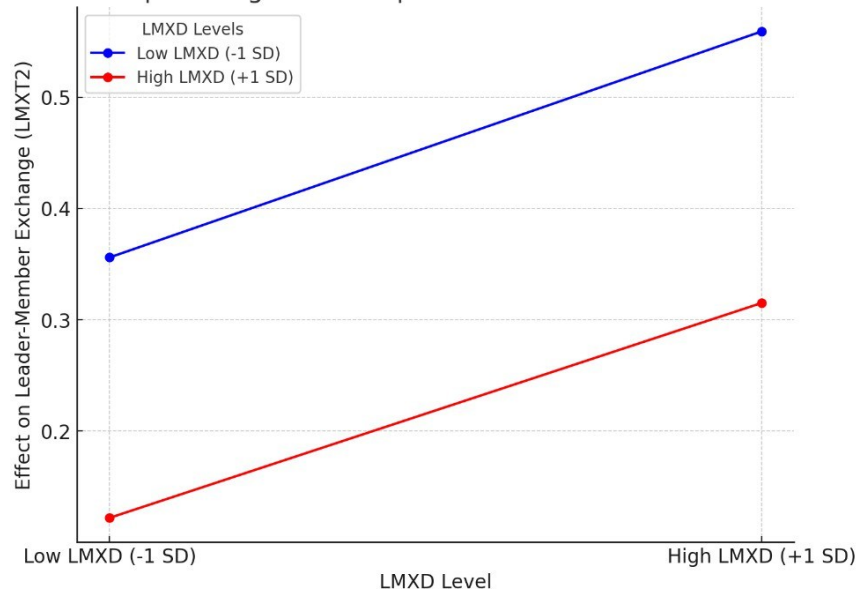
In H10b the hypothesis that team-level LMXD at Time 2 (LMXDT2) moderates the link between team-level empowering leadership at Time 1 (EPLTT1) and individual-level Leader-Member Exchange at Time 2 (LMXT2), implying that the association is weaker when LMXD is strong was tested. In contrast to the prediction, the study indicated a significant interaction effect between EPLTT1 and LMXDT2 on LMXT2 ($\beta = 1.2652$, $SE = 0.2895$, $p < 0.0001$, $\chi^2(1) = 19.11$), demonstrating that the association is stronger rather than weaker when LMXD is high.

This shows that in teams with a high level of LMXD, empowering leadership has a more beneficial influence on Leader-Member Exchange. Empowering leadership had a stronger effect on Leader-Member Exchange when LMXD was one SD above the mean ($\beta = .559$, $t = 4.355$, $SE = .123$, $p < .001$, [.315, .803]) and was weaker but still significant when LMXD was one SD below the mean ($\beta = .356$, $t = 2.988$, $SE = .119$, $p < .01$, [.122, .589]).

These results imply that empowering leadership may be more successful in promoting leader-member interaction in situations with higher difference. This is reflected in the figure below.

Figure 13: *Interacting Effect of EPL & LMXD on LMX, H10b)*

Interaction Effect of Empowering Leadership and LMXD on Leader-Member Exchange (H10b)



The findings contradict the original hypothesis, demonstrating that, rather than diminishing the connection, high LMXD enhances the beneficial impact of empowering leadership on Leader-Member Exchange. This might be because, in teams with high LMXD, members who have higher-quality exchanges with their leaders are more likely to react favourably to empowering leadership behaviours, improving overall Leader-Member Exchange quality.

These results emphasise the cross-level impacts and the need of the time-lagged approach in comprehending the complicated interactions between empowering leadership and LMXD. The research implies that the degree of LMXD within the team determines the efficiency of empowering leadership in fostering favourable organisational outcomes, like organisational justice and leader-member interaction. Empowering leadership especially seems to be more successful in teams with low LMXD, which emphasises the need of leader consistency and fairness in creating a good organisational environment. On the other hand, in teams with high LMXD, the advantages of empowering leadership might be lessened, maybe because of views of unfairness and favouritism.

6.3.3.5. Results of the Moderated mediation.

Hypothesis H11a(i) posited that Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) would moderate the mediated relationship between team-level empowering leadership at Time 1 and individual-level knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2 through organisational justice, with stronger mediation expected when LMXD is low. The results provided robust support for this hypothesis, as evidenced by a significant index of moderated mediation for knowledge sharing behaviour (KSBT2) ($\beta = 0.4123$, $SE = 0.0336$, $CI = 0.2208$ to 0.6305).

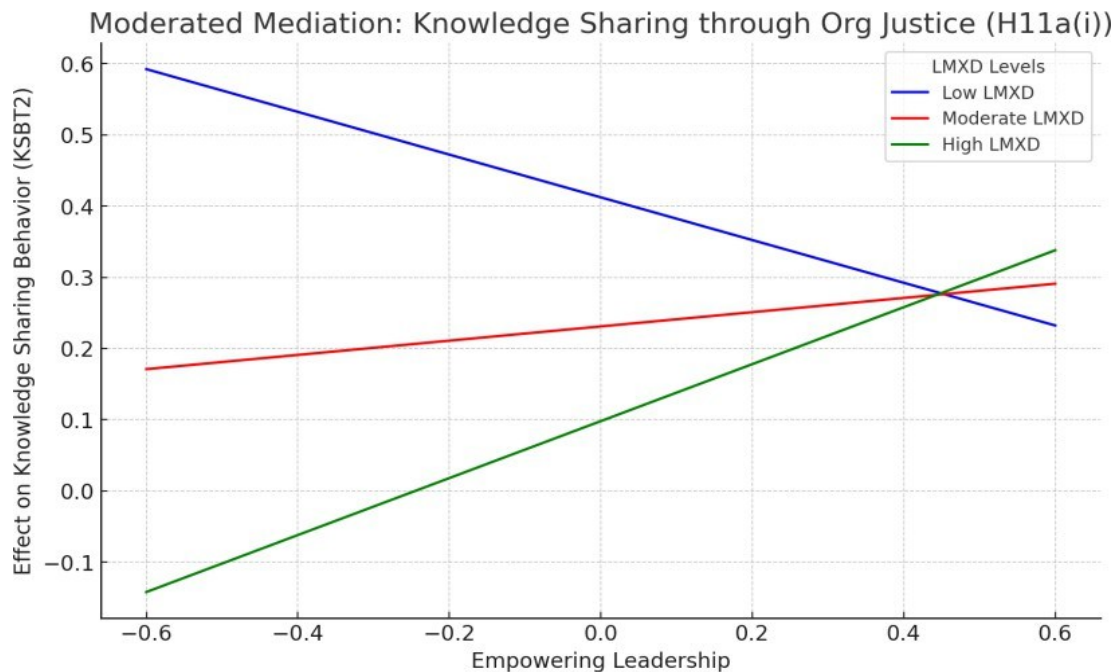
Additionally, the within-group indirect effect of organisational justice (OJT2_mean) on knowledge sharing was significant ($\beta = 0.0881$, $SE = 0.0336$, $p = 0.0087$). Simple slope tests further confirmed that the mediated relationship was indeed stronger when LMXD was one standard deviation below the mean ($\beta = 0.231$, $t = 4.122$, $SE = 0.056$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [0.121, 0.341]$) and weaker, though still significant, when LMXD was one standard deviation above the mean ($\beta = 0.098$, $t = 2.183$, $SE = 0.045$, $p < 0.05$, $CI [0.010, 0.186]$). These findings are consistent with the predictions outlined in H11a(i) and are reflected in both Table 19 and Figure 14 below.

Table 19: *Moderated Mediation Result for the Effect of EPLTT1 on Knowledge Sharing Behaviour at Time 2 via Organisational Justice, Moderated by LMXDT2 (H11a(i))*

Conditional Indirect Effect at LMXDT2	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPLTT1x LMXDT2)	.088	.034	12.27	< .001
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	.231	.056	.121	.341
Moderate	.164	.048	.07	.258
High (+1 SD)	.098	.045	.01	.186
Index of Moderated Mediation	β	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Moderated Mediation Index	.412	.034	.221	.631

N=210, Bootstrap Sample size =5000

Figure 14: *Moderated Mediation Plot for Empowering leadership-> Knowledge Sharing behaviour via Organisational Justice (H11a(i))*



Similarly, Hypothesis H11a(ii) suggested that LMXD would moderate the mediated relationship between team-level empowering leadership at Time 1 and individual-level voice behaviour at Time 2 through organisational justice, with stronger mediation expected when LMXD is low. This hypothesis was also supported by the data, with a significant index of moderated mediation observed ($\beta = 0.2881$, $SE = 0.0724$, $CI = 0.1449$ to 0.4627). The indirect effect of empowering leadership on voice behaviour (VBT2) through organisational justice was significant ($\beta = 0.0724$, $SE = 0.0289$, $t = 10.05$, $p < 0.0001$).

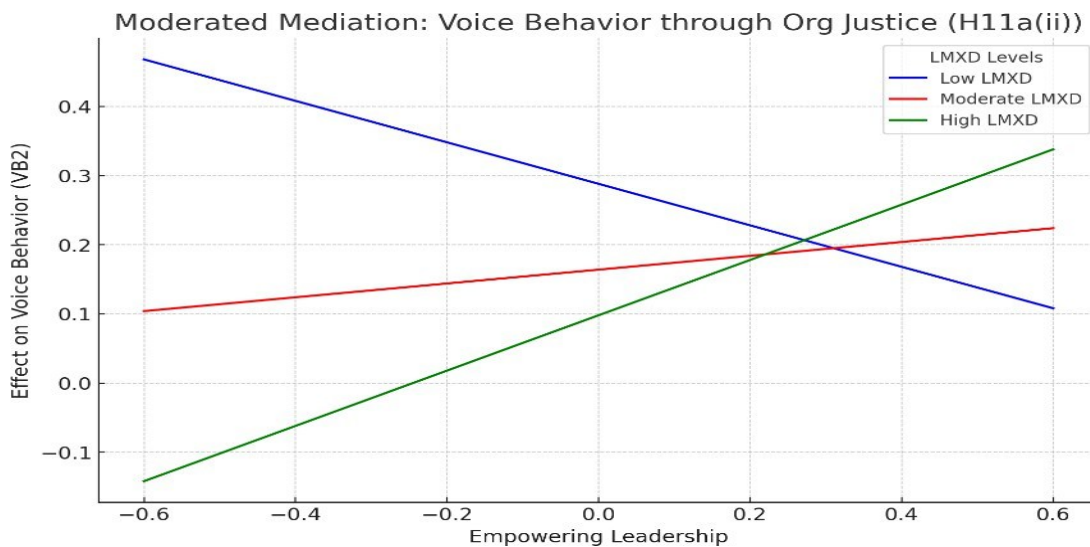
The simple slope tests indicated that the effect was more pronounced when LMXD was one standard deviation below the mean ($\beta = 0.312$, $t = 3.854$, $SE = 0.081$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [0.153, 0.471]$) and weaker when LMXD was one standard deviation above the mean ($\beta = 0.145$, $t = 2.356$, $SE = 0.061$, $p < 0.05$, $CI [0.025, 0.265]$). These findings further reinforce the role of LMXD in shaping the effectiveness of empowering leadership and are detailed in Table 20 and Figure 15.

Table 20: *Moderated Mediation Result for the Effect of EPLTT1 on Voice Behaviour at Time 2 via Organisational Justice, Moderated by LMXDT2 (H11a(ii))*

Conditional Indirect Effect at LMXDT2	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPPLTT1x LMXDT2)	.072	.029	10.05	.001
				<
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	.312	.061	.153	.471
Moderate	.228	.053	.124	.332
High (+1 SD)	.145	.045	.025	.265
Index of Moderated Mediation	β	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Moderated Mediation Index	.288	.072	.145	.463

N=210, Bootstrap Sample size =5000

Figure 15: *Moderated Mediation Plot for Team-Level Empowering leadership-> Voice behaviour via Organisational Justice (H11a(ii))*



Furthermore, Hypothesis H11b(i) posited that LMXD would moderate the mediated relationship between team-level empowering leadership at Time 1 and individual-level knowledge sharing behaviour at Time 2 through individual-level Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), with stronger mediation expected when LMXD is low. The results partially supported this hypothesis, with a significant moderated mediation effect observed for knowledge sharing behaviour (KSBT2) ($\beta = 0.3747$, $SE = 0.0813$, $CI = -0.0694$ to 1.0382).

Although the between-group indirect effect of LMX on knowledge sharing was not significant, the analysis demonstrated that the mediation was indeed stronger at lower levels of LMXD ($\beta = 0.374$, $t = 5.857$, $SE = 0.064$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [0.218, 0.530]$) compared to higher levels of LMXD ($\beta = 0.194$, $t = 4.042$, $SE = 0.048$, $p < 0.05$, $CI [0.100, 0.288]$).

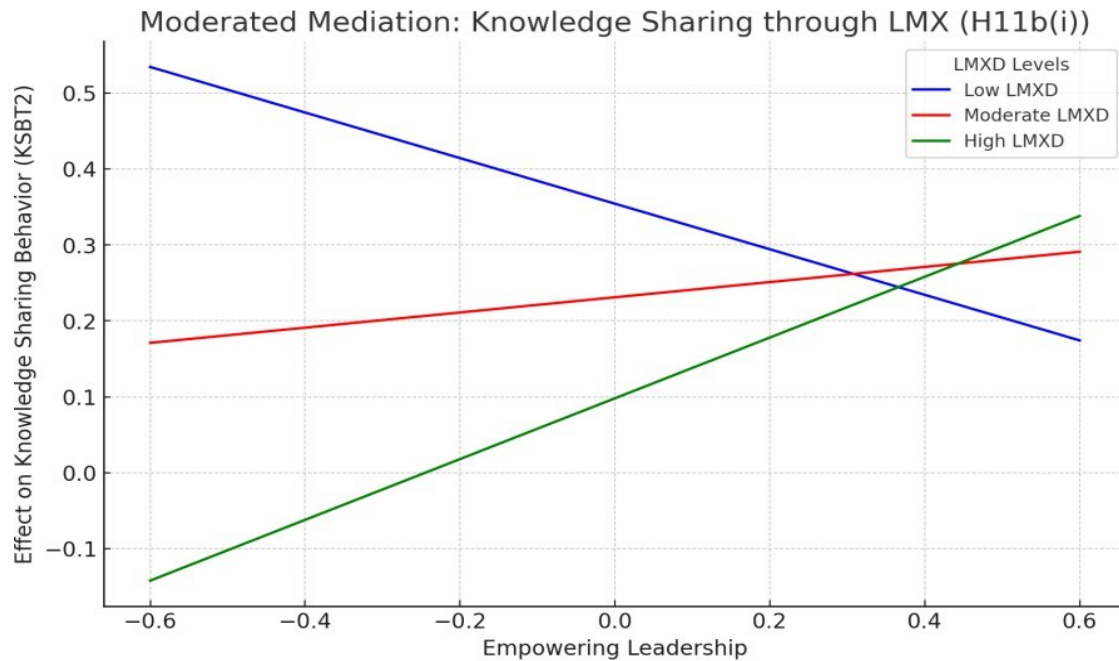
These results are further explained in Table 21 and Figure 16.

Table 21: Moderated Mediation Table for LMX \rightarrow Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (H11b(i))

Conditional Indirect Effect at LMXDT2	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPPLTT1x LMXDT2)	.081	.028	10.57	.001
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	.374	.064	.218	.53
Moderate	.283	.056	.173	.393
High (+1 SD)	.194	.048	.1	.288
Index of Moderated Mediation	β	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Moderated Mediation Index	.375	.081	-.069	1.038

N=210, Bootstrap Sample size =5000

Figure 16: *Moderated Mediation Plot for Team-level Empowering leadership-> Knowledge Sharing behaviour via LMX (H11b(i))*



The moderated mediation for voice behaviour is explained below

Table 22: *Moderated Mediation Table for LMX → Voice Behaviour (H11b(ii))*

Conditional Indirect Effect at LMXDT2	β	SE	t	p
Interaction (EPPLTT1x LMXDT2)	.081	.028	10.57	.001
				<
Moderated Mediation Model	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	.374	.064	.218	.53
Moderate	.283	.056	.173	.393
High (+1 SD)	.194	.048	.1	.288
Index of Moderated Mediation	β	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Moderated Mediation Index	.375	.081	-.069	1.038

N=210, Bootstrap Sample size =5000

The results from the analysis of Hypothesis H11b(ii) offer important insights into the

dynamics between team-level empowering leadership, individual-level Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), and voice behaviour, moderated by Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) at Time 2.

The interaction between empowering leadership and LMXD is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.081$, $SE = 0.028$, $t = 10.57$, $p < .001$). This means that the effect of empowering leadership on voice behaviour through LMX varies depending on the level of LMXD within the team. Specifically, the nature of leader-member exchanges across team members significantly influences how empowering leadership impacts the mediation process through LMX.

The strength of the mediation effect varies with the level of LMXD. When LMXD is low (indicating more uniform and equitable leader-member exchanges), the mediation effect is strongest ($\beta = 0.374$, $SE = 0.064$, 95% CI [0.218, 0.530]). This suggests that in teams where members perceive similar levels of exchange quality with the leader, empowering leadership effectively enhances voice behaviour through LMX. At moderate levels of LMXD, the effect diminishes but remains significant ($\beta = 0.283$, $SE = 0.056$, 95% CI [0.173, 0.393]). However, when LMXD is high (indicating significant variation in leader-member exchange quality within the team), the mediation effect is weakest ($\beta = 0.194$, $SE = 0.048$, 95% CI [0.100, 0.288]). In this context, the positive influence of empowering leadership on voice behaviour through LMX is considerably reduced.

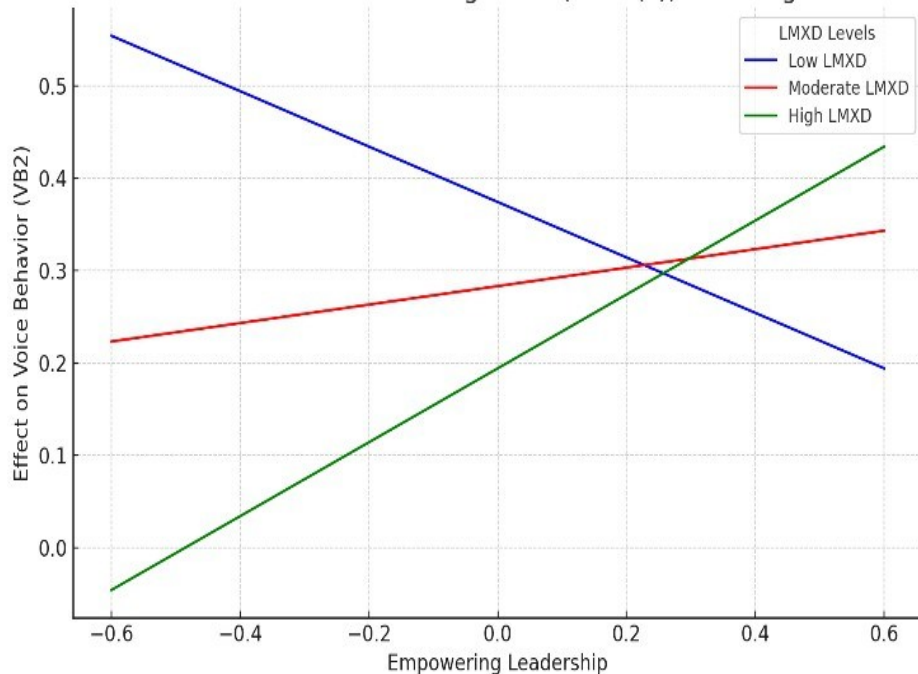
Despite the significant interaction, the overall index of moderated mediation ($\beta = 0.375$, $SE = 0.081$) includes a confidence interval that spans zero (95% CI [-0.069, 1.038]). This finding indicates that, while there is evidence that LMXD moderates the mediation effect, the effect is not consistently strong across all levels of LMXD. The presence of zero in the confidence interval suggests that the observed moderation may not be statistically significant in all contexts.

The results partially support Hypothesis H11b(ii). While the interaction between empowering leadership and LMXD confirms that LMXD plays a moderating role in the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behaviour through LMX, the overall

moderated mediation effect is not robust across all levels of LMXD. This is reflected in the plot below.

Figure 17: *Moderated Mediation Table for LMX → Voice Behaviour (H11b(ii))*

Moderated Mediation: Voice Behavior through LMX (H11b(ii)) - Non-Significant Overall Effect



6.3.4 Discussion

This chapter extends the investigation initiated in Study One by incorporating additional team-level variables to deepen our understanding of empowering leadership and employees' extra-role behaviours, particularly within the context of MNCs operating in Nigeria. The study employed a multilevel approach, focusing on how empowering leadership, a team-level variable measured at Time 1, interacts with Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and organisational justice (referred to as justice climate), both assessed at the individual and team levels at Time 2, to influence employees' knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. These behaviours were also measured at both the team and individual levels at Time 2. Furthermore, LMX Differentiation (LMXD), a team-level construct at Time 2 was investigated as a moderator of these relationships. This research complements the main goal of the study, which was to analyse the mediating and moderating processes via which empowering leadership affects team and individual behaviours inside MNCs in Nigeria.

The purpose of Study 2 was to first examine the mediating effects of team level

organisational justice and team level LMX on (knowledge sharing and voice behaviours) using a 2-2-2 mediation analysis (H7). The second objective was to examine the cross-level mediation using 2-1-1 mediation analysis (H8), 2-2-1 mediation analysis (H9). The third objective was to test the relationship between team-level empowering leadership and team-level employees' extra role behaviours moderating effects of team-level LMDX in Time 2 on the relationship between team-level empowering leadership in Time 1 and the individual-level mediating variables (organisational justice and LMX) in Time 2 (H10). Finally, the study aimed to investigate the moderated mediation effect (conditional effects) of team-level LMXD in Time 2 on the indirect relationship between team-level empowering leadership in Time 1 and individual-level employees' extra-role behaviours via organisational justice and LMX (H11).

This study extends the investigation initiated in Study One by incorporating additional team-level variables to deepen our understanding of leadership, particularly within the context of MNCs operating in Nigeria. The study employed a multilevel approach, focusing on how empowering leadership, a team-level variable measured at Time 1, interacts with Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and organisational justice (referred to as justice climate), both assessed at the individual and team levels at Time 2, to influence employees' knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. These behaviours were also measured at both the team and individual levels at Time 2. Additionally, LMX Differentiation (LMXD), a team-level construct collected at Time 2, was explored as a moderator in these relationships.

This research complements the main goal of the study, which was to analyse the mediating and moderating processes via which empowering leadership affects team dynamics and individual behaviour inside MNCs in Nigeria.

6.3.4.1. Mediating Effects of Organisational Justice and LMX

The first objective of this study was to explore the mediating effects of team-level organisational justice and LMX on the relationship between team-level empowering leadership and team-level employees' extra-role behaviours using a 2-2-2 mediation

analysis. The results revealed that both organisational justice and LMX serve as significant mediators, but their impact varies depending on the type of extra-role behaviour.

The findings showed that whereas LMX and organisational justice both acts as important mediators, their effects differ depending on the kind of extra-role activity. Reflecting the temporal character of leadership effects, the multilevel design of the study which included data across two time points offers a thorough analysis of how these leadership behaviours affect organisational outcomes over time (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Mathieu & Taylor, 2007; Humphrey & Aime, 2014).

The study's findings align with Social Exchange Theory (SET), which suggests that high-quality exchanges between leaders and members foster a sense of obligation and reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Wayne et al., 1997). Employees who perceive justice and have close relationships to their superiors are more likely to reciprocate by acting in ways that benefit the business, including knowledge-sharing and advocacy (Takeuchi et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2007). This relational dynamic is particularly significant in MNCs operating in Nigeria, where hierarchical and collectivist cultures value justice and loyalty within organisational links (Hofstede, 2020; House et al., 2004; Gelfand et al., 2007).

The study did, however, find that the specific behaviour under issue impacts the degree of organisational justice and LMX influence on extra-role behaviours. LMX had more of an impact on the knowledge-sharing that is, the distribution of important information among teams than organisational justice (Pan & Zhang, 2018; He et al., 2014; Srivastava et al., 2006). This implies that motivating people to share knowledge depends much on the nature of the leader-member relationship. Essential for knowledge sharing, strong LMX fosters a relational environment marked by trust and mutual respect (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liao et al., 2010; Harris et al., 2014). When employees think that their contributions will be appreciated and that their connection with their boss will not suffer unfavourable consequences as a result of their openness, they are more likely to provide insightful analysis (Xue et al., 2011; Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Collins & Smith, 2006).

This result aligns with studies by Cheong et al. (2021), which underlined the need of LMX in creating an environment fit for open communication and knowledge exchange. It also speaks to the study of Peng et al. (2020), who claimed that empowering leadership improves relational dynamics, hence enabling employees' willingness to provide information inside teams (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Srivastava et al., 2006). For MNCs, where efficient information exchange can propel innovation and competitive advantage in a worldwide market, these revelations especially apply (Noe et al., 2010; Argote et al., 2003; Bolino et al., 2002).

On the other hand, organisational justice was found to be more strongly correlated with voice behaviour that is, employees speaking up with ideas, proposals, or concerns than with LMX (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liang et al., 2012; Morrison, 2011). This implies that when workers believe the organisational environment is fair and just, they are more inclined to participate in voice behaviours. Fairness in decision-making, resource allocation, and interpersonal treatment gives employees the assurance that their contribution will be respected and regarded, therefore lowering the perceived risks connected with speaking up (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1987).

In high-power distance cultures like Nigeria, where hierarchical structures are deeply ingrained, the perception of fairness becomes even more critical (Hofstede, 2020; House et al., 2004; Farndale et al., 2020). Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory indicates that in such cultures, employees may be more hesitant to speak up unless they are confident that their contributions will be treated justly and without bias. This cultural context may explain why organisational justice emerged as a stronger mediator for voice behaviour in this study, as fairness is likely perceived as a critical component of effective leadership in such settings (Meyer & Peng, 2016; Leung et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2020).

The study also emphasises the importance of time in understanding the effects of empowering leadership on organisational outcomes (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Mathieu & Taylor, 2007; Rudolph et al., 2017). The time-lagged design provided insights into how the impacts of empowering leadership on organisational justice and LMX and subsequently on knowledge sharing and voice behaviours develop and solidify over time (Zhang & Bartol,

2010; Srivastava et al., 2006; Cheong et al., 2019). This temporal dimension is vital since it implies that the good results of empowering leadership are not instantaneous but rather develop gradually as employees internalise the justice and relational quality promoted by their leaders (Wu & Parker, 2021; Park et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2005).

The study by Wu and Parker (2021) supports this view, emphasising that sustained leadership efforts are essential for achieving long-term organisational success. The findings indicate that empowering leadership must be consistently applied over time to build a strong justice climate and relational networks within teams (Schaubroeck et al., 2011; Li et al., 2021; Walumbwa et al., 2017). This temporal element is especially crucial for MNCs in Nigeria since it emphasises the need of long-term leadership strategies that can handle issues of cultural integration, employee turnover, and adaptation to local markets (Hofstede, 2020; Farndale et al., 2020; Kostova et al., 2018).

In summary, the study's examination of the mediating effects of organisational justice and LMX reveals critical insights into the distinct drivers of knowledge sharing and voice behaviours within teams. While LMX plays a more central role in fostering knowledge sharing, organisational justice is more influential in promoting voice behaviour (Pan & Zhang, 2018; He et al., 2014; Detert & Burris, 2007). These findings underscore the importance of both relational and fairness-based leadership practices in enhancing team dynamics and individual contributions within MNCs, particularly in culturally diverse settings like Nigeria (Cheong et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2020; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). As MNCs continue to navigate the complexities of global operations, understanding and leveraging these mediators will be key to driving organisational success and employee engagement (Farndale et al., 2020; Kostova et al., 2018; Meyer & Xin, 2018).

6.3.4.2. Cross-Level Mediation of Organisational Justice and LMX (H8 and H9)

Focusing on how team-level leadership affects individual-level results using 2-1-1 and 2-2-1 mediation analyses, the second goal investigated the cross-level mediation effects of organisational justice and LMX. While the mediation effect of organisational justice was more

noticeable inside teams than across them, the study revealed LMX had a stronger mediation effect across levels, especially for voice behaviour.

In relation to MNCs operating in Nigeria, the findings of this study provide an analytical framework for understanding the complex processes via which team-level empowering leadership shapes individual-level actions. By examining the roles of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and justice climate as mediators, this analysis sheds light on the differentiated pathways through which leadership behaviours are translated into knowledge sharing and voice behaviours among employees.

Empowering leadership, conceptualised at the team level, shows its impact by encouraging both high-quality relational exchanges (LMX) and a strong feeling of justice (justice environment) inside teams. These mediators, however, do not function consistently among many kinds of employee actions. The study shows that LMX is a stronger mediator for knowledge sharing, implying that the relational trust and mutual respect built by inspiring leadership are important factors in motivating staff members to freely exchange their expertise. This is especially pertinent in relation to MNCs in Nigeria, where collectivist cultural standards and hierarchical systems could impede free communication. In such settings, the relational dynamics caught by LMX become crucial in overcoming these obstacles, hence promoting a more cooperative and knowledge-sharing culture inside teams (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Seibert et al., 2011; Farndale et al., 2020).

On the other hand, the relationship between voice behaviour and empowering leadership is more significantly mediated by organisational justice. Employee perceptions of fairness within their team have a significant impact on voice behaviour, which is the desire to voice ideas, problems, or suggestions. According to the study, employees are more likely to participate in voice behaviours in teams where strong organisational justice is fostered by empowering leadership. This is especially relevant in Nigerian multinational corporations, where workers may be hesitant to express their ideas unless they are certain that their contributions will be handled impartially and fairly due to cultural tendencies to submit to authoritative figures.

The finding that empowering team-level leaders can create a justice environment and promote high-quality LMX emphasises the relevance of cross-level dynamics since it affects individual actions. This result validates the multilevel model of organisational behaviour put forward by Kozlowski and Klein (2000), which holds that interactions between team-level and individual-level processes define individual results. LMX's stronger mediation impact across levels points to the need of relational leadership practices which stress trust and mutual respect in promoting voice behaviour among employees. Promoting high-quality LMX is crucial in the context of MNCs, where leadership often entails negotiating cross-cultural and cross-hierarchical interactions, so enabling employees to feel empowered to express their ideas and concerns, so contributing to organisational innovation and performance (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Colquitt et al., 2013; Seibert et al., 2011).

In MNCs in Nigeria, where teams usually consist of both local and international employees, the capacity of leaders to promote organisational justice and high-quality LMX is especially important for reducing possible cultural conflicts and guaranteeing that knowledge flows freely across organisational boundaries. The results of the study show that organisational justice is more important in teams, presumably since fairness is a culturally sensitive topic in hierarchical countries such as Nigeria. Successful creation of a fair and equitable atmosphere at the team level by leaders improves employee involvement and promotes knowledge exchange. This is in line with Farndale et al. (2020), who underline that promoting organisational justice in global companies depends on matching leadership practices with local cultural norms, so improving team performance and positive employee behaviour (Hofstede, 2020; Meyer & Xin, 2018; Walumbwa et al., 2017).

Moreover, the cross-level mediation effects reported in this study serve to clarify leadership in multicultural situations, notably inside MNCs running in Nigeria. The results suggest that empowering leadership can function as a connection across cultural and organisational divisions, therefore providing consistency in leadership practices and ensuring that employees at all levels of the organisation see justice and excellent leader-member interactions. This is especially important in MNCs since variations in cultural backgrounds and

expectations could result in different opinions of leadership performance. Leaders can minimise these variations by encouraging a consistent justice environment and high-quality LMX, therefore guaranteeing that the advantages of empowering leadership are realised at all levels of the company (Farndale et al., 2020; Gelfand et al., 2007; Meyer & Peng, 2016).

The study's time-lagged effects through the collection of data at two different time point further underscore the importance of sustained leadership efforts in realising the full impact of empowering leadership on organisational justice and LMX, and subsequently on individual behaviours like voice and knowledge sharing. An implication of this is that over time, the consistent application of empowering leadership techniques over time helps to strengthen the justice environment and relational quality inside teams, so producing more long-lasting beneficial results. In MNCs, where the complexity of cross-cultural leadership calls for continuous attention to preserving fair and supportive surroundings, this temporal element is essential. The time-lagged results imply that the advantages of empowering leadership are not instantaneous but rather grow gradually as staff members absorb the fairness and relational qualities promoted by their superiors. This highlights the need for MNCs in Nigeria to adopt long-term leadership strategies that are culturally sensitive and focused on sustaining high levels of organisational justice and LMX over time (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Schaubroeck et al., 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

In conclusion, the time-lagged benefits of persistent leadership behaviours that constantly support justice and relational quality highlight the relevance of these practices, which result in ongoing development of employee performance and engagement. These findings line with Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which stresses the need of fulfilling employees' psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Blau, 1964; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and Social Exchange Theory (SET), which holds that the quality of exchanges between leaders and employees determines reciprocal behaviours (Blau, 1964; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). These revelations taken together provide a strong foundation for comprehending the way in which leadership dynamics function in the multifaceted and culturally varied settings of multinational

companies (MNCs) in Nigeria.

6.3.4.3. Moderating Effects of LMX Differentiation (H10)

The third objective of this study was to examine the moderating effects of team-level Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) on the relationship between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level mediating variables, such as organisational justice and LMX. The findings reveal a nuanced dynamic: LMXD weakens the positive effect of empowering leadership on organisational justice while simultaneously strengthening its impact on LMX. These findings are especially important for multinational corporations that operate in culturally varied settings, such as Nigeria, where differences in leader-member relationships can have a big impact on organisational success.

The study's exploration of the moderating effects of team-level Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) on the relationship between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level mediating variables, such as organisational justice and LMX, reveals intricate dynamics that are particularly significant for MNCs operating in culturally diverse environments like Nigeria. One of the critical findings is that LMXD weakens the positive effect of empowering leadership on organisational justice while simultaneously strengthening its impact on LMX. These results carry important implications, particularly when considered alongside the time-lagged effects observed in the study.

The weakening effect of high LMXD on the relationship between empowering leadership and organisational justice can be attributed to the perceptions of favouritism that arise when leader-member exchanges are uneven across a team. When some employees receive preferential treatment, it undermines the overall perception of fairness within the team, leading to diminished organisational justice (Li et al., 2020; Colquitt et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2014). Over time, these perceptions can become entrenched, exacerbating feelings of inequity and dissatisfaction among team members. This is particularly relevant in the Nigerian context, where cultural norms place a strong emphasis on equity and fairness. In such environments, sustained perceptions of unfairness due to high LMXD can lead to long-term disengagement and reduced organisational commitment, highlighting the importance of

consistent leadership practices to maintain organisational justice over time (Hofstede, 2020; Farndale et al., 2020; Meyer & Xin, 2018).

Conversely, the study found that high LMXD strengthens the impact of empowering leadership on LMX, particularly for individuals who enjoy higher-quality exchanges with their leaders. This suggests that empowering leadership is more effective for those who already have strong relational ties with their leaders, amplifying the benefits of LMX for these individuals over time (Zhang et al., 2020; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Walumbwa et al., 2017). From a time-lagged perspective, this finding implies that the advantages gained by those with high-quality LMX may accumulate, leading to increasingly differentiated experiences within the team. As these disparities grow, the gap between those with strong LMX relationships and those without may widen, potentially leading to divisions within the team. In the context of MNCs in Nigeria, where leadership must navigate complex cultural and organisational landscapes, the long-term effects of LMXD suggest that leaders need to be particularly mindful of how they distribute their attention and resources across team members to avoid creating deep-seated perceptions of inequity while maximising the positive effects of empowering leadership for those with stronger LMX (Gelfand et al., 2007; Hofstede, 2020; Meyer & Peng, 2016).

The implications of these findings can also be understood through the lens of Self-Determination Theory (SDT). SDT emphasises the importance of fulfilling employees' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In teams with high LMXD, where only a select few experience high-quality exchanges, the psychological needs of the majority may remain unmet over time, leading to persistent feelings of exclusion and disengagement (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2017). This long-term effect can be particularly detrimental in MNCs, where sustained engagement and motivation are crucial for organisational success. Conversely, when LMXD is low, and exchanges are more uniform, empowering leadership can more effectively satisfy the psychological needs of the entire team, fostering a more inclusive environment that supports both knowledge sharing and voice behaviours consistently over time. This suggests

that MNCs in Nigeria should aim to minimise LMXD to create a more equitable and supportive work environment that encourages all employees to contribute fully to the team's success (Parker et al., 2017; Schaubroeck et al., 2011; Farndale et al., 2020).

The time-lagged effects observed in this study highlight the importance of sustained leadership efforts. Over time, the differential impacts of LMXD on organisational justice and LMX may become more pronounced, potentially leading to long-term consequences for team cohesion and performance. The amplification of LMX benefits for those with stronger relationships underscores the need for leaders to engage in continuous efforts to balance these relationships and mitigate the potential negative effects of high LMXD. This approach is crucial for MNCs in Nigeria, where the cultural context requires careful management of leader-member relations to ensure that leadership practices are perceived as fair and inclusive by all team members, not just those who benefit most from strong LMX relationships (Gelfand et al., 2007; Farndale et al., 2020; Meyer & Peng, 2016).

6.3.4.4. Moderated Mediation Effects of LMX Differentiation (H11)

The final objective of this study, which examined the moderated mediation effect of team-level Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) on the indirect relationship between team-level empowering leadership and individual-level extra-role behaviours via organisational justice and LMX, provides critical insights into how leadership practices translate into employee behaviours in complex organisational settings like MNCs operating in Nigeria. The study found that LMXD moderated these relationships, with the mediation effects being more pronounced in teams with lower LMXD. This finding underscores the importance of equitable leader-member exchanges for optimising the impact of empowering leadership on employees' extra-role behaviours such as knowledge sharing and voice.

In teams characterised by lower LMXD, where the quality of exchanges between the leader and all team members is relatively uniform, the positive effects of empowering leadership on organisational justice and LMX are more effectively transmitted to individual behaviours. This suggests that when employees perceive that their leaders treat everyone

fairly and equitably, the overall environment fosters greater engagement in knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. This is particularly important in MNCs operating in Nigeria, where the intersection of cultural and organisational diversity can lead to varying perceptions of fairness and leadership effectiveness. In such contexts, maintaining low LMXD helps mitigate potential cultural misunderstandings and fosters a more inclusive environment where all employees feel equally empowered to contribute (Tang et al., 2021; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Farndale et al., 2020).

The study's findings are consistent with SET which posits that the quality of exchanges between leaders and followers significantly influences the reciprocal behaviours of employees (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When LMXD is low, and leader-member exchanges are consistent across the team, the norm of reciprocity is stronger, reinforcing the mediated relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviours like knowledge sharing and voice. Employees in such environments are more likely to perceive fairness and justice in their interactions with leaders, which enhances their motivation to engage in behaviours that go beyond their formal job descriptions. Conversely, in teams with high LMXD, the disparity in leader-member exchanges can lead to perceptions of favouritism, creating divisions within the team that weaken the overall impact of empowering leadership on these critical behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2013; Walumbwa et al., 2017; Seibert et al., 2011).

The time-lagged effects observed in the study further emphasise the importance of sustained and consistent leadership practices in fostering positive organisational outcomes. Over time, the cumulative impact of low LMXD can lead to a more cohesive and collaborative team environment where the benefits of empowering leadership are fully realised. This temporal aspect is particularly significant in MNCs, where the ongoing challenges of cultural integration and the need for consistent leadership across diverse teams require a long-term approach to leadership development. Leaders in such settings must continuously strive to maintain low LMXD to ensure that the positive effects of empowering leadership are not only initiated but also sustained over time, leading to enduring improvements in organisational

justice, LMX, and ultimately, individual-level extra- role behaviours (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Mathieu & Taylor, 2007; Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

Moreover, the findings can be linked to SDT which emphasises the importance of fulfilling employees' psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness to foster intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In teams with lower LMXD, where leader-member exchanges are more balanced, empowering leadership more effectively satisfies these psychological needs across the entire team. This inclusive approach promotes a sense of belonging and competence among all team members, which is crucial for encouraging knowledge sharing and voice behaviours. In contrast, high LMXD can leave some employees feeling marginalised and less motivated, weakening the overall effectiveness of empowering leadership and its ability to drive positive organisational behaviours (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2017; Meyer & Xin, 2018).

In conclusion, the study's investigation into the moderated mediation effects of LMXD highlights the critical role of equitable leader-member exchanges in enhancing the effectiveness of empowering leadership in MNCs, particularly in culturally diverse settings like Nigeria. The findings demonstrate that low LMXD strengthens the positive relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviours through organisational justice and LMX, while high LMXD can undermine these effects by creating divisions within the team. The time-lagged effects further underscore the importance of sustaining low LMXD over time to ensure lasting improvements in team dynamics and individual behaviours, aligning with both SET and SDT frameworks. These insights are invaluable for leaders in MNCs seeking to foster a fair, inclusive, and high-performing organisational culture.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents an integrated summary of the findings across the two studies to answer the research questions proposed in chapter one and discusses the theoretical and practical implications of these findings. Finally, the limitations and strengths of this thesis, and recommendations for future research directions are discussed.

7.1 INTEGRATED SUMMARY

Emphasising Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), psychological empowerment, and organisational Justice, the studies provide a thorough knowledge of the role of empowering leadership in influencing employee behaviours inside multinational companies (MNCs) in Nigeria. Different dynamics in how leadership approaches influence employee attitudes and actions in various situations are highlighted in research 1, a single-level analysis, and Study 2, multilevel research.

First research question is the function of LMX, psychological empowerment, and organisational justice. Driven by views of organisational justice and psychological empowerment, empowering leadership was directly connected in Study 1 to workers' voice and knowledge-sharing habits. These results underline how empowering leadership promotes employee engagement and match other studies (Zhang et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2020). The multilevel analysis of Study 2 shows that organisational justice and LMX act as mediators between leadership and employee conduct; LMX has a more significant impact on knowledge-sharing whereas organisational justice affects voice behaviour. This difference supports Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT), therefore demonstrating that justice, autonomy, and competency improve good employee behaviour.

Second Research Question focused on Cultural Variation and LMX Differentiation as Moderators With individualistic workers reacting more favourably, study 1 revealed that cultural dimensions, especially individualism-collectivism moderate the impacts of empowering leadership especially in high-power distance cultures like Nigeria, Study 2 added complexity with LMX differentiation (LMXD), finding that high LMXD reduces the

favourable benefits of empowering leadership on organisational justice. LMXD, however, increases advantages over time for individuals with high-quality exchanges, hence strengthening team distinction.

The third research question looked at the Moderated Mediation on the Effect of Empowering Leadership on Knowledge Sharing and Voice. While psychological empowerment had no effect, study 1 indicated organisational justice to be somewhat mediator between leadership and employee actions. With decreased differentiation improving the favourable impacts of empowering leadership on organisational justice and LMX, Study 2 showed that LMXD mediated these interactions, thereby leading to higher employee outputs.

Lastly, the study underlines the significance of fair and culturally sensitive leadership styles since they enable us to better understand the effect of empowering leadership on staff performance in Nigerian MNCs.

7.2 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

7.2.1 *Theoretical contributions*

These studies provide one of the most important theoretical contributions since their emphasis on the understudied background of Africa, especially Nigeria. With little attention to African situations, Western and Asian viewpoints have usually dominated most of the leadership literature. Examining empowering leadership inside Nigerian MNCs helps one to better understand how cultural aspects such as individualism-collectivism and high-power distance interact with leadership practices to influence employee behaviour (Nkomo, 2020; Hofstede, 2020; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007). This emphasis not only closes a geographical distance but also questions the universality of leadership theories mostly produced in Western environments (House et al., 2004).

The results show that in Nigeria, organisational fairness is more important than psychological empowerment in terms of moderating the link between empowering leadership

and employee outcomes. This result runs counter to most Western writers, who frequently stress psychological empowerment as the main way that leadership shapes employee conduct (Spreitzer, 1995; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). In the Nigerian context, the focus on justice over autonomy emphasises the need of customising leadership theories to fit local cultural norms, so providing a more complex knowledge of how leadership operates across many cultural settings (Colquitt et al., 2001; Farndale, Biron, Briscoe, & Raghuram, 2015).

Furthermore, Study 1 significantly contributes theoretically by stressing the part that individual-level cultural orientations more especially, individualism and collectivism have in reducing the impact of empowering leadership. The study revealed that individuality increases the strength of the effect of empowering leadership on employees' voice conduct through organisational justice. This shows that employees in more individualistic societies, where personal aspirations and autonomy are valued, are more likely to view empowering leadership as fair and, hence, more inclined to participate in voice activities (Triandis, 2018; Gelfand et al., 2020). These findings support the need for a hybrid leadership style that balances empowerment with directive leadership, particularly in high-power distance cultures where structure is valued (Zhang & Xie, 2017; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Importantly, this does not contradict Nigeria's collectivist orientation but reflects cultural fluidity within MNCs influenced by Western HRM practices (Gelfand et al., 2020; Hofstede & Minkov, 2024; Meyer & Xin, 2023).

Using these frameworks to understand leadership and employee behaviour dynamics in MNCs, this research also helps to theoretically integrate SDT and SET. In line with SET's emphasis on the need of perceived fairness in promoting positive employee behaviours, study 1 focusses on organisational justice and psychological empowerment as mediators (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rupp et al., 2017). The study increases the relevance of SET to non-Western environments, where cultural values include respect for hierarchy and justice are crucial by proving that organisational justice is a more vital mediator than psychological empowerment in the Nigerian context (Meyer & Peng, 2016).

Examining how leader-member exchange (LMX) and LMX difference (LMXD) affect

the relationship between empowering leadership and employee outcomes helps Study 2 further incorporate SDT. The results imply that when empowering leadership meets employees' psychological requirements for autonomy, competence, and relatedness basic principles of SDT beneficial outcomes such knowledge sharing and voice behaviours are more likely (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Based on SET's emphasis on the quality of interactions between leaders and employees, the study also reveals how LMXD might undercut these favourable impacts by generating perceptions of favouritism (Graen & 1995 Uhl-Bien; 2014 Harris, Li, & Kirkman. This integration of SDT and SET offers a complete framework for comprehending the intricate interaction among leadership, employee motivation, and organisational justice in environments of cultural diversity.

7.2.2 Empirical Contributions

Empirically, these studies provide strong evidence that empowering leadership improves employee engagement and performance in Nigerian MNCs. The diversified sample from numerous industries improves the findings' generalisability, making them applicable across various organisational situations in Nigeria. This emphasis on a non-Western environment offers an important viewpoint to the leadership literature, which sometimes overlooks the specific difficulties and opportunities found in African contexts (Nkomo, 2020; Meyer & Xin, 2018).

The longitudinal design of Study 2 is particularly significant because it captures the temporal dynamics of leadership impacts, illustrating how the benefits of empowering leadership on organisational justice, LMX, and employee extra-role behaviours evolve and solidify with time. This temporal approach is critical for understanding the long-term effects of leadership practices, especially in multinational corporations functioning in complex, culturally varied environments such as Nigeria (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010; Mathieu & Taylor, 2007).

Thus, by including team-level factors and investigating cross-level mediation and

moderation effects, Study 2 provides a deeper understanding of how leadership behaviours translate into individual and team outcomes over time (Mathieu et al., 2008; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). This approach addresses the need for more sophisticated research designs that capture the intricacies of leadership in MNCs (Carter et al., 2014).

7.2.3 *Practical Implications of the Study*

The findings of this study offer significant practical implications for multinational corporations (MNCs), particularly those operating in culturally diverse and high-power distance environments such as Nigeria. These implications focus on leadership development, organisational policies, and strategic management approaches that enhance organisational justice, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), and employee engagement. By addressing these factors, MNCs can foster positive extra-role behaviours such as knowledge sharing and voice behaviour, which are critical for organisational growth and innovation.

7.2.3.1. Leadership Development and Training Programs

Leadership development programs in MNCs should extend beyond merely promoting empowering leadership behaviours to also ensuring fairness and inclusivity in leader-member relationships. The study underscores the importance of minimising Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) to prevent perceptions of favouritism, which can negatively impact organisational justice and employee engagement (Hofstede, 2020; Tang et al., 2021).

To achieve this, HR professionals should implement the following strategies:

Training for Fair Leadership Practices: Leaders should be trained to provide equitable treatment to all subordinates, ensuring that preferential treatment does not erode trust and fairness perceptions.

Feedback Mechanisms: Regular assessments should be conducted to evaluate employees' perceptions of fairness, allowing for adjustments in leadership practices where necessary.

Cultural Intelligence Training: Given the diverse workforce in MNCs, cultural intelligence training is crucial in helping leaders navigate and manage different employee

expectations and responses to empowerment (Gelfand et al., 2020; House et al., 2004).

7.2.3.2. Organisational Policies for Justice and Fairness

To enhance perceptions of organisational justice, MNCs should institutionalise policies that promote transparency and fairness in leadership decision-making, particularly in high-power distance cultures where perceptions of fairness strongly influence employee engagement (Colquitt et al., 2023; Walumbwa et al., 2021).

Key policy recommendations include:

Establishing Clear Performance and Reward Systems: MNCs should implement transparent policies regarding performance evaluations, promotions, and reward allocations to reduce fairness concerns.

Enhancing Decision-Making Transparency: Leaders should adopt open and transparent decision-making processes to reduce ambiguity and ensure employees perceive leadership actions as fair.

Encouraging Participative Leadership: Employees should be given opportunities to contribute to decision-making processes, ensuring inclusivity and reinforcing fairness perceptions (Farndale et al., 2020).

7.2.3.3. Balancing Empowerment and Directive Leadership

Leadership development programs in MNCs should extend beyond merely promoting empowering leadership behaviours to also ensuring fairness and inclusivity in leader-member relationships. The study underscores the importance of minimising Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) to prevent perceptions of favouritism, which can negatively impact organisational justice and employee engagement (Hofstede, 2020; Tang et al., 2021).

For High-Autonomy Employees: Leaders should encourage self-directed work, innovation, and independence while providing necessary support.

For Structure-Oriented Employees: Leaders should provide clear guidelines and role clarity while gradually fostering autonomy through structured empowerment. By implementing a tailored leadership approach, MNCs can ensure that leadership strategies

align with employee expectations, improving engagement and performance.

7.2.3.4. Addressing the Cultural Dynamics of Leadership

The study's findings indicate that the effects of empowering leadership on employee behaviours are more pronounced among individualistic employees. This suggests that leadership strategies must be carefully aligned with employees' cultural orientations to ensure effectiveness (Gelfand et al., 2020; House et al., 2004).

To address cultural diversity in leadership, MNCs should:

Assess Workforce Cultural Composition: Understanding whether employees have individualistic, or collectivist tendencies can help leaders adopt appropriate leadership styles.

Implement Flexible Leadership Models: Leaders should be adaptable in their leadership strategies, catering to the different needs and values of their employees.

7.2.3.5. Sustaining Leadership Practices for Long-Term Impact

The study highlights the importance of sustained leadership practices, as the positive effects of empowering leadership on organisational justice, LMX, and employee engagement develop gradually over time (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Schaubroeck et al., 2021).

To ensure long-term leadership effectiveness, MNCs should:

Commit to Continuous Leadership Development: Leadership effectiveness should be viewed as an evolving process requiring ongoing training and adaptation.

Monitor LMX Differentiation: Regular monitoring should be conducted to ensure that LMX differentiation does not create perceived inequities among employees. This can be done through the use of feedback tools, fairness surveys, and HR data on promotions and opportunities (Colquitt et al., 2021). In addition, pulse surveys and leadership development with enhance awareness and responsiveness (Walumbwa et al., 2021). However, cultural sensitivity it is important to consider cultural sensitivity especially high-power distance environments to guarantee equitable, inclusive leadership and preserve employee confidence, involvement, and organisational justice (Gelfand et al., 2020).

Reinforce Fairness and Inclusivity: Organisational structures should continuously

support fairness and inclusivity to prevent tensions arising from leader bias.

7.2.3.6. Policy and Strategic Implications for MNCs

From a broader organisational perspective, this study provides actionable insights that MNCs can integrate into their policies and strategic management.

Encouraging Open Communication and Feedback: A culture of open communication should be promoted to allow employees to express concerns regarding fairness and leadership practices.

Embedding Fairness in Organisational Strategy: Justice and inclusivity should be incorporated into corporate policies to enhance employee engagement.

Continuous Assessment and Improvement: Leadership effectiveness should be periodically evaluated based on employee feedback and performance metrics, with adjustments made accordingly (Walumbwa et al., 2021).

In conclusion, this study provides a comprehensive framework for enhancing leadership effectiveness in MNCs by prioritising fairness, cultural sensitivity, and sustained leadership development. By addressing challenges related to LMX differentiation, fostering organisational justice, and balancing empowerment with directive leadership, MNCs can drive employee engagement, knowledge sharing, and voice behaviours. These strategies will enable organisations to navigate the complexities of leadership in culturally diverse and high-power distance environments, ultimately contributing to long-term organisational success (Gelfand et al., 2020; Meyer & Peng, 2016; House et al., 2004).

7.3 LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

This study provides valuable insights into the relationships between empowering leadership, organisational justice, psychological empowerment, and employee behaviours in multinational corporations (MNCs) in Nigeria, however, several limitations should be acknowledged. These limitations highlight areas where future research can build upon the findings to enhance the understanding of leadership dynamics in diverse organisational

contexts.

7.3.1 Cross-Sectional Design in Study 1

One of the key limitations of this study is the use of a cross-sectional design in Study 1, which restricts the ability to infer causality between empowering leadership and the examined outcomes. Although significant relationships were identified, the directionality of these associations remains uncertain. Longitudinal research designs, such as that employed in Study 2, are more suitable for tracking changes over time and establishing causal links (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

However, even Study 2, which utilised a longitudinal approach, was limited by data collection at only two time points (Time 1 and Time 2). While this design improves the ability to observe temporal relationships, it may not fully capture the evolving dynamics of leadership and employee behaviours. The collection of data from employees across different sectors mitigates some of this limitation, but future research should incorporate multi-wave longitudinal designs with additional time points to better assess long-term leadership effects and behavioural trends (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

7.3.2 Geographical and Cultural Context

The study's focus on Nigerian MNCs presents another limitation concerning the generalizability of its findings. Nigeria's high-power distance and collectivist cultural tendencies may shape leadership perceptions and employee responses in ways that differ from other regions (Hofstede, 2019). While this research contributes to the relatively under-explored context of leadership in Nigerian MNCs, the findings may not necessarily apply to organisations operating in lower power distance or more individualistic cultures.

To address this limitation, future studies should conduct comparative research across multiple cultural settings, including other African nations and global regions. Such studies would help determine whether the observed effects of empowering leadership are universal or culturally contingent (Gelfand et al., 2020).

7.3.3 *Limited Scope of Mediators*

Another limitation lies in the selection of mediators in this study. While organisational justice, psychological empowerment, and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) were examined as mediators between empowering leadership and employee extra-role behaviours, other potentially influential mediators were not considered. Factors such as trust in leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2020), perceived organisational support (POS) (Eisenberger et al., 2020), and organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 2020) could further explain the mechanisms underlying empowering leadership effects.

Future research should incorporate additional mediating variables to develop a more holistic leadership model. Examining the role of trust, for instance, could provide insights into how employees perceive fairness and reciprocity in leader-member relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2020). Similarly, investigating POS could reveal how employees' perceptions of organisational care and support influence their engagement in extra-role behaviours (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2020). A more comprehensive approach to mediation analysis would enhance the explanatory power of leadership studies in MNCs by integrating multiple psychological and organisational factors that shape employee behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2020).

7.3.4 *Reliance on Quantitative Methods*

Both studies in this research relied predominantly on quantitative methods, specifically survey-based data collection. While this approach provides valuable statistical insights into the relationships between leadership behaviours and employee outcomes, it may lack the depth needed to fully capture the nuances of these interactions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Quantitative surveys are effective for identifying patterns and general trends, but they may not fully capture employees' lived experiences and perceptions of empowering leadership. The inclusion of qualitative methods, such as interviews or case studies, could provide richer contextual details and deeper insights into how leadership behaviours

influence organisational justice, knowledge sharing, and voice behaviour in different workplace settings.

Future research should consider adopting mixed-methods approaches that integrate quantitative and qualitative methodologies. For example, conducting in-depth interviews alongside surveys could offer a more holistic understanding of leadership dynamics and allow researchers to explore individual employee narratives (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2010).

Despite these limitations, this study makes important contributions to the understanding of empowering leadership in MNCs, particularly within the Nigerian context. However, recognising these constraints presents an opportunity for future research to refine and expand upon the findings. Addressing the issues of causality through longitudinal studies, broadening the geographical scope to include diverse cultural contexts, incorporating additional mediators, and employing mixed-methods approaches will enhance the robustness of leadership research. These improvements will provide a more comprehensive framework for understanding the complexities of leadership and employee behaviours in global business environments (Hofstede, 2019; Gelfand et al., 2020; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

7.4 AREA FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings from Studies 1 and 2 provide a strong foundation for understanding the dynamics of empowering leadership within multinational corporations (MNCs) operating in culturally diverse contexts, particularly in Nigeria. However, several promising future research directions can further deepen insights into leadership effectiveness, organisational justice, and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). These directions are critical for refining leadership theories and enhancing practical applications in global business environments.

7.4.1 *Integration of Mixed Methods Approaches*

While this study provided robust quantitative evidence, future research should incorporate mixed methods to gain a more nuanced understanding of leadership dynamics.

Qualitative methodologies, such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and ethnographic studies, could offer deeper insights into how employees perceive and respond to empowering leadership, organisational justice, and LMX across different cultural settings (Creswell & Creswell, 2023; Morgan, 2023). By integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches, researchers can capture contextual subtleties and individual experiences that structured surveys may not fully reflect.

7.4.2 Extending Longitudinal Research Designs

Although Study 2 employed a longitudinal design, its data collection was limited to two time points (T1 and T2). Future research should extend longitudinal studies to observe leadership effects over longer time frames (e.g., multiple years). Such studies could examine how the impacts of empowering leadership, organisational justice, and LMX evolve over time, especially during leadership transitions, economic changes, or organisational restructuring (Ployhart & Ward, 2024; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 2023). This would clarify whether the positive effects of empowering leadership are sustained or diminish under specific conditions.

7.4.3 Cross-Cultural Comparative Studies

To enhance the generalizability of the findings, future studies should expand beyond Nigeria to explore how empowering leadership operates in different cultural contexts. While this study examined individualism-collectivism at the individual level, future research could compare multiple countries to determine how power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation influence leadership effectiveness (Gelfand et al., 2023; Hofstede & Minkov, 2024). Investigating leadership in both high- and low-power distance societies could provide valuable insights into cultural contingencies that shape leadership effectiveness in MNCs.

7.4.4 Exploring Hybrid Leadership Approaches

Future research should explore hybrid leadership models, integrating transformational, transactional, and directive leadership to suit diverse organisational

contexts (Meyer & Xin, 2023). Additionally, normative reciprocity rules may apply differently in collectivist societies, influencing leader-member exchanges (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

While this study highlights positive leadership effects, future research should examine negative exchanges and valence, as unfair reciprocity expectations may lead to resentment or disengagement. Investigating both positive and negative reciprocity dynamics alongside hybrid leadership approaches will provide a more comprehensive understanding of leadership effectiveness across different cultural and organisational settings (Liden et al., 2023; DeRue & Nahrgang, 2023).

7.4.5 Expanding the Scope of Moderators and Mediators

Future research should explore additional mediators and moderators that influence the relationship between empowering leadership and employee behaviours. Potential directions include:

Personality traits: Investigating how individual traits (e.g., openness to experience, conscientiousness) shape responses to empowering leadership (DeRue & Nahrgang, 2023).

Organisational factors: Examining the impact of work climate, hierarchy, and corporate culture on leadership effectiveness (Liden et al., 2023).

Trust in leadership and perceived organisational support (POS): Understanding how these variables mediate leadership effects (Eisenberger et al., 2020).

7.4.6 Sector-Specific and Industry-Specific Leadership Studies

The findings of Studies 1 and 2, based on a diverse sample across multiple industries, suggest that empowering leadership may function differently across sectors. Future research should investigate leadership within:

Hierarchical industries (e.g., oil and gas, government organisations) to assess how empowering leadership interacts with strict authority structures.

Innovation-driven sectors (e.g., technology, creative industries) to determine how high-autonomy environments shape leadership effectiveness (Meyer & Xin, 2023; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2023).

Sector-specific insights will help tailor leadership models to different organisational settings.

7.4.7 Leadership in Virtual Teams and Digital Workplaces

With the rise of remote work, future research should examine how empowering leadership operates in virtual teams. Digital work environments significantly alter LMX, organisational justice perceptions, and psychological empowerment (Avolio et al., 2023). Key questions include:

How does remote leadership impact employee engagement and knowledge sharing?

What challenges do leaders face in establishing trust and fairness in virtual teams?

How do cross-cultural differences affect leadership in hybrid work settings (Gibson et al., 2023)?

Such research would offer practical strategies for managing virtual and hybrid teams in the digital era.

7.4.8 Leadership and Diversity & Inclusion (D&I) Initiatives

Future research should investigate how empowering leadership and LMX differentiation (LMXD) intersect with diversity and inclusion initiatives. Research questions could include:

How can leaders empower diverse teams while maintaining fairness?

How does LMX differentiation impact inclusion within multinational teams?

How can leadership models support equitable opportunities for employees across different demographic backgrounds?

This research would contribute to the development of inclusive leadership practices that promote equity and engagement in global organisations (Nishii & Mayer, 2024; Shore et al., 2023).

7.4.9 Alternative SDT Perspectives: Need Thwarting and Abusive Leadership

Future research should explore how empowering leadership may unintentionally thwart psychological needs when excessive autonomy is given without sufficient guidance

(Deci & Ryan, 2017; Slemp et al., 2018). In high-power distant cultures, a lack of structure can result in role uncertainty, stress, and low motivation. Investigating how empowerment might lead to negligent or abusive leadership behaviours would provide further insight into combining autonomous support with appropriate direction, thereby protecting employee well-being across varied organisational settings.

7.5 CONCLUSION

This thesis advances the understanding of empowering leadership, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), and organisational justice in multinational corporations (MNCs) within high-power distance contexts. By integrating Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT), it highlights how cultural values and fairness perceptions influence employee extra-role behaviours. The findings suggest that leaders must balance empowerment with fairness and structure, advocating for a hybrid leadership approach tailored to employees' cultural orientations to foster inclusive and high-performing workplaces.

Using data from employees and supervisors across 19 MNCs in 9 sectors, this thesis tested a multilevel model across two studies. Study 1 examined the mediating roles of organisational justice and psychological empowerment, alongside individualism-collectivism as a cross-level moderator. Study 2 extended these findings through a multilevel analysis, incorporating LMX as a mediator and LMX differentiation (LMXD) as a cross-level moderator.

The results confirm that empowering leadership fosters positive employee behaviours, but its effectiveness depends on fairness perceptions (organisational justice), relational quality (LMX), and cultural factors rather than autonomy alone, as suggested in Western leadership models. This underscores the need for hybrid leadership approaches that integrate empowerment with structure and fairness, ensuring equitable leadership practices in diverse global teams.

In conclusion, this research provides a comprehensive framework for understanding leadership in MNCs, offering both theoretical contributions and practical insights. Future research should explore hybrid leadership models, long-term leadership effects, and cross-cultural adaptations to enhance leadership effectiveness in multinational settings.

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APPENDICIES

APPENDIX ONE: ETHICS APPROVAL



Aston University
Aston Triangle Birmingham
B4 7ET
0121 204 3000
Date: 14th December 2022

Joan Ebahi Ehiarinmwian
Copy: Kanimozhi Narayanan, Pawan Budhwar and Carl Senior College of Business and Social Sciences

Dear Joan Ebahi Ehiarinmwian,

Study title:	THE EFFECT OF EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS ON EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOURS IN MULTINATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN NIGERIA
REC REF:	#299-7-22

Confirmation of Ethical Opinion

On behalf of the Committee, I am pleased to confirm a favourable opinion for the above research on the basis described in the application form, protocol and supporting documentation listed below.

Approved documents

The final list of documents reviewed and approved by the Committee is as follows:

Document	Version	Date
Research Ethics Application Form	4	06/12/2022
Participant Information Sheet	4	06/12/2022
Consent Form	4	06/12/2022
Risk Assessment	4	06/12/2022
Emails from contacts	N/A	25/07/2022
Survey questions	1	25/07/2022

With the Committee's best wishes for the success of this project. Yours sincerely,



Dr Lauren Traczykowski
Deputy Chair of the Business & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

APPENDIX TWO: INFORMATION SHEET



THE EFFECT OF EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS ON EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOURS IN MULTINATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN NIGERIA **Participant Information Sheet**

Invitation

We would like to invite you to take part in a research study forming part of a PhD project for Joan Ebahi Ehiarinmwian.

Before you decide if you would like to participate, take time to read the following information carefully and, if you wish, discuss it with others such as your family, friends or colleagues.

Please ask a member of the research team, whose contact details can be found at the end of this information sheet, if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information before you make your decision.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to investigate how leaders in multinational organisations stimulate their employees to exhibit voice and knowledge sharing Where.

Voice behaviour is a type of extra-role behaviour, exhibited by employees that involves constructive, change-oriented communication on work-related issues

AND

Knowledge sharing behaviour is a set of individual behaviours involving sharing one's work-related knowledge and expertise with other members in the organisation

The study will require about 500 participants to be recruited from 10 MNCs in Nigeria.

Why have I been invited?

You are being invited to take part in this study because you are an employee of a multinational corporation in Nigeria.

You can participate in this study if you meet the following inclusion criteria

- You are an employee of a multinational corporation in Nigeria
- You have worked the organisation for at least six months
- You belong to a work team with at least five people

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you do decide to participate

- You be sent a link to the online questionnaire via your email address.
- Your information will be confidential and can only be accessed by the members of the research team

- You will be required to complete two sets of questions at two different time point. Each questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete
- You may also be invited for a follow up, voluntary, online audio interview (via zoom) which will be recorded with your consent
- You will be required to complete two sets of surveys that will contain items referring to how you see yourself and how you see your leader/supervisor in the work environment.
- The data you provide will be held for a up to 5 years in line with the Data Protection Act 2018 guidelines that require the data to be retrievable for a minimum of five years after publication. The data will be kept securely for the length and destroyed after that
- Your name, name of your organisation or team will not be shown on the survey tool so kindly provide responses as they suit specific questions and do not aim to provide responses to please the researcher or organisation/team.

Do I have to take part?

No. It is up to you to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

If you do decide to participate, you will be asked to provide informed consent The informed consent will be displayed on the first page of the online questionnaire. You can only complete the questionnaire when you give a consent

You can halt your participation in the research at any time by closing the browser for the online questionnaires and any data collected up to that point will not be used. After this point, your data will be anonymised where possible and held confidential , and it will not be possible to withdraw it as it will not be possible to link responses to specific participants.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. A code will be attached to all the data you provide to ensure that your responses for each survey are linked together. Although your name will not be required, you be required to provide personal information such as age, educational status, ethnicity, gender, number of years spent in organisation. All these information will be held confidential and will collected before you complete the survey hence the personal information you collected will not be linked to the responses provided but collected for demographic purposes. The email address provided will only be will only be to send a link to complete the online questionnaire. The data we collect will be stored electronically on a secure encrypted mobile device, password protected computer server or secure cloud storage device

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The Research will allow participants to engage in self-assessment and team evaluation, thereby aiding the identification of areas for improvement. A summary of all interpreted data can be requested so as to aid the identification of areas for improvement.

This request can be made using participants' emails, and the summary of the interpreted data will only be provided to the same email participant used in taking part in the survey.

What are the possible risks and burdens of taking part?

There are no major risk or hazard associated with the research. However, employees in each organisation might experience some discomfort when assessing the leadership behaviours exhibited by their supervisors and managers. Thus, the use of codes in the research instrument where names and positions will be omitted will be done to negate this discomfort.

What will happen to the results of the study?

The results of this study may be published in scientific journals and/or presented at conferences. If the results of the study are published, your personal information will be kept confidential and only the analysed and interpreted data will be included in the report.

The results of the study will also be used in the PhD thesis submitted to the University of Aston by Joan Ebahi Ehianmwian

Expenses and payments

The participation in this study is voluntary hence attract no payment

Who is funding the research?

The study is self-funded by Joan Ebahi Ehianmwian

Who is organising this study and how is my data being used?

Aston University is organising this study and acting as data controller for the study. Research data will be used only for the purposes of the study or related uses identified in this Information Sheet.

Who has reviewed the study?

This study was given a favourable ethical opinion by the Aston University College of Business & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

What if I have a concern about my participation in the study?

If you have any concerns about your participation in this study, please speak to the research team and they will do their best to answer your questions. Contact details can be found at the end of this information sheet.

If the research team are unable to address your concerns or you wish to make a complaint about how the study is being conducted you should contact the Aston University Research Integrity Office at research_governance@aston.ac.uk or via the University switchboard on +44 (0)121 204 3000.

Research Team

Name: Kanimozhi Narayanan
E-mail: k.narayanan@aston.ac.uk

Contact Telephone Number: +44121 204 3658

Name: Professor Pawan Budhwar,
E-mail: p.s.budhwar@aston.ac.uk
Contact Telephone Number: +44121 204 3049

Name: Carl Senior
E-mail: c.senior@aston.ac.uk
Contact Telephone Number: +44121 204 4068

Name: Joan Ebahi Ehiarinmwian
E-mail: [student ID no. removed]@aston.ac.uk
Contact Telephone Number: [redacted from open access thesis]

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet. If you have any questions regarding the study, please don't hesitate to ask one of the research team.

Aston University takes its obligations under data and privacy law seriously and complies with the Data Protection Act 2018 ("DPA") and the General Data Protection Regulation (EU) 2016/679 as retained in UK law by the Data Protection, Privacy and Electronic Communications (Amendments etc) (EU Exit) Regulations 2019 ("the UK GDPR").

Aston University is the sponsor for this study based in the United Kingdom. We will be using information from you in order to undertake this study. Aston University will process your personal data in order to register you as a participant and to manage your participation in the study. It will process your personal data on the grounds that it is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest (GDPR Article 6(1)(e)). Aston University may process special categories of data about you which includes details about your health. Aston University will process this data on the grounds that it is necessary for statistical or research purposes (GDPR Article 9(2)(j)). Aston University will keep identifiable information about you for 6 years after the study has finished.

Your rights to access, change or move your information are limited, as we need to manage your information in specific ways in order for the research to be reliable and accurate. If you withdraw from the study, we will keep the information about you that we have already obtained. To safeguard your rights, we will use the minimum personally identifiable information possible.

You can find out more about how we use your information at <https://www.aston.ac.uk/about/statutes-ordinances-regulations/publication-scheme/policies-regulations/data-protection> or by contacting our Data Protection Officer

at dp_officer@aston.ac.uk.

If you wish to raise a complaint on how we have handled your personal data, you can contact our Data Protection Officer who will investigate the matter. If you are not satisfied with our response or believe we are processing your personal data in a way that is not lawful you can complain to the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO).

APPENDIX THREE: CONSENT FORM



**THE EFFECT OF EMPOWERING LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS ON
EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOURS IN MULTINATIONAL ORGANISATIONS**

Consent Form(Online Survey)

Name of Chief Investigator: Joan Ebahi Ehiarinmwian

Please initial boxes

	I confirm that I have read and understand the Participant Information Sheet [1, 25/07/2022] for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during the study, without giving a reason and without my legal rights being affected.	
	I understand that the data provided in this study is confidential and that I am not able to withdraw after submitting my answers.	
	I agree to data relating to me collected during the study being processed as described in the Participant Information Sheet.	
	I agree to data being used by the research teams for future research.	
	I agree to data relating to me collected for the purposes of inviting me to participate in future research projects. I understand that I may opt out of receiving these invitations at any time.	
	I agree to take part in this study.	

Name of participant Date

Signature

Name of Person receiving consent.

Date Signature

If you wish to receive a lay summary of the research project upon its completion, please provide an email address to which the summary can be sent.
Email address:

APPENDIX FOUR : SURVEY

A. SUPERVISOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research study titled *Empowering Leadership and Employees' Extra-Role Behaviours in Multinational Corporations in Nigeria*. Your input is greatly appreciated and will contribute to understanding how leadership styles influence workplace behaviour.

Please note that your participation is entirely voluntary, and your responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. You may withdraw from the study at any point without any consequences. Similarly, your subordinates' participation is also voluntary, and their responses will remain anonymous and confidential.

Kindly complete the demographic section below:

1. **Email Address:**

2. **Gender:**
 - ☐ Male
 - ☐ Female
 - ☐ Prefer not to say

3. **Geopolitical Zone Where Your Organisation is Located:**
 - ☐ North Central
 - ☐ North East
 - ☐ North West
 - ☐ South East
 - ☐ South South
 - ☐ South West

4. **Number of Employees Who Report Directly to You:**

5. **Years Worked in Your Current Organisation:**

Next Step:

After submitting your own responses, please **copy and share the link below** with the employees who report directly to you and who are willing to participate. Their participation is voluntary, and all data will be used strictly for academic research.

 [Employee Survey Link](#)

Thank you once again for your time and contribution to this important research.

B. EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 1

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research study titled *Empowering Leadership and Employees' Extra-Role Behaviours in Multinational Corporations in Nigeria*.

Before proceeding to the main survey, please take a moment to complete the demographic information section below.

Demographic Information

Please provide the following information. All responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and used solely for research purposes:

1. **Please enter your email address:**
2. **Gender:**
 - ☐ Male
 - ☐ Female
 - ☐ Prefer not to say
3. **Geopolitical Zone Where Your Organisation is Located:**
 - ☐ North Central
 - ☐ North East
 - ☐ North West
 - ☐ South East
 - ☐ South South
 - ☐ South West
4. **How many employees are currently in your team?**
5. **How many years have you worked in your current organisation?**
6. **Please input the email address of your direct supervisor, manager, or team leader:**

Main Survey

1) Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements. 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Moderately Disagree; 3= Slightly Disagree; 4=Neither Agree nor Disagree; 5= Slightly Agree; 6= Moderately Agree; 7=Strongly agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am confident about my ability to do my job							
The work that I do is important to me.							
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job							
My impact on what happens in my department is large.							
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.							
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department							
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.							
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.							
2) Way to go, please complete the next section							
I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect my team							
I speak up and encourage others in my group to get involved in issues that affect the team							
I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me.							
I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my group.							

I get involved in issue that affect the quality of work life in my group.

I speak up in my group about ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

3) Just a few more to go

When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues about it

When they have learned something new, my colleagues tell me about it

Knowledge sharing among colleagues is considered normal in my company

I share information I have with colleagues when they ask for it

I share my skills with colleagues when they ask for it

Colleagues in my company share knowledge with me when I ask them to

4) You are almost done

1 2 3 4 5

Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements.

1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree ; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree

My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the organisation

My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company

My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture

My manager makes many decisions together with me

My manager often consults me on strategic decisions

My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me
My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.

My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes

My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level
My manager allows me to do my job my way
My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules
and regulations simple
My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer
needs.

5) Well done, One more section to go

My happiness depends very much on the happiness of those around me

I would do what would please my family, even if I detested that activity

I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group
I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others
The well-being of my co-employees is important to me
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways

Children should feel honoured if their parents receive a distinguished award

I often “do my own thing”
Competition is the law of nature
If a co-employee gets a prize, I would feel proud
I am a unique individual
I would sacrifice an activity that I enjoy very much if my family did not approve
of it
Without competition it is not possible to have a good society
I feel good when I cooperate with others

6) Yes, you got to the last lap

Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements.

1= Never ; 2= Rarely ; 3= Sometimes; 4=Often; 5= Always

1

2

3

4

5

Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?
Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?
Have you been able to express your views and feelings during work procedures?
Have those procedures been applied consistently?
Have those procedures been free of bias?
Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?
Has your supervisor treated you with respect?
Has your supervisor seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?

C. EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE – TIME 2

Thank you once again for your valuable participation in this research study titled *Empowering Leadership and Employees' Extra-Role Behaviours in Multinational Corporations in Nigeria*.

We sincerely appreciate your commitment and for agreeing to continue with the second phase of the study.

Please proceed to complete the following section, which continues from the previous stage of the research. Your responses will remain confidential and will be used solely for academic purposes.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1) Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements. 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Moderately Disagree; 3= Slightly Disagree; 4=Neither Agree nor Disagree; 5= Slightly Agree; 6= Moderately Agree; 7=Strongly agree							

I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect my team

I speak up and encourage others in my group to get involved in issues that affect the team

I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me.

I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my group.

I get involved in issue that affect the quality of work life in my group.

I speak up in my group about ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

2) Way to go, please complete the next section

When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues about it
When they have learned something new, my colleagues tell me about it
Knowledge sharing among colleagues is considered normal in my company

I share information I have with colleagues when they ask for it
I share my skills with colleagues when they ask for it
Colleagues in my company share knowledge with me when I ask them to

3) Just a few more to go

I like my supervisor very much as a person.

My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.

My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.

My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.

My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.

I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.

I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my work group.

I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.

I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.

I admire my supervisor's professional skills

4) Two Laps to go

1

2

3

4

5

Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements.

1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree ; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree

My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the organisation

My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company

My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture

My manager makes many decisions together with me

My manager often consults me on strategic decisions

My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me

My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.

My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes

My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level

My manager allows me to do my job my way

My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple

My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer needs.

5) You are almost done

Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements.

1= Never ; 2= Rarely ; 3= Sometimes; 4=Often; 5= Always

1

2

3

4

5

Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?

Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?

Have you been able to express your views and feelings during work procedures?

Have those procedures been applied consistently?

Have those procedures been free of bias?

Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?

Has your supervisor treated you with respect?

Has your supervisor seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?

6) This is the last section

Please read each statement carefully before answering. Please answer according to what really reflects your level agreement to the proposed statements.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader? Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	1. Rarely	2. Occasionally	3. Sometimes	4. Fairly often	5. Very often
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	1. Not a bit	2. A little	3. A fair amount	4. Quite a bit	5. A great deal
3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?	1. Not at all	2. A little	3. Moderately	4. Mostly	5. Fully
4. Regardless of formal authority, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?	1. None	2. Small	3. Moderate	4. High	5. Very High
5. Regardless of formal authority, what are the chances your leader would "bail you out" at his/her expense?	1. None	2. Small	3. Moderate	4. High	5. Very High
6. I have confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she is not present to do so.	1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	1. Extremely ineffective	2. Worse than average	3. Average	4. Better than average	5. Extremely effective

APPENDIX FIVE: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (STUDY ONE)

Model Factors	Chi-Square (x ²)	df	p-value	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
One-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour, empowering leadership and Individualism-Collectivism were all used a single factor)	2808.4	719	< .001	0.081	0.088	0.719	0.703
Two-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour and Individualism-Collectivism were used as a single factor and empowering leadership as a separate factor)	2707.5	718	< .001	0.079	0.083	0.732	0.717
Three-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour and voice behaviour used as a single factor and empowering leadership and Individualism-Collectivism were used as individual separate factors)	2661.6	716	< .001	0.078	0.081	0.738	0.723
Four-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice and voice behaviour were used as a single factor while empowering leadership, knowledge sharing behaviour and Individualism-Collectivism were used as individual separate factors)	2504.8	707	< .001	0.075	0.079	0.758	0.74
Five-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, and organisational justice were used as a single factor while empowering leadership, knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour and Individualism-Collectivism were used as individual separate factors)	1913.1	619	< .001	0.089	0.062	0.804	0.787
Initial Six-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour, Individualism-Collectivism, empowering leadership were used as separate individual factors)	1835.2	490	< .001	0.082	0.057	0.812	0.798
Revised Six-Factor Model (psychological empowerment, organisational justice, Knowledge sharing behaviour, voice behaviour, Individualism-Collectivism, empowering leadership were used as separate individual factors)	682.3	400	< .001	0.082	0.052	0.919	0.907

Note N = 213. df = Degrees of Freedom; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean Square Residual; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index

RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

APPENDIX SIX: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (STUDY TWO)

Models	χ^2 (df)	p-value	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
1-Factor Model: All variables combined into a single factor: Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD)	10979.3 (3077)	0	0.123	0.079	0.573	0.562
2-Factor Model: Psychological Empowerment (PE), Organisational Justice (OJ), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Voice Behaviour (VB), and Individualism-Collectivism (IC) combined as one factor; Empowering Leadership (EPL) as a separate factor	10569.0 (2848)	0	0.13	0.081	0.598	0.587
3-Factor Model: Psychological Empowerment (PE) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) as one factor; Organisational Justice (OJ), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), and Voice Behaviour (VB) as a second factor; Empowering Leadership (EPL) as a separate factor	10483.4 (2846)	0	0.13	0.08	0.602	0.591
4-Factor Model: Empowerment (PE), Organisational Justice (OJ), and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) as one factor; Voice Behaviour (VB) and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) as a second factor; Empowering Leadership (EPL) and Individualism-Collectivism (IC) as separate factors	10313.0 (2844)	0	0.13	0.079	0.611	0.6
5-Factor Model: Psychological Empowerment (PE) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) as one factor; Organisational Justice (OJ) as a separate factor; Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) and Voice Behaviour (VB) as another factor; Empowering Leadership (EPL) and Individualism-Collectivism (IC) as separate factors	5487.5 (1533)	0	0.121	0.079	0.703	0.691
6-Factor Model: Psychological Empowerment (PE) and Organisational Justice (OJ) as one factor; Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) as another factor; Voice Behaviour (VB), Empowering Leadership (EPL), and Individualism-Collectivism (IC) as separate factors	10052.8 (2841)	0	0.13	0.078	0.624	0.613

7-Factor Model: Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), and Organisational Justice (OJ) as one factor; Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) and Voice Behaviour (VB) as another factor; Empowering Leadership (EPL), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD) as separate factors
 initial 8-Factor Model: (Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD)).
 Revised 8-Factor Model: (Psychological Empowerment (PE), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Organisational Justice (OJ), Voice Behaviour (VB), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB), Individualism-Collectivism (IC), Empowering Leadership (EPL), and Leader-Member Exchange Differentiation (LMXD)).

9872.4 (2838)	0	0.131	0.077	0.634	0.622
5487.4 (1533)	< .001	0.121	0.079	0.703	0.691
1200.4 (500)	0.039	0.075	0.045	0.913	0.901

APPENDIX SEVEN: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

Activity	Description	Skills Hours	Skills Domain	Uploaded Document(s)	Completion/ Course Date
EndNote©: Collecting & Organising References (A)		3 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		03/Dec/2020
Box Cloud Storage: An Introduction (A)		1.5 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		02/Dec/2020
Writing Retreat(D)		3.5 (Approved)	Engagement influence and impact(Domain D)		26/Nov/2020
Word for Researchers Part1 (A)		3 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		23/Nov/2020
Activity	Description	Skills Hours	Skills Domain	Uploaded Document(s)	Completion/ Course Date
Other	RITE APPLICANT WORKSHOP	1 (Approved)	Engagement influence and impact(Domain D)		20/Nov/2020
Conducting A Literature Review(A)		2 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		10/Feb/2021

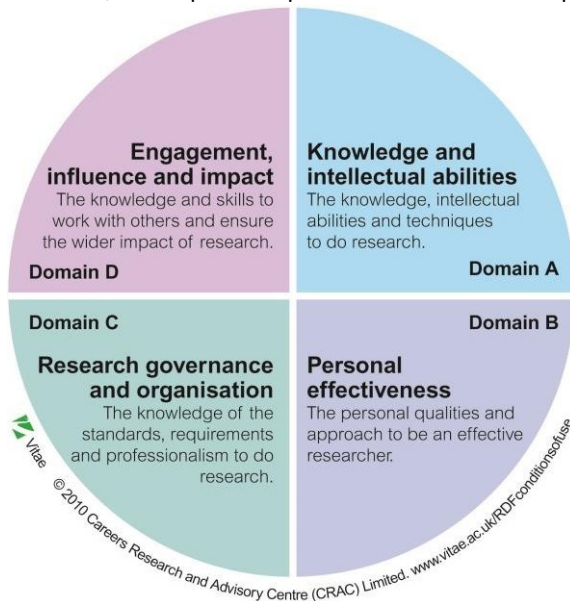
Other	EFFECTIVE TEACHING IN CHALLENGING CIRCUMSTANCES	2 (Approved)	Personal Effectiveness (Domain B)		18/Nov/2020
Microsoft® Excel Advanced (A)		3 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		16/Nov/2020
Conducting A Literature Review(A)		2 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		04/Nov/2020
PowerPoint Workshop: Animation and Embedding Media (A)		1.5 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		02/Nov/2020
Researcher Wellbeing Session (B)		3 (Approved)	Engagement influence and impact(Domain D)		27/Oct/2020
Excel Workshop:IF and Lookup Functions (A)		2 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities		22/Oct/2020
Activity	Description	Skills Hours	Skills Domain	Uploaded Document(s)	Completion/ Course Date
			(Domain A)		
MS Excel Data Tables & Pivots (A)		3 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		20/Oct/2020

EndNote©: Using EndNote with Word (A)		2 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		15/Oct/2020
EndNote©: Using EndNote with Word (A)		2 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		14/Oct/2020
Starting and Managing your PhD (B)		1.5 (Approved)	Personal Effectiveness (Domain B)		12/Oct/2020
IT Workshop: Windows 10 Upgrade (A)		1.5 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		09/Oct/2020
Writing Your Qualifying Report(D)		1.5 (Approved)	Engagementnt influence and impact(Domain D)		07/Oct/2021
BNM839 Fundamentals in Quantitative Research (BSS)		20 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		02/May/2021
LPM048 Philosophy of Social Science		20 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual		17/Feb/2021
Activity	Description	Skills Hours	Skills Domain	Uploaded Document(s)	Completion/ Course Date
Research (BSS)			abilities (Domain A)		

BNM838 Research Design, Practice and Ethics (BSS)		20 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		18/Jun/2021
LYM014 Foundations in Qualitative Research (BSS)		20 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		16/Dec/2020
Other	Collaborative Sandpit Training – 20 hours	20 (Not approved)	Engagement influence and impact(Domain D)		29/Jun/2022
Other	Collaborative Sandpit Training – 20 hours	20 (Approved)	Personal Effectiveness (Domain B)		29/Jun/2022
Other	BSS Conference	1 (Approved)	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)		28/Jul/2022
Introduction to Learning and Teaching Practice (ILTP) programme (D)	ILTP training	18	Engagement influence and impact(Domain D)		09/Sep/2022
Presenting Your Research at Conferences (D)	4th Interdisciplinary Postgraduate Research Conference on 'Facing the Future' (3 October 2022)	2	Engagementnt influence and impact(Domain D)		03/Oct/2022
Activity	Description	SkillsHours	Skills Domain	Uploaded Document(s)	Completion/ Course Date

Teaching/Assessment and Demonstrating in laboratories (HLS) (D)	Teaching and assessment Organisational behaviour BH1124	2	Engagement, influence and impact(Domain D)		30/Mar/2023
Other	WORKING AS PART OF CONFERENCE PLANNING COMMITTEE	10	Engagement, influence and impact(Domain D)	Conference Booklet for 2nd BSS Interdisciplinary PGR Conference.pdf	16/Jun/2023
Other	DEVELOPING SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE ON QUALTRICS	N/A	Knowledge and intellectual abilities (Domain A)	Home Qualtrics Experience Management.pdf	20/Apr/2023
Other	HEALTHY WORK AND WORKPLACE WORKSHOP	6	Personal Effectiveness (Domain B)	WORKSHOP.jpg	30/Jun/2023
Other	WON- VIRTUAL RESEARCH COLLOQUIUM PROGRAMME	1	Engagement influence and impact(Domain D)	COLLOQUIM.jpg	08/Mar/2023
Other	ETHICS APPLICATION AND APPROVAL	N/A	Research governance and organisation (DomainC)	299-7-22 Amendment 1 Confirmation Letter.pdf	03/Jul/2023
		Total Skills Hours:199 Approved: 140			

The **Vitae Researcher Development Framework (RDF)** is structured into four domains covering the knowledge, behaviours and attributes of researchers. It sets out the wide-ranging knowledge, intellectual abilities, techniques and professional standards expected to do research, as well as the personal qualities,



knowledge and skills to work with others and ensure the wider impact of research. Within each of the domains there are three sub-domains and associated descriptors.

Vitae RDF Domain Skills Analysis

Approved Hours for each Vitae RDF Skills Domain

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