Exploring equality, justice and identity amongst host nationals and expatriates:

Which human factors enable empowerment of Filipino aid workers?

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Nigel Vaughan Smith

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Abstract

Providing decent work has been emphasised by the United Nations as a key objective in its Millennium Development Goals for poverty reduction (United Nations, 2000). Decent work includes capacity building between expatriate and their host national aid workers. Optimizing empowerment to enable decent work amongst local aid workers may depend on human factors, alongside wider poverty reduction efforts, such as economic and political reform. This study sought to explore which of local:expatriate numerical ratio, expatriate social dominance, strength of Filipino identity and perceptions of workplace justice were predictive of different levels of subjective empowerment amongst aid workers in one particular lower-income, high-poverty country, the Philippines.

Responses to an online survey available in both English and Tagalog were obtained from $N = 98$ employees of diverse locally operating aid organisations in the Philippines during two months in early 2011 (29% male; 71% female; mean age = 35.5 years; all resident in the Philippines). The survey included measures of empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995), estimated local:expatriate numerical ratio, perceived social dominance (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994), social identity (Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999), justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), social desirability (D. G. Fischer & Fick, 1993), estimated local:expatriate salary ratio and a number of demographic control measures (e.g., age, years of relevant work experience, level of education). Respondents chose to participate by clicking a link in an email sent by seven development sector practitioners who agreed to assist the researcher with distribution of invitations to their staff or contact lists. The link opened an online survey hosted by kwiksurveys.co.uk. Data was downloaded from the kwiksurveys.co.uk online database and analysed by the researcher using SPSS.

Controlling for age and other demographic variables, the best predictor of enabling empowerment was the fairness of personal interactions (interactional justice; $\beta = .331$). Interactional justice was also a significant predictor of the perceptions local employees had specifically about their impact in their workplace ($\beta = .295$), although this relationship was strongest when employees' sense of self respect was weaker, implying that a secure social identity may act as a buffer to consequences of injustice, all other things being equal (interaction effect $\beta = -.233$). Distributive justice predicted

each of four distinct facets of empowerment (competence; meaning; self-determination i.e., sense of control over one's work; and impact, i.e., sense of making a difference in one's work).

The overall pattern of results suggests that justice plays a more significant role than either dominance or identity in contributing to empowerment amongst Filipino aid employees. Strikingly, fair interpersonal treatment may matter more than distributive justice. Alongside the effects of justice, expatriate attitudes towards hierarchy and host nationals' sense of self respect are also significant factors, impacting empowerment in different ways. Given potential distortions arising from unknown response rate and a self-report methodology, further research, ideally with better control of sampling, is suggested. Possible avenues include exploring whether interpersonal treatment may matter more than distributive justice in collectivistic societies; whether self respect may act as a buffer against the effects of injustice; and how social dominance operates outside its traditional research contexts.

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Chapter 1 – These and Critical Literature Review

"… Any way of world-making that gives us one-size-fits-all development recipes stripped of any engagement with context or culture, politics, power or difference, does violence to the very hope of a world without poverty" (Cornwall & Brock, 2005, p. 1058)

"…Development aid as currently implemented all too often focuses on an overly narrow view of change as represented by the Millennium Development Goals. It also tends to reinforce and entrench the culture and systems of power (globally and locally) that keep poor people poor…. And it shies away from promoting societal changes with the potential to bring about real progress and development" (Vernon & Baksh, 2010, p. 40)

As we approach 2015, the target date by which the United Nations Millennium Development Goals aim to halve human poverty and realise potential capabilities to enjoy a better life via increases in health, education and work opportunities, confidence is waning that they will be met. The calls for greater funding of development efforts are becoming louder, along with the newer demands for climate change and biodiversity loss mitigation. Some commentators are beginning to ask deeper questions; whether the very nature of aid and development as currently practiced is hindering rather than helping (Arimah, 2004; Cornwall & Brock, 2005; Moore, 2001; Vernon & Baksh, 2010). This thesis argues that without understanding the human workplace dynamics of aid, poverty reduction may remain an elusive goal (Narayan, Pritchett, & Kapoor, 2009). Specifically the thesis is an empirical assessment of the relative contributions that host national aid workers' perceptions of (a) dominance, (b) justice and (c) identity, in their relationships with expatriate aid colleagues, make to local capacity-building and capability, operationally defined as facilitating a sense of empowerment among host national employees in development projects (Spreitzer, 1995).

In their book on human factors in aid, MacLachlan, Carr and McAuliffe (2010) probe 'what' and 'how' human dynamics are critical for the successful achievement of development progress. Decent work ("productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity" (International Labor Organization, 2007, p. 4)), as

specified in the United Nations Millennium Development Goal 1b (United Nations, 2000), is argued to be core to such progress. Following MacLachlan et al (2010), this thesis explores the potential impact of some key human factors in the work environment of those most directly engaged in development; employees of aid organisations themselves. Figure 1 illustrates a model that incorporates these human factors and their potential linkages to empowerment. I will refer to the model in Figure 1 throughout this thesis.

Note: ⟶ = main effects; - - - - - = component effects; — ·· — ▶ = moderation effects; Potential direction of relationship indicated as positive (+ve) or negative (-ve) on appropriate lines
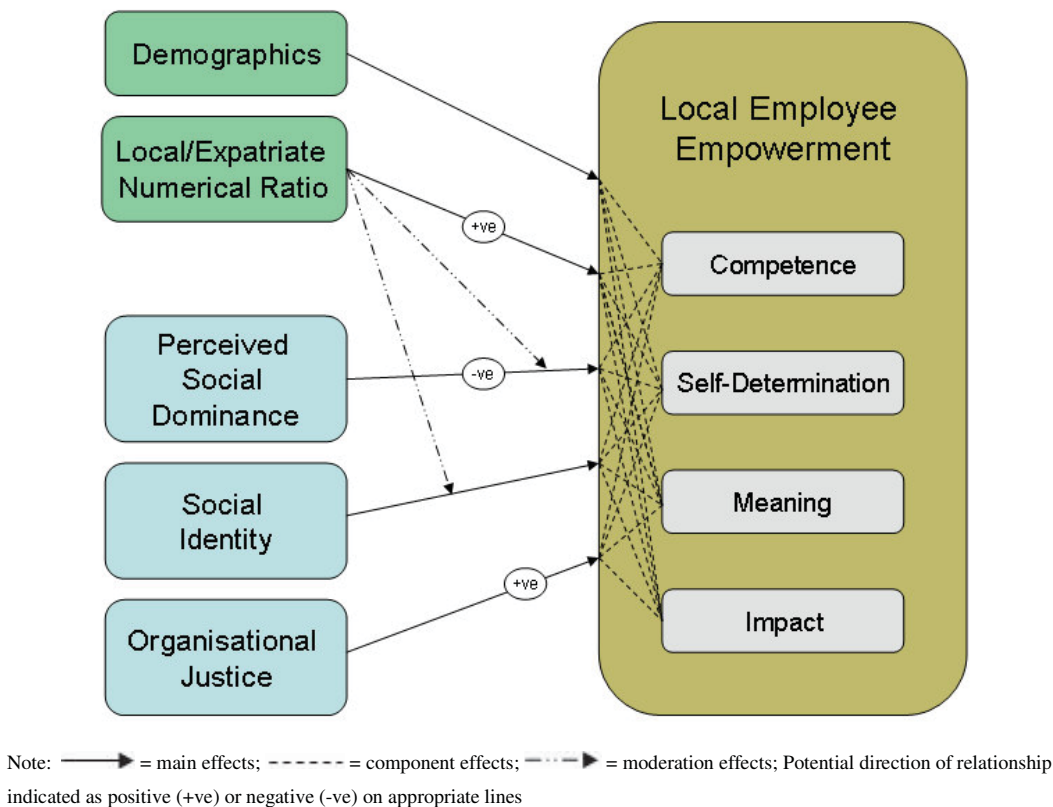
Figure 1. Possible antecedents of Local Employee Empowerment

In the sections that follow I will outline each factor presented in Figure 1 and then discuss how they may link to the criterion of "Local Employee Empowerment." The term empowerment has become something of a buzzword in development discourse and rhetoric (Cornwall & Brock, 2005; Moore, 2001; United Nations Development Programme, 2000; World Bank, 2000). It has been used by many authors to mean a wide variety of things; from transparent governance practices (Helling, Serrano, & Warren, 2005) to inclusive management techniques (Bowen & Lawler, 1992), to feelings of self-worth (Cruikshank, 1993). Indeed, Narayan (2002) has argued that

empowerment is used as a catch-all, umbrella term to encapsulate emphases on change in governance, market development and institutions of justice that characterise the World Bank's programme of poverty reduction. However these definitions have overlooked the level of workplace relations, raising a question for this research: Can human factors contribute towards empowerment, too?

In this thesis, empowerment is operationally defined at the psychosocial level. As Figure 1 illustrates, empowerment is the individual sense of 'competence,' 'self-determination,' 'meaning' and 'impact' that employees have about their own ability to perform their roles at work, when working with others, and through others (Spreitzer, 1995). In organisations engaged in development work (e.g. Oxfam, World Vision), paradoxically, those least likely to be empowered might actually be local employees, because they may often work according to internationally determined goals, practices and norms. For example, the Humanitarian Accountability Partnership accreditation system (HAP International, 2008), is one such set of standards against which local humanitarian workplace practice may be measured.

In sum therefore, this thesis seeks to understand how the array of human factors in play relates to the empowerment of local employees.

Local Employee Empowerment

In what was perhaps the earliest psychological model of empowerment, Conger and Kanungo (1988) proposed that empowerment develops through a number of stages: Assuming a starting position of employee powerlessness, managerial strategies can provide self-efficacy information which in turn fosters empowering experiences and positive behavioural outcomes for employees. While Conger and Kanungo's (1988) theoretical model provided some clarity around how empowerment develops, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) were the first to provide empirical evidence regarding the development of empowerment (based on the responses of 164 managers across three organisations in the United States). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) also first outlined the four key cognitive assessments involved in the empowerment process which are presented in Figure 1. They focused on how employees assess the value of a task in and of itself, and consequently how motivated they feel about their work: Competence reflects a belief that you have what it takes to do the job effectively, that is, self-efficacy in relation to your job (Bandura, 1989). Self-determination is about whether you see yourself as the origin of your actions (as opposed to just responding to demands from

above). Meaning is the value you place on a work goal, judged subjectively in relation to your own beliefs. Impact is about whether you feel that you are making a difference in your workplace (see Figure 1).

The model of empowerment in Figure 1 has been tested empirically. For example, Spreitzer (1995) tested a measure of empowerment derived from Thomas and Velthouse's model on a sample of mid-level employees from a large industrial organisation (N = 393; 100% response rate) and a second sample of lower-level employees from an insurance company (N = 128; 100% response rate), both from and working in the United States. Confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that there were four dimensions of empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact, as indicated in Figure 1. Together these four factors loaded onto a single 2nd order factor, verifying the overall coherence of empowerment as a construct. To the best of my knowledge, this structure has not been explored in other settings however, including aid and development workplaces in low- and middle-income countries. This project will address that gap.

To address this gap, I have chosen to use Spreitzer's model of empowerment in this study as it is the most widely cited model of psychological empowerment in the literature I have reviewed. It has demonstrated varied psychometric properties with overall Cronbach's Alphas ranging from .62 to .97, and goodness of fit has also varied across different validation samples. For example, the best fit (adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) = .93, noncentralised normed fit index (NCNFI) = .98, standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) = .04) was obtained from an industrial sample (N = 393), while in other samples the model has not fitted the data so well, such as an insurance industry sample (N = 128; AGFI = .87, NCNFI = .98, SRMR= .07) (Boudarias, Gaudreau, & Laschinger, 2004). While some studies (Boudarias, et al., 2004; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2004) confirmed the factor structure found by Spreitzer (1995), Koberg, Ross, Senjem and Goodman (1999) suggested that the 4 dimensions may not be fully independent as some high inter-correlations were observed in their sample of 612 medical professionals. This project will seek to explore how well the model fits data gathered from aid and development employees in the Philippines. The present context is different from the validation studies mentioned above in many ways, not least in that the workforce is significantly less homogenous, with western expatriates commonly working alongside and sometimes dominating host nationals in aid and development organisations (Carr,

Chipande, & MacLachlan, 1998; Shutt, 2006). Although this is changing (MacLachlan, et al., 2010), the simple numerical ratio of expatriate to local employees is an important first factor that I will explore in this research.

Numerical Ratio

The experiences of both locals and expatriates working in aid organisations may be significantly shaped by the numerical ratio (see Figure 1) between the two groups in the work environment. The experiences of expatriates while in a (numerical) minority position have been studied, for example regarding the link between host country nationals' hostility/warmth and levels of expatriate adjustment (Toh & Denisi, 2003, 2007; Varma, Toh, & Budhwar, 2006). However, little work has explored the reverse; the experiences of locals. This study, with its focus on the experiences of host nationals, seeks to redress this lack.

Many theorists have explored the role of numerical group size differences on behaviour and cognition. Those focusing on the effects of majorities on minorities have examined the impact of group size on social influence (Lippitt, Polansky, & Rosen, 1952); as well as more internal effects such as shifts in attitudes (Kelman, 1958; Kiesler & Kiesler, 1969). Others have explored the conditions required for minorities to exert influence (Nemeth & Wachtler, 1974) and how minorities can influence both identity formation (Mugny, 1975) and attitude change (Nemeth & Endicott, 1976; Paicheler, 1979; Personnaz & Guillon, 1985). Despite the wide range of both behavioural and internal effects documented, no consensus emerged from these early studies regarding whether relative group size could even be conceptualised as having a coherent set of effects.

A number of researchers (Moscovici, 1985; Nemeth, 1985, 1986; Personnaz & Guillon, 1985) argued that the influence exerted by minorities was qualitatively different from the influence of majorities (pressure to conform). If this is so, different theories would be required to predict empowerment outcomes depending on whether Filipino aid workers form a numerical minority or majority vis a vis expatriates. A unified theory of social influence is needed to allow numerical ratio as a coherent construct to be compared with the other constructs outlined in Figure 1 (perceived social dominance, social identity and justice)..

Such a unified theory of social influence was pioneered by Doms and van Avermaet (1985) They focused on the way public compliance arose from both minority

and majority influence in an experimental setting. The parallel outcomes from both minority and majority paradigms point to the possibility of describing social influence as a unitary whole, rather than separately as conformity and minority influence. In the present context, what effects will the relative numerical size of a group (Filipino employees) in relation to another group (expatriate employees) have on local employee empowerment (Figure 1)? It may be that when Filipinos as a group in the workplace are relatively more numerous than expatriates, they feel more empowered. However, empowerment is likely to result from a wide range of human factors beyond relative group numerical ratio, thus other aspects of influence such as power, need to also be explored.

Perceived Social Dominance

> *"The fundamental concept in social science is Power, in the same sense that Energy is the fundamental concept in physics . . . The laws of social dynamics are laws which can only be stated in terms of power."*
> *(Russell, 1938, p. 10, in Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, p.265)*

A major early contribution to the study of power and social influence was the typology developed by French and Raven in 1959 which distinguished between reward and coercive power (which tend to produce public compliance) and legitimate, referent and expert power (which may also produce private acceptance) (Doms & van Avermaet, 1985). In the context of the present study, expatriates working in aid organisations in the Philippines may hold higher levels of reward, referent and expert power, and sometimes also coercive power compared to local employees (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989). Such expatriate power would logically be expected to affect empowerment amongst host national employees. This study seeks to explore whether power is more or less significant than numerical majority in influencing levels of empowerment.

Kipnis, Castell, Gergen, and Mauch (1972) showed experimentally that power wielders believed they caused target behaviour, as well as devaluing target others and viewing themselves more favorably. MacLachlan (1993) argued that these outcomes are common for expatriates in aid contexts, despite the egalitarian ideals which may have motivated them to work in the sector initially. More concerning however, are the outcomes for locals, thus the focus of the present study on the perceptions of, and impacts of social influence upon, local employees (Figure 1). This study will seek to

explore empirically whether in fact these outcomes of power do result in changes in levels of empowerment amongst host nationals.

One outcome of power particularly relevant to aid and development organisations is the way that hierarchies are established and maintained. This phenomenon has been labeled social dominance (Sidanius & Pratto, 1993). It can be observed in attitudes towards the control of decision-making (more centralization reflects higher social dominance), remuneration allocations (wider pay disparity between executive and low level employees reflects higher social dominance) and disciplinary measures (stricter discipline reflects higher social dominance). Attitudes that reinforce social dominance may also be evident where less courtesy, discretion and trust are extended to employees lower down in the hierarchy. It is important to point out that employees at all levels of an organisation may hold attitudes that either strengthen or work against social dominance (respectively 'hierarchy-enhancing' or 'hierarchy-attenuating' in the terminology of social dominance theory (Sidanius, Pratto, van Laar, & Levin, 2004)). If these attitudes are in play within aid organisations, there are likely to be significant effects on local employee empowerment.

The key assumptions of social dominance theory are as follows: Human social systems are predisposed towards group based hierarchy, including at least groups at the top (hegemonic) and bottom (negative reference group) of the hierarchy. MacLachlan et al (2010) describe expatriate-local relations in these terms; expatriates commonly form the hegemonic group, while locals, as a result of colonization and historical racism, are often lower down the hierarchy. Even hierarchy-attenuating organisations may fall prey to the implicit need for social dominance.

Social hierarchies are formed and maintained by the collective impact of discrimination. Sidanius and Pratto (1993) note that discrimination is facilitated by legitimizing myths, such as the myth that western things and people are better than local things and people. An example of this from my experience living in the Philippines, was the use of "imported" as a marketing device for goods. Whereas in New Zealand, imported goods often carry a connotation of being of lower quality (but cheaper), the reverse was implied in the Philippines, even when there was no difference in price. When myths such as these are extended to people (expatriates as higher value imports), they provide the rationale for discriminative behaviour, which may result in perceived social dominance and consequently lower levels of empowerment (Essed, 2002).

Social Identity

Social dominance has the logical potential to undermine pride in identity. Social identity has been widely studied in social and organizational psychology. Tajfel and Turner (2004) for example argued that, as individuals establish their social identity, they evaluate a number of characteristics of the groups they belong to and other groups they do not belong to. These characteristics may include ethnicity, prestige or competence. Identity formation is likely to develop as a result of intergroup interactions where group differences are salient. In turn, there are a number of consequences of strong (or weak) social identity, including increases (or decreases) in levels of empowerment (Amiot, Terry, Wirawan, & Grice, 2010; Brown, 2000; Sheldon & Bettencourt, 2002), as outlined in Figure 1. Filipino employees of aid organisations are likely to have a group identity defined at least partly in contrast to expatriates as the 'other' group, primarily differentiated by ethnicity, but perhaps also by power disparities or numerical differences. Further, Filipino identity may also be differentiated by how fairly employees are treated in the very aid organisations in which they work.

Organisational Justice

Thus the final predictor in the model being explored is justice (Figure 1). Justice is central to the United Nations Millennium Development Goal 1b: "Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people" (United Nations, 2010, p. 8). In particular, being treated fairly is a necessary requirement for decent work. For organisations whose goals are broadly aligned with the Millennium Development Goals, justice needs therefore to be both an external goal and an internal priority. However, as MacLachlan et al (2010) have pointed out, this ideal is far from being realised in many aid organisations.

Justice has been conceptualised as being made up of three sub-types, as can be seen in Figure 2, below[1]. Each type of justice may play a different role in how local employees experience fairness in the workplace.

Distributive Justice

Early work in the field of organisational justice was done by Homans (1961) who developed distributive justice theory, focusing on the effect of unfair rewards on employees. Building on this, Adams developed equity theory in 1965, which explored

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[1] Some theorists argue there are four sub-types of justice; see *Organisational Justice* below)

how employees compared themselves with others in assessing just treatment (Adams, 1965). Later, relative deprivation theory (Greenberg, 1987) argued that comparisons occurred in relation to the most relevant referent group to the situation. Essentially, workers asked themselves: 'Have I been rewarded fairly in relation to my contribution?'. As outlined in Figure 2, distributive justice was thought to contribute primarily to employees' sense of competence about their jobs.
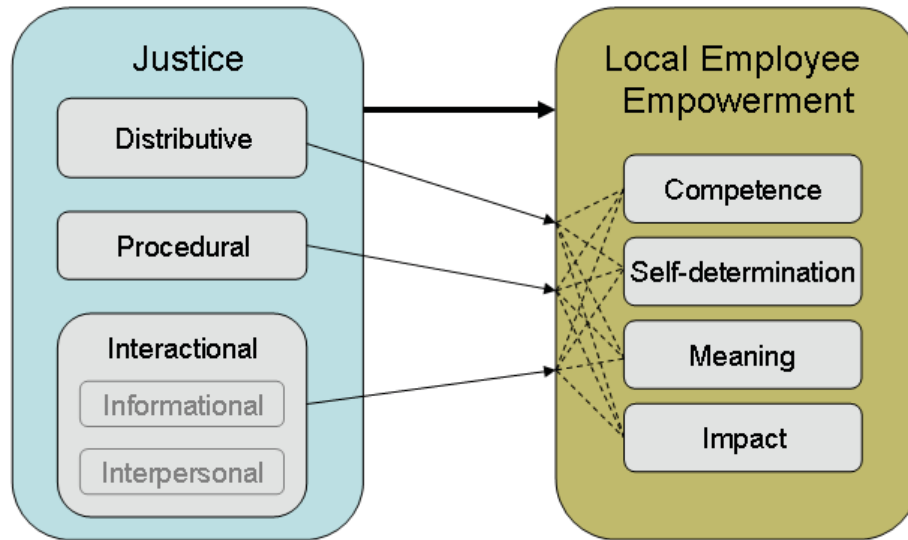
Note: Greyed-out constructs are not measured in this study
Figure 2. Potential relationships between (components of) Justice and Empowerment

Procedural Justice

Thibaut and Walker (1978) found in a legal context that perceptions of process fairness were greater where people had greater control over the process. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) found further support for this suggestion based on their survey-based study of 213 movie theatre employees, finding that appropriate monitoring communicates justice, or fairness to all. The aid context is sometimes criticised for a lack of monitoring (Wenar, 2006). If such criticisms are well founded, and lower levels of accountability in the aid sector (compared with for-profit organisations) do in fact result in workplace injustice, lower levels of empowerment and specifically sense of self-determination (Figure 2) amongst Filipino aid workers may be observed in the present study.

Interactional Justice

In 1986, Bies and Moag identified a third type of justice, which they labeled interactional justice. This type of justice is about the way that people are treated in their interactions within the organisation, rather than the formal processes of the organisation (procedural justice) or the distribution of rewards (distributive justice). Greenberg (1990) argued convincingly (consistent with Bies & Moag, 1986) that interactional justice (the way a person is treated during the enactment of formal procedures) was distinct from procedural justice. This distinction is important in the present context, because the way Filipino aid workers are treated within their organisations may be the most significant aspect of justice for them, because of the importance placed on interpersonal harmony within cultures high in collectivism (Beugr, 2002). As Figure 2 illustrates, high levels of interpersonal justice may be reflected in a stronger sense of meaning and impact amongst local employees.

How might Demographics affect Empowerment?

Having outlined what the key constructs in Figure 1 are, I now turn to the specific relationships that may exist between them. I will deal with direct relationships between predictors and empowerment initially, followed by consideration of some potential moderating relationships.

Older employees with more years of experience are more likely to feel empowered, due in part to their higher levels of responsibility and rank (Kanter, 1979). Additionally, at least part of the reason they have more years of experience may be due to feeling relatively more empowered than those who have left for other types of work (Kanter, 1979; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997), as low levels of empowerment have been documented as one contributor to turnover (Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Casier, 2000; Sparrowe, 1994) and changes of career path (Boxall, Macky, & Rasmussen, 2003; A. Thomas, 2007). Age and years experience are therefore potential demographic predictors and will be measured in this study.

While some researchers (Hochwälder & Brucefors, 2005; Spreitzer, et al., 1997) have found no gender differences in empowerment, Zani and Pietrantoni (2001) reported that amongst 314 health professionals surveyed in Italy, women felt more empowered than men, although they offered little discussion of the potential reasons for this finding. Given the lack of a clear consensus regarding the impact of gender, it remains an important potential predictor of empowerment, as included in Figure 1.

Gender is therefore measured in the present study, at the very least in case it does emerge as a differentiator in the Philippine context.

How might Numerical Ratio affect Empowerment?

As discussed above, I agree with Doms and van Avermaet (1985), in that numerical ratio is conceptualised in this study as a single coherent construct. In order to explore the nature of its impact on empowerment, as illustrated in Figure 1, I now turn to the work of Latané, who accounted for both majority and minority influence in his social impact theory (Latané, 1981). Social impact theory proposes that sources and targets of social influence generate and experience social force fields. Latané argued that the social impact of any influence was a multiplicative function of strength, immediacy and numbers. Although the present study does not explicitly consider immediacy, Latané's 'strength' construct can be considered analogous to social dominance in that is a perception of the power exerted by others in a group setting. The focus on social impact as the main dependent variable in the model parallels my own focus on empowerment, of which impact is one of the four core components (Figure 1).

Formally, aspects of Latané's psychosocial law of social impact can be described in the form of an equation. Where the target individual is part of a sub-group, such as in the present study, social impact is a function of the influence of the opposing group divided by the influence of the target's own group. In other words empowerment is a function of the net influence of expatriates, divided by the net influence of locals:

Social impact on host nationals = f(SIN$_{expatriates}$/SIN$_{Filipinos}$)

(Where S = strength of source; I = immediacy of source; N = number of sources)

Latané set out to demonstrate the efficacy of social impact theory by reanalysing a variety of published data on social influence. Despite including strength and immediacy in the formulation of the basic psychosocial law, most of his initial work focused on numbers alone. Exponential relationships between numbers and impact were demonstrated in diverse settings ranging from conformity and imitation, through embarrassment, restaurant tipping, bystander intervention, inquiry for Christ, productivity in groups (Latané & Wolf, 1981; Nowak, Szamrej, & Latané, 1990) and later, in computer simulations of iterative social interactions (Nowak, et al., 1990). Other theorists also explored the relationship between numbers and impact experimentally, seeking a better data fit by modeling different equations (Mullen, 1983;

Tanford & Penrod, 1984). In general, these studies confirmed that the relationship between numbers and impact was exponential, not linear.

If similar patterns are observed in the present context, then the direct relationship between local:expatriate numerical ratio and local employee empowerment (Figure 1) may not be linear, and would therefore not be amenable to linear regression analysis. Any positive relationship between the proportion of host nationals in the workplace and their levels of empowerment may become weaker as they become more numerous. The present study will explore the fit of any observed relationship through both linear and non-linear regression analyses.

How might Perceived Social Dominance affect Empowerment?

Latané's inclusion of 'strength' (perceived dominance) in social impact theory (Latané, 1981) suggests it is relevant, but does little to explain what kinds of impacts it might have on empowerment. One documented effect of hierarchy is discrimination, even in the minimal group paradigm setting, where the 'groups' have no meaningful identity beyond being nominated as a group in the experiment (Sidanius & Pratto, 1993). Discrimination has been shown to result in lower levels of empowerment (Essed, 2002). Therefore where the groups are clear, salient and meaningful (such as in the present study, where group difference is between Filipinos and expatriates) I would expect the effects of perceptions of social dominance on empowerment to be stronger (Figure 1). In other words, expatriates may unconsciously maintain the status quo (dominating the hierarchy) rather than empowering the locals who enter the work environment of the aid organisation at the bottom of the hierarchy.

The hierarchy-attenuating or hierarchy-enhancing culture of organisations is a second feature of social dominance that will be explored in this study. Aid and development organisations might be hierarchy attenuating, given their objectives of poverty reduction and redistribution of power in the Philippines (Cahill, 2008). Conversely, given the established hierarchies of expatriate donor/manager over local worker/employee, they might in fact be hierarchy enhancing. By measuring perceived social dominance in aid organisations in the Philippines and exploring its relationship with local employee empowerment (Figure 1), the present study seeks to provide some empirically-based clarity around the direction in which the tendencies of aid organisations in the Philippines lie.

In one of the few studies explicitly measuring perceived social dominance, Coates and Carr (2005) found that group mental hierarchies (perceptions of dominance) influenced the discriminative attitudes and behaviour of New Zealand human resources managers faced with a choice of applicants from a range of countries. The present study builds on these findings, in that it explores whether employee perceptions of social dominance affect levels of host national empowerment, though in a very different setting (Figure 1). Logically, and based on previous cross cultural analysis of social dominance orientation (Pratto, et al., 2000), it can be expected that where perceptions of social dominance in the organisation are high, levels of empowerment will be low. As in Coates and Carr (2005), the present study will also measure social identity alongside perceived social dominance.

How might Social Identity affect Empowerment?

Carr, Ehiobuche, Rugimbana and Munro (1996) explain how in the aid and development context, social identity theory predicts that host nationals (the ingroup) will often engage in social comparison in order to preserve the integrity of their group identity. These efforts result in competitive behaviours and stereotypical attitudes towards the outgroup (expatriates in the present context). Where the ingroup has a collectivist culture, such as in the Philippines (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2008), these effects are likely to be stronger (Carr, et al., 1996). One of the results of successful ingroup identity preservation is an increase in self-esteem felt by the members of the ingroup (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). Empirical evidence supports a significant correlation ($r = .5$; $p < .001$) between self-esteem and empowerment as a whole (Menon, 2001, p. 171). More specifically, while self-esteem or self-efficacy is usually understood in relation to a person's whole life, the competency component of empowerment is defined as this same sense of capability regarding one's ability to perform work-related tasks (Spreitzer, 1995). In view of these relationships, the present study seeks to explore the nature of the links between social identity and empowerment, particularly competence (Figure 1).

Few studies have examined changes in employee empowerment in organisations explicitly involved in poverty reduction. One is Latting and Blanchard (1997), who reported on an empowerment intervention in a provider of social services based in Texas, USA. The intervention involved a shift from an organisational culture captured in the paraphrases 'we are limited by our budget; we are poor; therefore we are

incompetent, unprofessional and hopeless' to one better described by 'we are advocates for the poor and we can model good use of resources; we are empowered; therefore we can demonstrate competence and hope' (Latting & Blanchard, 1997). This shift in identity and its impact on staff empowerment is relevant to the current study. Tensions in relation to working conditions and marketing techniques may be the norm in order to attract the donor dollar (MacLachlan, et al., 2010). If host nationals' social identity is negatively valued, social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 2004) would predict low levels of empowerment amongst Filipino aid employees. Conversely, if social identity is positively valued, higher levels of empowerment should result. As mentioned above, strong/positive social identity alongside low levels of empowerment is not consistent with social identity theory, but would instead support social dominance theory, particularly if levels of perceived social dominance were high.

In a rare experimental study comparing the effects of numbers, dominance and identity, Sachdev and Bourhis (1991) demonstrated experimentally that group power was more predictive of discriminatory behaviour than either status or numbers. However, status, an outcome of strong social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 2004), accounted for the greatest percentage of variance in how participants viewed their own group. These findings imply that, in the present context (Figure 1), Filipino aid employee empowerment might be more strongly influenced by strength of social identity than perceptions of dominance in the organisation, although the significant differences in the setting and operationalisation of the constructs mean this is a speculation rather than a prediction.

How might Justice affect Empowerment?

The matrix of effects flowing from numerical difference, dominance and identity discussed above are likely to coexist with discrimination amongst expatriates and locals in aid organisations. Understanding such justice effects and how host national empowerment may be affected is central to the present study. When local employees experience low levels of distributive justice in their work environment (for example pay inequality), a wide range of outcomes such as lowered job satisfaction, performance and organisational commitment may occur (Carr, et al., 1998; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). These suggestions have recently been substantiated in a large (N = 1290) study across six countries in Africa, Oceania and Asia, where host national professionals reported both disparate levels of

remuneration between locals and expatriates and a sense of relative injustice and demotivation (Carr, McWha, MacLachlan, & Furnham, 2010).

Beugr (2002) explored the impact of organisational justice on managing employees in Africa. Using Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) 3-dimensional conceptualisation of justice, he makes the argument that increased justice will lead to positive individual behaviours, which will lead to increased organisational performance. These findings are encouraging given that the Philippine context may be more similar to Africa than to the USA, where much of the theory has been developed, in that a more collectivist culture is likely to predominate (House, et al., 2008). It may be that because of the importance of relationships in Filipino culture, interactional justice may be even more important than distributive or procedural justice (see Figure 2) in determining empowerment (Crosby, 1984).

Possible Interaction Effects

As alluded to above, this study seeks to explore the effects of constructs which may interact as well as have direct effects on empowerment. For example, host nationals often outnumber expatriates, but power may be more important than numbers in determining minority status. So how might numerical ratio interact with perceived social dominance to impact levels of empowerment amongst Filipino aid employees? Latané's social impact theory suggested, but did not provide evidence for, a potential multiplicative relationship between strength, numbers and social impact (Latané, 1981).

It seems likely that when an organisation values hierarchy, local employees may feel less empowered. This effect could depend on the proportion of locals to expatriates present. For example, when there are relatively few locals compared to expatriates in an organization, the hierarchy may be more visible or powerful, thus strengthening the effect of perceptions of dominance on empowerment.

Wolf and Latané (1985) explored the relationships between strength, numbers and social impact in an experimental study where participants were asked to rate the desirability of eating at restaurants that had been reviewed by other people. Wolf and Latané's 'strength' variable can be taken as an operationalisation of perceived social dominance (Figure 1), in that participants' perceptions of the expertise of the reviewer may be analogous to Filipino employees' perceptions of the power of expatriates in their organisation. The expertise (strength), and number of reviewers was varied in 24 conditions. Strikingly, participants' actual ratings of restaurant desirability matched

predictions based on how many reviews were included multiplied by the 'strength' of the relevant reviewers. Of particular interest in the context of the present study was the finding that strength played a more significant role in determining influence when there were relatively few reviews presented to the participants for comparison. While this analogy is somewhat speculative, these findings may hint at the possibility that numerical ratio may moderate the effect of perceived social dominance on employee empowerment (or at least the impact component of it; see Figure 1). If this is the case, the relationship between perceived social dominance and empowerment may be stronger when there are relatively few expatriates present in the organisation.

Following Wolf and Latané (1985), Kruglanski and Mackie (1990) went further, implying that simple numerical differences alone may not have any particular direct effect at all, but rather it is the interaction between numbers and power that determines social influence. This is one of the possibilities that the present study will seek to explore in the proposed moderating role of numerical ratio on the effects of perceived social dominance on empowerment (Figure 1), although direct effects may also occur.

In a similar way, it may also be that the relationship between social identity and empowerment is only significant where relative group size provokes group-level social comparison. Intuitively, this would only occur when locals and expatriates make up reasonably equivalent proportions of the organisational workforce, that is, not either very small minorities or very large majorities. It is therefore possible that numerical ratio interacts with social identity, moderating its influences on empowerment, as shown in Figure 1.

Potential theoretical limitations in the present cultural context

Local Employee Empowerment

It is important to document some of the limitations of the conceptualisation of empowerment used in this study. Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) pointed out that feeling empowered is not the same as actually being empowered. Drawing on Foucault, Boje and Rosile (2001) argued that workers willingly participate in their own domination by being trained to 'feel more empowered' without having more actual power. Moore (2001) is skeptical of discussions of empowerment which omit the development of political power itself amongst the poor. While these critiques are important, my view is that distributions of actual power can be operationalised as perceived social dominance (as in the present study), which contributes to psychological empowerment (Figure 1)

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and consequently gives rise to other key outcomes such as satisfaction and effectiveness.

Moving beyond critique, Boje and Rosile (2001) suggest that power distribution may not be a zero-sum game. I find this an intriguing alternative to more traditional views of political power (Kipnis, 1972; Kipnis, Castell, Gergen, & Mauch, 1976), which imply in the current context that in order for local employees to gain power, expatriates need to give it up. It is particularly appealing because of the low likelihood within current development practice that expatriates (generally being donors, 'experts' and managers) will easily give up power, even as they may lament the lack of empowerment of their local colleagues, as suggested by social dominance theory (Sidanius & Pratto, 2003). Perhaps political power can be grown, rather than shared. Assuming expatriate power remains constant, such growth in local power would be reflected in the current study by lower levels of perceived social dominance and higher levels of psychological empowerment amongst local employees (Figure 1).

Much of the literature exploring the antecedents and consequences of empowerment has been developed in a Western context. Spreitzer (2008) acknowledges that research into the meaning of the dimensions of empowerment across cultures is very limited. Cultural characteristics such as collectivism and power distance may cause the dimensions of empowerment to "look different" (Spreitzer, 2008, p. 27). The present study is therefore an early opportunity to observe in more depth both how empowerment is constituted in the Philippines and which human dynamics contribute most significantly to it, as conceptualised in Figure 1.

Several studies in non-western settings, including the Philippines, have failed to report the adequacy of the model's structure or fit to their data (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Ergeneli, Sag, Ari, & Metin, 2007; Hechanova, Alampay, & Franco, 2006). However, clear factor analytic support for the four dimensional structure of empowerment has been found in China (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004). The present study will therefore seek to explore whether the structure of empowerment as validated elsewhere (Figure 1) is also evident in the Philippines within aid organisations.

Focusing on the antecedents of empowerment, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) in their survey-based study of 81 work teams across 4 countries, including the Philippines, hypothesised that cultural values such as power distance would interact with empowerment. However their hypotheses were not strongly supported, with a lack of

significant correlations preventing further analysis. While it seems intuitive to me that power distance may affect the relationships measured in the present study, there is clearly a need for further evidence to support this assertion. The present study's inclusion of perceived social dominance as a potential predictor of empowerment, indicated by the arrow in Figure 1, should provide some evidence to support or challenge this inference, as social dominance has been shown to be correlated with power distance (Glick, 2006).

Due to the lack of published research exploring the structure of empowerment and its relationship to antecedents or consequences in non-western contexts, the present study seeks to explore (a) whether Spreitzer and colleagues' conceptualisation of psychological empowerment is valid in a different cultural setting (the Philippines); and (b) which factors as shown in Figure 1 matter most in building local employee empowerment in aid organisations in the Philippines.

Perceived Social Dominance

Amongst other critiques, Turner and Reynolds (2003) argued that social dominance orientation could not be both ubiquitous and have varying levels; and that in social dominance theory, domination and hierarchy are inappropriately conflated. It seems to me that underneath these criticisms lies an assumption that social behaviour can only be determined by the immediate social environment, which is the philosophical position of social identity theory. Excluding the impact of both internal and more distal social factors seems unnecessarily narrow, particularly in the Philippine context, where colonisation and cross cultural interaction are important influences on both individual and group attitudes and behaviour. Schmitt and Branscombe (2003) took particular issue with some of the methodological techniques used by social dominance theorists. While there may be error caused by methodology in the research supporting social dominance theory, it does not seem clearly methodologically inferior to any other body of research, including that which supports social identity theory.

Social dominance theorists responded by protesting that social dominance theory had been caricatured and misunderstood, and argued that social dominance theory is of wider explanatory use than social identity theory (Sidanius & Pratto, 2003; Sidanius, et al., 2004). To remedy an acknowledged over-emphasis on individual social dominance orientation (SDO), they suggested that more effort be devoted to understanding how institutional discrimination acts to (re)create hierarchy in organisations. The present

focus on perceived attitudes towards hierarchy within aid organisations, rather than within individuals, is aligned with this observation, in that local employees' perceptions of social dominance in their organisational network (not individual social dominance orientation) is the target of measurement (see *Measures*).

In addition to the tension between individual and institutional foci, it is also a little unclear how social dominance might operate in different cultural settings. Pratto et al (2000) found that social dominance orientation was relatively consistent across samples taken in Canada, Taiwan, Israel and to a lesser extent China, in correlating with sexism, ethnic prejudice and conservatism. Other research supported cross cultural validity in Sweden, Australia and Russia (Sidanius & Pratto, 1993; Sidanius, Pratto, & Brief, 1993) as well as cultural sub-groups within the USA (Sidanius, Pratto, & Rabinowitz, 1994). Little or no research has been conducted in lower-income, high-poverty contexts, such as the Philippines. Interestingly, although Pratto et al (2000) used standard SDO scales across all four countries, they recommend that other researchers may find local adaptation of SDO scales more useful in strengthening local relevance. The current study has followed their advice and adapted the SDO scale, given that no cross-cultural comparison is desired (see *Measures*).

In a surprisingly specific comment, given the present study's focus, Pratto et al (2000) stated that;

> *"…we have not focused on explanations involving self-esteem, the effects of majorities, or theoretical definitions of justice as other research on intergroup relations has, because we suspect these are mainly relevant in societies in which individual autonomy and bourgeois law are paramount"* (p. 397).

It is striking that this list of pertinent issues so closely matches the focus of the present study. Indeed, if it is true that these ideas are not relevant in societies where individual autonomy and bourgeois law are less entrenched (such as the Philippines), then this is a significant challenge to the validity of the present study.

It seems unlikely that one construct (social dominance) would be consistent across cultures while others (eg. majority influence or justice) are only relevant in individualistic societies, although clearly constructs developed and verified in western settings may be observed differently elsewhere. In any case, Pratto et al's (2000)

naming of social influence (numerical ratio), justice, and empowerment could be viewed as backhanded support for these constructs' inclusion alongside perceived social dominance (Figure 1) in this study. If this study finds that all measured effects are relatively weak in the Philippines, this would add some empirical support to their assertion.

Social Identity

As has been noted earlier in relation to empowerment and social dominance, the present context also poses a challenge for social identity theory, which has been developed mainly in a western setting (Bond & Hewstone, 1988). In social identity theory the out-group must be reasonably comparable (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). Western expatriates may not be sufficiently similar to provoke outgroup comparison by locals (Carr, et al., 1996; Coates & Carr, 2005) in the Philippines. Additionally, any differences may be viewed as legitimate, in which case efforts to improve self-esteem (the motivation for group identity formation) may not occur (Brown, 2000). Local employees may internalise their own identity as inferior and less deserving. This possibility (which is consistent with social dominance theory) is a provocative one.

The predicted link between social identity and empowerment, as shown in Figure 1, is also less than convincingly supported in the literature. While the balance of empirical evidence supports positive self-esteem as an outcome of social identity formation (Brown, 2000), Turner (1999) views this as peripheral to social identity theory. In the context of this contested theoretical framework, I follow MacLachlan et al (2010) in viewing positive social identity as a key psychological mechanism that helps create and sustain self-esteem. At the very least, this study seeks to explore this hypothesised relationship in a context where it has not been studied before.

The Philippine context of the present study may affect the way that social identity operates. Toh and Denisi (2007) argued that ethnic difference is itself a salient group differentiating variable. Their theoretical model built on earlier findings that Chinese and British citizens of Hong Kong identify with and differentiate between ethnic groups differently (Bond & Hewstone, 1988). So potentially, social identity might operate differently than theorised amongst the Filipino employees that are the subject of the present study. Ethnic identity has been found to have a potent influence on attitudes, perceptions and behaviours in both American ($N = 104$) and Indian ($N = 118$) contexts, based on surveys of employees of multinational corporations (Varma, et al., 2006). The

current study builds on these findings, exploring the impact of ethnically based social identity on employee empowerment (Figure 1) in a fresh context; the Philippines. Could this context also affect the way that justice operates?

Organisational Justice

Individual and collective cultural orientations may affect perceptions of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In some cultures, moral and interpersonal factors may be more important than pay (Toh & Denisi, 2003). Beugr (2002) suggests that the meaning of justice in Africa may be different from western contexts; it could be about a different mix of equity, empowerment or equality. Could it also differ in the Philippines? Gelfand, Erez, and Aycan (2007) reviewed a range of constructs, including justice, from a cross cultural perspective. They noted that two major meta-analyses conflicted regarding perceptions of justice: Sama and Papamarcos (2000) found individual cultures preferred equity, while collective cultures preferred equality, but Fischer and Smith (2003) found no relationship or difference. Gelfand et al (2007) pointed out that little research has been conducted to resolve this ambiguity in specifically intercultural settings. The current study seeks to address this deficit by exploring perceptions of justice in the Philippines.

While the way justice operates across cultures calls for further study, its theoretical framework is also partly unresolved. While distributive and procedural justice were distinguished fairly early on, by the late 1990s, consensus about other types of justice was beginning to unravel (Bies, 2005). In a meta-analytic attempt at clarification, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) confirmed the existence of three sub-types of justice; distributive, procedural and interactional, as shown in Figure 2. Unfortunately the findings of the Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) study were undermined somewhat by the lack of multivariate analysis and a small number of errors which were later acknowledged by the authors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2002).

However, other theorists argued that the fairness of human interactions included two aspects, namely how information was communicated (informational justice) and how well people were treated by others in those interactions (interpersonal justice, as in Figure 2) (Greenberg, 1990). Colquitt (2001) demonstrated via factor analysis that a 4-dimensional conceptualisation of justice fit the observed data better than the 3-dimensional approach popularised by Niehoff and Moorman (1993), although I note that

the goodness of fit of all models tested was poor to mediocre[2]. While I agree with Colquitt et al (2001) that a 4 dimensional model of justice is justified, I find Bies' (2005) approach informative; he believes in the 2 components of interactional justice but also states that whether it is one component or two does not matter. The main thing is to measure interactional justice separately from procedural justice (Bies, 2005).

Using a meta-analytic approach, Colquitt, et al (2001) explored the impact of the (four) different types of justice on various outcome variables. While distributive justice was generally found to make the most difference on outcomes, this conflicted with some well executed survey based studies (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Folger & Konovsky, 1989) which had found stronger relationships between procedural justice and outcomes. The persisting contested patterns of influence of the different components of justice on outcomes such as empowerment (Figure 1) are explored in the present study.

McAuliffe et al (2009) explored the impact of organisational justice on job satisfaction of mid level employees in Malawi. They found strong relationships between all dimensions of organisational justice and job satisfaction using an instrument derived from the 3 dimensional model of organisational justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). As their setting most closely matches my context (mid-level local employees in a country where expatriate involvement is significant), I have adopted the use of the instrument used by McAuliffe et al (2009) and followed their use of a 3 factor model of justice, as shown in Figure 2. By exploring the relationships between justice and empowerment in a Philippine sample, the present study seeks to contribute more closely to an understanding of the effects of justice on work within the aid and development context.

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[2] A model that fits the data well should have a χ^2/df ratio of less than 2 and RMSEA values less than .05 (Byrne, 2001). The χ^2/df ratio of the models tested by Colquitt (2001) ranged from 7.63 to 2.08 in a sample (N=337) of manufacturing employees, and from 4.85 to 1.90 in a sample (N=301) of university students. Root mean square errors of approximation (RMSEA) were all larger than .055.

Chapter 2 - Method

Participants

A total of *N* = 98 respondents completed a survey (86 in English and 12 in Tagalog, the two official languages of the Philippines). The target population was Filipino aid sector employees, working in the Philippines. Seven development practitioners with access to potential respondents agreed to distribute (by email) invitations to participate in an online survey to their staff and contacts within the sector. Response rate could not be calculated as some mailing lists were operated on a subscribe-in basis, meaning numbers receiving the invitation to participate were not established.

Of the *N* = 82 participants who indicated their gender, 24 were male (29%) and 58 were female (71%). The mean age was 35.5 years, ranging from 20 to 66 years old. The mean length of employment in aid sector was 10.9 years, ranging from 4 months to 39 years. Respondents were highly qualified, with 52% holding an undergraduate degree and a further 38% holding a graduate degree of some kind. Analysis of respondent computer internet protocol address ownership and geographical location revealed a diverse pattern of respondents from around the Philippines[3]. The sample is sufficiently varied and is adequate for exploratory research.

Measures

For local employee empowerment, perceived social dominance, social identity, justice and social desirability (provided the items factor analysed into a predicted pattern), item scores were added together and divided by the number of items to obtain mean scores per item per factor (composite scores). Factor analyses are outlined in the Results section. Mean scores are included in Table 8.

Local Employee Empowerment

Empowerment of Filipino aid and development employees (the target respondent group) was measured with the multidimensional measure developed by Spreitzer (1995). The 12-item measure (Items 1-12 in *Appendix A*, p. 69) was evaluated on a 7-

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[3] It had been intended that organisational affiliation would be measured directly, but ethical issues around collecting this information about respondents resulted in the removal of this question from the survey. IP address ownership and geographical location do not provide explicit evidence of organisational affiliation, but they do indicate that clustering of respondents at the organisational level is very unlikely in this sample.

point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Respondents were asked to rate how much they agreed with a series of statements about themselves. In this study, the word 'department' was replaced by the phrase 'department or workgroup' in three items. Higher scores reflected higher levels of empowerment. Spreitzer (1995) reported using confirmatory factor analysis that the overall measure taps into four underlying and interrelated constructs that together represent empowerment. Items 1-3 are associated with meaning; items 4-6 are associated with competence; items 7-9 are associated with self-determination; and items 10-12 are associated with impact. These constructs were both scored separately and added together to constitute empowerment, depending on the focus of analysis.

This measure has been used in some cross-cultural research, for example in China, Turkey, Singapore, Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom (Spreitzer, 2008). While Cronbach's Alpha was reported for the overall measure by Spreitzer to be between .62 and .72 based on two US samples (which included men and women; a range of ages; a range of education levels), in the Philippines it has only been demonstrated to have "fair" psychometric properties (Hechanova, et al., 2006). Hence any observed factor structure will be explored in the Results section.

Demographics

A number of single questions asked respondents to provide demographic information (see *Appendix A*, p. 73). These were intended as post hoc control variables. Single questions asked respondents to provide information about their age, gender, years of experience working in the aid sector, job title and highest qualification. A single question asked respondents to estimate the ratio between local and expatriate salaries within their organisational network.

Numerical Ratio

A single question asked respondents to estimate the numerical ratio between local and expatriate employees in their organisational network (*Appendix A*, p. 73).

Perceived Social Dominance

Following Coates and Carr (2005), a measure of perceived social dominance was adapted from Pratto et al (1994). Respondents now rated the social dominance of their organisational setting, rather than their own individual attitudes towards social dominance. They were asked to rate "*how strongly people in your organizational*

network would agree" with a series of statements, such as "*Around here, some groups of people are quietly regarded as inferior to others*". 14 items (Items 49-62 in *Appendix A*, p. 72) were rated on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Higher scores reflect higher perceptions of social dominance within the organisational network. Seven items were reverse coded (half the statements supported equality and half supported inequality). This differed from the original 'Which of the following do you have a positive or negative feeling towards?' (Pratto, et al., 1994). The phrase "organisational network" was described as "the people you would normally be expected to work with, both international and local, in your organisation, partnership or project."

Pratto et al (2000) found that social dominance was relatively internally reliable across samples taken in Canada (α =.85) Taiwan (α =.76), Israel (α =.81). Cross cultural validity in Sweden, Australia, Russia and amongst cultural sub-groups within the United States has also been supported (Sidanius, et al., 1993). Interestingly, although Pratto et al (2000) adapted other scales for each context, they used identical social dominance scales across all four countries. While this has benefits for comparability (the goal of that study), they recommend that other researchers may find local adaptation of SDO measure more useful in strengthening local relevance. The current study has followed their advice and adapted their SDO measure, given that no cross-cultural comparison is desired.

In the item wording, the original phrases 'some people', and 'others', were replaced with 'local workers' and 'expatriates' in order to make the intended referent groups explicit. Items were also rephrased to refer specifically to the respondents' organisational setting, rather than the global reference setting used in the original. For example, in one item, the phrase 'in an ideal world' was replaced with 'in this organisational network'.

While the original reported reliability for this measure exceeded .9 (Pratto et al, 1994), it has performed slightly less reliably in other contexts. The notably lower reliability reported in China (α = .66; (Pratto, et al., 2000) indicates that reliability in the present context may not match the original high levels reported. Hence the observed factor structure will be explored in the Results section.

Social Identity

Social identity was assessed using by a 10-item measure (Items SI-33 – SI-42 in *Appendix A*, p. 71) adapted from Ellemers, Kortekaas and Ouwerkerk (1999). Items 33-36 are associated with self esteem; items 37-39 are associated with self-categorisation; while items 40-42 are associated with commitment to the group. Respondents were asked how much they agreed with a series of statements, such as "*I feel good about being Filipino*". To maintain consistency, the same 7-item Likert as in the previous questions was used in this measure, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Respondents were asked to rate how much they agreed with a series of statements. Item scores were added together and divided by the number of items to obtain composite scores. Higher scores reflect stronger self esteem, self-categorisation and commitment to the group, and when added together, stronger social identity as a whole.

Item wording was made more explicit in this study compared with the original measure, replacing 'the group' with 'being Filipino' or similar. This was done to ensure that the salient group identity being measured was ethnic identity – being Filipino, rather than being part of other groups within the organisation. Ellemers et al (1999) reported an overall reliability for this scale of .82, and using principal components analysis derived three separate dimensions of social identity from this measure in validation studies in other contexts. The observed factor structure in the present, significantly different, setting will be explored in the Results section.

Organisational Justice

Organisational justice was measured by a 20-item measure (Items 13-32 in *Appendix A*, p. 70) originally developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) and consists of three subscales. Items 13-18 are associated with procedural justice; items 19-27 are associated with interactional justice; items 28-32 are associated with distributive justice. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement with a number of statements, such as "*My manager/supervisor … treats me with sensitivity when I ask questions*", on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree)

The sub-scales have good reported reliability (distributive justice: α between .72 and .74; procedural justice: α = .85; interactive justice: α = .92 (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). McAuliffe et al (2009) adapted the original measure for use in Malawi amongst mid-level health workers, altering the wording of all items from individual sentences to

a stem and clause format. In the Malawian study, each item was evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale (reported reliabilities above .90 on all three subscales). The present study uses a wording identical to McAuliffe et al (2009), with a reinstatement of Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) original 7-point response scale for consistency with other measures. The measure remains untested in the Philippines, and in aid. Any observed factor structure will be explored in the Results section, in order to examine the measure's performance in the current context.

Social Desirability

A measure of social desirability bias was presented together with the social identity measure, discussed above. 6 items (Items SD-43 – SD-48 in *Appendix A*, p. 71) taken from Fischer and Fick (1993) were presently approximately alternately with those measuring social identity. Fischer and Fick (1993) tested the reliability and explanatory power of a wide range of social desirability scales. They found that the 6 items referred to by them as Revised Form X2 are, amongst shortened forms of social desirability measures, the measure of choice, yielding acceptable internal consistency, observed reliability of .76 and a good overall fit with the full 33 item social desirability bias measure published by Crowne and Marlowe (1960). These 6 items have therefore been used to measure social desirability in the present study (*Appendix A*, p. 71).

Originally, the response options to these items were dichotomous (T/F). To maintain consistency with the social identity items with which these social desirability items were presented, responses range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Responses > 4 were recoded T while responses < 4 were recoded F. Responses of exactly 4 were recoded as missing.

Procedure

All data was collected at a single point in time via a single online survey. The survey design and wording had to be as consistent as possible throughout, in order to be clearly understandable for respondents with 2nd language familiarity[4]. Significant effort went into improving the quality of measure items where rewording from the original took place, in line with recommendations from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and

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[4] While Tagalog and English are the two official languages of the Philippines, many Filipinos' first language is neither of these, being instead one of the several hundred languages spoken across the Philippine archipelago.

Podsakoff (2003). Observations about common method variance appear in the Discussion section.

The decision to provide both the invitation to participate and the survey itself in both Tagalog, the most widespread indigenous language in the Philippines, and in English, was taken after consultation with a cultural advisor and pilot testing. The advice from my cultural advisor was that Tagalog would be more likely to elicit an honest assessment of empowerment amongst Filipino people than English. However, in the pilot testing phase, requests for an English version were received. This perhaps reflects the unique balance of language familiarity between Tagalog and English in the Philippines, where English is widely spoken and is preferred over Tagalog by some Filipinos. Past studies in the Philippines (Hechanova, et al., 2006; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001) have included survey instruments in English only. However language is known to affect identity (Coupland, 2001; Finlayson, Calteaux, & Myers-Scotton, 1998) and in the Philippines English is the language of past colonisers and current powerbrokers. Faced with this complex situation, and in the interests of alignment, I decided to allow respondents to choose which language they completed the survey in, accepting that this might further complicate the data.

Through past work experience in the Philippines, a number of contacts were made with people involved in aid and development work in the Philippines. These people included executive directors, programme specialists and research associates in a range of development associations and organisations. They agreed to distribute an email on behalf of the researcher inviting participation to their staff or mailing lists.

The email inviting participation outlined the voluntary nature of participation and provided links to the online survey, which could be completed in either Tagalog or English. This email was in both Tagalog and English. The Tagalog text in the email invitation had undergone a process of translation and back-translation to ensure equivalent meaning with the English (Brislin, 1980). Translation (from English to Tagalog) was undertaken by a bilingual translator. Back-translation (from the resultant Tagalog back into English) was undertaken by a second bilingual translator without reference to the original English text. No significant discrepancies were noted.

As with the invitation to participate, the survey instructions and items were translated into Tagalog, which along with English, is an official language of the Philippines. Following recommendations outlined by Brislin (1980) and Bontempo (1993), the survey was translated and back-translated by separate translators, as

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described above in relation to the email invitation. Discrepancies between the original English version and the back-translated English version were resolved in consultation with a third bilingual consultant. A small number of significant phrases in the Tagalog version of the questionnaire were altered as a result of this consultation, markedly improving the consistency between the two language versions of the questionnaire.

Participants' confidentiality and anonymity was also guaranteed. Participants were provided with a separate email address, by which they could register an interest in receiving a summary of findings. Respondents were asked to self-identify for eligibility in the opening paragraph of the invitation, the criteria being whether they were Filipino, and whether they worked in the aid and/or development sector.

The data in this study was collected by an online survey hosted at http://www.kwiksurveys.com between 28 January 2011 and 10 April 2011. This system offers a secure and independent set of survey tools. Once complete, the data was downloaded from the kwiksurveys.com server to a local computer and analysed using SPSS v17.0. See Appendix A for a complete copy of the survey, both in English and Tagalog.

Chapter 3 - Results

Checking the properties of the measures

Where measures were single item, descriptions of central tendency and spread were used to assess their suitability for inclusion in the regression analyses to follow. Where the measures were multi-item, an inductive, exploratory factor analysis was used to assess the factor structure of the measures. In particular, exploratory factor analysis was chosen over confirmatory analysis because the population from which the sample was taken (Filipino aid workers) may differ significantly from the populations used to validate the instruments in the literature. A Harman test was used to assess whether a single second-order factor was also justified in each case.

Numerical Ratio of Filipino:Expatriate workers

The distribution of this variable was strongly negatively skewed (mean = .8425, skewness = -2.035) with a high degree of kurtosis (3.936). Sixty-five percent of respondents estimated that ethnically their organisational network was between 90% and 99% Filipino. Only 11% of the entire sample estimated that Filipino people made up less than 50% of the people in their organisational network. These descriptive statistics indicate that this variable had insufficient distributional spread/variability to be meaningfully used in this study. It was therefore not included in any further regression analyses and no exploration of the linearity of relationships between numbers and empowerment (Latané, 1981) took place.

Salary Ratio between Filipino:Expatriate workers

Only 55 of 98 respondents answered the question about salary ratio in their organizational network. Of those 55 who responded, 23 (42%) estimated that Filipino salaries were between 10% and 50% of expatriate salaries. 6 (15%) indicated that Filipino salaries were the same or greater than expatriates. The distribution of the variable was mildly skewed (mean = .3538; skewness = 1.130)[5]. The large number of missing values (44% of the sample) indicates this data needs to be treated with caution, and therefore this variable was not included in any of the following, planned regression analyses.

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[5] Note that two outliers were excluded from the salary ratio analysis – both worked alongside volunteer expatriates and estimated their salary to be significantly greater than their expatriate colleagues as a result.

Protocol for Factor Analyses

As outlined above, these factor analyses are exploratory. The present context differs significantly from the contexts in which the measures used were originally developed (see *Method*). Additionally, some instruments have been adapted to the local setting (see *Procedure*). Because the primary objective was to account for the relationships amongst the items, principal axis factoring was used throughout, rather than other potential methods such as principal components analysis, which would be better suited for other objectives such as reducing the number of subcomponents within a measure (Spicer, 2005). I expected some relationship between the variables, for example between the components of local employee empowerment, as indicated in Figure 1. Hence direct oblimin rotations were employed. Where items cross-loaded evenly and significantly on more than one extracted factor, or did not load significantly on any factor, these were removed and the analysis was re-run without them (where items were deleted on either basis, this is noted on each relevant factor solution table below). Once a stable and clear factor solution had been obtained (factors required eigenvalues > 1), items on each factor were summed and divided by the number of items to provide a composite and comparable variable for each factor, for each measure (Spicer, 2005). Alpha coefficients represent the reliability of each of these composite variables.

The factor analysis of the perceived social dominance measure needed to be handled slightly differently. This measure is claimed by its authors to have just one factor (Pratto, et al., 1994), a claim that is based on; (1) a large drop between the first and second eigenvalues under an exploratory principle components analysis of all archival samples; and (2) a satisfactory χ^2 / df ratio (indicator of model fit) for a model with a single underlying construct, tested on the largest ($N = 446$) archival sample using maximum likelihood estimation. However neither the actual eigenvalues nor the item loadings on the single factor were reported in Pratto et al (1994). These reported procedures do not appear to constitute a traditional single factor Harman test (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). Hence I used the protocol outlined above to explore the measure's structure in situ with my sample, allowing for the possibility of one factor, or more, by including a Harman test.

Empowerment

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = .820) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .000$) indicated the data was suitable for factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis resulted in 4 factors (with eigenvalues > 1, Kaiser's criterion) being extracted (Spicer, 2005). The factor loading pattern (Table 1) matched that reported by Spreitzer (1995). Good levels of reliability were observed (meaning .799; competence .831; self-determination .909; impact .830). The factor solution is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Factor solution for Empowerment measure

| *Factor* | Item | *Factor* | | | |
		Competence	Self-Determination	Meaning	Impact
Competence	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	.882			
	I am confident about my ability to do my job	.832			
	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	.646			
Self-Determination	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job		-.923		
	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work		-.905		
	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job		-.759		
Meaning	My job activities are personally meaningful to me			.936	
	The work I do is meaningful to me			.846	
	The work I do is very important to me			.383	
Impact	I have significant influence over what happens in my department or workgroup				-.943
	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department or workgroup				-.646
	My impact on what happens in my department or workgroup is large				-.520
Eigenvalue		5.233	1.918	1.348	1.012
% Variance		43.610	15.984	11.237	8.432
Total Variance		43.610	59.595	70.832	79.264
Cronbach's Alpha		.831	.909	.799	.830

Note: Loadings <.3 have been suppressed, in accordance with Burt and Banks' (1947) formula.

Spreitzer (1995) argued that a single composite second-order factor solution, combining these same four extracted factors was valid, in addition to the separate

factors themselves. The factor correlations in this sample are moderate, indicating neither multi-collinearity nor lack of cohesion amongst the factors (Table 2). All items also loaded on the first unrotated factor, indicating that all items shared variance with an overall underlying construct, thus passing a Harman test. I therefore followed Spreitzer's advice and constructed a composite measure representing the overall construct of empowerment, including all items above, to be used alongside the four separate factors in Table 1. From Table 1, Alphas for the four factors are all reasonable. Cronbach's Alpha for the overall empowerment measure was .866.

Table 2. Factor Correlations for Empowerment measure

Factor	Competence	Self-Determination	Meaning	Impact
Competence	1.000	-.279	.387	-.493
Self-Determination	-.279	1.000	-.219	.477
Meaning	.387	-.219	1.000	-.397
Impact	-.493	.477	-.397	1.000

Perceived Social Dominance

As mentioned above, before testing the factor structure according to my protocol (which assumes underlying factors), I checked for a single underlying factor structure using the same tests as reported in Pratto et al (1994): Exploratory principal components analysis with direct oblimin rotation (which is designed to explain maximum variance with the minimum number of factors). This analysis resulted however in three factors, not the single factor reported in Pratto et al (1994). The first three eigenvalues (after one cross loading item was removed) were 5.26, 2.108, and 1.218. Following Pratto et al (1994), I then tested a model in which all items were based on a single underlying factor using maximum likelihood estimation, requiring a single factor solution. The final communalities for 9 of 14 items were less than .5, indicating that these items shared relatively little variance with the extracted factor. Two of the 14 items were not significantly correlated with the single factor extracted at all. The χ^2/df ratio was 4.173 ($p = .000$), indicating a less than satisfactory fit to the model (Shimizu, Vondracek, & Schulenberg, 1994). Hence a one-factor model seems too simplified.

In view of these findings I then conducted an exploratory principle axis factor analysis, according to my protocol. KMO (.782) and Bartlett's sphericity test ($p < .000$) statistics indicated the data was suitable for factor analysis. The analysis resulted in

three meaningful factors, which in Table 3 I have labeled 'Inequality', 'Expatriate attitudes', and 'Equality.'

Table 3. Factor solution for Perceived Social Dominance measure

Factors		Factor loadings		
		Inequality	Expatriate Attitudes	Equality
Inequality (across the organization)	Local workers are not really treated as the equal of expatriates	.702		
	Expatriate workers regard themselves as more worthy than local workers	.829		
	Expatriate workers don't really care about how equal all groups of people are	.780		
	Expatriate workers are treated as more deserving than others	.838		
	Around here, some groups of people are quietly regarded as inferior to others	.457		
	To get ahead in life, some expatriates find it necessary to step on others	.558	.315	
Expatriate Attitudes toward Equality	Most expatriates genuinely believe that increased economic equality is a good thing **		.832	
	Most expatriates genuinely believe that increased social equality is a good thing **		.937	
	Most expatriates genuinely believe that equality is a good thing **		.821	
	If expatriates and locals were treated more equally we would have fewer problems in our organizational network **		.454	
Equality (across the organization)	In this organizational network, all groups of people are regarded as equal **			.628
	All workers, whether expatriate or local, are treated equally **			.978
Eigenvalue		5.232	2.090	1.155
% Variance		43.596	17.420	9.621
Total Variance		43.596	61.016	70.637
Cronbach's Alpha		.881	.839	.813

** Item reverse scored
Note that item "Most expatriates genuinely believe that it is important to treat other groups of people as equals" was removed from factor solution as it cross-loaded (> .4) on two factors. Item "It is not a problem if our expatriate colleagues have more of a chance in life than others" was removed from factor solution as it did not load significantly on any factor. Loadings <.3 have been suppressed, in accordance with Burt and Banks' (1947) formula.

One item cross-loaded and was removed in order to obtain a clearer factor structure ('Most expatriates genuinely believe that it is important to treat other groups of people as equals'). One item did not load significantly on any factor and was removed ('It is not a problem if our expatriate colleagues have more of a chance in life than others'). Observed reliabilities were: Inequality .881; Expatriate attitudes .839; Equality .813. Final Alphas are within an acceptable range (Table 3).

Social Identity

KMO (.877) and Bartlett's sphericity (p < .000) test results indicated data was suitable for factor analysis. One item ("I would rather belong to another ethnic group (other than Filipino)") cross-loaded and was removed in order to obtain a clearer factor structure. Exploratory factor analysis found 2 factors, instead of the three originally reported by Ellemers, Kortekaas and Ouwerkerk (1999), although it appears that two of the original factors ('group self-esteem' and 'commitment to the group') observed by Ellemers et al (1999) have collapsed into a single underlying 'self respect' factor in this study (Table 4). Observed reliabilities were .853 (self respect) and .698 (self-categorisation).

Table 4. Factor solution for Social Identity measure

Factors		*Factor loadings*	
		Self Respect	Self-Categorisation
Self Respect	I have little respect for Filipinos **	.858	
	I dislike being Filipino **	.814	
	I would like to continue working with Filipinos	.776	
	I feel good about being Filipino	.729	
	I think Filipinos have little to be proud of **	.469	
	I would rather not tell that I am Filipino **	.437	
Self-Categorisation	I am like other Filipinos		.663
	Being Filipino is an important reflection of who I am		.640
	I identify with other Filipinos		.481
Eigenvalues		5.280	1.067
% Variance		52.804	10.665
Total Variance		52.804	63.469
Cronbach's Alpha		.853	.698

** Item reverse scored
Note that item "I would rather belong to another ethnic group (other than Filipino)" removed from factor solution as it cross-loaded (> .4) on to more than one factor.

The observed factor structure in the current study differs from that reported in the original validation study (Ellemers, et al., 1999), but as the correlation between the two extracted factors was .601, the original affirmation of social identity as an overarching construct seems also to be the case in the present context. I therefore constructed a composite measure representing the overall construct of social identity, including all items above, plus the item "I would rather belong to another ethnic group (other than Filipino)". Cronbach's Alpha for the overall social identity measure was .885.

Organisational Justice

KMO (.894) and Bartlett's sphericity ($p < .000$) test results indicated that the measure was suitable for factor analysis. One item cross-loaded ("I am satisfied with … my pay") and was subsequently removed in order to obtain a clearer factor structure. The factor loading pattern (Table 5) matched that reported by both Niehoff and Moorman (1993) and Spreitzer (1995). Observed reliabilities were .948 (interactional justice), .951 (procedural justice) and .810 (distributive justice).

Table 5. Factor solution for Organisational Justice measure

Factors	"My manager/supervisor…"	Factor loadings		
		Interactional Justice	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice
Interactional Justice	...takes account of my needs when handling a problem	.874		
	...treats me fairly	.856		
	...treats me with politeness	.848		
	...considers my views when decisions are made about handling a problem	.802		
	...treats me with sensitivity when I ask questions	.768		
	...tries hard to be fair to me	.692		
	...listens to my personal concerns	.655		
	...shows concern for my rights	.628	-.309	
	...is honest with me	.625		
Procedural Justice	... gives me an explanation for decisions		-.903	
	...provides explanations for why changes take place		-.886	
	...gives adequate explanations and reasons for decisions/changes		-.877	
	...seems sincere when explaining reasons for particular decisions/changes		-.849	
	...explains how changes will take place		-.820	
	...is honest and candid regarding reasons for decisions/changes made		-.637	
Distributive Justice	*"I am satisfied with…"*			
	...my job all in all			.894
	...my current job assignments			.762
	...my relationships with other employees			.657
	...the opportunities for promotion I have in my organisational network			.523
Eigenvalue		10.794	2.094	1.602
% Variance		56.810	11.023	8.429
Total Variance		56.810	67.833	76.262
Cronbach's Alpha		.948	.951	.810

Note that item "I am satisfied with…my pay" was removed from factor solution as it cross-loaded (> .4) on to more than one factor.

The factor correlations in this sample are moderate, indicating neither multicollinearity nor lack of cohesion amongst the factors (Table 6). All items in the original measure also loaded on the first unrotated factor, indicating shared variance with an overall underlying construct. I therefore constructed an additional composite

measure representing the overall construct of organisational justice, including all items above, plus the item "I am satisfied with … my pay". Cronbach's Alpha for the overall Organisational justice measure was .951.

Table 6. Factor correlations for Organisational Justice measure

Factor	Interactional Justice	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice
Interactional Justice	1.000	-.559	.515
Procedural Justice	-.559	1.000	-.405
Distributive Justice	.515	-.405	1.000

Social Desirability

Before proceeding with the regression analyses, I had intended to run a test of social desirability across the data as a whole. Because the measure of social desirability was multi-item, a check was first undertaken on its factor structure, following the protocol outlined above. However KMO (.539) and Bartlett's sphericity ($p < .004$) test results indicated the social desirability data was marginal for factor analysis. The initial communalities were low (all less than .250; five of the six less than .160; Table 7) indicating that each item has little variance in common with the measure as a whole (Spicer, 2005). Further, observed overall reliability was poor (Cronbach's Alpha = .464).

Table 7. Communalities for Social Desirability measure

	Initial	Extraction
I have never intensely disliked anyone* *	.078	.177
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable**	.069	.371
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way	.241	.506
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right	.158	.540
There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others	.097	.153
I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me	.109	.291

** Scoring reversed

    In retrospect, the items in this measure were developed and normed over fifty years ago on a number of samples at Ohio State University in the United States (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). While the measure remains popular in psychological research, and thus was included in the present study, the present sample (Filipino aid sector employees) differed culturally from the samples on which the norms were based. The

pattern of responses to this measure did not match the expected pattern, for example, on one item, "I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable," almost everyone strongly agreed, indicating almost universal strong social desirability bias, according to the norms of the measure (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). I believe this reflects Filipino cultural preferences regarding maintaining social harmony (Sison, 1999), more than a tendency or bias to give socially desirable answers in a survey.

Given the potential for cultural norm differences to undermine the validity of the measure, and its poor performance in this sample, I regard this measure as not valid for analysis as a whole. As a precautionary measure however, the item with the highest initial communality ('I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way': .241) was examined for correlations with the variables in Figure 1, as measured above. Scores of this proxy item for social desirability did not correlate significantly with any predictor or dependent variable considered in this study ($p < .05$, one-tailed), providing some reassurance regarding social desirability[6].

Descriptive statistics

Having established the structure of the measures, it is important to note the basic levels of each key construct. Hence, I now present basic descriptives in Table 8. Likert rating scores on all measures ranged from 1 (low) to 7 (high). On the average, from Table 8, the respondents perceived themselves as consistently highly empowered (mean = 6.162, s.d. = .580), experiencing fairness in their organisational network (mean = 5.835, s.d. = .781) and having a strong sense of social identity (mean = 6.080, s.d. = .971). Notably, they were less positive and more divergent in their perceptions about aspects of social dominance, with general slight

Table 8: Descriptives of all variables

	Mean	Std. Dev.
Empowerment	6.162	0.580
Competence	6.330	0.596
Self-Determination	5.935	0.911
Meaning	6.646	0.483
Impact	5.677	1.135
Inequality	4.350	1.339
Expatriate Attitudes (towards equality)	2.818	0.979
Equality	3.463	1.591
Organisational Justice	5.835	0.781
Interactional Justice	5.950	0.874
Procedural Justice	5.983	0.848
Distributive Justice	5.565	1.012
Social Identity	6.080	0.971
Self Respect	6.288	1.019
Self Categorisation	5.502	1.205
Social Desirability	3.325	.829
Age (years)	35.476	10.531
Years experience	10.887	8.543

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[6] As none of the correlations between this proxy item and any other variable were significant, they were omitted from Table 9 below. Descriptives for the composite social desirability measure are included for reference in Table 8.

disagreement with the propositions that; expatriates believed in equality (mean = 2.818, s.d. = .979); and that all groups of people are regarded as equal in their organisational network (mean = 3.463, s.d. = 1.591). The mean age of respondents was 35.476 years and mean years of experience in the development sector was 10.887 years. The large standard deviations of both age (10.531) and years experience in the sector (8.543) are indicative of significant diversity amongst respondents. This pattern is consistent with a relatively confident workforce which is conscious of power relations around them.

Univariate correlations between the key constructs

Having verified the structure of the measures in this study, found that socially desirable responses are not clearly discernable and briefly reviewed the central tendencies for each variable, I now turn to the pattern of univariate correlations () between the observed variables, in order to begin exploring the relationships between them. Additionally, these univariate relationships provide the basis for the multivariate regression analysis which is to follow, in that only variables with significant correlations will be included. As outlined in Figure 1, demographic variables such as age and years of experience in the development sector may affect local employee empowerment, and they are included in Table 9. No significant correlations between other demographic variables such as level of education or gender and any of the target variables were observed. Hence they do not appear in Table 9.

Reviewing the top horizontal band of correlations in Table 9, the most striking feature is the moderate but statistically clearly significant correlations found between work justice as a whole, and all four facets of empowerment (competence = .325, $p <$ .01; self-determination = .482, $p <$ .01; meaning = .382, $p <$ .01; impact = .477, $p <$ .01; see Figure 2).

Social identity correlates significantly with two facets of empowerment, being the sense of meaning employees have (.402, $p <$ .01) and the sense of impact they feel (.538, $p <$ .01). Age and years' experience working in the development sector also relate to competence, meaning and impact, but not with self-determination. The pattern of correlations observed amongst perceptions of equality, inequality, expatriate attitudes about equality and empowerment is varied.

Outstanding features in Table 9 include the high correlations between interactional and organisational justice (.924, $p <$ .01), perhaps indicating that some redundancy exists between interactional and organisational justice, or maybe in the

present study, interactional justice is simply the most salient aspect of justice for respondents. Similarly, both self respect (.941, $p < .01$) and self-categorisation (.818, $p < .01$) correlate very highly with the composite social identity construct. Age and years of experience are also highly correlated (.801, $p < .01$; Table 9), although this is to be expected, given that older people are clearly more likely to also have more experience. These notable intercorrelations between predictor variables may indicate weak discriminant validity, an issue which is checked in the following regression analyses via the tolerance statistic outlined in the protocol (below).

No significant correlations between either of salary ratio or numerical ratio and any of the key variables were observed. Therefore these two variables are not included in Table 9.

Table 9. Correlation matrix

Column groups: *Empowerment* (Competence, Self-Determination, Meaning, Impact); *Dominance* (Age, Years experience, Inequality, Expatriate Attitudes, Equality); *Identity* (Self Respect, Self-Categorisation, Social Identity); *Justice* (Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Organisational Justice).

	Competence	Self-Determination	Meaning	Impact	Age	Years experience	Inequality	Expatriate Attitudes	Equality	Self Respect	Self-Categorisation	Social Identity	Interactional Justice	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice	Organisational Justice
Empowerment	.684**	.750**	.667**	.866**	.311**	.316**		-.266*	-.390**	.254*		.302**	.488**	.402**	.513**	.538**
Competence		.322*	.411**	.540**	.276	.336**		-.318**	-.382**				.243*	.277**	.379**	.325**
Self-Determination			.336**	.479**									.451**	.345**	.406**	.482**
Meaning				.493**	.219*	.259*		-.281*	-.372**	.292*	.362**	.402**	.293**	.306**	.450**	.382**
Impact					.307**	.319**		-.307**	-.410**	.525**	.333**	.538**	.462**	.264*	.513**	.477**
Age						.801**										
Years experience																
Inequality								.333**	.522**		-.299*	-.247*	-.296*		-.269*	-.302**
Expatriate Attitudes									.359**		-.424**	-.332**			-.280*	
Equality										-.358**	-.417**	-.432**	-.355**		-.471**	-.401**
Social Identity										.941**	.818**	1			.430**	.238*
Self Respect											.583**				.352**	
Self-Categorisation															.397**	.254*
Interactional Justice														.659**	.607**	.924**
Procedural Justice															.500**	.835**
Distributive Justice																.779**

Note that non-significant coefficients have been deleted from this table.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Protocol for Regression Analyses

There are enough significant univariate correlations amongst the variables in Table 9 to proceed with regression analysis. Accordingly a series of multiple regression analyses tested the relationships between the predictor variables in Figure 1 (demographics; extracted factors of perceived social dominance, social identity and organisational justice) and (a) the extracted factors of empowerment (competence, self-determination, meaning and impact), and (b) the overall dependent variable; empowerment. Variables were included in the relevant regression analysis if they correlated significantly ($p < .05$) with the target variable for each regression (Table 9). Composite predictor variables (overall organisational justice; holistic sense of social identity) were included only in an additional regression analysis against composite empowerment (their existence and suitability for inclusion being justified by satisfactory outcomes on a Harman test (see also *Measures*), and in Table 9). For each regression analysis, univariate normality of each variable included in the analysis was verified by checking its histogram. Bivariate homoscedascity and linearity of each variable in relation to the target dependent variable was also verified by checking a scatter-plot.

In exploratory research such as the present study, simultaneous entry of variables into regression analyses is preferable to the use of either hierarchical regression (where theory driven priorities determine order of variable entry), or forwards, backwards or stepwise selection (where statistical rules determine order of variable entry). This is because (a) in exploratory studies, not enough is known about the relationships being explored to predetermine the order of entry; and (b) the use of statistical criteria to govern variable entry relies too heavily on *p* values, which, when analyses are repeated many times, can inflate Type I error (Spicer, 2005). As this is an exploratory study, all variables were entered together into each regression analysis, using the default SPSS regression mode, "Enter."

Once variables were all entered into the analysis, multicollinearity was checked by ensuring that the tolerance statistic was above 0.4 (Spicer, 2005). Where this was problematic, the 'offending' variable(s) was removed and the analysis was re-run. For each regression, the histogram of standardised residuals was checked to verify multivariate normality and to identify outliers. Where outliers were identified, they were removed and the analysis re-run without them. If the consequent model fit was

improved, the outliers remained excluded. If model fit did not alter substantially, they were returned to the analysis (Spicer, 2005). Multivariate homoscedascity and linearity were verified by checking the scatter-plot of standardised residuals vs. standardised predicted values.

Issues with assumptions: Univariate normality and multicollinearity

While the univariate distributions of expatriate attitudes and equality were close to normal, other variables were skewed. As regression analysis is robust to the normality assumption, and reliability for all measures was good (see *Measures*), these variables were still entered into the relevant analyses. More problematically, competence and self-respect showed ceiling effects, more seriously potentially calling into question their suitability for regression analysis, which ideally requires a normal distribution of values in all variables.

However, excluding competence from the analysis would undermine the ability to analyse the predictors of empowerment, particularly as competence was the first factor extracted from the empowerment measure (eigenvalue = 5.233; accounting for 43.6% of total variance). Given that exploring the predictors of empowerment is a key focus of the present study and, as mentioned above, a Harman test showed support for an underlying composite construct of empowerment, I therefore decided to retain competence, acknowledging the potential for distortion caused by the violation of the normality assumption.

Similarly, excluding self respect would undermine the ability to analyze the impact of the holistic sense of social identity amongst respondents (self respect was the first factor extracted from the social identity measure; eigenvalue = 5.280; accounting for 52.8% of total variance). I therefore decided to retain self-respect as a predictor variable, bearing in mind its distribution may undermine the validity of the regression analysis. Univariate normality is not commented on further.

What predicts employees' sense of Competence?

Scatterplots of the predictor variables (age; years experience; expatriate attitudes; interactional, procedural and distributive justice) against competence all showed generally dispersed clouds of points without discernible pattern, meaning that no concerns about bivariate linearity or homoscedascity were raised. Years of experience was removed from the regression analysis, as its tolerance statistic was lower than 0.4, indicating that the proportion of its variance not accounted for by the other variables in

the analysis was too low for it to be a useful predictor of competence (Spicer, 2005). In the resulting regression analysis, all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 and no skew or outliers were observed. No heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs. predicted values, although a slight suggestion of non-linearity was evident in the spread of data points above a horizontal best fit line. A Durban-Watson statistic of 1.839 was obtained, indicating no problems with lack of independence of cases.

The model tested ($F[5, 65] = 4.058$; $p = .003$) accounted for .179 (adjusted R^2) of the total variance in competence. The unique contributions of each of the predictor variables are modest (Table 10). Expatriate attitudes (i.e., Filipinos' perceptions of

Table 10. Significant predictors of facets of Empowerment (Competence, Meaning, Self-Determination & Impact) as well as EMPOWERMENT as a whole.

		Justice		Identity	Dominance	Demographics
Significant Predictor Variables		Distributive Justice	Interactional Justice	Self Respect	Expatriate Attitudes	Age
Competence	β	.245			**-.251**	.215
	Std. Error	.084			**.069**	.007
	t	1.709†			**-2.204***	.925†
	Part r²	.034			**.057**	.043
Self-Determination	β	.256	.275			
	Std. Error	.098	.127			
	t	1.793†	1.809†			
	Part r²	.033	.034			
Meaning	β	**.307**				
	Std. Error	**.076**				
	t	**2.138***				
	Part r²	**.051**				
Impact	β	.248	**.295**	**.356**		
	Std. Error	.151	**.193**	**.121**		
	t	1.926†	**2.229***	**3.456*****		
	Part r²	.031	**.042**	**.101**		
EMPOWERMENT	β		**.331**		**-.212**	**.323**
	Std. Error		**.102**		**.066**	**.006**
	t		**2.321***		**-2.034***	**3.187****
	Part² r		**.052**		**.040**	**.097**

Dependent Variables (row label for the grouped rows above)

Note: Non-significant coefficients omitted; Coefficients significant at $p < .05$ or less in **bold**; *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; † $p < .1$.

expatriate beliefs concerning equality in the workplace) accounted for the largest unique proportion of the variance in competence (.057). Age (.043) and distributive justice (.034) also uniquely accounted for small but significant proportions of respondents' sense of competence, although these were only significant at $p < .1$.

What predicts employees' sense of Self-Determination?

The scatter-plots of the predictor variables (equality; interactional, procedural and distributive justice) against self-determination all showed generally dispersed clouds of points without discernible pattern, meaning that no concerns about bi-variate linearity or homoscedascity were raised. In the resulting regression analysis, two outliers were identified on the histogram of standardised residuals. These outliers were removed and the analysis was re-run. As excluding these outliers resulted in less error and a higher proportion of variance explained (standard error = .624; adjusted R^2 = .249 compared with standard error = .852; adjusted R^2 = .226 with the outliers included), I decided to continue the analysis excluding the outliers. Consequently, all standardised residuals then fell between -3 and +3 and no skew was observed. No heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values, although a suggestion of non-linearity was again evident in the spread of data points above a horizontal best fit line. A Durban-Watson statistic of 1.719 was obtained, indicating no serious problems with lack of independence of cases.

The model tested ($F[4, 69]$ = 7.062; $p < .001$) accounts for .249 (adjusted R^2) of the total variance in meaning. In terms of the unique contributions of each of the predictor variables, these are very modest. Interactional justice accounts for the largest unique proportion of variance in self-determination (.034), followed closely by distributive justice (.033), although both were only significant at $p < .1$ and are thus presented in non-bold text in Table 10.

What predicts employees' sense of Meaning?

The scatterplots of the predictor variables (age; years experience; equality; expatriate attitudes; self-categorisation; self respect; interactional, procedural and distributive justice) against meaning all showed generally dispersed clouds of points without discernible pattern, meaning that no concerns about bivariate linearity or homoscedascity were raised. Years of experience was removed as its tolerance statistic was lower than 0.4. In the resulting regression analysis, all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 and no skew or outliers were observed. No heteroscedascity was

observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values, although a slight suggestion of non-linearity was evident in the spread of data points above a horizontal best fit line. A Durban-Watson statistic of 2.019 was obtained, indicating no problems with lack of independence of cases.

The model tested (F[8, 59] = 3.917; p = .001) accounts for .258 (adjusted R^2) of the total variance in meaning. In terms of the unique contributions of each of the predictor variables, these are again modest (Table 10). Distributive justice accounts for the largest and only significant unique proportion of the variance in meaning (.051). It is striking that no other predictor variable significantly predicted employees' sense of meaning in their work.

What predicts employees' sense of Impact?

The scatterplots of the predictor variables (age; years experience; equality; expatriate attitudes; self-categorisation; self respect; interactional, procedural and distributive justice) against impact generally showed a dispersed cloud of points without discernible pattern, although a tendency towards a curvilinear pattern emerged against both age and years experience. For both these variables and self-categorisation, their tolerance statistics were lower than 0.4, thus they were removed and the analysis re-run. In the resulting regression analysis, Durban-Watson statistic of 1.696 was obtained, indicating no serious problems with lack of independence of cases. In the final analysis, all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 and no skew or outliers were observed. No heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values.

The model tested (F[6, 63] = 9.211; p < .001) accounts for .417 (adjusted R^2) of the total variance in impact. In terms of the unique contributions of each of the predictor variables, these are moderate (Table 10). Self respect accounts for the largest unique proportion of variance in impact (.101) followed by interactional justice (.042).

What predicts Empowerment as a whole?

The way in which different aspects of dominance, identity and justice emerged (see immediately above) as the most significant predictors of the respective components of empowerment is a fascinating finding. All three human dynamics play important roles in influencing local employee empowerment, as outlined in Figure 1, but they differ in how they relate to each aspect of empowerment. I first examine which of the extracted predictor variables contribute most towards local employees' holistic sense of

empowerment, as distinct from its component aspects of competence, self-determination, meaning and impact.

The scatterplots of the predictor variables (age; years experience; equality; expatriate attitudes; self respect; interactional, procedural and distributive justice) against empowerment generally showed dispersed clouds of points without discernible pattern, meaning bivariate linearity and homoscedascity assumptions were met. Years of experience was removed as its tolerance statistic was lower than 0.4. In the resulting regression analysis, all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 and no skew or outliers were observed. No heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values, although a slight suggestion of non-linearity was evident in the spread of data points above a horizontal best fit line. The Durban-Watson statistic (1.528) indicated an adequate level of independence of cases. The plot of residuals vs predicted values indicated that assumptions about multivariate normality, linearity and homoscedascity were met.

The model tested ($F[7, 59] = 6.564$; $p < .001$) accounts for .371 (adjusted R^2) of the total variance in empowerment. In terms of the unique contributions of each of the predictor variables, these are again moderate (Table 10). Age accounts for the largest unique proportion of variance in empowerment (.097), followed by interactional justice (.052) and expatriate attitudes (.040).

It is understandable that it is simply one's age that contributes most significantly to levels of empowerment-in-general (older people feel more empowered). At nearly 10% of unique variance, this is a relatively 'strong' contribution. However, being treated fairly in personal interactions also had a positive and significant linkage to empowerment, and perceptions of negative expatriate attitudes towards equality were linked in Table 10, to reduced levels of empowerment amongst Filipino employees sampled. These are human relationship factors. Although self respect, a component of social identity, was the strongest predictor of employee's sense of impact ($\beta = .356$) and the only predictor in any of the analyses to be found significant at $p < .001$, it failed to emerge as a significant predictor of empowerment more generally (Table 10). Distributive justice also predicted all four components of empowerment, but not empowerment as a whole (Table 10).

In a second analysis, this time at the composite level, holistic organisational justice and holistic social identity were entered alongside equality, expatriates attitudes (no composite measure of perceived social dominance being justified), age and years

experience. Scatterplots of all variables against empowerment generally showed dispersed clouds of points without discernible pattern, meaning bivariate linearity and homoscedascity assumptions were met. In the resulting regression analysis, all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 and no skew or outliers were observed. A slight suggestion of heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values, although the the spread of data points around a horizontal best fit line indicated no serious problems with linearity. The Durban-Watson statistic (2.080) indicated a safe level of independence of cases. The plot of residuals vs predicted values indicated that assumptions about multivariate normality, linearity and homoscedascity were met.

The model tested (F[6, 59] = 7.526; $p < .001$) accounts for .376 (adjusted R^2) of the total variance in empowerment. Organisational justice accounts for the largest and only significant unique proportion of variance in empowerment (.095) when compared with composite social identity and other significantly correlated predictor variables. As this last result is based on inclusion of the composite predictor variables, rather than their extracted factors (the case for all other analyses above), and in the interests of clarity, these data are not included in Table 10 above, or in Figure 4 below.

Post hoc analyses

The finding that distributive justice and self-respect (facets of organisational justice and social identity respectively) each predict separate facets of empowerment, but not empowerment as a whole, suggests that moderation effects may be in play, perhaps akin to the person-situation interactions commonly explored in psychology (Reis, 2008; M. Schmitt, Eid, & Maes, 2003; Tory, 1990). Specifically, could distributive justice moderate the relationship between interactional justice and empowerment? Could self respect moderate the relationship between interactional justice and empowerment? These two possibilities are explored in the following two post hoc analyses.

Protocol for moderation exploration

Two regression analyses tested the relationships between the predictor variables identified above and empowerment. Univariate normality of each variable included in the analysis was verified by checking its histogram. Bivariate homoscedascity and linearity of each variable in relation to the target dependent variable was verified by checking a scatterplot. In addition, the univariate correlations between the parent

variables (interactional justice, distributive justice and self respect) were checked to ensure suitability for moderation analysis.

Multicollinearity was checked by ensuring that the tolerance statistic was above .4. Multivariate normality was verified by checking the histogram of standardised residuals. Multivariate homoscedascity and linearity were verified by checking the scatterplot of standardised residuals vs standardised predicted values.

Both the parent variable and the moderator variable were centered (the mean was subtracted from all values of the variable), before entry to the analysis. The parent variable and the potential moderator were entered together into the first step of the analysis. The product of the centered parent and moderator variables was entered in to the second step of the analysis (Jose, 2008).

Does Distributive Justice moderate the relationship between Interactional Justice and Empowerment?

The scatterplots (predictor variables vs empowerment) generally showed a dispersed cloud of points without discernible pattern. A significant univariate correlation between distributive justice and interactional justice (.607) was noted. Although correlations between moderator and parent variables have the potential to confound any moderation effect, as this research is exploratory, I proceeded with the analysis. In the resulting regression analysis, Durban-Watson statistic of 1.878 was obtained, indicating no problem with lack of independence of cases. In the final analysis, almost all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 (one marginal outlier at -3.5) and no skew was observed. No heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values.

The model including the product of distributive justice and interactional justice (*F change* [1, 78] = .041; *p* = .841) fell well short of explaining more variance in impact than the simple combination of distributive justice and interactional justice (*F change* [2, 79] = 17.297; *p* < .001). Distributive justice was not observed to moderate the relationship between interactional justice and empowerment.

Does Self Respect moderate the relationship between Interactional Justice and Empowerment?

The scatterplots (predictor variables vs empowerment) generally showed a dispersed cloud of points without discernible pattern. No significant univariate correlation between self respect and interactive justice was noted (Table 9). In the

resulting regression analysis, Durban-Watson statistic of 1.845 was obtained, indicating no problem with lack of independence of cases. In the final analysis, almost all standardised residuals were between -3 and +3 and no skew were observed. Two outliers were identified but their removal made little difference to the model fit thus they were retained in the analysis. No heteroscedascity was observed in the plot of residuals vs predicted values.
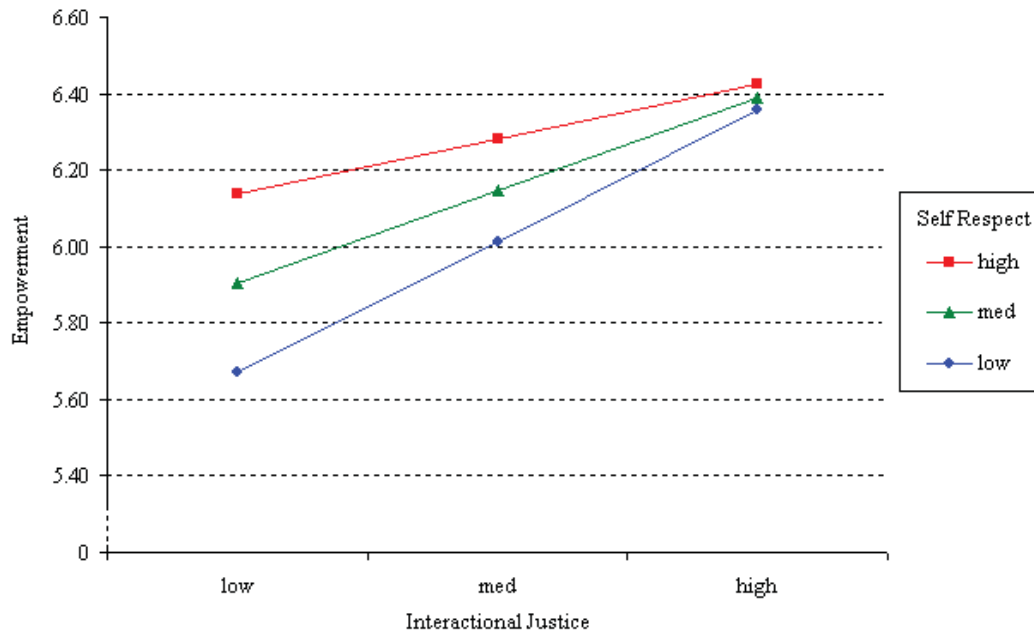
Figure 3. Moderation of the relationship between Interactional Justice and Empowerment by Self Respect

The model including the product of self respect and interactional justice (*F change* [1, 74] = 4.332; *p* = .041) explained significantly more variance (adjusted R^2 = .294) in impact than the simple combination of self respect and interactional justice (*F change* [2, 75] =14.741; *p* < .001; adjusted R^2 = .263). As self respect increases, the relationship between interactional justice and empowerment becomes weaker, reflected in the relatively shallower slope of the line in where self respect is high (Jose, 2008).

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Chapter 4 - Discussion

Graphic summary of key findings

Figure 4 graphically shows the observed significant relationships from Table 10 between the predictor variables and (a) the components of empowerment (dotted lines), and (b) empowerment as a whole (solid lines). Each of these represents a unique relationship that persists over and above the influence of all other variables in the regression analysis. Standardised beta weights are indicated on the relevant line in the model. Additionally, the moderating influence of self respect on the relationship between interactional justice and empowerment (see also Figure 3) is shown with the irregularly dashed line.
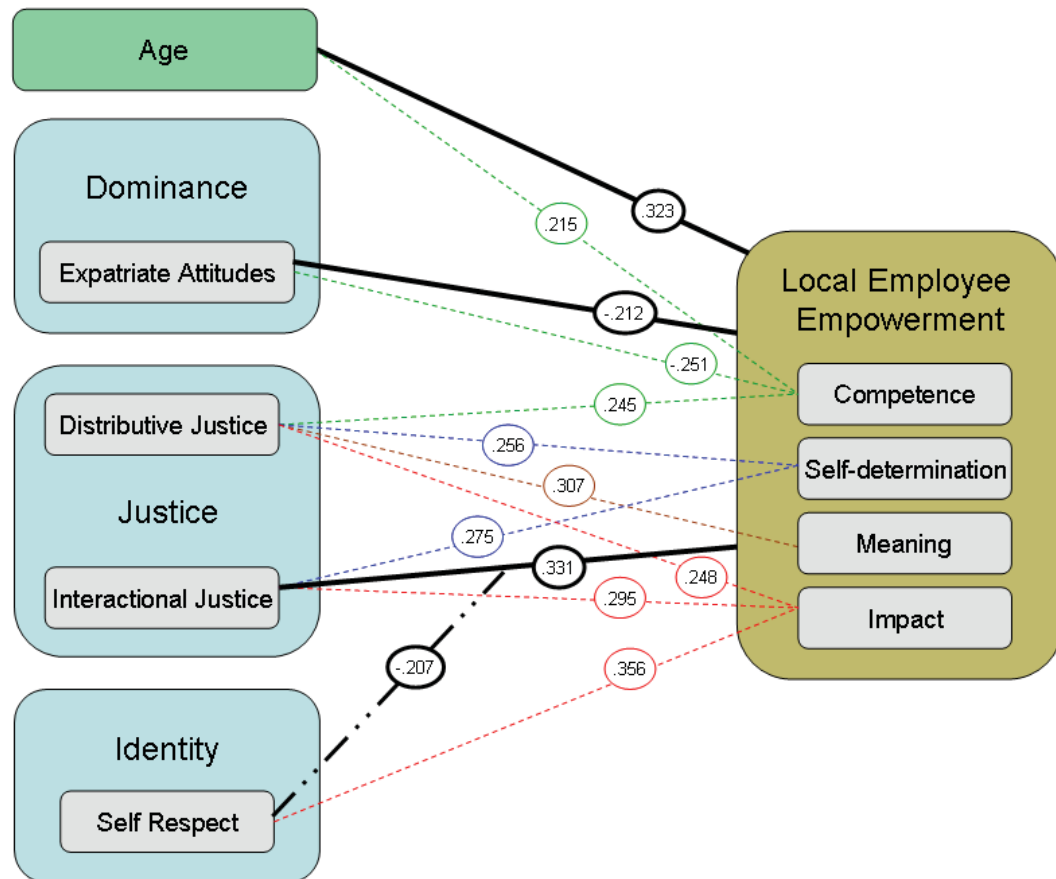
Note: Solid lines = main effects; Dashed lines = component effects; Irregularly dashed line = moderation effect

Figure 4: Observed predictors of Empowerment and its components

Key findings

The pervasive impact of Justice on Empowerment

Perceptions of justice had by far the most numerous effects on empowerment. Consistent with other studies that have documented the impact of pay parity on aid work (Carr, et al., 1998; MacLachlan, et al., 2010; McAuliffe, et al., 2009), the fairness of rewards were related to all aspects of empowerment amongst Filipino aid employees. Perceptions of distributive justice were associated with feeling competent, having a sense of self-determination at work, having a sense of meaning in one's job and also the feeling of having some impact in one's work setting, as seen in Figure 4.

In terms of relationships with empowerment as a whole however, as Figure 4 shows, interactional justice makes the most difference. This is a striking finding, confirming earlier suggestions that the way people are treated personally by others may be more important than pay equity or fair process in cultures that value 'face' (Beugr, 2002; Toh & Denisi, 2003). In addition to these contrasts with other forms of justice, however, the results also suggest that (interactional) justice matters most when considered alongside social dominance and social identity as predictors of empowerment. This suggestion is further supported by the emergence of overall organisational justice as the strongest predictor of holistic empowerment, when compared with composite social identity and aspects of perceived social dominance.

The significance of Age and Experience

Age closely followed interactional justice as a significant predictor of empowerment (see Figure 4). Given the high correlation between age and years experience in the aid and development sector (.801), this seems likely to reflect mainly the greater competence that experience brings. This assertion is supported by the significant relationship emerging between age and the competence component of empowerment itself. The influence of age on empowerment is especially notable in the context of the complete absence of correlations between age (or years of experience) with any of the other predictor variables (see Table 9). Younger employees did not differ consistently from older employees in terms of their perceptions of dominance, identity or justice, but they felt markedly less empowered as a group.

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How Expatriate Attitudes affect Local Employee Empowerment

The perception of negative expatriate attitudes towards equality was negatively related to local employee empowerment as a whole (see Figure 4)[7]. In plainer terms, where local employees perceived expatriate attitudes towards equality to be less negative, they felt more empowered. This is striking for two reasons. First, expatriate beliefs (or at least local perceptions of those beliefs) about equality matter. Just as local beliefs affect expatriates (Toh & Denisi, 2003, 2007; Varma, et al., 2006), this finding is clear evidence for the reverse; that expatriate beliefs affect locals. Second and more specifically, perceptions of expatriate beliefs about equality have the potential to impact local employees' sense of competence at work, which has the potential to flow on to job satisfaction and both individual and organisational performance.

How Social Identity contributes to Empowerment in the workplace

Social identity theory predicts that employees with a positive sense of identity will experience higher levels of empowerment. This study supports this assertion, in particular finding that employees' sense of self respect is significantly related to the sense of impact they have in their work environment, as shown in Figure 4.

Interestingly, self respect (an aspect of social identity) was also found to moderate the influence of interactional justice on local employee empowerment (Figure 3; Figure 4). This interaction between justice and social identity resonates with the suggestion that, particularly in collectivist cultures such as the Philippines (House, et al., 2008), group membership may shift the focus of perceptions of justice: exclusionary justice (justice within 'my group') may matter more than justice across all groups (Beugr, 2002). Other instances where justice x identity interactions have been mooted include the argument that understanding the way host country nationals perceive justice requires an understanding of how they view themselves as social groups (Crosby, 1984; Toh & Denisi, 2003). In the present context, being treated fairly in personal interactions has been observed in Figure 3 to matter more when employees are less confident of their identity as Filipinos, but the reasons for this remain speculative. Further research into the potential protective factors of social identity in the Philippine context could be particularly productive.

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[7] This unfortunate double negative arises because of the phrasing of the items in the perceived social dominance measure (see *Appendix A*, p. 72) which asked respondents to rate their level of (dis)agreement with propositions about expatriate tendencies towards hierarchy/dominance.

Is Employee Empowerment about Social Identity or Social Dominance?

One of the key questions this study addresses is whether social identity or social dominance provides a better explanation of the experience of local employees in aid organisations in the Philippines. As outlined above, social dominance theory predicts that perceptions of social dominance would be inversely related to levels of empowerment (Sidanius, et al., 2004). There is some support for this in the negative correlations between the various measures of perceived social dominance and aspects of empowerment (Table 9). However, social dominance as a coherent construct is not well supported in the present study, although perceptions of expatriate attitudes towards equality do predict levels of both empowerment in general and employees' sense of competence specifically.

In parallel with the influence of dominance, social identity theory predicts that (given the out-group is reasonably comparable), stronger sense of identity would result in higher levels of empowerment. While links between social identity and empowerment in general were not supported by this study, as Figure 4 shows, levels of self respect amongst local employees were found to relate strongly to the sense of impact they felt they had in their organisational setting. This positive relationship combined with the generally high levels of self respect observed amongst respondents (Table 8) infers that Filipinos view themselves positively in relation to expatriates, which is encouraging in the context of other studies which have found negative identity issues amongst local populations in postcolonial contexts (Brown, 2000; Carr, et al., 1996).

Rather than one or other of dominance and identity being more important (Sidanius & Pratto, 2003; Turner & Reynolds, 2003), it is clear that both make a difference, but in different ways. While perceptions of expatriate attitudes towards equality relate to local employees' sense of competence, strength of social identity contributes to the sense of impact that they have in their organisational network (Figure 4).

How the Philippine context affected the constructs measured in this study

A key purpose of the present study was to explore whether the constructs being examined would be validated in the Philippine context. Empowerment and its four components (competence, self-determination, meaning and impact) were supported strongly by the obtained factor solution. This supports earlier findings (Hechanova, et

al., 2006) that it is meaningful to discuss empowerment in the Philippines in the terms outlined by Spreitzer (1995, 2008). Likewise, the structure of justice as distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) was supported in the Philippine context, differing from the situation in Hong Kong, where this structure was not supported (Reithel, Baltes, & Buddhavarapu, 2007). However the need to exclude the item "I am satisfied with … my pay" from the factor solution given its lack of loading on to any of the extracted factors indicates that conceptually, pay may be distinct for Filipinos from the more abstract notion of distributive justice it has been associated with in most western studies (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Social identity also appears to be validated in the present context, although the distinction between self-esteem and group commitment (Ellemers, et al., 1999) was not supported.

However, contrary to expectations based on evidence documenting the stability of social dominance across cultures (Pratto, et al., 2000), the structure of perceived social dominance as a coherent unidimensional construct was not supported. Instead, three clear factors (inequality, expatriate attitudes and equality) were observed in the present study. It may be that the rewording of items in this measure which took place in order to focus respondents on expatriate-local dynamics in their organisational network caused this change in the observed factor structure of perceived social dominance.

Theoretical implications

What contributes to Empowerment amongst local employees?

The focus of this study is primarily about which of the potential antecedents of empowerment would matter most for the local employees of aid organisations in the Philippines. As expected (Kanter, 1979; Spreitzer, et al., 1997), older employees with longer tenure felt more empowered (Figure 4). No gender differences were observed, consistent with Spreitzer et al (1997) and Hochwälder and Brucefors (2005). Unfortunately the impact of local:expatriate numerical ratio on empowerment was not able to be explored, leaving the issue of whether local:expatriate numerical ratio affects empowerment in a linear or non-linear fashion (Latané, 1981; Mullen, 1983; Tanford & Penrod, 1984) to be examined in future research.

There is some evidence supporting the general implication of social dominance theory for aid and development that attitudes towards hierarchy may be a barrier to effective capacity building (Latané, 1981; Mullen, 1983; Tanford & Penrod, 1984).

Clearly expatriate attitudes do matter (Figure 4). But the overall high levels of empowerment observed (Table 8) amongst local employees, the lack of persistent relationships between organisational attitudes towards inequality and empowerment (Table 9), and the absence of dominance as a significant predictor of empowerment over and above identity and justice (Table 10) undermine the argument that social dominance matters more than other human factors such as identity or justice (Pratto, et al., 2000; Sidanius, et al., 2004), at least in the present context.

The general prediction arising from social identity theory is that positive social identity should give rise to higher levels of empowerment (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). This is broadly supported by the positive relationships observed between these constructs in the present study (Table 9) However, the specific prediction that successful ingroup identity formation would lead to feelings of competence (Abrams & Hogg, 1988; Menon, 2001) was not supported (Table 10) when compared with the influence of other variables, notably expatriate attitudes. What did emerge was a significant link between the sense of self respect that local employees have about themselves as Filipinos and a sense of having an impact in their workplace (Figure 4), echoing the findings of Latting and Blanchard (1997).

The pervasive links between distributive justice and all aspects of empowerment (Table 10; Figure 4) are particularly noteworthy in the absence of other similar research findings within aid work. This supports the emerging evidence base regarding links between justice and outcomes such as satisfaction, effectiveness and productivity (McAuliffe, et al., 2009; McWha, 2010). The present findings provide an empirical basis for further exploratory research into whether psychological empowerment may mediate such relationships between justice and (for example) satisfaction. Perhaps even more striking is the emergence of interactional justice over other forms of justice in predicting empowerment amongst Filipino aid organisation employees (Figure 4), supporting prior observations that interpersonal harmony may be more important than fairness of rewards in collectivistic societies (Beugr, 2002; Crosby, 1984).

One of the issues raised in the Introduction is whether measuring psychological empowerment is worthwhile in the absence of understanding the distributions of actual power. Some critics have argued that empowerment research and theory has become psychologised and is now preoccupied with feelings and attitudes (Boje & Rosile, 2001; Moore, 2001; O'Connor, 2001). According to O'Connor (2001), this is in contrast with the struggle for actual power between unions and employers that was the central focus

of industrial democratic theory for most of the 20th century. In her view, the psychological view of empowerment is somewhat empty, and generally functions to confirm as appropriate the more powerful role of management (vis a vis labour) in fostering the conditions for employees to *feel* empowered, rather than contributing to better outcomes for employees.

I agree that political power should be included in the frame of analysis if an accurate understanding of local-expatriate relations in aid organisations is to be attained. However, a number of researchers have found evidence that internal perceptions of empowerment do have a powerful effect, in and of themselves (Koberg, et al., 1999; MacLachlan, et al., 2010; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Spreitzer, et al., 1997). Further, I believe it is clearer to conceptualise political power as an antecedent of psychological empowerment, rather than a part of it. In the present study, distributions of power were operationalised as perceived social dominance.

The findings of the present study in relation to this issue are mixed. On the one hand, expatriate attitudes towards equality were found to have a significant impact on psychological empowerment (Figure 4). On the other, perceived social dominance was not supported as a coherent construct, and no significant relationships at all were observed between perceptions of inequality in the organisation and employee empowerment (Table 9). These findings call into question whether perceived social dominance as operationalised in the present study adequately tapped the way that actual power disparities might influence perceptions of empowerment amongst Filipino employees of aid organisations. To address this issue more directly, research designed to measure the full range of antecedents and consequences of empowerment outlined in Figure 1 (including those not measured in the present study) would be helpful.

Does Dominance matter in the Philippine context?

Social dominance theory predicts that employees who perceive their organisational network to be hierarchy enhancing will experience less empowerment than those in hierarchy attenuating contexts (Sidanius, et al., 2004). As outlined above, the present study partly supports this prediction. Contrary to the evidence presented by Pratto et al (2000), perceived social dominance was not supported as a coherent construct amongst Filipino aid sector employees. Instead, perceptions of organisational equality, inequality and expatriate attitudes were identified as separate dynamics of interest. Of these, only expatriate attitudes seemed to be related to aspects of

empowerment. As local employees' sense of competence and empowerment increases, negative expatriate attitudes towards equality are perceived to decrease (Figure 4). This relationship emerged as significant over and above the contributions made by aspects of justice and identity to employees' sense of competence in the workplace.

It was somewhat surprising that perceptions about both equality and inequality in the organisational setting did not predict any aspects of empowerment over and above the influence of other variables (although univariate correlations between perceptions of equality, but not inequality, and all aspects of empowerment were noted – see Table 9). This contrasts with previously documented effects of social hierarchies (Goodwin & Operario, 1998; Pratto, et al., 2000) on local employees in the aid and development context (MacLachlan, et al., 2010).

Perhaps the Philippines is a context in which lack of equality and strong social hierarchy is relatively invariant, and therefore it has little effect on whether or not an employee feels empowered (de Guzman, 2011; Serrano, 2011). Examination of the spread of responses (Table 8) does not support this, however, as the standard deviations of the equality and inequality measures were similar to or larger than the other measures which did emerge as significant predictors of empowerment. It may be that the items involved, which focused on perceptions of (in)equality in respondents' organisational networks, were more difficult to accurately estimate in comparison with those items referencing expatriates' attitudes (which did emerge as a significant predictor in the subsequent analyses).

The effects of the different types of Justice

As outlined above, the effects of justice on empowerment were both comprehensive and powerful, complementing previous evidence regarding the impact of justice on satisfaction, performance and effectiveness in aid work (MacLachlan, et al., 2010; McAuliffe, et al., 2009; McWha, 2010). Given this broad range of relationships (Table 10; Figure 4), it was perhaps somewhat surprising that distributive justice did not emerge as a predictor of empowerment as a whole. Further, no interaction effect between distributive justice and the relationship between interactional justice and empowerment was noted. Perhaps for the Filipino employees in the present study, being treated fairly in personal interactions was more important to their overall sense of empowerment than being rewarded fairly. It is perhaps important to note that specific relationships between perceptions of pay parity and empowerment were not analysed in

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this study, as for the respondents, pay is likely to have been conceptually distinct from the broader notion of distributive justice.

The absence of any significant relationships between procedural justice and empowerment (over and above other effects) is also striking. Perhaps transparent process is less salient in the Filipino context, or at least far less important than being treated fairly in personal interactions. Further research into the surprising lack of significant impact of procedural justice would be particularly useful.

Policy implications

As this study is exploratory, it is perhaps premature to explicate the findings directly towards policy reform. However, a number of findings do have implications for various aspects of development practice and thus do provide some potential directions for consideration. The following suggestions should be taken as such.

The centrality of perceptions of justice over issues of identity and dominance support the calls for attention to pay equity and wider issues of fairness made previously by a number of researchers (Carr, et al., 1998; MacLachlan, et al., 2010; McAuliffe, et al., 2009; McWha, 2010). Perhaps more uniquely, the present study highlights the importance of fair interpersonal treatment over and above the impact of fair systems of reward. In order to address this issue, training for both expatriates and locals could be helpful, as it may be that this issue is not limited to the effects of unfair expatriate behaviour (Serrano, 2011). The present study document perceptions of justice within the organisation as a whole, including but not limited to expatriates, and given the high proportions of Filipinos within the respondents' organisations, it may be that fairness of interpersonal interactions is a Filipino:Filipino issue as well as being a local:expatriate one (Serrano, 2011).

Expatriate preparation programmes are another clear area where the findings of the present study are likely to be relevant. As outlined above, awareness of the importance of fair interpersonal interactions in aid organisations is of key importance in maximizing empowerment amongst local colleagues. Combined with this, the observed impact of expatriate attitudes towards equality on local employee empowerment also argues for attention towards this aspect of expatriate attitude formation during the preparation phase before overseas assignment.

Lastly, the potential buffer effect of strong Filipino identity against injustice provides a rationale for efforts that aim to strengthen positive identity amongst local

employees in aid organisations in the Philippines. While there may be external constraints on the implementation of pay equity policies and the distribution of staff appointments in terms of expatriate and local employees, there are few barriers to social programmes which would seek to emphasise the value of being Filipino to Filipino employees. The value of boosting local employees' sense of self respect would seem to have little downside but significant potential upside for improving levels of empowerment at work.

Limitations and Improvements

Sampling

The method used to obtain the sample (ie recruiting survey respondents through an email invitation) has several weaknesses. As the invitation was disseminated by a number of contacts known to the researcher, rather than by the researcher himself, little is known about the representativeness of the sample, or even how many of those who received an invitation actually responded. A degree of self-selection is therefore likely to have occurred, which may have distorted the results. The very high overall levels of empowerment observed may be a result of this – potential respondents feeling less positive about their work environment may have been less likely to respond. However, the fact that this is exploratory study, where generalisation is not the primary goal, combined with the practical difficulties of obtaining a sample in more controlled manner, meant that the sampling strategy used was an adequate option. Researchers based in the Philippines may have been able to take advantage of more robust sampling techniques including distributing fixed numbers of surveys to potential respondents at their physical workplace.

Design issues

As with all self-report-based studies, there is likely to be a difference between how respondents actually feel and how they report their feelings. It is difficult to ascertain the direction of this difference and how it may have affected the findings. Further, measuring both the predictor and dependent variables in one sitting raises the possibility that common method variance is at least partly responsible for the relationships observed between the variables. It was not feasible to separate the measurement of dependent and predictor variables, but care was taken to present the dependent measures first, and the predictors later, in order to minimise distortion from

priming effects. A Harman test with all perceptual items included resulted in 21 unrotated factors with eigenvalues > 1. The largest factor accounted for only 24.155% of the variance in the initial solution. This indicates that common method variance is unlikely to be an issue of concern (Podsakoff, et al., 2003), although it does not eliminate the possibility. Given the criticisms of the validity of the Harman test for detection of common method variance (Podsakoff, et al., 2003), the generally very high levels of reliability observed on all measures may be a more important indicator. Where multidimensional measures perform reliably, common method variance is likely to be less of a problem (Laschinger, et al., 2004). As discussed above (see *Results*) social desirability is difficult to assess in cultures such as the Philippines where the importance of maintaining harmony may confound the norm referencing of western-developed social desirability measures. The lack of correlation between the social desirability item with the highest communality and any target variable is at least some reassurance that responses were not seriously distorted in attempts to 'give the right answer'.

Language issues

Significant differences between English and Tagalog survey respondents were observed on 8 of the 64 items, although of all the final variables (after multiple items were combined according the results of the factor analyses) only the meaning component of the empowerment measure showed a significant difference across response language, indicating this effect was negligible at the level of the constructs being analysed. Given both the large number of potential items on which differences could have emerged, and the small number of respondents who responded in Tagalog (N = 12) the observed differences seem relatively unconcerning.

It is possible that differences in the meaning of the Tagalog questionnaire versus the English version have distorted the results. While this cannot be ruled out, the rigorous process of translation, back translation and consultation regarding the conceptual matching of the two language versions of the questionnaire (Brislin, 1980) minimised the possibility of serious confounding as a result of language difference. Again the small number of respondents who chose Tagalog further reduces the potential impact of any such difference.

The fact that the vast majority (88%) of respondents chose to respond in English instead of Tagalog is interesting in the context of a study exploring issues of identity such as the present one. Language is closely related to identity (Coupland, 2001).

Previous research on workplace empowerment in the Philippines has generally only been conducted in English (Hechanova, et al., 2006; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). The high levels of self-respect and empowerment observed in the respondents (Table 8) in conjunction with the general lack of difference on these variables between Tagalog and English respondents perhaps indicate that preference for English does not necessarily imply a more negative sense of social identity, at least amongst respondents to this study.

Analysis issues

This study used a series of regression analyses to explore the relationships between a range of variables. As outlined above (see *Results*), decisions about inclusion and exclusion of variables in each analysis were made on the basis of best practice, but there remains some controversy amongst statisticians about the thresholds of various criteria used throughout the analysis (Jose, 2008; Spicer, 2005). In general, the exploratory rather than confirmatory goals of the present study guided decision making; thresholds were less conservative than might be the case in a more formal hypothesis testing situation.

A wide range of other analyses would be possible, in particular to further explore the potential moderating effects of the various predictor variables on each other. The use of hierarchical regression to discern moderating relationships is a well established procedure (Jose, 2008), but discerning which variable is the predictor, and which is the moderator relies on theoretical preferences. In the present study, being exploratory in nature, it may be that the moderation effect observed (that self respect moderates the effect of interactional justice on empowerment; Figure 4) runs the other way; ie that interactional justice moderates the effect of self respect on empowerment, although conceptually this seems less likely. A more sophisticated design and use of more sophisticated analysis techniques such as structural equation modeling would be appropriate in order to further clarify this (and other potential) moderation effects amongst the variables measured.

The poor response rate to the question about numerical ratio meant that the role of numbers in affecting perceptions of empowerment could not be examined in the present study. However, it is worth noting that the potential moderation effects of numerical ratio on the impact of both social dominance and social identity on empowerment were potentially likely to occur when expatriates outnumbered locals. Given that locals

generally outnumbered expatriates (amongst those who responded to the question), it is possible that the relationships observed in this study (between other variables; seeTable 9) are generally weaker than they might have been if Filipinos were in a numerical minority across the sample. This speculation and any direct effects of numerical ratio on empowerment remain to be explored elsewhere.

Suggestions for further research

Three key areas are identifiable as subjects for further research. First, the importance of interpersonal justice in comparison with distributive justice in the Philippines and other more collective-oriented societies seems of critical importance. While pay equity is clearly an important issue, the role of fairness in interpersonal interactions may be more important than previously thought, and there is little research on the subject within the context of aid work. The possibility that this issue exists between local employees as well as between expatriates and locals is particularly salient as the numerical involvement of expatriates in aid work is decreasing. This is likely an area for exploration by local (as opposed to expatriate) researchers, given the need to conceptualise, measure and interpret findings in ways relevant to the local population.

Second, the surprising lack of coherence of social dominance in the present study indicates more research is needed to understand how hierarchy and dominance are constituted in local settings in aid work. In direct contrast to the assertions of Pratto et al (2000), social dominance as a theoretical construct fared the least well of all the measures used in the present study. Perhaps hierarchy and patterns of dominance are taken for granted in the Philippines (de Guzman, 2011), or perhaps the construct was poorly operationalised in the present study. In any case, more research is needed to explore whether social dominance theory as constituted elsewhere (Sidanius, et al., 2004) is relevant to aid work in the Philippines.

Third, the potential for aspects of social identity, in particular one's sense of self respect, to buffer the effects of (in)justice is potentially of great interest. Research designed to explore this issue could provide clarity about the mechanisms for such effects and would shed a great deal of light on an issue of current topical interest not only in the Philippines, but in many postcolonial settings, and would have specific relevance to the effective operation of aid organisations across a wide variety of countries.

One issue regarding social identity that the present study did not address revolves around the comparative importance of ethnic versus organisational identity. What happens if local employees feel more attachment to (for example) being Filipino than to being employees of a particular organisation? Ashforth and Mael (1989) argued that the processes of social identification (with the organisation) lead to activities that are congruent with the organisation's identity, and consequently improve organisational performance. However, where ethnic identity is not congruent with the identity of an aid organisation, role conflict and inefficiencies may result (Brown, 2000). Further research into the contrasting (or complementary) effects of identification with both local employee's ethnic group and the employing aid organisation would help to shed light on this issue.

Conclusion

The focus on the provision of decent work for all is enshrined in Millennium Goal 1b (United Nations, 2000). Human dynamics such as dominance, identity and justice influence the achievement of this worthy goal. This study contributes significant new clarity to the ways in which these factors influence workplace empowerment, which is central to the very notion of decent work. Amongst aid sector employees in the Philippines, being treated fairly in interpersonal interactions is the single largest contributor to perceptions of empowerment. The attitudes of expatriates within the organisation also make a significant difference. It is important to note that demographic variables such as age also significantly affect empowerment alongside the less tangible issues that this study has focused on.

While justice (both distributive and interactional) makes the most difference overall, dominance and identity have distinct impacts on local employees in the workplace. The sense of competence that locals have about themselves (itself the most significant component of empowerment) is most strongly related to expatriate views about equality. A strong sense of self respect and confidence in one's identity as Filipino plays the largest role amongst the variables in this study in determining the sense of impact local employees feel they can have in their workplace. Further, when self respect is strong, fair treatment matters less.

If the Millennium goals are to be attained, or even if we are to achieve the maximum progress possible towards them, organisations involved in aid work need to be cognizant of the human dynamics of the workplace. Local employees will

increasingly form the bulk of the aid sector workforce and thus their empowerment in their work is centrally necessary to maintaining productive and effective workforce. Treating them fairly and fostering conditions which support a strong sense of social identity are key to achieving the goals of individuals and organisations alike within the broad sweep of efforts to reduce poverty on this planet.

Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire (English)

The questions below focus on your attitudes and beliefs as an employee in aid/development work in the Philippines. As you answer the questions, think about the relationships, patterns and culture within your organizational network. This is the group of people, both international and local, that you would normally expect to work with in your organization, partnership or project.

The first set of questions is about how empowered you feel in your organizational network.

Choose the response that best reflects how much you agree with these statements.

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

The next set of questions is about fairness between Filipinos and expatriates in your organizational network. This includes the people you would normally be expected to work with, both local and international, in your organization, partnership or project.

Choose the response that best reflects how much you agree with these statements.

My manager/supervisor…

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree		Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
13. … gives me an explanation for decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. … seems sincere when explaining reasons for particular decisions/changes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. … provides explanations for why changes take place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. … explains how changes will take place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. … gives adequate explanations and reasons for decisions/changes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. … is honest and candid regarding reasons for decisions/changes made.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. … shows concern for my rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. … treats me with sensitivity when I ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. … considers my views when decisions are made about handling a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. … takes account of my needs when handling a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. … treats me with politeness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. … treats me fairly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. … listens to my personal concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. … is honest with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. … tries hard to be fair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I am satisfied with…

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree		Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
28. … my pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. … the opportunities for promotion I have in my organisational network.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. … my relationships with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. … my current job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. … my job all in all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The next set of questions is about your feelings and attitudes in the context of your organizational network.

Choose the response that best reflects how much you agree with these statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree		Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
[SI-33] I think Filipinos have little to be proud of*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-34] I feel good about being Filipino	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-43 (T)] I have never intensely disliked anyone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-35] I have little respect for Filipinos*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-44 (T)] I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-36] I would rather not tell that I am Filipino*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-37] I identify with other Filipinos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-45 (F)] I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-46 (F)] There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-38] I am like other Filipinos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-39] Being Filipino is an important reflection of who I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-47 (F)] There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-40] I would like to continue working with Filipinos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-41] I dislike being Filipino*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-48 (F)] I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-42] I would rather belong to another ethnic group (other than Filipino)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[* *reverse coded*]

Please think again about local and international colleagues and the relationships you have within your organizational network. This includes the people you would normally be expected to work with, both international and local, in your organization, partnership or project.

Beside each statement, select a number from '1' to '7' which represents how strongly people in your organizational network would agree or disagree with the statement.

In this network:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree		Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
[49] Local workers are not really treated as the equal of expatriates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[50] Expatriate workers regard themselves as more worthy than local workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[51] Expatriate workers don't really care about how equal all groups of people are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[52] Expatriate workers are treated as more deserving than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[53] It is not a problem if our expatriate colleagues have more of a chance in life than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[54] Around here, some groups of people are quietly regarded as inferior to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[55] To get ahead in life, some expatriates find it necessary to step on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[56] Most expatriates genuinely believe that increased economic equality is a good thing.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[57] Most expatriates genuinely believe that increased social equality is a good thing.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[58] Most expatriates genuinely believe that equality is a good thing.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[59] If expatriates and locals were treated more equally we would have fewer problems in our organizational network.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[60] In this organizational network, all groups of people are regarded as equal.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[61] All workers, whether expatriate or local, are treated equally.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[62] Most expatriates genuinely believe that it is important to treat other groups of people as equals.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[* *reverse coded*]

The next two questions ask you to make estimations about your organizational network. This includes the people you would normally be expected to work with, both local and international, in your organization, partnership or project.

[63] What is the approximate ratio between the numbers of international and local employees in your organizational network? (for example "50% Filipino:50% International", or "80% Filipino: 20% International") _____

[64] What is the approximate ratio between Filipino and international salaries in your organizational network? (for example "Filipino 1:1 International" would mean that Filipino and international salaries are about the same, or "Filipino 1:10 International" would mean that Filipino salaries are about $1/10^{th}$ or 10% of international salaries) _____

The final set of questions asks about some information about you.

[65] What is your age in years? _____

[66] What is your gender?   Male   Female

[67] What is your ethnicity? Filipino   Other

[68] What is your job title? _____

[69] What is your highest qualification? _____

[70] How many year's experience in the development sector do you have? _____

Thank you for taking part in this survey.

Appendix B: Questionnaire (Tagalog)

Ang mga katanungan sa ibaba ay may kinalaman sa inyong mga pananaw, saloobin at paniniwala bilang isang empleyado sa larangan ng pagtulong (aid/development) sa Pilipinas.

Sa inyong pagsagot sa mga tanong, mangyaring isipin ninyo ang mga relasyon, pamantayan at kultura sa inyong organisasyon at mga kaugnay na organisasyon ('organisational network'). Ito ang grupo ng mga tao, sa inyong bansa at maging sa ibang mga bansa, na karaniwan ninyong ka-trabaho sa inyong organisasyon at sa inyong pakikipagtulungan sa ibang organisasyon para sa iba't-ibang proyekto.

Ang unang bahagi ng mga katanungan ay tungkol sa kung gaano mo nararamdaman na nagpapalawig ng iyong organisasyon ang iyong kapangyarihan at kakayahan (empowered).

Piliin ang kasagutan na pinakahigit na sumasalamin sa iyong pagsang-ayon sa mga sumusunod na pangungusap.

	Talagang hindi sumasang-ayon	Hindi sumasang-ayon	Medyo hindi sumasang-ayon		Medyo sumasang-ayon	Sumasang-ayon	Talagang sumasang-ayon
1. Ang trabahong ginagampanan ko ay talagang mahalaga sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ang aking mga gawain sa trabaho ay makabuluhan sa akin bilang isang tao.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Ang trabahong ginagampanan ko ay makabuluhan para sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. May kumpiyansa ako sa aking kakayahan na gampanan ang aking trabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. May tiwala ako sa aking sariling kapasidad na gampanan ang mga gawaing may kinalaman sa aking trabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Nagawa ko nang maging mahusay sa mga kakayahang kinakailangan para sa aking trabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7.	Mayroon akong sapat na kalayaan na magpasya kung paano ko gagampanan ang aking trabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Maaari akong mag-desisyon kung paano ko gagawin ang aking trabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Mayroon akong malaking pagkakataon na magkaroon ng kasarinlan at kalayaan kung paanong gagampanan ang aking trabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Ang aking epekto sa mga bagay na nangyayari sa aking kagawaran o mga katrabaho ay malaki.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Mayroon akong malawak na kontrol sa mga nangyayari sa aking kagawaran o mga katrabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Mayroon akong malaking impluwensya sa mga nangyayari sa aking kagawaran o mga katrabaho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ang susunod na bahagi ng mga katanungan ay tungkol sa pagkakapantay sa pagitan ng mga Pilipino at dayuhan (expatriates) sa iyong organisasyon. Kabilang dito ang grupo ng mga tao, sa inyong bansa at maging sa ibang mga bansa, na karaniwan ninyong ka-trabaho sa inyong organisasyon at sa inyong pakikipagtulungan sa ibang organisasyon para sa iba't-ibang proyekto.

Piliin ang kasagutan na pinakahigit na sumasalamin sa iyong pagsang-ayon sa mga sumusunod na pangungusap.

Ang aking tagapamahala/tagapangasiwa...

	Talagang hindi sumasang-ayon	Hindi sumasang-ayon	Medyo hindi sumasang-ayon		Medyo sumasang-ayon	Sumasang-ayon	Talagang sumasang-ayon
13. … ay nagbibigay ng paliwanag para sa kanyang mga desisyon.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. … ay mukhang matapat sa kanyang pagpapaliwanag ng mga dahilan para sa mga partikular na desisyon o pagbabago.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. … ay nagbibigay ng mga paliwanag kung bakit mayroong mga pagbabagong nangyayari.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. … ay nagpapaliwanag kung paano mangyayari ang mga pagbabago.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. … ay nagbibigay ng sapat na paliwanag at dahilan para sa mga desisyon at pagbabago.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. … ay matapat at lantad kaugnay sa mga dahilan na pinagbabatayan ng mga desisyon at pagbabagong isinasagawa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. … ay nagpapakita ng malasakit para sa aking mga karapatan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. … ay sensitibo sa kanyang pakikitungo sa akin sa tuwing ako ay magtatanong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. … ay nagbibigay halaga sa aking mga pananaw sa tuwing gumagawa ng desisyon tungkol sa paglutas ng isang problema.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. … ay isinasaalang-alang ang aking mga pangangailangan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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kapag inaaayos ang isang problema.

23.	… ay magalang sa kanyang pakikitungo sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	… ay parehas sa kanyang pakikitungo sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	… ay nakikinig sa aking mga personal na alalahanin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	… ay matapat sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	… ay nagsisikap na making parehas sa kanyang pakikitungo sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ako ay nasisiyahan sa…

		Talagang hindi sumasang-ayon	Hindi sumasang-ayon	Medyo hindi sumasang-ayon		Medyo sumasang-ayon	Sumasang-ayon	Talagang sumasang-ayon
28.	… aking suweldo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	… sa mga pagkakataon para sa pagtaas ng posisyon o antas sa aking organisasyon.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	… sa aking mga relasyon sa aking kapwa empleyado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	… sa mga trabaho o gawaing naka-atas sa akin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	… sa aking trabaho sa kabuuan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ang susunod na bahagi ng mga katanungan ay tungkol sa inyong mga saloobin at pananaw sa konteksto ng mga tao na kasama na kayo sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network).

Piliin ang kasagutan na pinakahigit na sumasalamin sa iyong pagsang-ayon sa mga sumusunod na pangungusap.

	Talagang hindi sumasang-ayon	Hindi sumasang-ayon	Medyo hindi sumasang-ayon		Medyo sumasang-ayon	Sumasang-ayon	Talagang sumasang-ayon
[SI-33] Sa aking pananaw, kaunti lamang ang maaaring maipagmalaki ng mga Pilipino.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-34] Mabuti ang aking pakiramdam tungkol sa mga Pilipino.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-43 (T)] Hindi pa ako nakakaranas ng matinding pag-ayaw o pagkamuhi sa kahit sinuman.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-35] Kaunti lamang ang aking paggalang sa mga Pilipino.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-44 (T)] Ako ay laging magalang, kahit sa mga taong hindi medaling makasundo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-36] Mas nanaisin kong hindi sabihin na ako ay isang Pilipino.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-37] Nai-uugnay ko ang aking sarili sa ibang mga Pilipino.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-45 (F)] Minsan, nakakaramdam ako ng hinanakit kapag hindi nasusunod ang gusto ko.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-46 (F)] Mayroong mga pagkakataon kung kailan naisip kong mag-rebelde sa mga taong nasa kapangyarihan/otoridad kahit na alam kong nasa tama sila.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-38] Ako ay katulad din ng ibang mga Pilipino.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-39] Ang pagiging Pilipino ay mahalagang pananalamin kung sino ako.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-47 (F)] Mayroong mga pagkakataon kung kailan nakakaramdam ako ng kaunting inggit sa mabuting kapalaran ng ibang tao.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[SI-40] Nais kong patuloy na makapagtrabaho kasama ang mga Pilipino.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-41] Hindi ko gusto ang pagiging isang Pilipino*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SD-48 (F)] Minsan, nayayamot ako sa mga taong humihingi sa akin ng pabor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SI-42] Mas nanaisin kong maging bahagi ng ibang lahi / grupong etniko (iba sa Pilipino)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[* reverse coded]

Mangyaring muli ninyong pag-isipan ang inyong mga katrabaho, ng mga Pilipino at dayuhan (expatriates), at ang mga relasyong mayroon ka sa iyong organisasyon at sa mga kaugnay na organisasyon (organisational network). Kabilang dito ang grupo ng mga tao, sa inyong bansa at maging sa ibang mga bansa, na karaniwan ninyong ka-trabaho sa inyong organisasyon at sa inyong pakikipagtulungan sa ibang organisasyon para sa iba't-ibang proyekto.

Sa tabi ng bawat pangungusap, pumili ng numero mula '1' hanggang '7' na kumakatawan sa kung gaano sumasang-ayon o hindi sumasang-ayon sa mga sumusunod na pangungusap ang mga tao na kasama na kayo sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network).

Sa gitna ng mga tao na kasama na kayo sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network) ito:

	Talagang hindi sumasang-ayon	Hindi sumasang-ayon	Medyo hindi sumasang-ayon		Medyo sumasang-ayon	Sumasang-ayon	Talagang sumasang-ayon
[49] Ang mga manggagawa mula dito sa bansa ay hindi tinatrato bilang kapantay ng mga manggagawang mula sa ibang bansa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[50] Itinuturing ng mga manggagawang mula sa ibang bansa ang kanilang sarili bilang mas karapat-dapat kaysa mga manggagawa mula dito sa bansa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[51] Ang mga manggagawang mula sa ibang bansa ay hindi talaga nagmamalasakit tungkol sa pagkakapantay-pantay ng mga grupo ng tao.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[52] Ang mga manggagawang mula sa ibang bansa ay itinuturing bilang mas karapat-dapat kaysa ibang tao.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[53] Hindi problema kung ang aming mga kasamahang manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa ay mayroong mas maraming pagkakataon sa buhay kaysa iabng tao.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[54] Dito sa amin, ang ilang grupo ng mga tao ay tahimik na	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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itinuturing na mas mababa kaysa ibang tao.							
[55] Upang manguna sa buhay, naniniwala ang ilang mga manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa na kailangang apakan ang ibang tao.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[56] Karamihan sa mga manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa ang tunay na naniniwala na mabuting bagay ang dagdag na pagkakapantay sa larangang ekonomiko.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[57] Karamihan sa mga manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa ang tunay na naniniwala na mabuting bagay ang dagdag na pagkakapantay sa lipunan.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[58] Karamihan sa mga manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa ang tunay na naniniwala na mabuting bagay ang pagkakapantay-pantay.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[59] Kung pantay ang pagtrato sa mga manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa at sa mga manggagawa mula dito sa bansa, mas magiging kaunti lamang ang mga suliranin sa gitna ng mga tao na kasama na ako sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network).*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[60] Sa gitna ng mga tao na kasama na ako sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network), ang lahat ng grupo ng mga tao ay itinuturing na pantay-pantay.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[61] Lahat ng manggagawa, kahit mula sa ibang bansa o mula dito sa bansa, ay tinatrato nang pantay-pantay.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[62] Karamihan sa mga manggagawa mula sa ibang bansa ay tunay na naniniwalang mahalagang tratuhin ang ibang mga grupo ng mga tao bilang kapantay.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[* reverse coded]

Ang susunod na dalawang katanungan ay nangangailangan ng inyong pagtantya o pagtimbang tungkol sa inyong organisasyon at sa mga kaugnay na organisasyon (organisational network). Kabilang dito ang grupo ng mga tao, sa inyong bansa at maging sa ibang mga bansa, na karaniwan ninyong ka-trabaho sa inyong organisasyon at sa inyong pakikipagtulungan sa ibang organisasyon para sa iba't-ibang proyekto.

[63] Ano ang humigit-kumulang na proporsyon sa pagitan ng bilang ng mga kawaning mula sa ibang bansa at mga kawaning mula dito sa bansa sa gitna ng mga tao na kasama na kayo sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network)? (Halimbawa "50% Pilipino: 50% Mula sa ibang bansa", or "80% Pilipino: 20% Mula sa ibang bansa") _____

[64] Ano ang humigit-kumulang na katumbas (ratio) sa pagitan ng suweldo ng mga kawaning Pilipino at suweldo ng mga kawaning mula sa ibang bansa sa gitna ng mga tao na kasama na kayo sa pangkalahatan ng trabaho (organisational network)? (Halimbawa, "Pilipino 1:1 Mula sa ibang bansa" ay nangangahulugan na ang suweldo ng mga kawaning Pilipino at mga kawaning mula sa ibang bansa ay pareho lamang, o "Pilipino 1:10 Mula sa ibang bansa" ay nangangahulugan na ang suweldo ng mga kawaning Pilipino ay 10 beses na mas maliit o 10 porsyento lamang ng suweldo ng mga kawaning mula sa ibang bansa.) _____

Ang pinakahuling bahagi ng mga katanungan ay tungkol sa ilang personal na impormasyon tungkol sa iyo.

[65] Ano ang iyong edad, sa taon? _____

[66] Ano ang iyong kasarian?   Lalaki   Babae

[67] Ano ang iyong etnisidad / lahi? _____

[68] Ano ang titulo mo sa trabaho? _____

[69] Ano ang iyong pinakamataas na kuwalipikasyon (qualification)? _____

[70] Ilang taon ka nang nagtatrabaho sa larangan ng pagtulong (aid/development sector)? ____

Maraming salamat sa pakikibahagi sa pag-aaral na ito.

Appendix C: Invitation to Participate (English)

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA

Which matters most? Numbers, dominance, justice or identity: Exploring empowerment amongst Filipino aid sector workers.

Information Sheet for Participants

Do you work in the aid or development sector in the Philippines? Are you Filipino? If so, I would like to invite you to take part in a study investigating the factors that influence your work environment.

My name is Nigel Smith and I am currently completing my Master's Thesis in Psychology. My supervisor on this project is Stuart C. Carr, Professor, Massey University.

A brief outline of the study:

My thesis project will try to find out which factors matter most in terms of building empowerment amongst Filipino development workers in the Philippines. Empowerment has been identified as a key contributor to effective development outcomes. By learning about what contributes to empowerment, I hope to inform more effective development practice.

I would value your participation in this research. Participation is entirely voluntary. The survey is anonymous.

Why have I been invited to participate?

You have been asked to participate because your organization is a registered development agency. I am seeking at least 108 responses from Filipino aid sector workers in the Philippines. This number is required to ensure the statistical assumptions required for analysis are met.

Are there any risks for me?

There is little risk of harm or discomfort as a result of completing this anonymous survey. Some of the questions in the survey are about Filipino identity, perceptions of power and organizational justice. Individual responses will not be seen by anyone else apart from the researcher: No-one in your organization will have access to your individual responses.

The researcher will be able to identify the organization to which participants belong. This information will remain confidential. It will only be used for the purposes of structuring the sample. No analysis of matching between individuals and organisations will take place. The only reference to this information in any publication will be in the sample section where the number of organisations sampled from will be tabulated.

How do I participate?

If you choose to do so, you will complete an anonymous online questionnaire in Tagalog. This should take between 10 and 15 minutes of your time. If you have questions about the survey, you can address those to me via email at nigel.smith.10@uni.massey.ac.nz. I am able to answer questions written in Tagalog or English.

What will happen to the information?

The data gathered will be used as the basis of the analysis and report writing for my MA thesis. The aggregated results will be published in my final thesis and possibly in academic journals. No individual data will be published. When the data is obtained it will be downloaded from the secure online database to a database stored on my computer in Auckland, New Zealand. This computer is secure with appropriate firewall and security measures in place. After 5 years, the raw data will be deleted.

A summary of the project findings will be distributed electronically to all participants who provide an email address using the link below in late 2011. Links to the results will be published in various websites and newsletters.

Limited identity information will be collected (age, gender, ethnicity, organization). Names, or other personal details will not be collected. This information will be stored securely on my computer in Auckland, New Zealand.

Thank you

I would greatly appreciate your participation in this study. Thank you for considering this request.

Yours sincerely,
Nigel Smith

Researcher:	Nigel Smith Student School of Psychology Massey University New Zealand	Telephone: +64 21 1358312 Email: nigel.smith.10@uni.massey.ac.nz
Primary Supervisor:	Professor Stuart C. Carr	Telephone: +64 9 4140800 x41228

	School of Psychology Wellington Campus Massey University New Zealand	Email: S.C.Carr@massey.ac.nz
Consulting Supervisor:	Professor Malcolm MacLachlan School of Psychology Trinity College Republic of Ireland	
Cultural Advisor:	Judith Marasigan de Guzman Research Fellow Psychology Department Ateneo de Manila University Republic of the Philippines	

Your rights

Completion and submission of the following questionnaire
implies your consent to participating in the research.

You have the right to decline to answer any particular question

Please click here if you would like to continue
and participate in this research.

Please email me separately at nigel.smith.10@uni.massey.ac.nz if you wish to receive a summary of the
findings. I will only use your email address to send you the summary of findings.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee:
Northern, Application 10/068. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact
Dr Ralph Bathurst, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, telephone 09 414 0800
x 9570, email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix D: Invitation to Participate (Tagalog)

Alin ang pinakamahalaga? Bilang, kapangyarihan, katarungan o identidad: Isang pagtingin sa pagpapalawig ng kapangyarihan at kakayahan (empowerment) sa mga Pilipinong nagtatrabaho sa larangan ng pagtulong (aid).

Talaan ng Impormasyon para sa mga Kalahok

Ikaw ba ay nagtatrabaho sa larangan ng pagtulong (aid) o "development" sa Pilipinas? Ikaw ba ay Pilipino? Kung gayon, nais kitang imbitahan upang makibahagi sa isang pag-aaral na magsusuri sa mga salik na nakaka-impluwensya sa iyong trabaho.

Ako si Nigel Smith at ako ay kasalukuyang gumagawa ng pag-aaral para sa aking Master's Thesis sa Sikolohiya (Psychology). Ang aking tagapamahala para sa proyektong ito ay si Stuart C. Carr, Propesor sa Massey University.

Maikling balangkas ng pag-aaral:

Ang aking proyekto ay naglalayong tuklasin ang mga salik (factors) na siyang pinakamahalaga sa pagsulong ng "empowerment" o pagpapalawig ng kapangyarihan at kakayahan sa mga Pilipinong nagtatrabaho sa larangan ng pagtulong (aid) o "development" sa Pilipinas, Ang "empowerment" o pagpapalawig ng kapangyarihan at kakayahan ay kinikilalang isang mahalagang bahagi ng pagkakaroon ng epektibong resulta ng mga gawaing ukol sa "development". Sa pamamagitan ng pag-aaral ng mga salik na tumutulong sa pagsulong ng "empowerment" o pagpapalawig ng kapangyarihan at kakayahan, nais kong makatulong sa pamamagitan ng pagbibigay kaalaman kung paano magagawang mas epektibo ang mga gawaing ukol sa "development".

Ang inyong pakikilahok sa pananaliksik na ito ay aking binibigyang halaga. Ang pakikilahok ay kusang-loob o boluntaryo. Maging panatag ang inyong loob na ang mga impormasyong makakalap sa pag-aaral na ito ay pangangalagaan ko bilang mananaliksik at ang inyong identidad ay mananatiling lihim.

Bakit ako naanyayahan upang makilahok?

Ikaw ay naanyayahan upang makilahok sapagkat ang iyong organisasyon ay rehistradong ahensya na nagsusulong ng "development". Kinakailangan kong makakuha ng hindi bababa sa 108 Pilipinong

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nagtatrabaho sa larangan ng pagtulong (aid) o "development" sa Pilipinas. Ang bilang na ito ay kinakailangan upang masiguro na ang mga mahahalagang prinsipyo sa istatistika ay mapapanatili sa pagsusuring ito.

Mayroon bang mga panganib na naghihintay sa akin?

Mayroong napakaliit na posibilidad na ikaw ay makakaranas ng pinsala, paghihirap o pagkabagabag sanhi ng iyong pagsali sa pag-aaral na ito. Ang ilan sa mga tanong sa pagsusuring ito ay tungkol sa tunay ng pagkatao ng mga Pilipino at sa iyong mga pananaw tungkol sa kapangyarihan at katarungan sa iyong organisasyon. Ang kasagutan ng bawat indibidwal na kalahok ay makikita lamang ng mananaliksik at hindi ng kahit sinumang tao. Ang iyong mga personal na kasagutan ay hindi makikita o makakarating sa organisasyong iyong kinabibilangan.

Magagawa ng mananaliksik na kilalanin ang mga organisasyong kinabibilangan ng mga kalahok. Gayunpaman, ang impormasyong ito ay pangangalagaan ng mananaliksik at mananatiling lihim. Gagamitin lamang ang impormasyong ito sa pagsasa-ayos ng grupong isasailalim sa pagsusuri sa pamamagitan ng istatistika. Ang mananaliksik ay hindi magsasagawa ng pagsusuring nagtutugma sa pagitan ng mga kalahok at kanilang mga organisasyon. Ang impormasyon tungkol sa mga kalahok at kanilang mga organisasyon ay babanggitin lamang sa bahagi ng pag-aaral kung saan ilalahad ang bilang ng mga kalahok at mga organisasyong sumali sa pag-aaral.

Paano ako makikilahok sa pag-aaral na ito?

Kung pipiliin ninyong makilahok sa pag-aaral na ito, kayo ay sasagot ng talatanungan (questionnaire) sa internet sa wikang Tagalog. Kinakailangan ng 10 hanggang 15 minuto upang makumpleto ang pagsagot sa mga katanungan. Kung sakaling kayo ay mayroong mga tanong o panukala tungkol sa talatanungan (questionnaire), maaari ninyong ipadala ang mga sa ito sa aking email: nigel.smith.10@uni.massey.ac.nz. Maaari kong sagutin ang mga katanungan sa wikang Tagalog o Ingles.

Anong mangyayari sa impormasyong makakalap sa pag-aaral na ito?

Ang mga kasagutang na makukuha ay gagamitin bilang batayan ng pagsusuri at pagsusulat para sa aking MA thesis. Ang pinagsama-samang resulta ay ilalathala sa aking thesis at maaari ring mailathala sa mga pang-akademikong babasahin. Walang impormasyong nagmumula sa iisang kalahok ang ilalathala. Sa oras na matanggap ang mga kasagutan ng mga kalahok, ang datos ay papanatilihinng lihim at ligtas sa pamamagitan ng pagtatago nito sa aking kompyuter sa Auckland, New Zealand. Ang kompyuter na ito ay ligtas at may kaukulang proteksyon upang mapanatiling ligtas at lihim ang mga impormasyon mula sa mga kalahok. Pagkalipas ng 5 taon, ang impormasyong ito ay buburahin na sa kompyuter.

Ang buod ng mga resulta at konklusyon mula sa pag-aaral ay ipapamahagi sa mga kalahok na magbibigay ng kanilang email address sa pamamagitan ng link sa ibaba. Ang resulta ay ipapamahagi sa huling parte ng taong 2011. Ang mga links patungo sa mga resulta at konklusyon ay ilalathala rin sa iba't-ibang websites at pahayagan.

Kaunting impormasyon lamang tungkol sa tunay ng katauhan ng kalahok ang hihingin sa pag-aaral na ito (edad, kasarian, etnisidad/lahi, organisasyon). Hindi kokolektahin ang mga pangalan o personal na detalye ng mga kalahok sa pag-aaral na ito. Ang impormasyong makakalap sa pag-aaral na ito ay pangangalagaan at itatagong mabuti sa aking kompyuter sa Auckland, New Zealand.

Maraming salamat po!

Lubos kong pinahahalagahan at pinasasalamatan ang inyong pakikibagahi sa pag-aaral na ito. Maraming salamat po sa pagtugon sa aking pakiusap.

Tapat na gumagalang,

Nigel Smith

Mananaliksik:	Nigel Smith Mag-aaral/Mananaliksik Paaralan ng Sikolohiya (School of Psychology) Massey University New Zealand	Telepono: +64 21 1358312 Email: nigel.smith.10@uni.massey.ac.nz
Pangunahing Tagapamahala:	Propesor Stuart C. Carr Paaralan ng Sikolohiya (School of Psychology) Albany Campus Massey University New Zealand	Telepono: +64 9 4140800 x41228 Email: S.C.Carr@massey.ac.nz
Tagapamahalang Sanggunian:	Propesor Malcolm MacLachlan Paaralan ng Sikolohiya (School of Psychology) Trinity College Republic of Ireland	
Tagapayo ukol sa Kultura:	Judith Marasigan de Guzman Mananaliksik Kagawaran ng Sikolohiya Pamantasang Ateneo de Manila Republika ng Pilipinas	

Ang inyong mga karapatan

Ang pagkumpleto at pagpasa ng sumusunod na talatanungan (questionnaire)
ay nangangahulugan ng inyong pagsang-ayon sa pakikilahok sa pananaliksik na ito.

Mayroon kang karapatan na tanggihan ang pagsagot sa anumang partikular na katanungan.

Mangyaring i-click lamang dito kung nais mong magpatuloy at makilahok sa pananaliksik.

Maaari ninyo akong i-email sa nigel.smith.10@uni.massey.ac.nz kung nais ninyong makatanggap ng buod ng mga resulta ng pag-aaral na ito.

Maging panatag kayo na gagamitin ko lamang ang inyong email address upang ipadala ang ulat tungkol sa mga natuklasan sa pag-aaral na ito. Ang proyektong ito ay dumaan sa pagsusuri at pinahintulutan ng Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, Application 10/068. Kung kayo ay mayroong anumang pag-aalala sa pagsasagawa ng pananaliksik na ito, mangyari lamang na makipag-ugnayan kay Dr. Ralph Bathurst, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, telephone 09 414 0800 x 9570, email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz.

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