Age and Educational Level on Psychological Empowerment and Affective Commitment to Change

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Abstract: People cannot be separated from their characteristics, including age and education, as they are embedded in the person. These characteristics impact their personalities includinh their psychological empowerment, and attitudes toward change of the people in the organization. This research aims to identify the impact of age and educational level on affective commitment and psychological empowerment. The data were collected from 4 (four) local NGOs in Jakarta, with 113 respondents. The findings of the study revealed that age and educational level positively correlate with affective commitment to change, means that the older the people the higher their score on affective commitment. Further, the higher the level of education of people, the higher score of their affective commitment to change. Meanwhile, there is no significant relationship found between age and education with psychological empowerment. Results can be used for change management, especially in terms of choosing a change leader, which showed that the higher level of education and the older/senior people are more suitable to become the change leader, as they have higher score on affective commitment to change. However, this result cannot be generalized to all types of organizations as the results in various types of organizations were not consistent, and this result based on NGO organizations.

Keyword: Affective commitment to change, Psychological empowerment, Age, Educational level, NGO.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations have to face changes. Given its critical role in the change process, it is critical to understand the factors that influence change acceptance. Organizations must consider the impact of change on employees and how employees react to change during change processes (Balogun, Hope-Hailey, Johnson, & Scholes, 2008). In this regard, affective commitment to change is needed to achieve organizational change, as people in the organization are the key players in achieving this success. In the meantime, organisations are becoming more diverse, employing a wider range of people based on gender, race, ethnicity, age, educational background, and other factors (Robbins & Judge, 2013). These diverse

characteristics also affected the climate and effectiveness of the organization, including the climate and culture during the organizational changes.

Many studies about the employees' attitudes toward change were conducted. However, only limited studies were conducted in Non-profit organizations or so called NGOs. This study was conducted at some NGOs to identify whether employees who worked in NGOs have the same profile as employees who worked in profit companies in terms of their affective commitment to change. The objective of this study is to explore the demographic profiles especially in terms of age and eduactional level and their relationship with affective commitment to change and their psychological empowerment. The affective commitment to change is needed to make organizational change succes, and psychological empowerment is also need as during organizational change, people need to be empowered to face the challenges caused by organizational changes. This study aims to explore the relationship between internal influencing factors, such as age and educational level, on affective commitment to change and employee psychological empowerment.

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) mentioned that commitment to change is a state of mind that binds an individual to actions deemed necessary for the successful implementation of change initiatives. Commitment to change is reflected in three dimensions: (a) the affective commitment to change, (b) the continuance commitment to change, and (c) the normative commitment to change. This study focuses on affective commitment to change, which is the desire to provide support for change based on the belief in the benefits inherent in it. In this regard, affective commitment to change is predicted to be the most effective supportive behaviour during organisational change, with the greatest impact on the person's positive attitudes and behaviours when compared to the other two dimensions. (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Age is assumed to make people wiser, and elderly people usually have more attachment to the organization than younger ones. The previous study by Susilo and Mangundjaya (2019) on 334 airport operators showed that age correlates positively with affective commitment to change. Similar results also were found in Primawidi and Mangundjaya's (2020) studies of 42 employees working in the head office of a multi-financial service company. Also, the same results were found in Mangundjaya and Wicaksana (2021) studies from 534 employees who work at financial state-owned organizations. Moreover, many previous research have discovered that a positive correlation between age and organizational commitment was found (Affum-Osei et al., 2015; Amangala, 2013; Elkhdr & Kanbur, 2018; Nifadkar & Dongre, 2014). Although those research were about organizational commitment, but since affective commitment to change was derived from the concept of organizational commitment, thus it can besaid that this kind of attachment and commitment also includes in the commitment to change. Possible explanations for these results are that older employees have better positions and higher satisfaction with their jobs (Khan & Zafar, 2013). They also have lower number of available employment options which makes them realize that they have to loose an ample of money if ther are leaving the companies. Furthermore, older people usually have lower expectation and tend to be more realistic, then they will adjust themselves better to their work situations (Newstrom, 2007) including has commitment on organizational change. Based on those, the following hypothesis was proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Age correlates positively with affective commitment to change.

Meanwhile, in terms of educational level and affective commitment to change. It is assumed that the educational level makes people become more intelligent and have sharper critical thinking, which then also has the ability to analyse the importance of change for the organization. As a result, it was assumed that educational level has correlated with affective commitment to change. Previous research has also found a link between level of education and affective commitment to change (Susilo & Mangundjaya, 2019; Primawidi &

Mangundjaya, 2020;). Moreover, studies also showed that there is a positive connection between education and organizational commitment. Research studies have found a positive correlation between level of education and organizational commitment (Akintayo et al., 2010; Amangala, 2013). In this regard, although Akintayo et al (2010) and Amangla (2013) studies a about organizational commtment not commitment to change, however as the concept of commitment to change derived from the concept organizational change, so it was also assumed that educational level has positively correlated with affective commitment. The second hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 2: Educational level has a significant correlation with affective commitment to change.

Psychological empowerment refers to a set of psychological states required for an individual to feel in control of their work (Spreitzer, 2007). According to Spreitzer (2007), there are four dimensions of psychological empowerment, which are as follows: a) *Meaning*, this dimension involves the fit between the needs of the job and the individual's beliefs, values, and behaviours. Spritzer (2007) also mentions that the *dimension of meaning* speaks of the conformity between the terms of work and the beliefs, values, and behaviour of the individual; b) *Competence*, this dimension refers to one's job-specific self-efficacy or belief in one's ability to do work with skills (Spreitzer, 2007). The *competence* dimension includes individual beliefs where individuals have the ability and technical competence needed to complete the tasks needed in the absence of resistance from the organization (O'Brien, 2010); c) *Self-determination,* reflects a sense of autonomy or choice over the initiation and maintenance of work behaviours and processes (Spreitzer, 2007). This refers to how far a person has the will of his work or is free to determine how to complete the work; d) Impact. This dimension describes the extent to which a person can exert influence on strategic, administrative, or operational outcomes in the place where he works (Spreitzer, 2007). Age makes people more competent and confident. By that time, people will be getting more competent and confident in themselves and be able to make their own discussions and have some impact on the environment. These characteristics belong to psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 2007). A previous study by Mangundjaya (2019) from 534 employees of financial state-owned organizations. also showed that there is a positively correlated between age and psychological empowerment. Based on this discussion, the hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 3: Age has positively correlated with psychological empowerment. Educational level and its relationship with psychological empowerment.

The educational level also makes some differences in psychological empowerment. Spreitzer (2007) mentioned that several factors, such as the participant's level of education, length of time worked, and higher position will give participants higher psychological empowerment. A research by Lizar et al. (2015) also showed that employees with a higher level of education have a higher mean of psychological empowerment. Similar results also shown from the study of Muzdalipah and Mangundjaya (2019) from 116 employees who work at television companies. Further, Mangundjaya (2019b) results from 539 employees working in two financial state-owned organizations in Indonesia showed that there was positive correlation between educational level and psychological empowermrnt. Following the discussion, the following proposed hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 4: Educational level has positively correlated with psychological empowerment.

METHODS

Study design

This study used a quantitative with a cross-sectional approach. Data were collected by online questionnaires of head offices employees of 4 (four) NGOs in Jakarta, Indonesia, even their operations were through out Indonesia.

Sampling, sample and data collection

The sample was chosen using non-probability sampling or convenience sampling (Gravetter & Foranzo, 2016) with the following criteria, employees in the NGO have been working for at least one year and have experienced organizational changes. The number of respondents were calculated based on the *G-Power* statistical application using α 0.05, *power* of 0.95, from the two questionnaires, which stated that the minimum number of respondents was 107. The profile of respondents shows the majority gender is female (59.3%), who were in the age range of 25-44 years (54%), university graduates (60.2%), had been working at NGO (92.9%) for 2-10 years, mostly staff (46.9%) who has been working in 3 various types of NGOs, namely 2 (two) local NGOs in environmental issues and local NGOs in the field of charity.

Table 1. Demographic data of respondents

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
• Male	46	40.7
• Female	67	59.3
Age		
• < 25 years old	34	30.1
• 25-44 years old	61	54.0
• > 44 years old	18	15.9
Education		
• Senior High School	13	11.5
• Diploma 3	10	8.8
• Bachelor Degree	68	60.2
• Master Degree	22	19.5
Lengths of Work		
• 2-10 years	105	92.9
• >10 years	8	7.1
Position		
• Non-staff	10	8.8
• Staff	53	46.9
• Section head/supervisor/officer	18	15.9
• Division head/group head	14	12.4
• Manager/Department head	18	15.9

Table 1 shows that the majority of the repondents fall between the range of age of 25-44 years old, so called the young age. With their young age and good educational level, they become a potential group to become the long-term participants in a state's workforce with high credentials.

Data Collection

The survey instruments consist of two questionnaires. The first was affective commitment to change, which derived from commitment to change inventory by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). The questionnaires have been translated into Bahasa Indonesia by Mangundjaya (2013). This questionnaire consists of 6 items using a Likert scale of 1 to 6. The point 1 of the scale refers to strongly disagree answers to point 6 which refers to intensely

friendly answers. The second questionnaire was psychological empowerment, it was based on the concept of Spreitzer (2007). The questionnaires consisted of 4 dimensions, those were meaning, competence, self-determination and impact, with have 4 items in every dimension which using the same Likert scale of 1 to 6. In this questionnaire, the point 1 of Likert scale refers to strongly disagree answers to point 6 which refers to strongly agree.

The two questionnaires in this study have been used many times previously in many other studies. However, for this research the questionnaires were tested its reliability and validity as the respondents were different from the previous research, which are employees of the NGOs. The results of the reliability and validity were as follows: a) The results of affective commitment to change showed that the validity test with CrIT of this measuring instrument have a range of 0.40 to 0.64, and based on references from Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), CrIT coefficients above 0.2 are considered a good score for discriminating items, thus affective commitment to change has a good item discrimination value. Reliability analysis on the data collection results with 113 valid data resulted in a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.86 with a CrIT range of 0.57 to 0.79. According to Kaplan and Saccuzzo (2008), the value of the coefficient of reliability of an excellent measuring instrument is 0.70, which it can be said that this measuring instrument showed good reliability. Meanwhile, the results of Psychological empowerment showed that the reliability test resulted in a value of 0.94, with the range of each dimension from 0.84 up to 0.93, and the validity test results with CrIT showed a range of 0.50 to 0.81, which showed that the instruments were valid and reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2008).

Data were collected anonymously, and the respondents have been asked their consent to fill the questionnaires, and the majority of questionnaires were sent through G-form by email or WhatsApp.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To determine the impact of age and education on affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment, data were analyzed using both descriptive and correlation analysis.

Descriptive analysis

Table 2. The profile, mean and standard deviations of age and education on affective commitment to change, and psychological empowerment

Characteristics of Respondents	Affective Commitment to Change			Psychological Empowerment		
	Mean	SD	Sign	Mean	SD	Sign
Age			0.00**			0.30
<25 years old	4.67	0.89		4.93	0.67	
25-44 years old	4.93	0.90		4.95	0.68	
>44 years old	5.52	0.45		4.97	0..63	
Education			0.00**			0.42
Sr. high school	4.62	0.95		4.92	0.65	
Diploma	4.67	1.26		4.94	0.64	
Bachelor degree	4.97	0.79		4.96	0.67	
Masters' degree	5.20	0.88		4.98	0.68	

According to the results from the calculation with Anova that showed in Table 2, there are significant differences between *mean* values both for age and education in terms of affective commitment to change. The results showed that the older the person the higher the score of affective commitment to change, also the higher their educational level the higher score of affective commitment to change. Meanwhile, there was no significant differences between age and education in terms of psychological empowerment.

Further, it showed that employee with the age more than 44 years old had the highest score compared to the employees who were younger than that. Moreover, it showed that masters' degree have the highest score compare to others who have lower educational level.

Intercorrelation analysis

Researchers also conducted a correlation analysis between demographic variables and main variables to see if there was demographic data in this regard age and education related to the main variables of the study using Pearson Correlation analysis.

Table 3. Intercorrelation Analysis

	Mean	SD	AC2C	PE	Age	Edu
AC2C	4.95	0.88	1			
PE	4.92	0.63	.59**	1		
Age	-	-	.29**	.129	1	
Edu	-	-	.20*	-.029	.52**	1

N=113; **Significant at *p<.01;* *Significant at *p<.05,* SD: Standard Deviation;
AC2C: Affective Commitment to Change, PE: Psychological Empowerment, Edu: Education

Table 3 shows that age and education have positive correlation with affective commitment to change. Meanwhile, age and education did not have any significant correlation with psychological empowerment.

The correlation of age with affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment

Both the results of significances differences between age on affective commitment to change, and Pearson correlation showed that age is positively correlated with affective commitment to change (*r* = .29, p<.01). Thus, the older of a person is the higher the score of affective commitment to change. As a result, Hypothesis 1 was supported. This finding could be attributed to the fact that older workers lower their expectations in order to be more realistic and better adjust to their work situations (Newstrom, 2007), including adjusting to organizational change.

Meanwhile, the results showed that age did not have any significant correlation with psychological empowerment, as the score of mean between age in terms of psychological empowerment did not show any significant differences, thus Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

The correlation of educational level with affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment

Educational level was found to be significantly positive correlated with affective commitment to change (*r* = .20, p<.05), this is also supported by the significant mean diffrences between educational level on affective commitment to change, as showed in Table 2. The results showed that it can be concluded that the higher the employee's level of education, the higher the employee's level of affective commitment to change. Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Meanwhile, the level of education was found to have no significant correlation with psychological empowerment. As a result, whatever level of education the people have, this has no significant correlation with the sense of psychological empowerment that people have, thus Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Discussion

Based on the results of the research, age is positively correlated with affective commitment to change. As the age increases, it was assumed that they would be more mature and have more wisdom than the younger. They will think that organizational change is needed and beneficial for the organization to develop the organisation effectiveness and sustainability. As a result, the elder the person is, then they will have the higher score on affective commitment to change.

This study is in line with the research in Mangundjaya and Gandakusuma (2013), and research by Mangundjaya (2019a) which conducted at 539 employees of the state-owned company in financial sector. It demonstrated that age has a significant positive relationship with commitment to change. This indicated that older employees in the maintenance stage of their careers were more likely to contribute through a commitment to the organization and showed that they aim was to serve their community or organization more than their younger counterparts who were more involved in the exploration stage (Pettit, Donohue & De Cieri, 2004). In addition, the previous studied about the correlation between age and organizational commitment also showed that there is a positive and significant correlation between these two variables (Affum-Osel et al., 2015; Amangala, 2013; Elkhdr & Kanbur, 2018; Nifadkar & Dongre, 2014). Although the correlation was between age and correlation commitment, but as commitment to change derived from organizational commitment so the phenomenon can also be used. In this regard, Khan and Zhafar (2013) mentioned that this might have some connection with the attitude of people who are reluctant to leave the organization as the elderly people usually have hold a good position in the organization, so they support the organization and have a commitment to change.

However, this research was not supported the previous study conducted at 5 organizations in finance sector which conducted by Giovanita & Mangundjaya (2017), also the study conducted by Guamaradewi and Mangundjaya (2018) at 107 employees who worked at private oil company, and the study by Susilo and Mangundjaya (2020) at 198 operational employees at international airport showed that age had no significant correlation with the affective commitment to change. Also, the study conducted by Puspitasari and Mangundjaya (2020) with 612 participants from state-owned government which focus on social security, that showed no significant correlation between age and affective commitment to change. Further, a study by Mahendrati and Mangundjaya (2020), with 178 respondents of government agencies in various regions in Indonesia, showed that there was no significant correlation between age and affective commitment to change. Moreover, a study of Radian and Mangundjaya (2019) with 177 civil servants who work at the Ministry of Public Works and Public Housing showed that there was no significant correlation between age and affective commitment to change. Beside that, previous several researches also showed contradicting results for the age and organizational commitment connection. It showed that they have not discovered a significant correlation (Akinyemi, 2014; Booth-Kewley et al., 2017). In this regard, although these researches were between age and organizational commitment, however as commitment to change were derived from organizational it was assumed that these researches were similar.

In terms of the correlation between level of education and affective commitment to change, it showed that there was a positively correlated with affective commitment to change. As the level of education increased, it was assumed that they would be more knowledgeable and consequently will support the management policy in conducting the organizational change. The research was supported the previous study by Guamaradewi & Mangundjaya (2018).

However, this current research was not in line with the previous studies in relation with these (Mangundjaya and Gandakusuma, 2013; Giovanita & Mangundjaya, 2017). Study

conducted by Santoso and Mangundjaya (2018), at a state-owned organization showed that educational level had no significant correlation with affective commitment to change. The other study conducted by Susilo and Mangundjaya (2020) who studied at operational employee in international airport also showed that there was no significant correlation between educational level on affective commitment to change. In addition, the previous research (Booth-Kewley et al., 2017) showed that they have not found any correlation between employees' education and organizational commitment. In this regard, Khan et al. (2013) also stated that usually people with low educational qualifications will find more difficulties in finding new jobs, conseuently people with low educational level have higher commitment to their organizations, including their commitment to the organizational changes.

Meanwhile, there was no significant correlation between educational level and psychological empowerment in terms of psychological empowerment. In this regard, the psychological empowerment that people develop within themselves is not related to their educational level. However, this study was not supported by the previous studies conducted by Spreitzer (2007) which revealed that there was a positive relationship between age and educational background with affective commitment to change. Moreover, Spreitzer's (2007) studies also resulted in the finding that individuals with higher self-confidence scores would feel more psychologically empowered. It was assumed that people who had higher educational levels and were older would have higher self-confidence than people who were younger and had lower educational levels. This condition is supported by Champoux (2011), who stated that several factors might affect a person's self-concept, including the person's observations and perception of themselves, her/his past significant experiences, and the effect of the surrounding social context (Champoux, 2011). In this regard, being in an organizational change might also be impact people self-concept and psychological empowerment. However, in this study, the hypothesis was not supported. Many variables might cause this finding, such as the research being conducted in the NGOs, which might have different organizational climates and cultures. Based on this, the next research should be conducted in various type of organizations is recommended to get a consistent result.

In NGOs, the value of equity and equality is powerful, so regardless of who the person is, they are accepted as long as she/he cannot perform. This study also supported the previous study about how organizational environment (nongovernmental organizations) has an impact on employees' psychological empowerment (Thiranavukkawasa & Velnampy, 2009). Further study needs to be conducted.

In this study, the researcher tried to find out factors that enable to increase the psychological empowerment of the employees. Nongovernmental organizations are primarily staffed by idealistic employees and volunteers who work. Although this study showed that age and educational level had not correlated with psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment of the employee is needed to be developed, as was found in the research by Millessen and Carman (2019). In order to be effective, NGO boards need to have more employees with high skills and developing their efficacy in facing the organizational changes.

Meanwhile, the study also showed that there was no significant correlation between educational level and psychological empowerment. In this regard, people's psychological empowerment can be developed by itself without related to their educational level. Therefore, it can be understood that there was an argument that the school's empowerment is very high due to the opportunities for teachers to develop their skills (Nora & Bukhari, 2021). Based on this finding, establishing and developing a cohesive organizational culture and climate in the organization with the focus of employee development is also needed.

There were some limitations in the study, those are as the followings: First, this is a cross-sectional study, it only considers respondents' one-time perspectives on the issue.

Second, this study only used questionaries as self-report, which might cause bias. Third, this study only conducted in 5 local NGOs, which located in one city, therefore to gain the better perspective about the profile of NGOs' employees further study with larger population is recommended, and to check whether this phenomenon also happens in other types of organization such as profit companies and state-owned companies. Fourth, the study did not take other dimensions of commitment to change and separately analyse the dimensions (affective, continuance, normative) according to employees' demographic characteristics. Fifth, the study haven't done research the demographic characteristics as moderators between some organizational antecedents and consequences of commitment to change, such as leadership style, employee engagement, compensations, culture, etc.

Based on the study, the correlation analysis between age and education in terms of affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment showed that both age and education had correlated with their affective commitment to organizational change. It can be concluded that the older the individual and the higher their education level makes them more committed to organizational change. However, previous researches showed that various other factors might also contribute on the affective commitment to change. Thus, it is necessary to continue the research, explore more about the impact of other factors on affective commitment to change, not only from the individual factors such as age and the level of education, but also gender, position, and longevity, as those factors might have some impact on the affective commitment to change. In addition to complete the researcher's curiosity, the external factors such as leadership style, organizational climate and culture should also be studied.

CONCLUSION

The findings and the results of previous study about age, level of education on affective commitment were still in consistent, as this research was conducted in various types of organizations. It was assumed that the type of organizations, the climate and the culture of the organization had some impacts on the results. Thus, to get a clearer picture, further studies in various types of organizations is recommended.

The findings also showed that between age and the level education, age had a bigger impact compared to the level of education, which can be concluded that seniority with lots of experience is more important than the level of education. Thus, in practice, the management is recommended to select older people with heavy experience and wisdom especially with high education to lead the organizational changes and act as a role models as they have a higher affective commitment to change compared to the younger and lower educational level. The senior should act as a role model and coach while leading the organizational change, as the coach style is more preferable than the pioneer or implementer style (Mangundjaya, 2022). The organizational change processes has to be planned properly to improve organizational effectiveness and to develop innovative new programs or strategies. This usually involving in making employees aware of the need for change and asking for their commitment (Packard, 2012). In this regard, not every organization have created successful changes, therefore choosing the right change leader might minimize the failures.

Since previous research showed inconsistent results about the relationship between employees' demographic characteristics and commitment to change, the aim of this paper is to clarify the relationship between those variables. The results of the study may contribute to the literature in the area of commitment to change, where there is the lack of research about the relation between employees' demographic characteristics and commitment to change. In addition, findings of this paper could contribute to the organizational practice in the field of human resource management.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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HOW DIVERSITIES IN DEMOGRAPHIC HAVE RELATED TO PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT?

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ABSTRACT

Objective: The objective of this study is to explores the link between employee demographics and psychological empowerment and determine the factors of employee demographic on psychological empowerment.

Theoritical Framework: During organizational change, people usually will feel unsecure, and having anxiety which may lead to stress. As a result, feeling of competence in facing the stressful condition is needed. This study used the concept of Psychological empowerment by Spreitzer (2008), which is a type of inner drive defined as the "psychological states necessary for an individual to feel control over their work". Psychological empowerment consists of 4 (four) dimensions namely: Competencies; Meaning; Self-determination and Impact.

Method: The research team used a quantitative method, with the combination of mean significant differences analysis and intercorrelation analysis. The research was conducted at 4 (four) NGOS in Jakarta, Indonesia, with 156 respondents. Psychological empowerment inventory (Spreitzer, 2008) was used to collect the data after being tested its validity and reliability with Cronbach's Alpha.

Result and Discussion: Results reveal that only gender had significant differences on psychological empowerment, with males scoring higher than females. Further, there is no significant correlations exist with other demographics profile (education, position, tenure, and employment status) on psychological empowerment.

Research Implication: This study will contribute for executives and human resource managers that besides gender, no other demographic profile that might influence the score of psychological empowerment In other words, the score of psychological empowerment cannot be related with demographic profile except gender.

Originality and Value: The process of organizational change is very important and challenging, and many researchers have studies about the process. However, the research team found out that studies about the relation of demographic profile on psychological empowerment is still very limited and need to be further studied. These findings offer valuable insights for change agents in managing organizational transitions, with emphasizing the nuanced impact of demographic factors on psychological empowerment.

Keywords: Demographic Variables, Psychological Empowerment, Organizational Change.

COMO AS DIVERSIDADES DEMOGRÁFICAS SE RELACIONAM COM O EMPODERAMENTO PSICOLÓGICO?

RESUMO

Objetivo: O objetivo deste estudo é explorar o vínculo entre a demografia do empregado e o empoderamento psicológico e determinar os fatores da demografia do empregado no empoderamento psicológico.

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Estrutura teórica: Durante a mudança organizacional, as pessoas geralmente se sentirão inseguras e têm ansiedade que pode levar ao estresse. Como resultado, a sensação de competência em enfrentar a condição estressante é necessária. Este estudo usou o conceito de empoderamento psicológico de Spreitzer (2008), que é um tipo de impulso interior definido como os "estados psicológicos necessários para um indivíduo sentir controle sobre seu trabalho". O empoderamento psicológico consiste em 4 (quatro) dimensões, nomeadamente: Competências; Significado; Autodeterminação e Impacto.

Método: A equipe de pesquisa usou um método quantitativo, com a combinação de análise de diferenças significativas médias e análise de intercorrelação. A pesquisa foi realizada em 4 (quatro) ONGS em Jacarta, na Indonésia, com 156 entrevistados. Inventário de capacitação psicológica (Spreitzer, 2008) foi usado para coletar os dados após ser testado sua validade e confiabilidade com o Alpha de Cronbach.

Resultado e Discussão: Os resultados revelam que apenas o gênero tinha diferenças significativas no empoderamento psicológico, com os homens pontuando mais do que as mulheres. Além disso, não há correlações significativas com outros perfis demográficos (educação, posição, estabilidade e status de emprego) sobre o empoderamento psicológico.

Implicação da Pesquisa: Este estudo contribuirá para executivos e gestores de recursos humanos que, além do gênero, não têm outro perfil demográfico que possa influenciar o escore de empoderamento psicológico Em outras palavras, o escore de empoderamento psicológico não pode ser relacionado com o perfil demográfico, exceto o gênero.

Originalidade e valor: O processo de mudança organizacional é muito importante e desafiador, e muitos pesquisadores têm estudos sobre o processo. No entanto, a equipe de pesquisa descobriu que os estudos sobre a relação do perfil demográfico no empoderamento psicológico ainda são muito limitados e precisam ser mais estudados. Essas descobertas oferecem informações valiosas para os agentes de mudança no gerenciamento de transições organizacionais, com ênfase no impacto diferenciado de fatores demográficos no empoderamento psicológico.

Palavras-chave: Variáveis Demográficas, Capacitação Psicológica, Mudança Organizacional.

¿CÓMO SE HAN RELACIONADO LAS DIVERSIDADES DEMOGRÁFICAS CON LA CAPACITACIÓN PSICOLÓGICA?

RESUMEN

Objetivo: El objetivo de este estudio es explorar el vínculo entre la demografía del empleado y el empoderamiento psicológico y determinar los factores de empoderamiento psicológico demográfico del empleado.

Marco teórico: Durante el cambio organizacional, las personas generalmente se sentirán inseguras y tendrán ansiedad que puede conducir al estrés. Como resultado, se necesita una sensación de competencia para enfrentar la condición estresante. Este estudio utilizó el concepto de empoderamiento psicológico de Spreitzer (2008), que es un tipo de impulso interno definido como los "estados psicológicos necesarios para que un individuo sienta control sobre su trabajo". El empoderamiento psicológico consta de 4 (cuatro) dimensiones a saber: Competencias; Significado; Autodeterminación e Impacto.

Método: El equipo de investigación utilizó un método cuantitativo, con la combinación de análisis de diferencias significativas medias y análisis de intercorrelación. La investigación se llevó a cabo en 4 (cuatro) ONG en Yakarta, Indonesia, con 156 encuestados. El inventario de empoderamiento psicológico (Spreitzer, 2008) se utilizó para recopilar los datos después de probar su validez y confiabilidad con Alpha de Cronbach.

Resultado y discusión: Los resultados revelan que solo el género tuvo diferencias significativas en el empoderamiento psicológico, con los hombres puntuando más alto que las mujeres. Además, no existen correlaciones significativas con otros perfiles demográficos (educación, posición, tenencia y situación laboral) sobre el empoderamiento psicológico.

Implicación de la investigación: Este estudio contribuirá para los ejecutivos y gestores de recursos humanos que, además del género, no hay otro perfil demográfico que pueda influir en la puntuación de empoderamiento psicológico En otras palabras, la puntuación de empoderamiento psicológico no puede estar relacionada con el perfil demográfico, excepto el género.

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Originalidad y valor: El proceso de cambio organizacional es muy importante y desafiante, y muchos investigadores tienen estudios sobre el proceso. Sin embargo, el equipo de investigación descubrió que los estudios sobre la relación del perfil demográfico en el empoderamiento psicológico aún son muy limitados y deben estudiarse más a fondo. Estos hallazgos ofrecen información valiosa para los agentes de cambio en la gestión de las transiciones organizacionales, con énfasis en el impacto matizado de los factores demográficos en el empoderamiento psicológico.

Palabras clave: Variables Demográficas, Empoderamiento Psicológico, Cambio Organizacional.

1 INTRODUCTION

In today's complex and unpredictable business environment (VUCA), organizations need to constantly improve and adapt to stay competitive. Organizational changes are a key part of this, but not all of them succeed. Previous research showed that plenty of planned organizational changes, including in NGOs, have failed (Packard, 2012), often due to people-related issues (Mangundjaya, 2019). During organizational changes, individuals often feel uncertain about the future and lack trust in management and communication.

Psychological empowerment is crucial in fostering a positive commitment to change. Studies show that it acts as a mediator between change leadership and commitment to change (Mangundjaya, 2019). By enhancing employees' psychological empowerment, leaders can boost their commitment to change, a vital element for successful implementation of organizational change.

Employee characteristics like tenure, rank in the organization, and education serve as indicators of their knowledge, skills, as well as contribution to the organization. Research suggests that these characteristics are linked to empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011) and career success (Wayne et al., 1999), impacting worker empowerment positively. Understanding the correlation between demographic factors and psychological empowerment is practical for organizations. It can inform decisions related to job assignments, training, and actions necessary for successful organizational change.

Prominent findings suggest a connection between demographic variables and increased worker empowerment, although the existing body of research shows some contradictory results. Spreitzer (1996) identified significant links between education level and Psychological Empowerment (PE). In a study involving healthcare workers, Koberg et al. (1999) observed

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higher empowerment among individuals with longer organizational tenure and higher ranks, but found no significant association with education. Notably, Prabha et al. (2021) discovered that faculty members above average age demonstrated greater psychological empowerment, motivation, and satisfaction. Additionally, those with above-average experience displayed higher levels of PE and satisfaction. With this current empirical studies condition, it is not surprising Llorente-Alonso et al. (2023) call for more research on gender, age, education, and rank effects on empowerment. Building on this, our study aims to further analyze demographic factors' impact on psychological empowerment.

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Organizational change is needed, however not every organizational change initiative is successful, even Miller (2004) stated that 70% of organizational change program was failed, and not meeting the objectives. Previous research also showed that many organizational changes failed due to the people or employees who resisted the organizational changes (Furst dan Cable,2008; Ford et al., 2008). In general, the condition during organizational change makes distrust communication with the management, people feeling insecure, and finally make people stress. Based on this condition, there is a need of feeling of meaning ow work, competence, self-determination and a sense of impact to the environment or based on Spreitzer (2008) called as psychological empowerment. This study explores the profile of demographic of the people in terms of its relation and impact on psychological empowerment.

2.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Psychological Empowerment (PE) is a type of inner drive defined as the "psychological states necessary for an individual to feel control over their work" (Spreitzer, 2008). It involves four job-related thoughts: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995, 2008). High psychological empowerment leads to strong self-confidence and self-efficacy, especially when combined with a sense of impact on the environment, fostering robust change self-efficacy. This leads to increased engagement when employees find their job meaningful, have autonomy, feel competent, and believe their work influences the organization. PE correlates positively with job performance, workplace harmony, and supportive behaviors during change (Choi, 2011). Psychologically empowered employees aim to empower their organization, even during change (Ukpe, 2018). Change management literature supports the

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idea that employees' perceptions of change practices influence their responses, shaped by internal states and feelings about capabilities, success, and control (Holt et al., 2007; Visagie & Steyn, 2011).

2.2 GENDER AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) and Riger (1993) proposed that existing empowerment concepts might lean towards a masculine interpretation, emphasizing traits like competence, mastery, and control, rather than a feminine perspective that values communion, connectedness, and cooperation. The idea of power in empowerment might be perceived differently based on gender, with men often associating power with control over their environment more than women (Lips, 1985). These theories suggest that dimensions like self-determination and impact (control at work) in Spreitzer's (1995) concept might contribute more significantly to the sense of empowerment for men than for women. The structure of the PE concept could be argued to align better with masculine rather than feminine notions of empowerment based on its components. Based on this arguments, the hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is a signifcant difference in psychological empowerment between male and female employees

2.3 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ON PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Education is crucial for individuals to approach problems effectively and adapt to changing circumstances. According to Ya'acob et al. (2011), education is a vital input for human progress and survival, enabling people to make informed decisions. Higher education levels are linked to more accurate perceptions, increased feelings of competence, and a greater sense of self-determination. In essence, education enhances a person's ability to navigate life successfully by fostering critical thinking and decision-making skills, contributing to personal growth and adaptability. Based on these findings, the hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 2: Educational level has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment

2.4 AGE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

As people age, it is assumed that they become more aware of their abilities, decision-

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making skills (self-determination), and their impact on the environment, leading to increased psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 2007). Age brings about greater competence and confidence, enabling individuals to make independent decisions and influence their surroundings. This aligns with the concept of psychological empowerment. M's (2019) study on 534 employees in financial state-owned organizations further supports a positive correlation between age and psychological empowerment, indicating that as individuals grow older, their sense of psychological empowerment tends to strengthen. Based on these premises, the following hypothesis has been developed as follows:

Hypothesis 3: *Age has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.*

2.5 TENURE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Tenure refers to the number of years individuals have spent working for a specific organization, indicating their experience and duration of employment. Yeatts and Hyten (1998) describe tenure as a direct link between the employer and employee, influencing employee performance. Employees with longer tenure are often considered satisfied and tend to stay, while those leaving may be dissatisfied, seeking better opportunities. Job tenure, as discussed by Butler et al. (2014), refers to the time spent in a particular job. During these years, individuals likely develop knowledge and skills through hands-on learning and experience (Schmidt et al., 1986). However, research on the relationship between tenure and psychological empowerment, as noted by Ng and Feldman (2013), remains limited. However, based on the above argument, the hypothesis was developed as follows:

Hypothesis 4: *The length of services has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.*

2.6 POSITION LEVEL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Leaders in an organization play a vital role in motivating and inspiring employees, enhancing their capabilities (Turek & Turek, 2013; Hammond et al., 2011). Spreitzer (2008) notes that psychological empowerment seeks to give individuals power and control, making them feel capable in their tasks. When employees experience psychological empowerment, they gain confidence to think creatively, take initiative, and work independently. This increased capacity and motivation lead to innovation as employees feel more inspired and generate new

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ideas. In essence, leaders contribute significantly to fostering a work environment that encourages creativity and proactive behavior. Based on these discussions, the following hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 5: *Position level has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.*

2.7 STATUS OF EMPLOYMENT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

In organizations, employees are often categorized as permanent or contractual staff, and this employment status can impact various aspects such as facilities, salaries, and opportunities for personal and career development. Contractual workers may feel less confident compared to permanent staff, leading to stronger job insecurity feelings (Klein Hesselink and Van Vuuren, 1999; Parker et al., 2002). Studies suggest that job insecurity has a more negative impact on well-being for permanent employees, affecting job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This contrasts with contractual workers, who, expecting job changes, may experience fewer negative consequences. De Cuyper & De Witte (2005, 2006, 2007) proposed that the type of employment contract and job insecurity interact, influencing life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Meta-analyses by Sverke et al. (2002) and Cheng and Chan (2008) indicate that job insecurity is associated with negative attitudes, potentially impacting psychological empowerment among contract workers.

Hypothesis 6: *Employee's status has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.*

3 METHODOLOGY

The present study used a quantitative approach in nature, by applying descriptive analysis and intercorrelation analysis. The choice of methods was due to the objectives of the study.

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3.1 DESIGN AND PARTICIPANTS

This study employed a standard research method, utilizing a quantitative and deductive approach through a survey technique. Data collection involved the use of a questionnaire as the primary instrument. Respondents provided scores on a six-point Likert scale, where a score of 1 denoted "Strongly Disagree," and a score of 6 indicated "Strongly Agree." This scale enabled a methodical assessment of participant responses, facilitating systematic and numerical data analysis. Participants were selected through convenience sampling from three NGOs in the Jabodetabek area, Indonesia. Criteria for inclusion were individuals currently employed within the organization.

3.2 INSTRUMENTS AND DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected through a structured questionnaire in Google Forms, utilizing the Psychological Empowerment Scale by Spreitzer (1995), as endorsed by Mangundjaya (2019), along with a demographical survey. To ensure accuracy, comprehensiveness, and validity, a trial version was developed. The internal consistency of both the research and the instrument, assessed during the pilot study using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α), demonstrated values exceeding 0.7 for all constructs in the 45-person pilot study (Ayarkwa, et al., 2022), indicating consistency and dependability. Given the diverse respondents, reliability and validity testing were re-evaluated. Composite reliability (CR) and Dijkstra–Henseler's rho (a) were calculated for each construct to assess individual reliability. In the psychological empowerment measurement instrument, test results and field data collection produced excellent outcomes, with corrected item-total correlation values ranging from 0.45 to 0.81, indicating validity. The questionnaire exhibited excellent reliability, with a Cronbach's Alpha value exceeding 0.7-0.8 (specifically 0.92 during the instrument test and 0.94 during data collection). The results of the instrument test confirmed the validity and reliability of all three measurement instruments selected by the researcher, indicating no need for revision or elimination of any items as the Cronbach alpha were Competencies (0.91); Meaning (0.84); Self-determination (0.88); Impact (0.93); and the total Psychological Empowerment (0.94).

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Table 1

Demographic data of respondents

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	46	40.7
Female	67	59.3
Age		
18 – 24-year-old	34	30.1
>24 – 44-year-old	61	54.0
>44 – 56-year-old	18	15.9
Education		
Senior high school	13	11.5
Diploma	10	8.8
Bachelor's degree	68	60.2
Master's degree	22	19.5
Length of Service		
2 – 10 years	105	92.9
>10 years	8	7.1
Position		
Non-staff	10	8.8
Staff	53	46.9
Section head/supervisor	18	15.9
Division head/group head	14	12.4
Department head	18	15.9
Status of the employees		
Permanent employee	95	60.9
Contractual employee	61	39.1
Total	156	100.0

Sources: Research results

Table 1 shows the demographics of the participants. Most of them are female (59.3%), aged between 25 and 40 (61%), and hold a bachelor's degree (60.2%). The majority have staff positions (46.9%) and have been working for 2-10 years (92.9%). About 43.4% are on contractual employment, while 56.6% hold permanent positions.

3.3 DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analysed using descriptive anlaysis with mean significant diffrences and intercorrelation analysis.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 indicates that only gender exhibits significant differences in psychological empowerment (Mean = 4.92, Std. Dev.= 0.63) scores, with males scoring higher than females. This suggests that, concerning psychological empowerment components such as feelings of competence, meaning, self-determination, and impact, males tend to have higher scores.

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However, no significant differences were observed for other demographic variables.

Table 2

Descriptive analysis of demographic profile

Characteristics of respondents	Psychological empowerment (Total)			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Significance	N
Gender			0.004*	
Male	5.10	0.54		65
Female	4.79	0.72		91
Age			0.067	
< 23	4.87	0.62		21
23 – 42	4.85	0.71		107
>42 – 58	5.20	0.48		25
>58	4.90	0.21		3
Education			0.882	
Sr. High School	4.85	0.62		18
Diploma	4.82	0.90		15
Bachelor's Degree	4.93	0.53		94
Master's Degree	4.97	0.95		29
Length of Services			0.082	
>2 - 5	4.90	0.60		111
>5 - 10	4.73	0.91		30
>10	5.31	0.50		15
Position			0.295	
Non-Staff	5.04	0.67		12
Staff	4.94	0.70		74
Section Head. Supervisor. Officer	4.90	0.60		27
Division Head	5.07	0.40		19
Manager/Dept. Head	4.66	0.81		24
Employment status			0.139	
Permanent employees	4.98	0.68		95
Contract workers	4.82	0.64		61

N = number of individuals; *l.o.s $p<0.05$ Sources: Research results

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Table 3

Descriptive analysis of psychological empowerment for competence & meaning dimensions

Characteristics of respondents	Competence			Meaning		
	Mean	SD	Significance	Mean	SD	Significance
Gender			0.000**			0.064
Male	5.24	0.54		5.2	0.61	
Female	4.76	0.91		5.07	0.64	
Age			0.212			0.169
<23	4.90	0.76		4.98	0.73	
>23 – 42	4.89	0.89		5.13	0.63	
> 42 – 58	5.27	0.42		5.39	0.54	
>58	5.16	0.28		5.08	0.14	
Education			0.735			0.130
Sr. High School	5.02	0.73		5.09	0.71	
Diploma	5.06	0.74		5.13	0.84	
Bachelor's Degree	4.97	0.67		5.09	0.56	
Master's Degree	4.82	1.24		5.40	0.65	
Length of Services			0.456			0.035*
>2-5 years	4.96	0.75		5.1	0.63	
>5-10 years	4.85	1.13		5.15	0.60	
>10 years	5.18	0.39		5.55	0.55	
Position			0.052			0.489
Non-Staff	5.27	0.74		5.23	0.58	
Staff	5.02	0.83		5.22	0.62	
Section Head, Supervisor	4.92	0.53		5.03	0.64	
Division Head	5.13	0.48		5.19	0.44	
Manager/Dept. Head	4.54	1.11		5	0.80	
Employment status			0.293			0.208
Permanent employees	5.01	0.83		5.20	0.68	
Contractual employees	4.87	0.78		5.07	0.54	

SD = Standard Deviation; *l.o.s. $p<0.05$; **l.o.s. $p<0.01$ Sources: Reseacrh results

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Table 4

Descriptive analysis of psychological empowerment for determination & impact dimensions

Characteristics of respondents	Determination			Impact		
	Mean	SD	Significance	Mean	SD	Significance
Gender			0.090			0.014*
Male	4.94	0.78		4.96	0.70	
Female	4.71	0.85		4.60	0.98	
Age			0.111			0.071
<23	4.87	0.69		4.75	0.69	
>23 – 42	4.71	0.88		4.66	0.95	
> 42 – 58	5.15	0.67		5.18	0.65	
>58	5.08	0.14		4.58	0.94	
Education			0.252			0.814
Sr. High School	4.70	0.81		4.59	0.61	
Diploma	4.43	1.35		4.65	1.23	
Bachelor's Degree	4.88	0.62		4.78	0.76	
Master's Degree	4.84	1.05		4.81	1.21	
Length of Services			0.043*			0.024*
>2-5 years	4.81	0.76		4.74	0.80	
>5-10 years	4.59	1.06		4.51	1.18	
>10 years	5.25	0.70		5.28	0.7	
Position			0.469			0.673
Non-Staff	4.85	1.09		4.83	1.05	
Staff	4.78	0.83		4.76	0.91	
Section Head, Supervisor	4.91	0.73		4.72	0.87	
Division Head	5.02	0.44		4.96	0.65	
Manager/Dept. Head	4.58	1.01		4.55	0.96	
Employment Status			0.581			0.036*
Permanent employees	4.84	0.89		4.87	0.85	
Contract employees	4.76	0.72		4.56	0.92	

SD = Standard Deviation; *l.o.s. p<0.05; **l.o.s. p<0.01 Sources: Research Results

To gain a detailed understanding of the dimensions of psychological empowerment. Table 3 and Table 4 presents the results for the four dimensions. The tables reveal that gender significantly differs in competence. with males scoring higher than females. Other demographic factors did not show significant differences in competence, leading to the conclusion that males tend to have a higher sense of competence than females. Additionally, the results indicate significant differences in meaning based on the length of service with employees working for more than 10 years achieving the highest score. However, no correlation was found between the length of service and meaning. The tables also demonstrate that gender significantly differs in impact with males scoring higher than females. This finding aligns with the previous observation in competence where males had higher scores. Moreover, concerning the length of service, there are significant differences in determination, with the highest score among those who have worked for more than 10 years, while for the impact, individuals working between 5–10 years had the highest score.

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Table 5

Intercorrelation analysis (n=156)

Dimensions	Mean	SD	PE	Gdr	Age	Edu	LoS	Pos	ES
Psychological Empowerment (PE)	4.92	0.67	1						
Gender (Gdr)	-	-	0.004*	1					
Age	-	-	0.033	0.451	1				
Education (Edu)	-	-	0.235	0.359	0.000**	1			
Length of Services (LoS)	-	-	0.082	0.324	0.000**	0.000**	1		
Position (Pos)	-	-	0.006	0.501	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	1	
Employment Status (ES)	-	-	0.069	0.072	0.287	0.323	0.087	0.011	1

SD = Standard Deviation; *l.o.s. p<0.05; **l.o.s. p<0.01
Sources: Research Results

Based on the results of the intercorrelation analysis, it can be concluded that only gender is correlated with psychological empowerment. When this data is combined with the t-test analysis, it reveals significant differences between genders, with males having higher scores than females.

4.1 RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING.

Hypothesis 1: There is a signifcant difference in psychological empowerment between male and female employees.

From the results in Table 2 and Table 5, it showed that threre is a signifcnant differences between gender, and male had higher score compared to female, so the hypotheis 1 (one) was accepted.

Hypothesis 2: Educational level has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.

From the results in Table 2 and Table 5, it showed that threre is no signifcnant differences between educational level on psychological empowerment, so the hypotheis 2 (two) wa snot accepted.

Hypothesis 3: Age has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.

From the results in Table 2 and Table 5, it showed that age has no signifcnant differences on psychological empowerment, so the hypotheis 3 (three) was not accepted.

Hypothesis 4: The length of services has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.

From the results in Table 2 and Table 5, it showed that thre is no signifcnant differences

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between lengths of services on psychological empowerment, so the hypotheis 4 (four) was not accepted.

Hypothesis 5: Position level has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.

From the results in Table 2 and Table 5, it showed that thre is no signifcnant differences between position level on psychological empowerment, so the hypotheis 5 (five) was not accepted.

Hypothesis 6: Employee's status has significant and positive correlation with psychological empowerment.

From the results in Table 2 and Table 5, it showed that thre is no signifcnant differences between employee status on psychological empowerment, so the hypotheis 6 (six) was not accepted.

Thus, it can be concluded that only gender that had differences on psychological empowerment score. The process of organizational change demands individuals to exhibit confidence, competence, and a sense of impact on both the environment and the organization. This facilitates their ability to navigate challenging situations with comfort. In essence, individuals who have cultivated psychological empowerment, encompassing a feeling of competence, a sense of meaningful work, self-determination, and impact, encounter fewer difficulties in embracing planned organizational changes. This aligns with previous findings supporting psychological empowerment as a predictor of affective commitment to change (Mangundjaya, 2019).

The analysis of the study underscores that empowered employees, those with a heightened sense of control over their surroundings, actively engage in the change process, reinforcing their commitment to change. Drawing on various studies, it is evident that psychological empowerment leads to increased involvement and competence, fostering meaning in work. These empowered individuals perceive greater control, maintaining strong intrinsic motivation even during the change process. Employees who feel in control of their surroundings actively participate, believing in the impact of their work, and are self-determined, thereby elevating their affective commitment to change (Morin et al., 2016).

The research findings revealed limited support for several hypotheses, with the exception of gender, highlighting the absence of statistically significant associations between age, educational attainment, tenure, occupational position, employment status, and psychological empowerment. This implies that factors such as age, education, tenure, position, and employee type do not exert a significant impact on psychological empowerment.

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Noteworthy gender disparities were observed in the domains of competence and impact, with males demonstrating higher scores than females, suggesting an elevated sense of competence among the male cohort. The study's ultimate inference aligns with Spreitzer's (1995) Psychological Empowerment (PE) model, asserting that it more aptly encapsulates the empowerment experiences of men compared to women. Additionally, these research outcomes resonate with parallel empirical investigations, indicating minimal, if any, substantial variations in the conceptualization of empowerment across genders, whether defined as a general perception of power (Lips, 1985) or as the perceived access to organizational power structures (Finegan & Laschinger, 2001). Consequently, this study contributes to the growing body of literature affirming the consistency of empowerment constructs across diverse gender demographics.

Further examination reveals that, in general, length of service showed no significant differences and no significant correlation with psychological empowerment. However, within the dimensions of psychological empowerment, meaningful findings emerged. Employees with more than 10 years of service demonstrated higher scores in meaning, reflecting a developed fit between job needs and individual beliefs. No correlation was found between length of service and meaning. In terms of determination, individuals with over 10 years of service scored the highest, showcasing a sense of autonomy developed over time. Impact scores indicated that those with 5-10 years of service felt they could make a significant impact on the organization. The study challenges Spreitzer's (1995, 2007) assertion that demographic factors influence psychological empowerment. It highlights inconsistent findings on the correlation between demographic factors and organizational commitment, emphasizing that factors such as age, tenure, and education may or may not predict organizational commitment. Further, this study also supported the previous study by Vitória et al (2024) who were stated that leaders (in this case a change agent can be regarded as a leader), play significant roles in developing a meaningful work environment, including during the process of organizational change. Further, Van Phong, and Dao Ngoc (2024) studies who mentioned that during the process of promotion including assigning as change agent employees should be informed about the process and the reason why a person was chosen to become the change agent.

Despite its contributions, the study acknowledges limitations, including its focus on NGOs, limiting generalization to other organizational types. The predominance of female respondents suggests a need for further investigation. The study recognizes the potential impact of education level and staff positions on psychological empowerment, emphasizing the importance of considering internal factors within individuals that may influence their sense of

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psychological empowerment.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Studies showed the importance of fostering psychological empowerment among employees to enhance their affective commitment to change during organizational transitions. Interventions like training, workshops, coaching, mentoring, and counseling are crucial for cultivating psychological empowerment. This study emphasizes the need to assist employees in developing a robust sense of psychological empowerment, recognizing its pivotal role in achieving positive outcomes during organizational change.

Implications for the study reveal that, contrary to common belief, demographic variables, except for gender, showed no correlation with psychological empowerment. Organizations and managers should recognize that, aside from gender, all other demographic factors demonstrated no significant differences in psychological empowerment. This challenge prevailing notions and suggests that efforts to promote psychological empowerment should focus on factors beyond demographics.

Moreover, to truly empower employees, social-structural empowerment is essential. Merely altering rules or providing training may not be sufficient. Empowering leadership should create an environment where employees' voices are heard, allowing them to participate in discussions about the organization's meaning, goals, and relevant decision-making processes. The study's insights benefit organizations and change leaders by emphasizing the need to equip employees with knowledge, skills, beliefs, and attitudes to navigate successful change processes. Recognizing the significance of building psychological empowerment aids in anticipating and preparing for the consequences of organizational change initiatives, ensuring a smoother transition.

Additionally, psychological empowerment's active orientation toward work, as noted by Spreitzer (2007), aligns with positive attributes during change processes, including resilience, flexibility, resourcefulness, proactive behavior, and independence. Employees with heightened psychological empowerment are likely to remain committed to their organization during change, feeling capable of navigating and mastering the challenges that arise. With this kind of feeling employees will be more self confidence in facing their works as well as solving their problems during their works and self-development.

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Article Information		Abstract
		The world is changing, and the changes are affecting organizations to adapt to the changing as well. However, not all the change initiative programs will succeed due to employees' lack of commitment to change. The study aims to identify the role of psychological empowerment and change self-efficacy as mediators between change leadership and affective commitment to change. This study surveyed four NGOs with 113 respondents. Data was collected using four types of questionnaires: affective commitment to change, change leadership, change self-efficacy, organizational change, and psychological empowerment. Results showed that change leadership had affected affective commitment to change directly through self-efficacy as a mediator. In the meantime, psychological empowerment could not mediate change leadership and affective commitment to change, as psychological empowerment did not significantly influence affective commitment to change, which can be said that change self-efficacy is more significant than psychological empowerment in terms of affective commitment to change. Results were beneficial for organizations and management to prepare the change initiative effectively in times of organizational change. In this regard, preparing a leader to become an effective change leader is needed to develop an affective commitment to the change of the employees.
		Abstrak Dunia sedang berubah, dan perubahan tersebut memengaruhi organisasi untuk beradaptasi dengan perubahan tersebut. Namun, tidak semua program inisiatif perubahan akan berhasil karena kurangnya komitmen karyawan terhadap perubahan. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengidentifikasi peran pemberdayaan psikologis dan efikasi diri perubahan sebagai mediator antara kepemimpinan perubahan dan komitmen afektif terhadap perubahan. Penelitian ini mensurvei empat LSM dengan 113 responden. Data dikumpulkan dengan menggunakan empat jenis kuesioner: komitmen afektif untuk berubah, kepemimpinan perubahan, efikasi diri perubahan, perubahan organisasi, dan pemberdayaan psikologis. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa kepemimpinan perubahan berpengaruh terhadap komitmen afektif untuk berubah secara langsung melalui efikasi diri sebagai mediator. Sementara itu, pemberdayaan psikologis tidak dapat memediasi kepemimpinan perubahan dan komitmen afektif untuk berubah, karena pemberdayaan psikologis tidak secara signifikan memengaruhi komitmen afektif untuk berubah, yang dapat dikatakan bahwa efikasi diri untuk berubah lebih signifikan

daripada pemberdayaan psikologis dalam hal komitmen afektif untuk berubah. Hasil penelitian ini bermanfaat bagi organisasi dan manajemen untuk mempersiapkan inisiatif perubahan secara efektif pada saat terjadi perubahan organisasi. Dalam hal ini, mempersiapkan seorang pemimpin untuk menjadi pemimpin perubahan yang efektif sangat diperlukan untuk mengembangkan komitmen afektif terhadap perubahan dari para karyawan.

INTRODUCTION

Innovations and enhancements continue, which makes global competition increase. As a result, organizations must prepare to face the evolving era by continuing to prepare themselves to meet changes in the environment and competition. This challenge makes organizations must be ready to make changes to compete and maintain their existence in their fields. In this regard, the more dynamic the organizational climate, thus the more the organization needs to change to survive (Fatima et al., 2020).

These kinds of challenges also apply to non-governmental organizations (NGOs). In the era of globalization, NGOs face the challenges of constantly changing to keep up with the development of a dynamic world. This environment is simultaneously evolving and complex. No different from for-profit organizations, NGOs, as non-profit organizations, are pressured to adapt to environmental changes. Funding cuts, increasing accountability requirements, and organizational factors such as commitment, low morale, burnout, and high turnover are some issues affecting many non-profit managers. NGOs must develop their management skills and infrastructure (Packard, 2012). As a result, NGOs need to find and implement new working methods. Program redesign, restructuring, development of program evaluation systems, increased diversity, and changes in outdated or dysfunctional organizational culture can help organizations survive and thrive during challenging times (Packard, 2012). A sample of the changes that have occurred in NGOs in Indonesia is the means of raising funds which are expanding using digital means. A survey from Kopernik and Gopal in Indonesia showed that overall donations both conventionally and digitally experienced an increase in value by 20%, with the average value of digital contributions increasing by 72% and an increase also occurring for donations on social and health issues (Casalderrey & Prathama, 2021).

Successful organizational changes need support from various parties, including the top leaders, middle management, and employees. Previous researchers (Stouten et al., 2018) stated that the success of an organization is influenced by many factors based on three levels: micro, miso, and macro. The micro level refers to the individual as the recipient of change. The miso level involves cross-level effects between individuals, groups, and organizations. The macro level is organizational factors and their characteristics. Therefore, organizations need to pay attention to and optimize the aspects of these three levels to achieve the desired change success. Individual elements become one factor that influences the organizational change's success. In this regard, people in the organization must be aware of the reasons for changes made in an organization to accept and implement changes (Aamodt, 2015). Further, according to (Batti, 2014), a successful NGO recognizes the human element's importance to an organization's success and considers its commitment to achieving the desired goal.

Meanwhile, implementing organizational initiative changes does not always successful. A survey by McKinsey & Co. in 2015 showed that almost 70% of organizational changes failed (Batti, 2014). Many attempts at organizational change fail due to indifference or even rejection

which causes discomfort or stress to the employees (Packard, 2012). In this regard, commitment to change from employees is considered crucial for successfully implementing organizational change (Mangundjaya, 2019). Commitment to change refers to employees' willingness to perform actions necessary to influence change individually and considerably impacts the success of organizational change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Further, the commitment to change affects the retention rate, work attendance, performance in doing work, and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of employees, which then affects the success of change implementation (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Employees' commitment also helps overcome the sense of discomfort and stress related to change that can affect the success of change (Packard, 2012). In other words, organizational change's success is determined by employees' commitment, especially the affective commitment to change.

Affective commitment to change can be influenced by various external, organizational, and personal factors (Mangundjaya, 2019). Organizational factors include superior support, communication-related changes, decision-making involvement, perception of corporate sponsorship, and leadership (Naotunna & Arachchige, 2016). In this regard, one of the influential types of leadership is change leadership (Ling et al., 2018). Individual factors influencing commitment to change include organizational trust, organizational commitment, change readiness, psychological capital, change self-efficacy, and psychological empowerment (Fatima et al., 2020; Mangundjaya & Giovanita, 2018).

In this regard, research and business practices showed that one of the significant factors that arise from the organization or external factors that influence the commitment to change is leadership, among other things, change leadership. Change leadership also has some positive impacts, as in the group sphere, it impacts the collective identity achieved by developing a shared vision, values, and goals. In the individual sphere, change leadership positively correlated with an affective commitment to change (Ling et al., 2018). Based on that, this research will study change leadership's role in developing affective commitment to change with the mediator of psychological empowerment and change-related self-efficacy.

Herscovitch & Meyer (2002) mentioned that commitment to change is a mindset that binds the person to actions necessary to implement change initiatives successfully. The commitment to change is reflected in three dimensions: (1) the affective commitment to change; (2) the continuance commitment to change; and (3) the normative commitment to change. This study focuses on affective commitment to change, which is the desire to support organizational change based on the belief that the change will benefit the organization. In this regard, affective commitment to change is predicted to be the best supportive behaviour during organizational change, which has the most significant influence on the positive attitudes and behaviours toward the organizational change of the person compared to the other two dimensions (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Herold et al. (2008) and Liu (2010) describe change leadership as behaviors that aim for specific changes, including creating visions, empowering, monitoring, and assisting in individual adaptation. Liu (2010) then developed two dimensions of change leadership: change-selling behavior and change-implementing behavior.

Meanwhile, Mangundjaya (2022) stated that change leadership is the style or way of a change leader who desires to make changes to achieve better organizational conditions. According to Mangundjaya (2022), change leadership has three dimensions of leadership roles: (1) initiator or pioneer, who desires to make a change for a better organization, includes having a vision of the organization in the future; (2) implementer, is a change leader that can design organizational change, direct, lead, and implement change; and (3) coach, a change leader that acts as a compan-

ion and role model, in accompanying the employees during the change process and listening to their complaints. In this study, the concept of change leadership used is the concept of Mangundjaya (2022), as it is quite new and developed from grounded research involving all the stakeholders throughout Indonesia.

Wanberg & Banas (2000) defined change self-efficacy as a person's perception of their ability to face change and to continue to perform their duties despite the demands of change. Moreover, change self-efficacy refers to an employee's belief that they can handle the challenges and demands of a particular organizational change (Fugate et al., 2012; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016). Meanwhile, Spreitzer (2007) stated that psychological empowerment refers to a series of psychological conditions that individual has concerning their work, which consist of four dimensions, namely: (1) meaning, involves the fit between the needs of the work role and the beliefs, values, and behaviors of the individual; (2) competence, refers to the self-efficacy specific to ones job or belief in one's ability to do work with skills, includes individual beliefs where individuals have the ability and technical competence to complete the tasks without organizational resistance; (3) self-determination, reflects a sense of autonomy or choice over the initiation and sustainability of work behaviors and processes, refers to how far a person has the will of his work or is free to determine how to complete the work; and (4) impact, describes how far employees feel they have a substantial and essential influence on the work environment, colleagues, and organizations in the workplace.

Effective leadership is necessary because leaders will face an uphill battle if employees do not care about their organization. The role of leaders is essential in increasing employee commitment to change. Change leaders influence the self-concept of their followers and allow them to develop healthy self-confidence when making the high-risk demands of change (Ling et al.,

2018). Moreover, research by Ling et al. (2018) found that change leadership positively influences collective identity and has the urgency to maintain and grow their employees' collective identity. These actions are done by building a good vision, motivating communication, and fostering managerial ideologies according to the mission of organizational change. Change leadership presents an efficient solution to the challenges of organizational change, which is a universal driver for positive outcomes, thus becoming an essential driver for positive change outcomes (Holten et al., 2019). A study by Herold et al. (2008) showed that change leadership positively influenced affective commitment to change. Moreover, a previous study by Ling et al. (2018) showed a positive influence of change leadership on affective commitment to change. Based on these discussions, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H1: Change leadership has a positive impact on affective commitment to change.

A leader who applies change leadership is responsible for leading and directing people and will ensure that people comprehend organizational change. Research on change leadership revealed that it could increase and develop psychological empowerment (Mangundjaya, 2019). In this regard, the researchers conducted the study using the concept of change leadership by Liu (2010), who mentioned that change leadership consists of two dimensions: selling and directing. This concept of change leadership had a positive impact on psychological empowerment. Although in this research, the concept of change leadership differs from the change leadership by Liu (2010), it is assumed that these two variables are correlated. The proposed hypothesis is as follows.

H2: Change leadership had a positive impact on psychological empowerment.

The previous studies (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Mangundjaya, 2019) showed that individuals with a high sense of psychological empower-

ment naturally have high competence, efficacy, determination, and impact, allowing them to be brave enough to face organizational change. They also feel confident enough and have the ability to face the change and even influence their surroundings to accept the organizational change. These kinds of feelings lead to the affective commitment to change. The study raised the following hypothesis.

H3: Psychological empowerment had a positive impact on affective commitment to change.

Cognitive-based beliefs predict meaning and competence, while affective-based beliefs predict impact (Ergeneli et al., 2007). In this regard, supportive feelings in individuals to experience psychological empowerment in the workplace are significant (Spreitzer, 2007). Research by Mangundjaya (2019) showed that psychological empowerment directly affected affective commitment to change. These discussions lead to the hypothesis as the following.

H4: Psychological empowerment mediates the change leadership and affective commitment to change.

Leaders have a remarkable ability to influence, and subordinates increase their optimism and self-efficacy as a result of their leadership style (Aggarwal & Krishnan, 2013). This quality relationship between employees and superiors will create a commitment to change in employees (Foks, 2015; Lim et al., 2021). Employees who feel a quality relationship with their boss are more encouraged to be committed and support the success of organizational change, as employees feel a strong emotional attachment to their work (Foks, 2015).

Further, the previous research by Ling et al. (2018) also showed that change leadership positively influences collective identity in maintaining and improving the collective identity of their employees. These actions are done by building a good vision, motivating communication, and building managerial ideologies accord-

ing to the organizational change's mission. In addition, the research by Ling et al. (2018) also revealed that change leadership increases change self-efficacy at the individual level of employees through role modeling, the experience of success, and verbal persuasion. Moreover, Ling et al. (2018) showed that change leadership positively correlated with change self-efficacy. This condition is based on social cognitive theory, in which employees develop their change self-efficacy based on the vicarious experience of role modeling and the group process of paying attention to their leaders (Bandura, 2015; Ling et al., 2018). In other words, leaders can influence and increase the optimism and self-efficacy of their subordinates through their leadership style (Aggarwal & Krishnan, 2013). Based on these findings, the study proposed the following hypothesis.

H5: Change leadership had a positive impact on change self-efficacy.

Individuals with high self-efficacy toward change tend to develop an affective commitment to change. Individuals more confident facing organizational change are less affected by change demands and thus are more willing or committed to favor change. As mentioned earlier, one of the reasons for the failure of change is rejection because of the sense of discomfort and stress experienced by employees from the demands of change (Packard, 2012), and employees with great change self-efficacy were assumed not particularly affected by these adverse effects. As a result, it said that individual change self-efficacy change plays a vital role in affective commitment to change. This statement is supported by the findings of previous researchers (Fatima et al., 2020; Foks, 2015; Mangundjaya & Giovanita, 2018), who showed in their findings that change self-efficacy is positively correlated with a commitment to change. Based on these results, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H6: Change self-efficacy positively impact affective change commitment.

Research by Ling et al. (2018) showed that change in self-efficacy at the individual level and collective identity at the group level positively mediate the relationship between change leadership and commitment to change. Employees with excellent change self-efficacy tend to make and implement organizational changes. Based on the descriptions presented above, this study raised the following hypothesis.

H7: Change self-efficacy mediates change leadership and affective commitment to change.

METHODS

Type and Research Design

This research used a quantitative approach and a correlational method, using a cross-sectional study and non-experimental as it does not seek to explain causal relationships but only tests the relationship between variables, and there is no manipulation of variables (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016).

Sampling Techniques and Respondents

The sampling technique was non-probability sampling, using convenience and snowball sampling, as it is easy to obtain the respondents (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016). The respondents of this research were employees who work in non-profit organizations and those are non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

The respondents are employees who have worked in the NGOs for at least two years of services. It is assumed that employees have adapted to the organization in two years and can see or experience the organizational changes during their stay. Robbins & Judge (2013) state that the first two years of work are when employees adjust to where they work. The number of respondents was 113, based on the G-Power statistical application using α 0.05, which stated the minimum number of respondents was 107.

Table 1.
Demographic Data of Respondents

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	46	40.7
Female	67	59.3
Age		
18–24 year-old	34	30.1
25–44 year-old	61	54.0
45–56 year-old	18	15.9
Education		
Senior high school	13	11.5
Diploma	10	8.8
Bachelor	68	60.2
Master	22	19.5
Length of Services		
2–10 years	105	92.9
> 10 years	8	7.1

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Position		
Non-staff	10	8.8
Staff	53	46.9
Section head/Supervisor/Officer	18	15.9
Division head/Group head	14	12.4
Department head	18	15.9
Total	113	100.0

The profile of respondents in Table 1 shows that the majority is female (59.3%), the age range of ages is from 25 to 44 years old (54%), and university graduates (60.2%). They have worked for two to ten years (92.9%), mostly staff (46.9%).

Data Collection Tools

Affective Commitment to Change

The instrument used is one of the dimensions of the commitment to change, called the affective commitment to change dimension, developed by Herscovitch & Meyer (2002). This instrument consists of six items using a Likert scale of one to six. Likert scale point one refers to strongly disagreeing answers, to six, which refers to intensely friendly answers.

The validity test results with the CrIT of this measuring instrument have a range of .40 to .64. Based on references from Nunnally & Bernstein (1994), CrIT coefficients above .2 are considered a good score for discriminating items. Thus affective commitment to change has a good item discrimination value. Reliability analysis on the data collection results with 113 valid data resulted in a Cronbach's alpha value of .86 with a CrIT range of .57 to .79. According to Kaplan & Saccuzzo (2017), the value of the coefficient of reliability of an excellent measuring instrument is .70, which it can be said that this measuring instrument shows good reliability.

Change Leadership

Change leadership was measured using instruments from Mangundjaya (2022), which mea-

sures three dimensions: initiator, implementer, and coach. This instrument was developed by Mangundjaya (2022) through grounded research representing various ethnicities. This item consists of 15 favorable items with six Likert scale points, where point one means strongly disagree to six means strongly agree. The reliability test resulted in a value of .97, with a range of dimensions from .90 up to .93. The validity test results with CrIT showed a range of .50 to .88.

Change Self-Efficacy

The change self-efficacy was developed by Ashford et al. (2010), which used to be called Change Related Self-efficacy. This research used an adapted version by Mangundjaya & Giovanita (2018) with six points on the Likert scale, where point one refers to the statement of strongly disagree and point six means strongly agree. Research by Puspitasari & Mangundjaya (2019) with 612 respondents showed a reliability value of .71 with CrIT ranging from .15 to .62. Thus, it can be said that the change self-efficacy instrument has good reliability (> .70).

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment was initially developed by Spreitzer (2007), with a total of 16 items divided by four dimensions. These dimensions include meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. This instrument was modified by Mangundjaya (2019) and has been used by many other researchers in Indonesia. The reliability test resulted in a value of .94, with the range of each dimension from .84 up to .93. The

validity test results with CrIT showed a range of .50 to .81. It shows that the instruments are valid and reliable.

RESULTS

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using descriptive analysis and multiple moderated regression PROCESS version 3.5 Model 4, developed by Hayes (2020), to identify the impact of change leadership on affective commitment to change with the mediator of psychological empowerment and change self-efficacy.

Descriptive Analysis

Based on the main variables, namely affective commitment to change, change leadership, and change in self-efficacy, the results can be seen in Table 2, which shows that change leadership has the highest score compared to the other three variables. Table 3 shows the average demographic profile and standard deviation of affective commitment to change, change leadership, change self-efficacy, and psychological empowerment variables.

Table 2.
Mean and Standard Deviations of Variables

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Affective commitment to change	113	4.95	0.88	1	6
Change leadership	113	4.98	0.79	1	6
Change self-efficacy	113	4.42	0.99	1	6
Psychological empowerment	113	4.92	0.63	1	5

Table 3.
Descriptive Analysis of Demographic Profile

Characteristics of Respondents	Affective Commitment to Change		Change Leadership		Change Self-Efficacy		Psychological Empowerment	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Gender								
Male	5.01	0.90	4.44	0.35	4.51	0.98	4.92	0.62
Female	4.90	0.87	4.23	0.83	4.35	1.01	4.94	0.64
Age								
15–24 year-old	4.67	0.89	4.49	0.46	4.01	1.08	4.93	0.67
25–44 year-old	4.93	0.90	4.22	0.76	4.52	0.94	4.95	0.68
45–64 year-old	5.52	0.45	4.32	0.71	4.83	0.76	4.97	0.63
Education								
Senior high school	4.62	0.95	4.49	0.36	4.03	1.15	4.92	0.65
Diploma	4.67	1.26	4.79	0.37	4.43	0.99	4.94	0.64
Bachelor	4.97	0.79	4.32	0.50	4.41	0.94	4.96	0.67
Master	5.20	0.88	3.98	1.13	4.67	1.05	4.98	0.68
Length of Service								
2–10 years	4.90	0.89	4.29	0.69	4.38	1.00	4.99	0.63
> 10 years	5.52	0.43	4.65	0.48	4.88	0.78	5.01	0.64

Characteristics of Respondents	Affective Commitment to Change		Change Leadership		Change Self-Efficacy		Psychological Empowerment	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Position								
Non-staff	4.33	1.02	4.35	0.53	3.77	1.02	4.32	0.80
Staff	4.88	0.94	4.35	0.75	4.29	1.02	4.70	0.72
Section head/ Supervisor/Officer	4.72	0.77	4.17	0.71	4.48	1.02	4.80	0.71
Division head	5.50	0.45	4.32	0.46	4.76	0.86	5.10	0.67
Manager/Department head	5.30	0.65	4.35	0.53	3.77	1.02	5.20	0.65

Intercorrelation Analysis

Using Pearson correlation analysis, researchers conducted a correlation analysis to identify a relationship between variables. The result of the analysis is shown in Table 4. It can be concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between change leadership and affective commitment to change (r = .38, p < .01). Based on these results, it showed that the more influential the change leadership perceived by employees, then the higher the level of affective commitment to change owned by employees.

Furthermore, change leadership is also positively correlated with change self-efficacy (r = .29, p < .01). As a result, the more influential the leadership change in the organization, the higher the level of change self-efficacy possessed by employees. In addition, a significant positive relationship was found between change self-efficacy and affective commitment to change (r = .61, p < .01). Therefore, it concludes that if employees have good self-efficacy for change, they will have high affective commitment.

Table 4.
Intercorrelation Analysis

	Mean	SD	AC2C	CL	CSE
AC2C	4.95	.88	1	.38**	.61**
CL	4.98	.68	.38**	1	.29**
CSE	4.42	.99	.61**	.30**	1
PE	4.92	.63	.59**	.51**	

**Significant at p < .01; N = 113.
SD = Standard Deviation;
AC2C = Affective Commitment to Change;
CL = Change Leadership;
CSE = Change Self-Efficacy;
PE = Psychological Empowerment.

Based on the correlation results shown in Table 4, it can be concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between change leadership and affective commitment to change (r = .38, p < .01). From these results, it can be said that the more effective the change leadership perceived by employees, the higher the level of affective commitment to change owned by employees. Furthermore, change leadership is also positively correlated with change self-efficacy (r = .29, p < .01), so it can be said that the more effective the leadership change in the organization, the higher the level of change self-efficacy possessed by employees. In addition, a signifi-

cant positive relationship was found between change self-efficacy and affective commitment to change ($r = .61$, $p < .01$). Therefore, it can be said that if employees have good self-efficacy for change, then employees will have an affective commitment to big change as well.

Results of Mediation Analysis

Hypothesis testing was done with the multiple moderated regression PROCESS version 3.5 Model 4 technique developed by Hayes (2020). This method is to see the influence of change leadership and an independent sense of psychological power as well as the influence of the mediation of the variable sense of psychological power on the affective commitment to change.

Table 5.

Psychological Empowerment aAs the Mediator

Predictor	Psychological Empowerment (M)				Affective Commitment to Change (Y)		
	Coeff.	ONE	p		Coeff.	ONE	p
Change Leadership (X)	.505	.065	.000	c'	.069*	.027	.013
Psychological Empowerment (M)				c	.057*	.022	.011
	-	-	-	b	-.024	.032	.459
Constant	41.010	4.960	.000		18.61	2.150	.000
	$R^2 = .34$				$R^2 = .06$		
	$F(1,111) = 59.18$				$F(2,110) = 3.60$		
	Coeff.		t		p		
Total Effect [c]	.057		2.58		.011		
Direct Effects [c']	.069		2.52		.000		
Indirect Effects	-.012						

*$p < .05$

In Table 5 is seen that hypothesis testing was carried out using multiple regression analysis to identify the role of change leadership and psychological empowerment on affective commitment to change. It shows that the value of R^2 is .34, so it can be said that the leadership of change can explain 34% of the variance of psychological empowerment. Then R^2 on affective commitment to change has a value of .06, meaning that the change leadership and psychological empowerment influence 6% of the affective commitment to change variance.
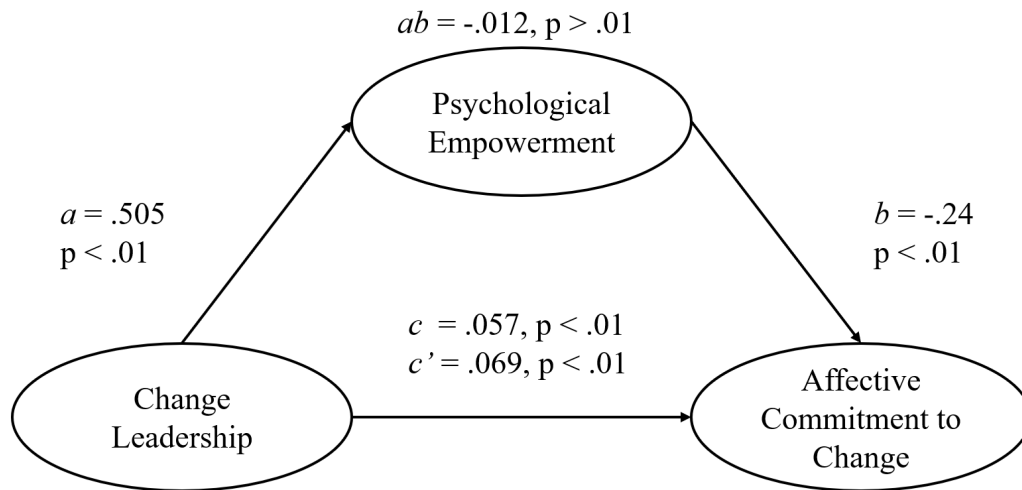
$$ab = -.012, p > .01$$

Figure 1.
Mediation Analysis with Psychological Empowerment As the Mediator

Table 5 and Figure 1 show that change leadership has a positive and significant direct relationship on affective commitment to change (c' = .069, p < .01), so Hypothesis 1 (H1) had supported. Then, the indirect effect coefficient of -.012 was obtained (95% CI -.059, -.026). The confidence interval level of 95% with 5,000 bootstrap samples is between -.059 (LLCI) to -.026 (ULCI). From this value, it is seen that the range passes the number zero, so the pure value of the indirect effect is equal to zero. Thus, it can be said that at a confidence level of 95%, psychological empowerment does not give a mediation effect. Based on the direct effect (c' = .069, p < .01), it can be said that change leadership directly affects affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment. However, psychological empowerment could not mediate between change leadership and affective commitment to change, as psychological empowerment did not significantly impact affective commitment to change. Thus, Hypotheses 3 (H3) and Hypotheses 4 (H4) were not supported.

A similar procedure was carried out to determine the role of change self-efficacy as a mediator of the relationship between change leadership and affective commitment to change, using a simple mediation model, namely Model 4 (Hayes, 2020). Table 5 above presents the results of the regression analysis that has been carried out. Table 6 shows that in the change self-efficacy column, the amount of R^2 is .09, so it can be said that 9% of the variance of change self-efficacy can be explained by change leadership. According to Cohen's classification (Gravetter & Forzano, 2013) of effect size, .09 indicates a moderate effect size. Then, R^2 on affective commitment to change of .42 states that 42% of the variance of affective commitment to change is influenced by change leadership factors and change self-efficacy. Based on Cohen's classification (Gravetter & Forzano, 2013), the amount of d = .42 falls into the category of large effect sizes, so 42% of variance exerts a large effect on affective commitment to change.

Table 6 and Figure 2 below show that change leadership has a positive and significant direct relationship on affective commitment to change (c' = .112, p < .01). Thus, the c' path proves significant. The subsequent analysis supported this result, showing that change leadership significantly influences change self-efficacy (a = .086, p < .01). Therefore, H1 and H5 were supported. The results on the relationship between change self-efficacy and affective commitment to change showed a significant positive relationship (b = .975, p < .01), thus proving that Hypotheses 6 (H6) was supported. Furthermore, the mediation analysis results showed that change self-efficacy mediated the relationship between

change leadership and affective commitment to change (ab = .084, p < .01). Therefore, Hypotheses 7 (H7) was supported in this study. When viewed as a direct effect that proves to be significant (c' = .112, p < .01), it can be said that change leadership can directly influence the af-fective commitment to change, with the magnitude of the effect of the c' path (.112) which is greater than the ab line (.084). In other words, change self-efficacy partially mediates the relationship between change leadership and affective commitment to change.

Table 6.
Change Self-Efficacy As the Mediator

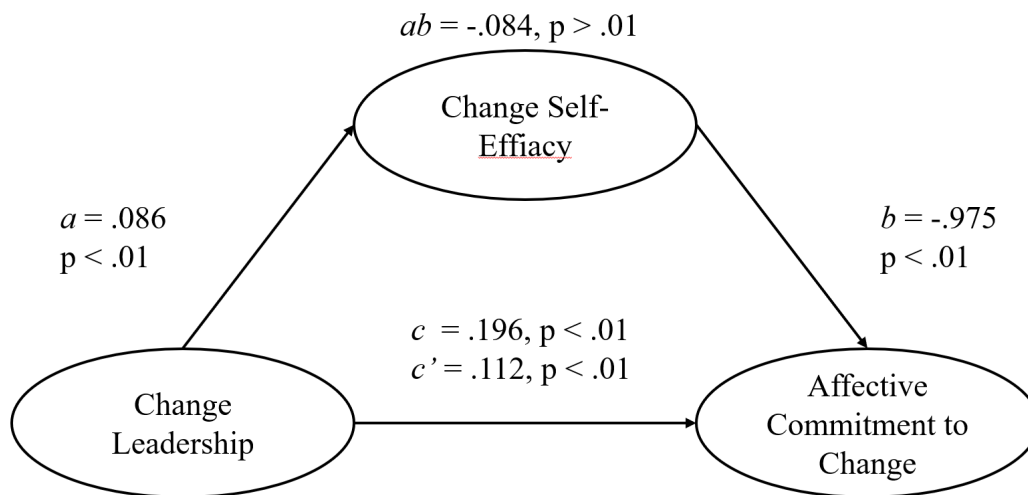| Predictor	Change Self-Efficacy (M)				Affective Commitment to Change (Y)		
	Coeff.	ONE	p		Coeff.	ONE	p
Change Leadership (X)	.086**	.026	.002	c'	.112*	.039	.005
Change Self-Efficacy (M)	-	-	-	c	.196**	.046	.000
	-	-	-	b	.975**	.135	.000
Constant	7.664	1.737	.000		9.526	.267	.001
	$R^2 = .09$				$R^2 = .42$		
	F(1,111) = 1.584				F(2,110) = 39.787		
	Coeff.		t		p		
Total Effect [c]	.196**		4.31		.000		
Direct Effects [c']	.112		2.84		.005		
Indirect Effects	.084						

*p < .05; **p < .01

Figure 2.
Mediation Analysis with Change Self-Efficacy As the Mediator

To summarize, the results showed that change leadership increases employees' change self-efficacy, which can develop employees' af-fective commitment to change in their organization. Change leadership also affects affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment. Meanwhile, psychological empowerment was not significantly related to affective commitment to change. Thus, psychological empowerment cannot become the mediator be-

tween change leadership and affective commitment to change. The summary of the results and the hypotheses which were supported and not supported in the study are shown in Table 7.

Table 7.
Summary of the Results

Hypothesis	Correlation	Score	Level of Significance	Results
H1	Change Leadership on Affective Commitment to Change.	.112 & .069	p < .05	Significant H1 was Supported
H2	Change Leadership on Psychological Empowerment.	.505	p < .01	Significant H2 was Supported
H3	Psychological Empowerment on Affective Commitment to Change.	-.24	p > .01	Not Significant H3 not supported
H4	Change Leadership on Affective Commitment to Change with Psychological Empowerment Mediator.	.012	p > .01	Not Significant H4 not supported
H5	Change Leadership on Change Self-Efficacy.	.086	p < .01	Significant H5 was Supported
H6	Change Self-Efficacy on Psychological Empowerment.	.975	p < .01	Significant H6 was Supported
H7	Change Leadership on Affective Commitment to Change with Change Self-Efficacy Mediator.	.084	p < .01	Significant H7 was Supported

DISCUSSION

Results showed that change leadership had influenced affective commitment to change significantly. Previous researchers (Ling et al., 2018) stated that change leadership affects positive change outcomes through positive change experiences from employees and the consequences of change. This result shows that effective change leadership can efficiently solve organizational change challenges that expect positive results from change. Change leadership can be said to be an essential factor in influencing commitment to change. Effective change requires training and developing existing leaders in the skills associated with change, focusing on how to deal with change itself and how to manage change effectively from the perspective of their employees (Stouten et al., 2018).

In this study, change leadership positively influences affective commitment to change. The results showed that no mediator is needed to be able to bring up an affective commitment to change. This result is similar to the previous research by (Herold et al., 2008) and (Liu, 2010), which stated that change leadership significantly influences affective commitment to change. However, the results differ from the study by Mangundjaya (2019), which showed that change

leadership is not significantly and directly correlated with a commitment to change but rather needed for the mediator of psychological empowerment and/or organizational trust. Meanwhile, this research showed that psychological empowerment did not mediate change leadership and affective commitment to change.

These different outcomes can be due to the characteristics of the participants from non-profit organizations. The type of changes and organizational culture in non-profit organizations might be different from the type's organizational cultures in state-owned companies. Further, the differences in the results with the previous studies are partly due to the concept of change leadership used. The researcher in that study (Mangundjaya, 2019) used the concept of change leadership from (Liu, 2010), while other researchers (Ling et al., 2018) used the concept of change leadership from (Herold et al., 2008). Meanwhile, this study used the concept of change leadership by (Mangundjaya, 2022). In addition, differences in results may also be influenced by the sample of participants, where (Ling et al., 2018) used samples from the USA and China.

Moreover, the study also showed that psychological empowerment did not significantly affect affective commitment to change and thus cannot become the mediator between change leadership and affective commitment to change. This result differs from the study conducted by (Mangundjaya, 2019), which showed that psychological empowerment influences affective commitment to change and acts as the mediator between change leadership and affective commitment to change. These differences were assumed due to the different concepts of change leadership and different types of organizations, so future studies are needed.

Another finding from this study is that change leadership is positively related to change self-efficacy. This result is in line with the findings of other researchers, (Ling et al., 2018), in which change leadership will increase change self-efficacy of employees. Moreover, change self-efficacy also mediates the relationship between change leadership and affective commitment to change.

In addition, the study also showed that change self-efficacy positively relates to the affective commitment to change. These findings support previous research (Fatima et al., 2020; Liu, 2010; Mangundjaya & Giovanita, 2018), showing that change self-efficacy positively correlates with an affective commitment to change. This is because employees who feel more confident in their ability to deal with changes or change self-efficacy are not negatively affected by the demands of changes given to them and are thus more committed to supporting organizational change.

In terms of duration of work, it showed that the majority of employees in this study had worked for two to ten years. During that period of work, it is a period of development where organizational commitment decreases slightly, which might also have impacted the employee's affective commitment to change.

This research has some limitations, namely: (1) researchers distributed questionnaires to the various types of non-profit organizations, as different types of non-profit organizations might have different characteristics that will influence the change or culture of the organization; (2) data collection in this study was carried out using the self-report method which might be influenced by the bias of the respondents as questionnaire fillers where it is easy for them to distort their responses (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016); and (3) researchers had no control over respondents' understanding of the instructions because the questionnaires were distributed by online.

Future research is recommended to be conducted with other NGOs, which will have many types of NGOs, and data collection can be conducted online and mixed with other types of tools such as FGD and/or interviews.

CONCLUSION

The study results showed that change leadership is essential in developing affective commitment to change. It also showed that change leadership with the mediator of change self-efficacy positively impacted affective commitment to change. Meanwhile, psychological empowerment did not significantly correlate with affective commitment nor as a mediator between change leadership and affective commitment to change. However, change self-efficacy is more critical in developing affective commitment to change than psychological empowerment. These results will benefit the organization and management, especially when planning to develop organizational change initiatives. This study needs further studies to investigate the relationship between change leadership, affective commitment to change as well as psychological empowerment and change self-efficacy as mediators. From the results, it can be concluded that change leader is a very important in developing affective commitment to change, as well as change self-efficacy. As a result, coaching, mentoring and training is needed to develop a leader to become a change leader, and to enhance employees to have higher change self-efficacy.

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