PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT:

ANTECEDENTS, CORRELATES AND CONSEQUENCES

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ABSTRACT

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This study examines, with an integrative perspective, the effects of employees' perceptions about the empowering behavior of their immediate supervisor on employees' psychological empowerment, and the effects of employees' psychological empowerment on their job satisfaction, extrinsic reward satisfaction, affective commitment towards their organizations, turnover intentions; and task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, this study makes comparisons between the strength of some of the hypothesized relationships.

The constructs of the study are examined with a preliminary qualitative study, which consists of 10 in-depth interviews, and the relationships among these constructs are investigated with a quantitative research that comprises a survey. Data are collected from 250 employees, and their (19) supervisors who work in 18 different firms from different industries operating in Istanbul, Turkey; and hypothesized relationships are analyzed with structural equation modeling procedure in AMOS18.

The primary finding of the study is that there is a strong relationship between enhancing meaningfulness- providing autonomy dimension of empowering behavior of supervisors and employees' psychological empowerment. Another important finding is that there are positive relationships between empowering behavior of supervisors and employees' job satisfaction, extrinsic reward satisfaction, and affective commitment.

The results also indicate that the impact of empowerment on job satisfaction is stronger than that on extrinsic reward satisfaction, and the impact of job satisfaction on turnover intention is stronger than that of extrinsic reward satisfaction. Finally, there are negative influences of empowerment on employees' task performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

ÖZET

Psikolojik Güçlendirme:
Öncüller, Bağıntılar ve Sonuçlar

Bu çalışma, astların doğrudan bağlı oldukları yöneticilerinin güçlendirici lider davranışları hakkındaki algılarının astların psikolojik güçlendirme düzeyleri üzerindeki etkileri ile astların psikolojik güçlendirme düzeylerinin kendi iş tatminleri, dışsal ödül tatminleri, örgütlerine duygusal bağlılıkları, işten ayrılma niyetleri, (yöneticileri tarafından değerlendirilen) performans ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektedir. Çalışma ilaveten, öne sürülen bazı ilişkilerin güçlerini birbiriyle mukayese etmektedir.

Çalışmaya konu değişkenlerin incelenmesi, 10 derinlemesine mülakattan oluşan nitel bir çalışma ile, öne sürülen değişkenler-arası ilişkilerin incelenmesi ise verilerin anket üzerinden toplandığı nicel bir araştırmayla yapılmıştır. Anketler, İstanbul, Türkiye'de faaliyet gösteren 18 farklı firmada, 250 çalışan ve onların doğrudan bağlı oldukları yöneticileri (19 kişi) üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Öne sürülen varsayımların testi ise AMOS18 programı kullanılarak, yapısal eşitlik modellemesi yoluyla yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın temel bulgusu, güçlendirici lider davranışlarının anlam arttırma-özerklik tanıma boyutunun astların psikolojik güçlendirme düzeyleri üzerindeki güçlü etkisidir. Önemli diğer bazı bulgular, güçlendirici lider davranışları ile astların iş tatminleri, dışsal ödül tatminleri, örgütlerine duygusal bağlılıkları arasındaki olumlu ilişkilerdir.

Bulgularımız, psikolojik güçlendirmenin iş tatmini üzerindeki etkisinin dışsal ödül tatmini üzerindeki etkisinden; iş tatmininin işten ayrılma niyeti üzerindeki etkisinin de dışsal ödül tatmininin işten ayrılma niyeti üzerindeki etkisinden daha güçlü olduğu yönündedir. Son olarak, psikolojik güçlendirmenin performans ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerinde olumsuz etkileri bulunmuştur.

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To my dear grandmother….

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ABBREVIATIONS

AC: affective commitment

AVE: average variance extracted

CET: cognitive evaluation theory

CJC: core job characteristics

ERS: extrinsic reward satisfaction

GNS: growth need strength

HR: human resources

JCT: job characteristics theory

JDI: Job Descriptive Index

JDS: job diagnostic survey

JS: job satisfaction

LEB: leadership empowerment behavior

LMX: leader-member exchange

M: mean

MI: modification indices

MSQ: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

OB: organizational behavior

OCB: organizational citizenship behaviors

PSQ: Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire

SCT: social cognitive theory

SD: standard deviation

SDT: self-determination theory

SEM: structural equation modeling

SET: social exchange theory

TI: turnover intentions

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION[1]

Marx (1932) points that when workers feel alienated and powerless, they experience self-denial rather than fulfillment at work; they feel exhaustion rather than mental and physical development. Many decades after Marx, "Block (1987) described how bureaucratic contexts and authoritarian management styles encouraged powerlessness by fostering dependency, the denial of self-expression, negative forms of manipulation, and less meaningful organizational goals." (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.476). The existence of related articles written at very different points in time, points to the fact that these issues have been in force for long, and are still effective.

Blumberg and Pringle's (1982) three dimensional interactive model of work performance, provide support for this opinion. The three dimensions are: capacity, willingness, and opportunity to perform. What the authors mentioned as the reason of theory's failure to provide a strong prediction of individual performance, was theory's "neglect of" one of these dimensions: namely, the opportunity to perform (p. 560). In other words, "even though an individual may be willing and able, there may be obstacles that constrain performance" (Robbins&Judge, 2009, p.259). Blumberg and Pringle (1982) state 'leader behavior' as one of the variables under the dimension of opportunity to perform (p. 562).

Referring to the opinions of Marx (1932), Kanungo (1992) expresses his suggestion of the "connected self" (the manager) as follows: if managers do not view

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[1] Before starting, to avoid any confusion, it is necessary to note that the words "empowerment" and "psychological empowerment"; "empowering leadership" and "leader empowerment behavior"; "supervisor", "manager" and "leader"; as well as "subordinate", "follower" and "employee" are used interchangeably in this study.

work as a zero-sum game that is played between the workers and themselves; their behaviors will tend to avoid the alienation of workers (p. 421).

Based on a couple of references, one of which is the above- mentioned Blumberg and Pringle (1982) study, Robbins&Judge (2009) noted that, besides ability, and motivation, "success on a job is facilitated or hindered by the existence or absence of support resources". They gave an example to illustrate the issue, by using two (almost) opposite cases (cases of low vs. high opportunity). There, they identified "a highly supportive principal" as an element of high opportunity (p. 259). Incorporating also the opposite case (such as supervisor undermining) to this, it can be said that, supervisors have the potential both to facilitate and/or to hinder the performance of their subordinates through influencing their attitudes.

Wilkinson (1998) mentions that, empowerment is considered as a "solution to the age-old problem of Taylorised and bureaucratic workplaces where creativity is stifled and workers become alienated" (p. 40). Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (p. 474). Conger and Kanungo's (1988, p.474) definition of empowerment, as it will be mentioned, conceptually related with a leader's giving a worker the opportunity to perform.

Based on our aim of highlighting the significance of supervisor behavior, the objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between supervisors' empowering behavior, and subordinate's psychological empowerment, attitudes, and behavior.

Spreitzer (1995), the first researcher who tested the construct validity of psychological empowerment, defined empowerment as follows: "Intrinsic task motivation reflecting a sense of control in relation to one's work and an active orientation to one's work role that is manifested in four cognitions: meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact." (in Seibert, Wang, Courtright, 2011, p.981).

Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) think that "a more complete understanding of attitudes and behaviors in organizations requires recognition of both task and interpersonal domains." They assert that "focusing only on degree of empowerment provides an incomplete picture of attitudes and behaviors, just as focusing on interpersonal relationships to the exclusion of empowerment is inadequate." (p. 413-4). Based on a slightly different interpretation, our study regards empowerment as a construct that brings these 'task and interpersonal domains' together. In this respect, the potential influence of supervisors' behavior on subordinates' self- and work-related perceptions, are emphasized.

Our study's approach to empowerment, like that of Liden et al. (2000), is 'interactional'. Put it differently, the psychological dimensions of empowerment will be examined "in relation to the social context" (p. 407). That is, it is acknowledged that "perceptions of psychological empowerment may be based in part on external factors that surround individuals." (p. 407). According to Liden et al. (2000), "especially critical contextual factors, including social interactions, have largely been ignored. Two key social relationships at work are those with superiors and coworkers (Graen, 1976)." (p. 408). Liden et al. point in year 2000, that "only a handful of studies have considered the quality of the relationship between leader and subordinate in fostering empowerment (Keller & Dansereau, 1995; Sparrowe, 1994;

Spreitzer, DeJanasz, & Quinn, 1999; Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1993)" (p. 408). Our study aims to emphasize both the importance of supervisor behavior on psychological empowerment of the subordinate, and the significance of both supervisor behavior and psychological empowerment on some employee attitudes and behavior.

The employees' motivation to work is an important determinant of organizational performance. This is why, detecting and applying those factors that has a potential to increase employee motivation, is important. Empowerment is one of those factors.

Argyris (1998), on the other hand, emphasizes the ultimate importance of performance, when compared to employee attitudes, and quotes from Lincoln: "You can empower all of the people some of the time and some of the people all of the time, but you can't empower all of the people all of the time" (p. 105). Based on many other studies, including those of Dewettinck and van Ameijde (2011), Wallace, Johnson, Mathe and Paul (2011), Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, and Avolio (2010), Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen and Rosen (2007), which point to the positive influence of empowerment on employee attitudes and/or performance, we suggest the following: Although managers cannot give everybody full freedom in carrying out their jobs, they can help provide their employees with a meaning in their jobs, with the impact of their labor on their department and/or society, as well as with an encouragement regarding their performance potential. Moreover, it is expected that even slight positive changes in how supervisors treat their subordinates might result in considerable attitudinal improvement and performance increase.

In addition, consisting of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact dimensions; psychological empowerment is sometimes considered as a version of intrinsic motivation (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006), which is explained by

using terms such as "fascination" and "self-fulfilling" (Utman, 1997 in Zhang et al., 2010; Brief and Aldag, 1977), flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Considering the length of time that a person spends at work throughout her/his life; the employees being engaged with a work that is intrinsically motivating, may be more likely to realize their potential and to self-actualize themselves. If we accept, like Maslow (1943) did, that self-actualization is an important need in human life, we appreciate practices that help employees to attain higher intrinsic work motivation.

An important detection by Wilkinson (1998) is the following: "research suggests that opposition (of supervisors towards the empowerment of subordinates) may owe more to the fact that they (supervisors) were not provided with the resources required, were not sufficiently trained or were not evaluated on this in terms of performance appraisal and therefore did not see it as of much importance (Marchington *et al.*, 1992)" (p. 52-53). These arguments point to the need of research demonstrating positive work outcomes associated with empowerment, as well as the importance of properly aligning the organizational and managerial goals. In other words, if it can be shown that empowered employees bring better performance, organizations may consider rewarding empowering behaviors of supervisors, and/or rewarding both the employee and the supervisor for high performance of the employee.

Spreitzer, De Janasz, and Quinn (1999) reached an interesting finding, which suggests that empowerment may have a quality of succession. In other words, supervisors who have a higher feeling of psychological empowerment, are found as more innovative, upward influencing, inspirational by their subordinates. This may indicate that empowering leaders may have a longer-term impact on the organizational morale, and thus goals.

On the other hand, it is also important to mention a potential vicious circle, as to the application of empowering practices. As Robbins&Judge (2009) warn, some managers may recognize only "their favorite employees" (p. 270). The findings of Yukl and Fu (1999) also show that there may be a tendency of leaders to differentially offer their empowering practices to those employees, who already have higher feelings of competence about themselves and/or who have high-quality leader-member exchange (LMX) with their supervisors. Such cases will naturally create discomfort among other employees, in terms of their fairness perceptions.

These findings also point to the highly probable disadvantaged position of inexperienced employees, who in fact are those most in need of being recognized. The supervisors are those who are in a position to detect the newcomers and/or low growth need strength (GNS) employees, and offer ways to heighten these employees' intrinsic motivation by alternative means, such as emphasizing the suitable dimension(s) of empowerment for these employees.

Finally, Liden et al. (2000) made the following assertion: "rare is the simultaneous examination of antecedents and outcomes of empowerment… the integration of empowerment with interpersonal relationships may assist in understanding outcomes … such as turnover and organizational citizenship behaviors." (p. 414). Parallel to this recommendation, we will examine some antecedents and outcomes of empowerment simultaneously.

The main theoretical frameworks that provide support for the LEB-empowerment relationship proposed in this study are: expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000), and social exchange theory (SET) (Blau, 1964).

The influence of extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation have been seriously investigated (a summary is provided by Gagne and Deci, 2005). The objective of our study is examining both the impact of LEB and psychological empowerment on extrinsic reward satisfaction (ERS), job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC), and turnover intentions (TI); and the impact of JS, AC, and ERS on TI. In addition, empowerment level of white-collar employees will be compared with that of blue-collar employees. Finally, our investigation will be based on data collected from Turkey, which provides cultural characteristics quite different from the Western context.

With an aim to emphasize the effect of the supervisor behavior on fostering subordinate empowerment; and as an extension to studies investigating the consequences of empowerment, our study aims to answer the following main research questions:

Is empowering leadership influential in predicting psychological empowerment? Is psychological empowerment positively related to job satisfaction/ extrinsic reward satisfaction/ affective commitment/ task performance/ organizational citizenship behavior and negatively related to turnover intention? Are job satisfaction/ extrinsic reward satisfaction/ affective commitment negatively related to turnover intention? Is there a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, compared to the relationship between extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention? Is there a stronger relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, compared to the relationship between psychological empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction?

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The significance of the model is based on its integrative (both antecedents and consequences of empowerment are included) and comparative (the comparison of job satisfaction, and extrinsic reward satisfaction) approach.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of literature covers the theoretical foundations, definitions, and the relevant antecedents, and consequences of the constructs of our study (i.e., psychological empowerment, empowering leadership, job satisfaction, affective commitment, ERS, OCB, and turnover intention).

According to Vallerand and Lalande's (2011) hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, there are "three different levels of generality that range from stable (on top) to momentary or state elements (at the bottom), namely, the global, contextual, and situational levels" of an individual's motivation. Motivation at the global level "takes the form of broad dispositions to engage in activities in a typically intrinsic or extrinsic way. It can be considered the trait level of motivation" (p. 45).

The contextual level, which is relevant for this study, "represents specific life contexts, such as education (or work for adults), leisure, and interpersonal relationships. This level accounts for the likelihood that individuals may have developed intraindividual motivational orientations that may differ in different contexts. For instance, a given individual may engage in leisure activities in a more intrinsic way but partake in work-related activities out of extrinsic motivation." (p. 45).

Although Vallerand and Lalande's (2011) is a model of personality, concentrating on intrapersonal differences of level and context-related issues; the horizontal organization of the model is supporting the logic of this study. It "suggests a causal sequence of events involving social factors, psychological needs, motivation, and outcomes. … Beginning at the left of the model, it is postulated that

motivation results from social factors. … Model postulates that the influence of social factors on motivation occurs through basic psychological need satisfaction (see Deci & Ryan, 2000). As such, need satisfaction is considered a mediator between social factors and motivation. … The more an individual's psychological needs are nurtured in general, in a given context, or in a specific situation, the more they will engage in activities in a self-determined fashion. Finally, the temporal sequence of events ends with motivational outcomes. Three types of outcomes are illustrated: affective, cognitive, and behavioral. … Intrinsic motivation leads to the most positive outcomes, whereas certain types of extrinsic motivation (the least self-determined) produce the least positive consequences (Deci&Ryan, 2000)" (p. 47).

2.1 Psychological empowerment and intrinsic motivation

Psychological empowerment is sometimes defined in the literature as a version of intrinsic motivation (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006) or as "increased intrinsic task motivation" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990, p.666).

Gagne, Senecal, and Koestner (1997) demonstrated a positive and significant relationship between meaningfulness and intrinsic task motivation; and Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, and Holt (1984) showed that feelings of self-determination positively relate to intrinsic motivation (in Zhang and Bartol, 2010, p.111). Based on these arguments and findings, before elaborating on psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation will be briefly explained.

2.1.1 Intrinsic motivation

Vroom (1964), "indicated that when motivation is low, both low- and high-ability individuals demonstrate similar low levels of performance" (in Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989, p.657).

2.1.1.1 Definition

Based on efforts of Koch (1956), de Charms (1968), Deci (1971, 1972, 1975), and Deci, Cascio, and Krusell (1975), Brief and Aldag (1977) define intrinsic work motivation as follows: "Intrinsic work motivation is a cognitive state reflecting the extent to which the worker attributes the force of his or her task behaviors to outcomes derived from the task per se; that is, from outcomes which are not mediated by a source external to the task-person situation. Such a state of motivation can be characterized as a self-fulfilling experience" (p. 497).

An alternative definition is provided by Gagne and Deci (2005): "Intrinsic motivation involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself." (p. 331).

Still another definition is as follows: "Intrinsic motivation refers to the extent to which an individual is inner-directed, is interested in or fascinated with a task, and engages in it for the sake of the task itself" (Utman, 1997 in Zhang et al., 2010). Similarly, Amabile (1993) state that "individuals are intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work" (p. 188).

According to Miner (2006), it "is defined as based on the desire for competence and self-determination. Among those who challenge expectancy theory, which assumes that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are additive, "it is measured almost exclusively by observing the amount of time spent on a task during a period when the subjects have a free choice as to what to do with their time. It is thought that intrinsic motivation is "facilitated by enhancing the subject's sense of self-determination, …, and by enhancing a sense of competence through the use of positive feedback." (p. 109). "Expressing confidence in high performance" and "providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints" dimensions coincide with this facilitation issue, mentioned by Miner. This coincidence may be regarded as an indirect reflection of the proximity between psychological empowerment and intrinsic motivation.

2.1.2 Antecedents

Deci (1975) mentions that "If a person's feelings of competence and self-determination are enhanced, his intrinsic motivation will increase. If his feelings of competence and self-determination are diminished, his intrinsic motivation will decrease" (Deci, 1975, p. 41 in Benabou and Tirole, 2003).

The cognitive evaluation theory (CET), which was presented by Deci and Ryan (1985), aims to specify factors that influence intrinsic motivation. It assumes that intrinsic motivation is an inherent variable that is "catalyzed" when individuals are in conditions that support or allow its expression (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.70). As implied before, supervisor's attitudes and behavior towards the individual may well be one of these conditions.

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) mention that comprehensive summaries of the literature on job characteristics theory (JCT), such as the study of Fried and Ferris (1987), have reinforced that jobs perceived as challenging, important, and autonomous are more intrinsically motivating. A study by Johns, Xie, and Fang (1992) suggested that the strongest relations with intrinsic motivation were found for those core characteristics that lead to perceived meaningfulness.

Eby, Freeman, Rush, and Lance (1999) reached supporting findings. In their model, "experienced meaningfulness is indicated by the variable skill variety" (p. 468). Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) also found support for their hypothesis, suggesting that the follower perceptions of core job characteristics are positively related to the intrinsic motivation of the follower.

2.1.3 Consequences

Gagne et al. (1997) state that intrinsic motivation has been "positively associated with satisfaction and mental health (Blais et al., 1993), better performance (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), greater conceptual learning (Deci & Ryan, 1987), higher self-esteem (Deci, 1995), and lower rates of burnout (Blais et al., 1993)." (p. 1236).

"Job satisfaction has been conceptualized as the extent to which one's needs are fulfilled at work (Locke, 1976)" (Seibert et al., 2011, p.985). If you feel that your work is engaging and/or joyful, your job satisfaction level will probably be higher.

Eby et al. (1999) found that intrinsic motivation is a partial mediator of the relationship between job characteristics and work context variables (namely: skill variety, autonomy, feedback, supervisory satisfaction, and pay satisfaction) and work

attitudes of affective organizational commitment and general job satisfaction (p. 477).

As to the relationship between intrinsic motivation and task performance, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) exemplified Hackman and Oldham (1980) and Staw (1977), who argued that employees with intrinsic motivation have a higher tendency to perform their tasks. They also used Hackman and Oldham's (1980) arguments, suggesting that intrinsic motivation will lower the frequency of some "task withdrawal (e.g., daydreaming, breaks, socializing)" behaviors (p. 330). Further, they benefited from Kanfer's (1991) mentioning of "consistency of task engagement" (p. 330). Finally, they referred to psychological empowerment as a version of intrinsic motivation, and emphasized the study of Spreitzer (1995), which suggested the perceived managerial effectiveness as a consequence of psychological empowerment of managers.

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) stated that there were few studies exploring the relationship between intrinsic motivation and OCB. They add two examples of some related research, conducted by Lee and Allen (2002) and Rioux and Penner (2001). Following the conceptual and empirical suggestions of these studies, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) hypothesized that the intrinsic motivation of follower is positively related to both task performance and OCB. Their hypotheses found support.

2.1.2 Psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment is a motivational state (Chen et al., 2011, p.544). The word "power", on which empowerment is based, connotes the existence of two parties; namely the one who exerts power, versus the one who obeys. This may be a

reason why, the literature about "empowerment", often mentions both subordinates (those who are or are not empowered), and supervisors (those who do or do not empower).

Here are some findings from a research that demonstrates this situation. Smith and Mouly (1998) conducted interviews; and based on this data, they offered a group of factors which "facilitate or inhibit empowerment in New Zealand organizations" (p. 69). Examples of these factors are the following (p. 78-79): Support from management, adequate feedback, a culture of openness, encouragement, and trust, awareness of the "big picture", appropriate rewards, taking a long-term perspective, versus; mistrust in management, fear among top management of losing power, fear among middle management of losing power and their jobs, fear among employees of gaining power as well as accountability, traditional bureaucratic structure, harsh disciplinary procedures for mistakes made in trying out new ideas, difference in the perception of goals between employees and management, emphasis on short-term results.

According to Seibert et al. (2011), "the concept of employee empowerment was introduced to the management literature over thirty years ago by Kanter (1977)" (p. 981). It is mentioned by different authors (for example: Drucker, 1988 in Spreitzer, 1995) that, as the global competition increase, and employee initiative gains more strategic importance; the concept of psychological empowerment attracts widespread interest. This is because, it is no more feasible -as it relatively was in the days of scientific management- for employers to keep under control most of the factors that are influential on employee performance.

Likewise, according to Conger and Kanungo (1988), "studies on leadership and management skills (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; House, in press; Kanter, 1979, 1983;

McClelland, 1975) suggest that empowering subordinates is a principal component of managerial and organizational effectiveness" (p. 471).

A counter-example of an empowering supervisor may help us to further comprehend the importance of the issue, by looking at it from the opposite side. The example is not taken from empowerment literature, but from a closely related subject area. The research by Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) is worth mentioning, when we consider that some supervisors may have a blindfold tendency to secure their position in the hierarchy, by avoiding the success of their subordinates. In their study concerning the work settings, the authors defined 'social undermining' as behavior that intends to "hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation"(p. 332). As a result of this study, they found that supervisor undermining is negatively (and more strongly than is social support) associated with self-efficacy and organizational commitment of employees.

Likewise, Wilkinson (1998) emphasizes an interesting point about the middle managers' negative perception of participative management: "their sense of anxiety is exacerbated by fears of job loss as levels in the hierarchy may be reduced as part of wider changes, as well as possible reduction in status and increasing workload (Klein, 1984). Moreover some see moves towards employee empowerment as soft management removing their authority over subordinates." (p. 52).

We can also think about the striking prison experiment of Zimbardo, in which a group of students were given the roles of either prisoners or guards, and the experiment had to be stopped early due to the participants' pathological reactions (Robbins&Judge, 2009, p.325-6). Based on the results of this experiment, we may ask the following question: May it be that supervisors feel themselves closer to the

"guards" in this experiment, getting used to the practices of humiliating their subordinates by the influence of the "learned stereotyped conceptions" of roles assigned to 'powerful and privileged' supervisors and 'powerless' subordinates? (p. 326).

Indeed some supervisors present examples of such cases. In order to help shareholders recognize the negative consequences of such supervisors, we aim to demonstrate the objective benefits of the opposite case: empowering leaders.

2.1.2.1 Definition

Based on Bandura's (1986) terminology, and as mentioned before, when you empower individuals, you increase their "self-efficacy expectation" (in Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.476). "Empowerment as an enabling process affects both initiation and persistence of subordinates' task behavior. As Bandura (1977) pointed out: '… Efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences.' (pp. 193-194)" (in Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.476).

Empowering leadership has been studied from two different perspectives. The first one focuses on actions of leader, such as giving more autonomy to employees. The second perspective emphasizes "employees' response to empowerment, in particular looking at their motivation (Conger & Kanungo,1988; Kirkman & Rosen, 1997, 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990)" (Srivastava, Bartol, Locke; 2006; p.1239). Below, the first perspective is introduced briefly; whereas the second one, as it forms the basis of this study, is explained more in detail.

Maynard, Gilson, and Mathieu (2012) use the term "structural empowerment" for the type of empowerment that will be explained as the first perspective. They mention that "work by Menon (2001) recommended integrating both perspectives, and as a result a number of recent studies have positioned structural empowerment as a necessary, but not sufficient, antecedent to psychological empowerment (e.g., Mathieu et al., 2006)." Maynard et al. also (2012) "see the merit of the recent movement in the literature to distinguish psychological empowerment from structural empowerment (e.g., Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000; Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Cook & Goff, 2002; Mills & Ungson, 2003; Spreitzer, 2008)" (p. 1234).

1.   Relational or power sharing view: "The academic roots of this view of empowering leadership are several, including the Ohio State leadership studies (Fleishman, 1953) on "consideration" (e.g., showing concern for subordinates' needs); work on supportive leadership (Bowers &Seashore, 1966); participative leadership studies (Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Vroom & Yetton, 1973); and the coaching, participating, and delegating behaviors encompassed in situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969)." (Srivastava et al., 2006, p.1240).

Maynard et al. (2012) state that structural empowerment "builds upon job design and job characteristics research (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980) and, at its core, focuses on the transition of authority and responsibility from upper management to employees", and "is primarily concerned with organizational conditions (e.g., facets of the job, team designs, or organizational arrangements that instill situations, policies,

and procedures), whereby power, decision making, and formal control over resources are shared (Kanter, 1977)." (p. 1234).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) mention that management and social influence literature takes power as the "control that an individual actor or organizational subunit has over others" (p. 472). The "social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1962; Homans, 1974; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959)" perspective takes power "as a function of dependence and/or interdependence of actors" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.472). Therefore, "organizational actors who have power are more likely to achieve their desired outcomes" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.472).

For the organization, the principal sources of an actor's power "have been argued to be the actor's ability to provide some performance or resource that is valued by the organization or the actor's ability to cope with important organizational contingencies or problems (Pfeffer, 1982)" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.472).

At the basis of these, lie the following sources of power (Bacharach and Lawler, 1980 in Conger and Kanungo, 1988):

a. The structural position of the actor,

b. The personal characteristics of the actor,

c. The expertise of the actor,

d. The feasibility of the actor's access to specialized knowledge or information.

When empowerment is considered in terms of the above mentioned relational perspective, "it becomes the process by which a leader or manager shares his or her power with subordinates" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.473). In other

words, relational empowerment aims to reduce the dependencies that make it difficult to do the job.

2. Empowerment as a motivational construct: However, the decision-making of employees is limited by specified policy and procedures that are set by the management (Topaz, 1989/90; Brymer, 1991; Humphrey, 1991; Eccles, 1993 in Hardy and Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998, p.463). Conger and Kanungo mention that, in the management literature (Burke, 1986; House, in press; Kanter, 1983), at the center of empowerment notion, stand "delegation and the decentralization of decision-making power".

Delegation "describes a category of leader behavior that entails assignment of new responsibilities to subordinates and additional authority to carry them out (Yukl, 1998 in Chen and Aryee, 2007). Conger and Kanungo point to the importance of the following question: "does the sharing of authority and resources with subordinates automatically empower them?" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.473).

The answer to this question is embedded in the perspective of psychology literature to power. For example, individuals are assumed to have a need for power (McClelland, 1975), where 'power' is used to express "an internal urge to influence and control other people" (Conger and Kanungo, p.473). Among other related issues are, internal/external locus of control (Rotter, 1966), and learned helplessness (Abramson, Garber, & Seligman, 1980). When people feel that they are capable of coping with "events, situations, and/ or the people they confront", their needs for power are satisfied (Conger, 2004 in Locke (ed.), p.138). Otherwise, people feel frustrated because of their unmet needs.

Hardy and Leiba-O'Sullivan (1998) comments that, in the motivational approach to empowerment, "open communication and inspirational goal-setting" are emphasized, and "the primary aim is to provide feelings of ownership, responsibility and capability (Sheridan, 1991 a, b; Eccles, 1993)" (p. 464).

The motivational perspective will be explained in more detail, by referring to the three basic articles, written by: Conger and Kanungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990), and Spreitzer (1995). Conger and Kanungo think that, when considered from this motivational aspect, power "refers to an intrinsic need for self-determination (Deci, 1975) or a belief in personal self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986)" (1988, p.473).

Conger and Kanungo also point to the definition of 'empower' in Oxford English dictionary, which corresponds to "to enable". They prefer this meaning of empowerment, rather than "delegation"; and they think that delegation may only be a subset of the empowerment construct.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) list the factors that have a potential to lower the self-efficacy beliefs under the following four headings: organizational factors, supervisory style, reward systems, and job design (p. 477). Indeed, these four headings are connected with each other. For instance, bureaucratic organizations (under the heading 'organizational factors') direct member behavior through strict rules and routines (under the heading 'job design'), which in turn limit self-expression and autonomy. This way, power and control are kept away from subordinates, who, as a result, feel that they are powerless.

Moreover, in such organizations, the supervisory style is often authoritarian; and this style is used as an instrument to dictate the above-mentioned bureaucratic rules. Over time, reward systems that are not suitable to motivate employees for displaying their competence, initiative and innovative behavior, add to the sense of powerlessness (Sims, 1977; Szilagyi, 1980 in Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.478).

The rewards are determined by both the organization and the supervisors. In addition, "when jobs provide very little challenge and meaning, … employees' beliefs in personal efficacy suffer" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.478). The amount of challenge and meaning in a job that is perceived by employees, may also be influenced by both the organization and the supervisors.

Reasonably, we can choose an opposite example, instead of a bureaucracy. There, on average, supervisory style, reward systems, and job designs may be more motivating for the employees; and the employees may feel themselves more empowered.

Based on these reasonings, and as mentioned previously, Conger and Kanungo (1988) define empowerment as a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (p. 474).

Building on this definition, Conger and Kanungo (1988) "constructed a model of organizational conditions, managerial strategies, and types of information that produce empowerment and its behavioral effects" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990, p.666). Thus, their model consists of "five stages in the process of empowerment" (p. 475).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) think that, for successfully empowering employees, both formal and informal techniques should be utilized, such as "participation programmes" and "words of encouragement" (p. 478-9). Finally, the authors warn us against the potential negative effects of empowerment. They mention that overconfidence and misjudgments of empowered employees might harm an organization; if they are not recognized timely. Although acknowledging such a potential, we argue that the potential harms of under-empowerment may be much greater than that of over-empowerment.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) further the approach presented by Conger and Kanungo. They propose that, to empower may mean 'to energize'; and they comment that, this meaning of empowerment is best suited for the "motivational usage of the term" (p. 667). They give examples of research (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; House, 1977; Schein, 1985) showing transformational and charismatic leaders, who could energize their workers by emphasizing meaningful goals and their workers' abilities to accomplish them.

In Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) study, intrinsic task motivation "refers to what Brief and Aldag (1977) referred to as 'intrinsic work motivation', but at the level of analysis of individual tasks or projects". Intrinsic task motivation involves some generic conditions that produce motivation and satisfaction for an individual.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined empowerment as "increased intrinsic task motivation" (p. 666). The authors mention that, in contrast to the paradigm of bureaucratic organizations, "the newer paradigm involves relaxed (or broad) controls and an emphasis on internalized commitment to the task itself" (1990, p.667). They interpret this relatively recent approach, to be converging with the "motivational assumptions of the job design literature (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980)". The

model by Hackman & Oldham "includes job meaningfulness as a necessary psychological component of intrinsic work motivation" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990, p.668).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) identified four 'task assessments', as the basis for empowerment. These cognitions are the sense of: impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice. The authors signify that, these terms are derived as the synthesis of some previous studies, some of which belong to Deci (1975), Hackman and Oldham (1980), and Bandura (1977, 1986).

1. Impact corresponds to the 'knowledge of results' within the model by Hackman and Oldham (1980). It is the degree at which the task is seen as accomplished as intended.

2. Competence corresponds to the terms 'self-efficacy' or 'personal mastery' in Bandura's studies (1977, 1986). It is the degree at which one senses that s/he can skillfully perform a task. Bandura (1977) found that the outcomes of high self-efficacy are initiating behaviors, high effort and persistence when faced with obstacles.

3. Meaningfulness represents "the value of the task goal or purpose, judged in relation to the individual's own ideals or standards. … Higher levels of meaningfulness, … , are believed to result in commitment, involvement, and concentration of energy" (p. 672-3).

4. Choice represents whether the behavior to accomplish the task is perceived as self-determined. In the literature, choice is mentioned to be one of the variables that determines intrinsic motivation. Perceived lack of choice lowers self-esteem, whereas its existence "produces greater flexibility, creativity, initiative" (p. 673).

The authors note that they agree with Roberts and Glick (1981) about the need to find alternative perspectives on empowerment, that differentiate between situational attributes (e.g., management practices) and employee's cognitions about those attributes (e.g., psychological empowerment).

Therefore, they also look at the cognitive processes, namely, workers' interpretive styles and global beliefs, through which workers reach their task assessments. In their cognitive model of empowerment, there is an "ongoing cycle of environmental events, task assessments, and behavior" (p. 669), as the assessments reinforce themselves through their influence on behavior and outcomes.

In other words, they mention a critical aspect of the task assessments, in that they have some of the qualities of self-fulfilling prophecies. For instance, "low assessments may initiate debilitating cycles of inactivity, low initiative, and so on, which produce further evidence of low impact, lack of competence, and so forth." (p. 673). This quality of task assessments, constitutes a reasons why empowering leader behaviors are important.

In Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) model, there are two types of empowering interventions, which are "changing the environmental events on which the individual bases his or her task assessments" (p. 671), and changing the way the individual interprets the environmental events. The environmental events, such as performance evaluations, provide information on outcomes of the individual's task-related behavior.

The authors present some research findings about the impact of the selected environmental variables, namely leadership, delegation, job design, and reward systems; on employees' task assessments (p. 676). These findings indicate that charismatic and/or transformative leadership has an impact on all task assessments

but choice, providing support for the strong influence of supervisors on employees'

task assessments.

An important explanation provided by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) about

their model is the following: The four assessments "combine both expectancy and

reinforcement dynamics. Thus, from an expectancy theory perspective (Lawler,

1973), impact represents a performance-outcome expectancy, competence an effort-

performance expectancy, and meaningfulness an anticipated outcome valence (for

intrinsic motivation), whereas choice represents the perceived opportunity for a

decision based on these variables. During the course of an activity, however, each of

the four assessments also can be viewed as an intrinsic reinforcement. That is, each

assessment is also a reward that individuals can give themselves during the course of

an activity, a reward that reinforces their continued striving."(p. 671-2). This points

that, an improvement even in a single assessment, has a potential for increased

performance.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) note that their study adds on that of Conger

and Kanungo's in the following ways: First, it uses a name for the motivational

construct of empowerment, namely 'intrinsic task motivation'. Second, they add

some other assessments nearby self-efficacy (which they name as 'competence');

that is, sense of impact, meaningfulness and choice. Finally, they view task

assessments as subjective constructions, which are also influenced by individual

differences in interpretation.

One of the empirical supports to Thomas and Velthouse's model came from a

study by Lee (1987) that "measured task assessments as part of an experimental

laboratory investigation of the effects of positive feedback upon intrinsic task

motivation. In this study, self-report ratings of the task assessments, summed across

assessment "dimensions, correlated very strongly with two existing pencil-and-paper measures of intrinsic motivation. The task assessments were mediating variables in the causal relationship between positive feedback (the experimental manipulation) and ratings of intrinsic motivation on those measures."(Lee, 1987 in Thomas and Velthouse, 1990, p.677).

Based on Conger&Kanungo's (1988) and Thomas&Velthouse's (1990) articles, Spreitzer's (1995) research results in "a measure of psychological empowerment in a workplace context. … Structural equations modeling was used to examine a nomological network of psychological empowerment in the workplace. Tested hypotheses concerned key antecedents and consequences of the construct." (p. 1442). The author found support for the construct validity of the psychological empowerment construct. Later, Seibert et al. (2011) also found support for the construct validity of psychological empowerment (p. 992-3).

The definitions of empowerment dimensions used by Spreitzer (1995), and are utilized in this study, are as follows (p. 1443-4):

- Meaning is the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Meaning involves a fit between the requirements of a work role and beliefs, values, and behaviors (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

- Competence or self-efficacy, is an individual's belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987). Competence is analogous to agency beliefs, personal mastery, or effort-performance expectancy (Bandura, 1989). This dimension is labeled competence here rather than self-esteem because Spreitzer focused on efficacy specific to a work role rather than on global efficacy.

- Self-determination: Where competence is a mastery of behavior, self-determination is an individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Self-determination reflects autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviors and processes; examples are making decisions about work methods, pace, and effort (Bell & Staw. 1989; Spector, 1986).

- Impact is the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth. 1989). Impact is the converse of learned helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1982).

Spreitzer proposed that the highest levels of empowerment are to "emerge only when all four cognitions are high" (Seibert et al., 2011, p.981). Accordingly, "the lack of any single dimension will deflate, though not completely eliminate, the overall degree of felt empowerment" (1995, p.1444).

Regarding the assumptions about this definition of empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) notes the following (p. 1444):

- Empowerment is not an enduring personality trait generalizable across situations, but rather, a set of cognitions shaped by a work environment (Thomas & VeUhouse, 1990). Thus, empowerment reflects the ongoing ebb and flow of people's perceptions about themselves in relation to their work environments (Bandura, 1989).

- Empowerment is a continuous variable; people can be viewed as more or less empowered, rather than empowered or not empowered.

- Empowerment is not a global construct generalizable across different life situations and roles but rather, specific to the work domain.

Finally, Spreitzer (1995) argues that, "together, these four cognitions reflect an active, rather than a passive, orientation to a work role. An active orientation is one "in which an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context." (p. 1444)

2.1.2.2 Antecedents

In her basic study of empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) hypothesizes that, both work context variables (based on ideas mentioned in the studies of Lawler (1986) and Kanter (1989)) such as information about the mission and performance, and individual-performance-based rewards; and personal characteristics such as self-esteem and locus of control, are antecedents of psychological empowerment (p. 1445). In her study, she found support for most of these hypotheses, except the one about locus of control. Spreitzer suggested that this finding might have been due to "measurement limitations" (p. 1458).

- Self-esteem: is the "general feeling of self-worth" (Brockner, 1988 in Spreitzer, 1995, p.1446). Bandura (1977) mentioned that, individuals who hold themselves in high esteem are likely to extend this feeling to a sense of work-related competence. High esteemed "individuals see themselves as valued resources having talents worth contributing, and they are thus more likely to assume an active orientation with regard to their work and work units (Gist & Mitchell, 1992)" (in Spreitzer, 1995, p.1446).

- Locus of control: reflects the belief of people about whether they or external forces determine the happenings in their lives (Rotter, 1966 in Spreitzer, 1995). Consequently, those with an internal locus of control, may have a

higher tendency "to feel capable of shaping their work and work environments and hence to feel empowered" (Spreitzer, 1995, p.1446).

- Information: According to Lawler (1992), there are two types of information that are critical for empowerment: information about organization's mission, and information about work unit's performance. Unless people are informed about where an organization is headed, they will have difficulty in making decisions. As to the information regarding performance, people need that information to improve their work.

- Rewards: Lawler (1986) thinks that, to be empowering, an incentive system must reward individual performance.

Spreitzer's rationalization for expecting a positive relationship between rewards and empowerment, was as follows: "Individual incentives enhance empowerment by (1) recognizing and reinforcing personal competencies and (2) providing individuals with incentives for participating in and affecting decision-making processes at work" (p. 1448).

In their recent study, Seibert et al. (2011) categorize the antecedents of psychological empowerment into two subgroups: individual characteristics and contextual antecedents. Seibert et al. (2011) divide the contextual antecedents of psychological empowerment into four, as follows: high-performance management practices, socio-political support, leadership, and work design characteristics (p. 982). Out of these, only leadership is of main interest for this study.

One result of Seibert et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis that is about the individual-level variables, is the existence of strong associations between the contextual antecedents and psychological empowerment. The authors also indicate that positive self-evaluation traits, which is one of the individual characteristics, is as strongly

associated with psychological empowerment as any of the contextual antecedents.

Seibert et al. rationalize the associations between individual-level psychological

empowerment and its meta-analytic contextual antecedents, as follows:

> The practices that have been consistently identified in the literature—which we refer to as *high-performance managerial practices* in this paper— include open information sharing, decentralization, participative decision making, extensive training, and contingent compensation (Combs et al., 2006; Liao et al., 2009; Pfeffer, 1998; Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson, 2005). . . . Increased information and control means that employees will see their work as personally meaningful because they understand how their work role fits into the larger goals and strategies of the organization. More information should also allow employees to better determine for themselves what actions to take, thus increasing feelings of self-determination. Furthermore, the enhanced knowledge, skills, and ability resulting from high-performance managerial practices will be reflected in employees' feelings of competence in work roles. Finally, the greater level of input and control associated with high-performance managerial practices means that employees will believe they have greater impact in their work unit or organization. . . .
> Many different sources of *socio-political support* have been associated with psychological empowerment by previous researchers (e.g., Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Liden et al., 2000; Sparrowe, 1994), including the supportiveness of the climate of the organization, the employee's perception that the organization values and cares about him, and the level of trust the organization has in the employee. . . . For example, social support from peers and the organization will signify to the employee that she is a valued and accepted member of the organization, thus enhancing her feeling that her work is personally meaningful. Such support will also provide the employee with feelings of self-determination because it is appropriate for her, as an accepted member of the organization, to determine her own work goals and strategies. Sociopolitical support will also enhance employees' feelings of task competence and impact because of the greater availability of the material resources, power, and influence needed to accomplish tasks and work-related goals. . . .
> Spreitzer (2008) concluded, based on her narrative review, that a supportive, trusting relationship with one's leader is an important contextual antecedent of psychological empowerment. . . . We expect these *positive forms of leadership* to increase employees' perceptions of psychological empowerment because of the important role leaders play in shaping the work experience of followers (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Yukl, 2010). Leaders can supply information about strategic or operational goals that allows employees to see the value of their work and thus to enhance meaningfulness. They may also allow their followers greater participation and autonomy that will enhance the employees' feelings of self-determination and impact. Finally, leaders can act as role models and provide employees with feedback and coaching. Role modeling and constructive feedback are important sources of self-efficacy information that enhances feelings of competence (Bandura, 1997). (2011, p. 983)

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Job characteristics theory explains how core job characteristics (e.g., task significance, autonomy) are related to meaning and self-determination, and meta-analytic results provide support for these propositions (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). . . . Competence should be enhanced by work that is more challenging (i.e., higher in skill variety or task significance), along with feedback regarding the results of one's efforts. . . . The core job characteristics of autonomy and task significance should also promote the feeling that one has impact within one's work unit, because of the increased opportunity one has to personally make choices regarding methods to accomplish tasks that are seen as important to the organization. (Seibert et al., 2011, p. 984)

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) pointed as a prediction of JCT that, higher job characteristics are associated with "what Hackman and Oldham termed "internal motivation", described as a 'self-perpetuating cycle of positive work motivation driven by self-generated rewards for good work' (1980: 72)" (p. 330). The authors also mention that comprehensive summaries of the literature on JCT, such as the meta-analysis of Fried and Ferris (1987), have reinforced that jobs perceived as challenging, important, and autonomous are more intrinsically motivating.

2.1.2.3 Consequences

Liden et al. (2000) mention that the importance of empowerment in OB research is based on its offering "the potential to positively influence outcomes that benefit both individuals and organizations (Liden & Tewksbury, 1995)." (p. 407). "Researchers have frequently proposed job satisfaction, commitment, and retention as outcomes of empowerment (e.g., Kraimer et al., 1999; Liden et al., 2000)" (Seibert et al., 2011, p.983). Seibert et al. (2004) mention that empirical support has been accumulating "regarding the relationship of employee empowerment to important work-related outcomes (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Sparrowe, 1994; Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997)" (p. 332).

Specifically, Aryee and Chen (2006) found that "empowerment fully mediated the relationship between LMX and the work outcomes" of job satisfaction, and task performance (p. 793). Dewettinck & van Ameijde (2011) found that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between LEB and affective commitment. Gumusluoglu and Karakitapoğlu-Aygün (2010) found a correlation of .45 (p<.01) between empowerment and [affective] organizational commitment (p. 29). Ke and Zhang (2011) refer to some studies, including those of Liden et al. (2000), Seibert et al. (2004), Spreitzer (1995), and Thomas&Velthouse (1990), while stating that "it is well established that empowerment has a positive effect on performance" (p. 343). Koberg et al. (1999) also found that empowerment perceptions were "associated with … work productivity/effectiveness" (p. 71). Seibert et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis points to moderate effects of psychological empowerment on OCB, besides strong relations between individual-level psychological empowerment and job satisfaction and organizational commitment (p. 991). Finally, Harris et al. (2009) found that empowerment was negatively and significantly related to turnover intentions (p. 377).

Seibert et al. (2011) divide the consequences of psychological empowerment into two: attitudinal and behavioral. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions are among the attitudinal consequences; task performance and OCB are among the behavioral consequences. The authors rationalize the associations between psychological empowerment, and those of its consequences that are of interest for our study, as follows:

> Job satisfaction has been conceptualized as the extent to which one's needs are fulfilled at work (Locke, 1976). A sense of meaning and self-determination allow one to fulfill important needs for growth through the experience of autonomy, competence, and self-control at work (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). In addition, feelings of competence and impact augment the extent to which one's work serves to fulfill these innate

needs, as they too reflect opportunities to experience competence and control at work. Thus, psychologically empowered workers are likely to experience more intrinsic need fulfillment through work and therefore report higher levels of job satisfaction. . . .

Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe (2004) noted a strong correspondence between intrinsic forms of motivation and affective commitment. The meaning dimension of psychological empowerment in particular invokes affective organizational commitment because it assesses the fit between the demands of the work role and the individual's needs and values (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Spreitzer, 1995b). In addition, feelings of autonomy, competence, and impact are likely to increase the individual's commitment to the organization, as they will further enhance the ability of the individual to express his values and interests through his work. . . .

Because individuals are likely to view psychologically empowering work as a valuable resource provided by the organization, employees will feel obligated to reciprocate such a beneficial work arrangement with increased loyalty to the organization and continued employment (Blau, 1964). Empowering work arrangements may also be difficult to find or establish with another employer. This lowers the net benefit associated with alternative job opportunities and thus further lowers the probability of turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). . . .

Theorists have argued that psychologically empowered employees anticipate problems and act independently in the face of risk or uncertainty, exert influence over goals and operational procedures so that they can produce high-quality work outcomes, and demonstrate persistence and resourcefulness in the face of obstacles to work goal accomplishment (Spreitzer, 1995b, 2008). Meaning and self-determination, two components of psychological empowerment, have already been shown to have a small but statistically significant relationship with job performance (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Humphrey et al., 2007), as explained by job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Psychological empowerment assesses feelings of competence and impact in addition to meaning and self-determination. Empirical research indicates that competency (i.e., self-efficacy) and impact beliefs increase performance by increasing task effort and persistence (e.g., Bandura & Locke, 2003; Sadri & Robertson, 1993; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; for some limiting conditions, see Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). . . .

According to psychological empowerment theory, employees who feel a sense of empowerment are likely to take an active orientation toward their work and perform "above and beyond" the call of duty (Spreitzer, 2008). Meaningful work over which one has individual discretion is likely to lead to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) because it fosters a sense of identification and involvement in the overall workplace, not just one's defined work role. Competence and impact are likely to further encourage OCBs because the employee will feel capable of achieving positive outcomes in her work unit if she tries (Bandura, 1997). (2011, p. 985)

2.2 Empowering leadership / Leadership empowerment behavior

2.2.1 Definition

Ahearne et al. (2005) quote from Bandura (1986) that "self-efficacy can be influenced through positive emotional support, words of encouragement and positive persuasion, models of success with whom people identify, and experience mastering a task (Arnold et al., 2000; Conger, 1989)" (p. 946). They state that "in terms of Bandura's model, LEB should enhance employees' sense of efficacy". In other words, "to the extent that leaders exhibit empowering behaviors, employees should feel more efficacious and freer to adapt their performance strategies as circumstances warrant" (p. 946).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) list the following leadership practices as empowering:

- Expressing confidence in subordinates accompanied by high performance expectations (Burke, 1986; Conger, 1986; House, 1977, in press; Neilsen, 1986),

- Fostering opportunities for subordinates to participate in decision making (Block, 1987; Burke, 1986; Conger, 1986; House 1977, in press; Kanter, 1979; Neilsen, 1986; Strauss, 1977),

- Providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraint (Block, 1987; Kanter, 1979; House, in press), and

- Setting inspirational and/or meaningful goals (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Block, 1987; Burke, 1986; McClelland, 1975; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

Ahearne et al. (2005) refer to Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, and Drasgow (2000) who "submitted that LEB involves the process of implementing conditions that increase

employees' feelings of self-efficacy and control (e.g., participative decision making), removing conditions that foster a sense of powerlessness (e.g., bureaucracy), and allowing them the freedom to be as flexible as circumstances warrant" (p. 946). More specifically, following the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Hui (1994), Ahearne et al. (2005) "argue that LEB involves leader behaviors aligned with the four components", i.e. dimensions of empowerment (p. 946).

Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005) state that leadership empowerment behavior (LEB) includes the following "four multi-item subscales" (p. 949):

1. Enhancing the meaningfulness of work,

2. Fostering participation in decision making,

3. Expressing confidence in high performance, and

4. Providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints.

Ahearne et al. (2005) assert that "these scales were developed on the basis of the conceptual work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and the empirical work of Hui (1994) and Thomas and Tymon (1994)", and that "an unrestricted maximum-likelihood factor analysis of these subscales revealed a single underlying dimension of empowering behaviors" (p. 949).

Following the definition by Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp (2005) and others (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Kirkman & Rosen, 1997, 1999), Zhang and Bartol (2010) define empowering leadership as "the process of implementing conditions that enable sharing power with an employee by delineating the significance of the employee's job, providing greater decision-making autonomy, expressing confidence in the employee's capabilities, and removing hindrances to performance" (p. 109).

2.2.2 Antecedents

Hakimi, van Knippenberg and Giessner (2010) focused on the "determinants of leader empowering behavior" (p. 712). They mention that "empowering leadership has mainly been studied with respect to the effect leaders have on their followers, but clearly this one-sided focus only tells half of the story" (p. 712). Their study "looks at leader trust as an antecedent of leader empowering behavior" (p. 712).

In their study, they examine the influence of leader's "trust in follower's integrity" and "trust in follower's performance" on LEB (p. 713). The authors also propose to investigate the effect of "leader–follower relational demography – the extent to which leader and follower are similar in such demographic aspects as ethnicity, nationality, gender or age" (p. 713). They think that such similarity may lessen the importance or priority of employee trustworthiness in leader's eyes. Likewise, they mention the "potential role of leader identification with the follower" (p. 713).

2.2.3 Consequences

Zhang and Bartol (2010) hypothesized that empowering leadership is positively related to employee psychological empowerment. The results they found, supported this view (β=.81, p <.05). Seibert et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis provided support for this relationship.

Seibert et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis, which included empowering leadership under the general heading of 'leadership' provided support, by indicating a corrected

coefficient of .59 (p<.01) between leadership and individual-level psychological

empowerment (p. 993).

Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, and Lawler (2000) analyzed the

moderating effects of power distance, and collectivism on the relationship between

managerial practices and work attitudes. They found that psychological

empowerment leads to better supervisor satisfaction in 3 of 4 countries (except

India). In Mexico, which is somewhat high on collectivism and high on power

distance, psychological empowerment had a considerable impact on supervisor

satisfaction. Due to its cultural characteristics, Turkey may constitute a similar case.

Based on the findings of Hofstede (1980), in a figure presenting individualism and

power distance levels of countries studied, Turkey and Mexico are situated in the

same quadrant of collectivism and high power distance (p. 52). Therefore, we expect

to find a positive relationship between empowering leadership and job satisfaction.

2.3 Attitudes and behavior

"Attitudes are evaluative statements –either favorable or unfavorable- about objects,

people, or events. … Typically, researchers have assumed that attitudes have three

components: cognition, affect, and behavior." Cognitive component is "the aspect of

an attitude that is a description of or belief in the way things are. … Affect is the

emotional or feeling segment of an attitude" Finally, "affect can lead to behavioral

outcomes". Moreover, it should be kept in mind that these three "components are

closely related, and cognition and affect in particular are inseparable in many ways.

… although we often think that cognition causes affect, which then causes behavior,

in reality these components are often difficult to separate." (Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.109).

Fisher (2000) mentions that attitudes have at least two components: "an affective (emotional, feeling) component, and a cognitive (belief, judgment, comparison) component (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993)" (p. 185). She also notes that "Research has shown that both of these components are important, contribute unique variance to the overall attitude, and may be differentially caused and differentially linked to behavior (Breckler and Wiggins, 1989; Millar and Millar, 1996; Millar and Tesser 1986; see Weiss, 2000, for a review)." (p. 185-6).

According to Huczynski and Buchanan (2001), "behavior is the term given to the things that people do that can be directly observed." (p. 21). Although there may be a strong relationship between attitudes and behavior, sometimes these two may not be in line with each other. "Cognitive dissonance refers to any incompatibility an individual might perceive between two or more attitudes or between behavior and attitudes." (Festinger, 1957 in Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.110). Such a state creates a discomfort for the individual and s/he will probably try to reduce it. However, the strength of individual's motivation to reduce it will depend on: "the importance of the elements creating it, the degree of influence the individual believes he has over the elements", and "the rewards of dissonance" (Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.111).

There are also some moderating variables between attitudes and behavior, the most important of which are the following (Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.112): attitude's importance, attitude's correspondence to behavior, attitude's accessibility, existence of social pressures, direct experience. As the detailed relationships between

attitudes and behavior are not the main interest of this study, the details of these

moderators are left aside.

2.3.1 Job satisfaction

Robbins and Judge (2009) relate job satisfaction's being a primary dependent

variable in studies of Organizational Behavior (OB), with two reasons:

1. Its demonstrated relationship to performance factors, and

2. The value preferences held by many OB researchers.

As to the first reason, the authors note that, recent research has begun to find

support for the belief that satisfied employees are more productive. As to the second

reason, they point to an argument of researchers with strong humanistic values,

which emphasizes that "satisfaction is a legitimate objective of an organization", and

that organizations are responsible to "provide their employees with jobs that are

challenging and intrinsically rewarding" (p. 65). Supporting this point of view, the

authors mention the importance of managers' focusing on the intrinsic parts of the

job, such as making the work challenging and interesting.

2.3.1.1 Definition

 "Job satisfaction describes a positive feeling about a job, resulting from an

evaluation of its characteristics." (Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.113). Although this

definition seems very straightforward, there is more detail behind it. In fact, job

satisfaction "is a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements". The two widely used measures of job satisfaction are "a single global rating and a summation score made up of a number of job facets. … Typical elements here are the nature of the work, supervision, present pay, promotion opportunities, and relations with coworkers" (Spector, 1997, p.3 in Robbins and Judge, 2009). Robbins and Judge conclude that, neither the global rating nor the faceted measure is superior to the other.

Out of these elements of job satisfaction, "enjoying the work is almost always the one most strongly correlated with high levels of overall job satisfaction. Interesting jobs that provide training, variety, independence, and control satisfy most employees." (Barling, Kelloway, and Iverson, 2003; and Bond and Bunce, 2003 in Robbins and Judge, 2009).

An aim of this study is to analyze the influence of empowerment on job satisfaction. As the dimensions of empowerment are conceptually more closely related with the intrinsic elements of job satisfaction; we decided to differentiate between satisfaction with intrinsic and satisfaction with extrinsic aspects of the job. This way, we also have an opportunity to compare the strength of relationships of these two job satisfaction elements with their anteceding and outcome variables. Therefore, while measuring satisfaction with the intrinsic aspects of the job, we use an operationalization of job satisfaction that is more focused on the feelings about the work itself. Our job satisfaction scale is chosen accordingly.

2.3.1.2 Antecedents

In their Core Self-Evaluations model, Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) argued that there are four self-evaluations, which "have direct effects on one's job and life satisfaction" (p. 17). These evaluations were entitled as self-esteem ("the basic appraisal people make of themselves"), generalized self-efficacy ("one's estimates of one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise general control over events in one's life"), locus of control (the degree to which individuals believe that they control events in their lives), and nonneuroticism (its opposite, neuroticism, is defined as "the negative pole of self-esteem") (p. 18-9).

"In accordance with the results of their empirical research, Judge and the others (1998) put forth that higher levels of self-esteem, general self-efficacy, and internal locus of control give rise to higher work satisfaction; whereas higher levels of neuroticism result in to lower job satisfaction." (Maden, 2010, p.41-2).

Although genetics, core self-evaluations ("belief in inner worth and basic competence") and/or "disposition toward life" (positive or negative) (Robbins&Judge, 2009, p.119, 127) may be influential on the level of job satisfaction of a person; there is also room for the influence of the work itself, work-context related variables such as managerial and/or organizational practices/characteristics. Figure 1 may be interpreted as a simplistic presentation of that: In case employees were either pure positive (100%) or pure negative (0%), the height of the bars of this exhibit would tend to be equal for all facets of job satisfaction.
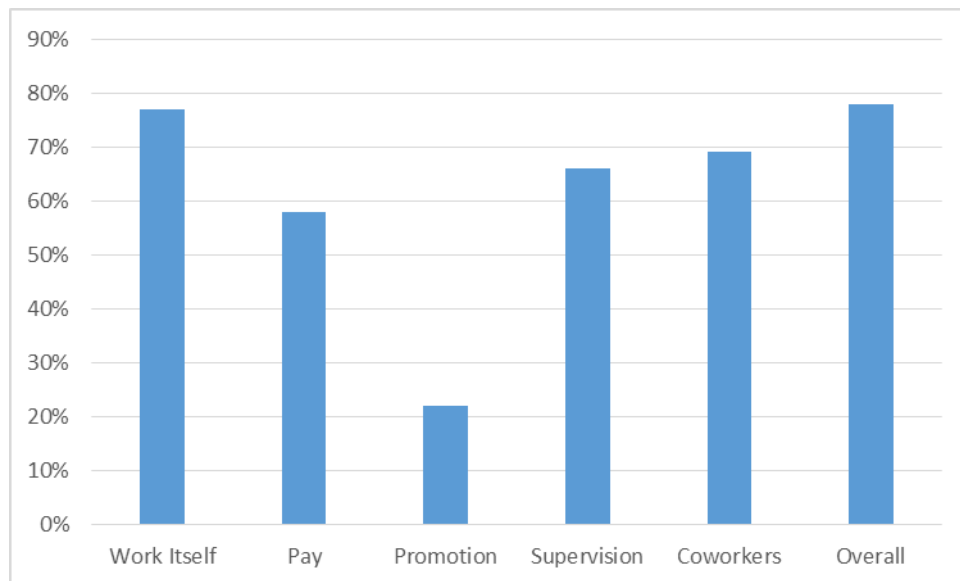
Figure 1. Average job satisfaction level by facet (reproduced based on the figure by Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.119).

Dewettinck and Ameijde (2011) summarized the research findings about the relationship between dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction (p. 290). Based on their article, here is a brief overview of some of the relevant empirical findings, and the logical arguments behind them: Dewettinck and Ameijde (2011) mention that, among others, Herzberg et al. (1959) and Hackman and Oldham (1980) have already noted the importance of a personally meaningful job for the employee's satisfaction. The underlying argument behind this emphasis is as follows: "employees who perceive their jobs to be significant and worthwhile feel higher levels of work satisfaction than employees who see their jobs as having little value." The authors note that, this is also in line with "Locke's notion of personal value fulfillment, which is based on the belief that work satisfaction results from the perception that one's work fulfills or allows the fulfillment of one's desired work values."

As to the relationship between the other dimensions of empowerment and job satisfaction, Dewettinck and Ameijde (2011) transfer the following: "Theory further indicates that employees who feel confident that they will succeed are happier with their work than employees who fear that they might fail (Martinko and Gardner, 1982). As task autonomy and decision-making latitude, self-determination gives the individuals a sense of control over their work causing them to attribute more of the work to themselves than to other individuals resulting in more satisfaction (Thomas and Tymon, 1994). Finally, theory on the impact dimension states that individuals should get a sense of job satisfaction when they feel that they have been directly involved in outcomes that affect the organization (Ashforth, 1989)." (p. 290).

"Spreitzer et al. (1997) found a positive link between all four dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, where the correlation was strongest for the dimension meaningfulness." (Dewettinck and Ameijde, 2011, p.290). Liden and colleagues (2000) findings supported the relationship between job satisfaction and both competence and meaningfulness. Thomas and Tymon (1994)'s study indicated a relationship between the dimensions of impact, meaningfulness and choice (conceptually related to the dimension self-determination of Spreitzer), and job satisfaction.

2.3.1.3 Consequences

Egan, Yang and Bartlett (2004) argue that the importance of job satisfaction facets "vary across individuals, but when the accumulation of unmet expectations becomes sufficiently large, there is less job satisfaction and greater probability of withdrawal behavior (Pearson, 1991)" (p. 283). Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac,

and Roussel (2011) also mention that "turnover cognitions are thought to evolve in part in response to job attitudes" (p. 658). Based on the study of Tett and Meyer (1993), the authors state that job satisfaction has been "reported to relate negatively to turnover intention". Finally, Egan et al. (2004) refer to Agho, Mueller, & Price (1993) while noting that "some interest in job satisfaction is focused primarily on its impact on employee commitment, absenteeism, intentions to quit, and actual turnover (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993)" (p. 283).

2.3.2 Extrinsic reward satisfaction

2.3.2.1 Definition

"Katz and Van Maanen (1977) argue that the various aspects of work form three conceptually and empirically distinct clusters or dimensions of work rewards, which they call the "loci of work satisfaction." These clusters include task, social, and organizational rewards. This classification roughly corresponds to the distinction commonly made between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Herzberg, 1966; Wernimont, 1966; Gruneberg, 1979). The task dimension refers to those intrinsic rewards directly associated with "doing the job." They are derived from the content of the task itself and include such factors as interesting and challenging work, self-direction and responsibility, variety, creativity, opportunities to use one's skills and abilities, and sufficient feedback regarding the effectiveness of one's efforts. The social dimension refers to those extrinsic rewards derived from interacting with others on the job. They are based on the quality of interpersonal relationships and include such factors as friendly, helpful, and supportive co-workers and supervisors.

The organizational dimension refers to those extrinsic rewards provided by the organization for the purpose of facilitating or motivating task performance. They are tangible rewards that are visible to others and include such factors as pay, promotions, fringe benefits, security, and the like. These factors have been traditionally referred to as instrumental rewards" (Mottaz, 1985, p.366).

"Porter and Lawler (1968) defined pay satisfaction as the feelings or affective perceptions that an individual experiences in relation to the existing pay system. Pay satisfaction also operates as an expression of comparison between what exists and what is expected (Locke, 1969; Porter, 1961). Graham and Messner (1998) described pay satisfaction as a successive reaction that demonstrates negative and positive values."(Yu-Ping Wang, Chen, Hyde, Hsieh, 2010, p.873-4)

In this study, to represent ERS, we use satisfaction with pay level and satisfaction with pay raise.

2.3.2.2 Antecedents

Williams, McDaniel, and Ford's (2007) "results indicate that both perceptual (e.g., perceptions of the basis for a pay raise) and objective (i.e., the amount of the pay raise) antecedents play roles in determining pay raise satisfaction." (p. 429)

Williams, Brower, Ford, Williams, and Carraher (2008) state that it is an established finding in the organizational justice literature that "perceptions of distributive justice are related to satisfaction with outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001), and Williams, McDaniel, and Nguyen (2006) found that pay comparisons were related to pay level satisfaction. With respect to pay raises, Williams et al. (2008) add that "Folger and Konovsky (1989) examined the

effects of distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions and found that an aspect of distributive justice, outcome expectation, was related to employees' satisfaction with their pay raises" (p. 649). Tekleab, Bartol, and Liu (2005) also found that justice perceptions have a significant impact on pay satisfaction.

According to Williams et al. (2006), the job characteristics that have appeared most frequently in the pay level satisfaction literature are autonomy, skill variety, task feedback, task identity, task significance, and their aggregate—job scope. These authors mention several arguments that support a positive relation between job characteristics and pay level satisfaction: "Lawler (1971) suggested that nonmonetary outcomes (e.g., autonomy) are likely to be positively related to pay level satisfaction because they may help satisfy some of the same individual needs that pay does.

More recently, Campion and Berger (1990) supported Lawler's point by arguing that both job design and compensation can be viewed as rewards. Further, the logic behind the job characteristics model is that actions that enhance the core psychological states should increase satisfaction; thus, we might expect positive relations between the core job dimensions and pay level satisfaction. Finally, individuals who work in enriched jobs (i.e., those that require higher levels of skill and responsibility for their completion) may, in fact, be paid more than those who work in jobs with lower levels of enrichment." (p. 394). The authors also noted an empirical support for this relationship: "Kinicki et al. (2002) found population correlations (corrected for unreliability) between core job characteristics and the pay satisfaction facet of the JDI ranging from .14 to .23." (p. 395).

2.3.2.3 Consequences

It is quite reasonable to expect employees who have low pay satisfaction to have higher intention to leave their company. Yu-Ping Wang et al. (2010) indicate that besides themselves, there are other researchers who "have provided evidence that pay satisfaction is negatively associated with turnover intention (Bluedorn, 1982; Chiu & Kosinski, 1999; Spector, 1997)"(p. 877). Tekleab et al. (2005) also presented supporting evidence.

2.3.3 Affective commitment[2]

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), there are three "general themes" underlying different definitions of commitment: "affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and obligation to remain with the organization" (p. 63- 64). Each, respectively, is termed as: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Continuance commitment represents an awareness of the costs that have to be faced when leaving the organization. Normative commitment exists when one feels an obligation to continue employment.

2.3.3.1 Definition

Meyer and Allen (1991) defined affective commitment as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees

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[2] Johnson, Chang, and Yang (2010) proposed a model that accounts for commitment to multiple constituents, such as commitment to one's organization and supervisor. With regard to this classification of constituents, the present study is interested in only commitment to an organization.

with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so." (p. 67).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) identified several bases for the development of each of the three forms of commitment. The authors state that the primary bases for the development of affective commitment are "personal involvement, identification with the relevant target, and value congruence (cf. T. E. Becker, 1992; T. E. Becker et al., 1996)" (in Meyer, Becker, and Vanderberghe, 2004, p.994).

In addition, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) argued that, "because it tends to be based on personal values, affective commitment is a stronger binding force than normative and continuance commitment." (in Meyer et al., 2004, p.1001). Supporting these reasonings, Meyer et al. (2004) point to the research showing that, relative to other types of commitment, "affective commitment has the strongest positive correlation with job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and attendance" (p. 993).

2.3.3.2 Antecedents

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) classified the antecedents of affective commitment under four headings: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work experiences. "Because the distinction between objective job characteristics and subjective work experiences has been somewhat blurred in research by the use of self-report measures", Meyer and Allen (1991) preferred to use the term 'work experience', while referring to both objective and subjective characteristics of work (p. 69). As a result, their list of antecedents is as follows:

1.   Personal characteristics

2.   Organizational structure

3.   Work experiences

As an antecedent to affective commitment, psychological empowerment is likely to be classified under the subgroup of "work experiences".

Further, Meyer and Allen (1991) borrowed the hygiene/ motivator distinction proposed by Herzberg (1966), and utilized it for the purposes of classifying the antecedents of commitment into two subgroups as:

a. "those that satisfied employees' need to feel comfortable in the organization, both physically and psychologically, and

b. those that contributed to employees' feelings of competence in the work role".

An example of 'comfort' variables that have been found to be associated with affective commitment is "supervisor consideration (DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Glisson & Durick 1988; Morris & Sherman 1981; Stone & Porter 1975)". Some examples of 'competence' variables are: "accomplishment (Angle & Perry 1983), autonomy, (Colarelli, Dean, & Konstans 1987; DeCotiis & Summers 1987), fairness of performance-based rewards (Brooke et al. 1988; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller 1986), job challenge (Buchanan 1974; Meyer & Allen 1987,1988), job scope (Blau 1987; Buchanan 1974; Glisson & Durick 1988; Pierce & Dunham 1987; Steers & Spencer 1977), opportunity for self-expression (Meyer & Allen 1987,1988), participation in decision making (DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Rhodes & Steers 1981), and personal importance to the organization (Buchanan 1974; Steers 1977)." (p. 70-71). It is evident how most of these competence variables coincide with

dimensions of psychological empowerment, empowering leadership, and core job characteristics.

Moreover, Dewettinck and Ameijde (2011) state that it could "be argued that empowerment contributes to a sense of affective commitment to the organization through a process of reciprocation. Employees who appreciate decision latitude, challenge and responsibility as well as the feelings of meaning, impact, self-determination and mastery that result from these conditions, are more likely to reciprocate by feeling more deeply committed to the organization." (p. 291).

2.3.3.3 Consequences

One of the eight motivational forces related to turnover, identified by Maertz and Griffeth (2004), was affective (hedonistic approach–avoidance based on emotion). The authors state that "affective forces are a big part of what is captured in the pervasive measures of affective organizational commitment (Meyer, Allen & Smith 1993; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). They note, on the other hand, that "such measures also may reflect intention to remain, organizational identification, and value congruence (Bozeman & Perrewe, 2001), and the commitment construct does not express this approach–avoidance mechanism explicitly (Mowday et al., 1979)" (p. 670). To sum up, the authors mention the conceptual affinity between affective forces related to turnover and affective commitment.

Vandenberghe et al. (2011) also mention that "turnover cognitions are thought to evolve in part in response to job attitudes" (p. 658). They found that the decline in affective commitment was significantly associated with an increase in turnover intention (p. 665). Chang (1999) state that "organizational commitment has

been found to negatively affect turnover intention and/or actual turnover (DeCottis & Summers, 1987; Morrow, 1993; Steers, 1977; Porter et al., 1974)" (p. 1263).

2.3.4 Task performance

"An organization is productive if it achieves its goals and does so by transferring inputs to outputs at the lowest cost. As such, productivity implies a concern for both effectiveness and efficiency. … Organizations in service industries need to include attention to customer needs and requirements in assessing their effectiveness. … Because in these types of businesses, there is a clear chain of cause and effect running from employee attitudes and behavior to customer attitudes and behavior to an organization's productivity." (Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.61-62). It is not just service industries' productivity that depends on employees' attitudes and behavior. As mentioned at the start, an organization's performance is the net total of that of its employees.

Mitchell, Ortiz, and Mitchell (1987) state that, "*job performance* is directly related to the level of energy and the specific form of action characterizing a worker's behavior. To the extent that motivation raises a worker's energy and shapes appropriate behavioral patterns, it plays a key role in determining overall *job performance*. Thus, *job performance* can properly be said to represent an operational measure of worker motivation." (p. 31)

2.3.4.1 Definition

Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) mention that "In the current work psychology literature, task performance is defined as 'the proficiency with which incumbents perform activities that are formally recognized as part of their jobs; activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technical process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services' (Borman and Motowidlo 1993: 73)." (p. 218).

Task performance is also referred to as in-role performance. "In-role performance shows the individual's work-related behaviors directed at the performance of tasks formally required (Katz and Kahn, 1978)" (in Asik Dizdar, 2009, p.33).

2.3.4.2 Antecedents

The antecedents of task performance may be grouped under some subheadings such as:

- Work-related (e.g. task difficulty, existence of goals)
- Work-context-related (e.g. physical and/or technical settings, relations with supervisor and/or coworker, leadership, feedback)
- Employee-related (e.g. experience, ability, self-efficacy, personality, need for achievement, affect, job-related attitudes)

Neal and Hesketh (2001) state that a range of HRM "practices have been found to enhance productivity, including personnel selection techniques, employee training,

performance appraisal, nonmonetary benefits, financial incentives, job enrichment, team working, and participation in decision making (eg: Arthur, 1994; Delery&Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Patterson, et al., 1997; Youndt, Snell, Dean, and Lepak, 1996)" (p. 16). The definition of job enrichment, and the close relationship between job enrichment and psychological empowerment will be elaborated later.

As to the influence of culture on the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction and/ or performance, there are some competing findings: Humborstad et al. (2014) emphasize the higher task uncertainty that is associated with ambiguous empowerment conditions, and report that their findings support the "too confusing to be a good thing" model of empowerment (p. 262). Pellegrini and Scandura (2006), using data from Turkish business context, reached some findings, that they interpreted as follows: "delegation might not be an effective management tool in the Middle Eastern context" (p. 264). The authors mention the "economically unstable environment" in developing countries as a factor supporting paternalistic style. To the contrary, "in countries with greater wealth and social security, concerns over survival are taken for granted, and thus employees have a freedom to place greater importance on intrinsic aspects of the job." (Robbins and Judge, 2009, p.271). Connectedly, Huang and Van De Vliert (2003) found that, from among 49 countries, wealthier countries, countries with stronger social security, countries that are culturally closer to individualism, and countries with a smaller power distance, have a stronger relationship between the intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction.

On the other hand, Seibert et al.'s (2011) study indicated that "psychological empowerment had a significantly higher correlation with task performance in Asia than in North America" (p. 992). Although we could not reach the list of countries which were considered as Asian in this study, according to power-distance map of

Hofstede, Turkey is closer to the Asian countries. Seibert et al. (2011) comment as follows: "We speculate that psychological empowerment might be more effective in collectivist cultures because members of such cultures may react more strongly to cues promoting identification and inclusiveness, such as psychological empowerment" (p. 994).

2.3.5 Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)

2.3.5.1 Definition

Organ, Podsakoff, and McKenzie (2006) define OCB as "Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization." (p. 3). "And the evidence indicates that" organizations that have employees who will do those things that aren't in any job description, such as helping others in their team, volunteering for extra work etc., "outperform those that don't" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, Bachrach, 2000, and Bolino and Turnley, 2003 in Robbins and Judge, 2009).

Organ (1988) mentioned that OCB "is rather a matter of personal choice", and Barnard (1938) calls it "willingness to cooperate" (in Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, Bachrach, 2000, p.513). Dimensions of OCB are (Podsakoff et al., p.517-525):

1.   Helping behavior: "involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of work-related problems".

2.   Sportsmanship: "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining (Organ, 1990b, p.96)".

3. Organizational loyalty: "entails promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions".

4. Organizational compliance: captures "a person's internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance".

5. Individual initiative: "involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor".

6. Civic virtue: "This mindset is shown by a willingness to participate actively in its governance, to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities, and to look out for its best interests even at great personal cost."

7. Self-development: "includes voluntary behaviors employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities".

Alge, Ballinger, Tangirala, and Oakley (2006) refer to McNeely & Meglino (1994) who mention that "OCBs can be differentiated in terms of their target or beneficiary. OCB dimensions of conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship reflect a class of OCBs that primarily target or benefit the organization (e.g., attending voluntary meetings) and are called OCB-O. Altruism and courtesy, alternatively, reflect helping behaviors directed at individuals (e.g., helping a coworker solve a problem) and are called OCB-I." (p. 223). In our model, only OCBOs are included, as supervisors are regarded as not having full information about their subordinates' OCBIs; and as evaluations of coworkers are outside the scope of our study.

2.3.5.2 Antecedents

Podsakoff et al. (2000) expressed that there are four major categories of antecedents of OCB on which empirical research has focused:

- Individual (or employee) characteristics,

- Task characteristics,

- Organizational characteristics, and

- Leadership behaviors (p. 526).

The authors note that the "research primarily in the substitutes for leadership literature (e.g.. Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakotf, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a, 1996b; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993) reveals that task characteristics have consistent relationships with citizenship behaviors" (p. 531). Findings showed that, "all three forms of task characteristics included in the substitutes literature (task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively related to citizenship behavior, while task routinization was negatively related to OCBs." (p. 531)

According to Podsakoff et al. (2000), as antecedents of OCBs, leadership behaviors can be divided into three subgroups:

- transformational leadership behaviors ("core" transformational behaviors, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation),

- transactional leadership behaviors (contingent reward behavior, contingent punishment behavior, noncontingent reward behavior, noncontingent punishment behavior), and

- behaviors identified with either the Path-Goal theory of leadership (role clarification behavior, specification of procedures, or supportive leader behavior), or the

- Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory of leadership (p. 531).

2.3.6 Turnover intention

2.3.6.1 Definition

Tett and Meyer (1993) defined turnover intention as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization". (p. 262). Egan et al. (2004) refer to Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) who "developed a reasoned action model that identified the best single predictor of individual behavior to be a measure of reported intention to perform that behavior" (p. 286). Egan et al. (2004) state that scholars such as Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle (1998); Lee & Mowday (1987); Michaels & Spector (1982) have supported such a relationship between turnover intention and turnover.

Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, and Stinglhamber (2005) state that "voluntary turnover is generally considered a negative index of organizational effectiveness (Alexander, Bloom, & Nuchols, 1994; Cascio, 1991; Dalton, Todor, & Krackhardt, 1982; Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Staw, 1980)" (p. 468). This is why, they argue that understanding the process leading employees to leave voluntarily is

critical "for building an effective retention policy and increasing organizational effectiveness (Griffeth & Hom, 2001)" (p. 468).

2.3.6.2 Antecedents

Bentein et al. (2005) mention that the two major categories of predictor variables in turnover models are "job attitudes and job alternatives (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001)" (p. 468). Out of these, only the category of attitudes are of interest in this study. Among job attitudes, Bentein et al. (2005) specify that "organizational commitment has widely attracted the attention of researchers because it has been found consistently to possess negative associations with the cognitive (i.e., turnover intention [TI]) and behavioral components of turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993)" (p. 468).

Harris et al. (2005) made use of a review of turnover research by Maertz and Griffeth (2004). Harris et al. (2005) state that Maertz and Griffeth (2004) grouped "the many avenues into eight different motivational forces related to turnover" (p. 365). The eight motivational forces identified by Maertz and Griffeth (2004) are affective (hedonistic approach–avoidance based on emotion), calculative (expectations regarding the future benefits of membership), contractual (perceived obligation under or breach of the psychological contract), behavioral (tangible and psychological costs of leaving the organization), alternative (self-efficacy beliefs about alternative jobs or roles), normative (expectations of family or friends regarding turnover behavior), moral/ethical (consistency with a general value

regarding turnover behavior), and constituent (attachment to/desire to withdraw from people in the organization).

Harris et al. (2005) "believe that affective, calculative, and alternative motivational forces are especially useful when examining the relationship between LMX quality and turnover intentions. Affective forces are the positive or negative emotional responses, directed at the organization, that cause comfort or discomfort." (p. 365). "That is, an employee who feels good about the current organization and enjoys membership wants this pleasurable emotion to continue and is thereby motivated to continue membership (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Conversely, a person who feels negative toward the organization will want to avoid the psychological discomfort associated with working there (e.g., Rosse & Hulin, 1985)." (Maertz et al., 2004, p.670). When an employee is psychologically empowered, and/or highly satisfied with her/his job, s/he is more likely to feel comfortable at work.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Empowerment has its roots in Job Characteristics Theory (JCT). In general, the model proposed in this study, is based upon both social exchange theory, and some work motivation theories such as expectancy theory, self-determination theory, and social cognitive theory. In this section, after a general summary of work motivation theories, the theories utilized in our model are explained one by one.

3.1 Work motivation theory

To make a brief summary of work motivation theory, we refer to the article of Steers, Mowday, and Shapiro (2004, p.380-3), that presents an overview of the field of work motivation from a theoretical standpoint. Starting from the 1920s, the major developments are as follows:

1. Models based on drive or reinforcement:

    -   Led by theorists such as Thorndike,

    -   The introduction of learning in motivated behavior,

    -   Posited that decisions concerning present or future behaviors are largely influenced by the consequences of rewards associated with past behavior.

    -   Introduction of operant conditioning by Allport, Skinner (1953) and others.

2. Scientific management movement:

    -   Initiated by Taylor and his associates,

- Attention on the inefficiencies of factory production in an increasingly industrialized age,

- A combination of job training, pay-for-performance incentive systems, improved employee selection techniques, and job redesign, including the introduction of ergonomics.

3. Human relations movement:

   - The role of group dynamics and the need to view employees as complex beings with multiple motivational influences were recognized as powerful influences on performance.

   - Mayo's (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson's (1939) works,

   - "Failure to treat workers as human beings came to be regarded as the cause of low morale, poor craftsmanship, unresponsiveness, and confusion" (Bendix, 1956, p.294 in Steers et al., 2004, p.381).

4. Content theories:

   - Their principal aim was to identify factors associated with motivation.

   - Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory: as individuals develop, they work their way up a hierarchy based on the fulfillment of a series of prioritized needs, including physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization.

   - Murray (1938) introduced and McClelland (1961, 1971) further developed the motivational potency of an array of distinct and clearly defined needs, including achievement, affiliation, power, and autonomy.

   - Motivation-hygiene theory (two-factor theory): Herzberg argued that work motivation is largely influenced by the extent to which a job is

intrinsically challenging and provides opportunities for recognition and reinforcement. He regarded the context surrounding a job (which he referred to as hygiene factors) as being far more temporal in terms of leading to satisfaction and motivation. He also introduced the role of job design—specifically, job enrichment—to the field. The model presented in this study, is closely related with the 'motivators' of Herzberg's theory.

While Hackman and Oldham (1976) and others have extended this line of research; others, including Deci (1975; Ryan & Deci, 2000), have focused specifically on task-based intrinsic versus extrinsic factors in motivation (e.g., self-determination theory).

5. Next, cognitive theories emerged, which aimed to explore the processes underlying work motivation. Process theorists view work motivation from a dynamic perspective and look for causal relationships across time and events as they relate to human behavior in the workplace. The best known of these theories is expectancy theory. Vroom (1964) argued that employees tend to rationally evaluate various on-the-job work behaviors (e.g., working harder) and then choose those behaviors they believe will lead to their most valued work-related rewards and outcomes (e.g., a promotion).

6. As researchers began to discover, that specifying targets for behavior enhanced task performance (Locke, 1968, 1996; Steers & Porter, 1974), goal-setting theory emerged. The reasoning is that, goals tell an employee what needs to be done and how much effort is required. The theory suggests that specific, and difficult goals, accompanied by feedback lead to better

performance (Tubbs, 1986, Locke and Latham, 2002, and Locke and Latham, 2006 in Robbins&Judge, 2009).

7. Finally, there were some significant developments about the role of social cognition and self-efficacy on behavior and performance, led by researchers as Bandura (1977a, b, 1997). Bandura proposed a social cognitive theory (SCT), suggesting that self-confidence lies at the heart of an individual's incentive to act.

In addition to some of the above-mentioned theories, Robbins and Judge (2009) list equity theory and cognitive evaluation theory (CET) among the 'contemporary theories of motivation', that has a "reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation". According to CET, "which explains the effects of extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation" (Gagne & Deci, 2005, p.331), there is a negative effect of a latterly introduced extrinsic motivator over intrinsic motivation, because the "individual experiences a loss of control" over what s/he has been doing voluntarily (Robbins&Judge, 2009, p.216). Here, tangible extrinsic rewards, such as money, should be differentiated from verbal extrinsic rewards, such as praise from a supervisor; because verbal rewards may increase intrinsic motivation. This is due to the fact that, tangible rewards attract the attention of people away from the task itself, whereas verbal rewards don't do that.

3.2 Equity theory

Equity theory (Adams, 1965) suggests that employees compare their input-outcome ratios with that of their colleagues. Consequently, when they see these ratios as unequal, they experience tension (either in form of anger, when one feels self as

under rewarded; or guilt, when over rewarded). Therefore, perceived fairness is central to equity theory. "When unfairness is believed to exist, equity theory predicts that subordinates will respond to eliminate inequities by reducing contributions and/or expecting additional rewards." (Adams, 1965 in Deluga, 1994, p. 315-6).

After a decline in "research popularity and application as the result of contradictory findings in the accumulated research, especially with regard to overreward inequity (Mowday, 1991; Pritchard, 1969)", "equity theory has enjoyed a rebirth as an explanatory tool in a variety of settings, theoretically linked to such diverse areas as organizational justice and pay systems (Allen, 1982; Greenberg, 1987, 1988, 1989; Greenberg, Mark and Lehman, 1985; Greenberg and Tyler, 1987; Martin and Peterson, 1987)" (King, Miles, and Day, 1993, p.301).

3.3 Job characteristics theory

"Reacting to a focus in industrial psychology on extrinsic factors such as pay and working conditions that motivate people, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) proposed that intrinsic factors such as recognition and responsibility may possess strong motivating properties. Hackman and his colleagues built on Herzberg et al.'s framework by developing a refined set of characteristics that motivate employees intrinsically. In the job characteristics model, the core job characteristics lead to intrinsic motivation through the mediation of three critical psychological states." (Liden et al., 2000, p.408)

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) drew parallels between the task assessments of empowerment and the critical psychological states in the job characteristics model: "Meaning was identified with experienced meaningfulness, impact with knowledge

of results, and self-determination with experienced responsibility. This conceptualization of three of the four empowerment dimensions in relation to the critical psychological states suggests that the nature of tasks, as defined by the job characteristics approach, contributes directly to perceptions of empowerment (Liden & Arad, 1996)." (in Liden et al., 2000, p.408).

The job diagnostic survey (JDS) that Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed "is based on a specific theory (Job Characteristics Theory/JCT) of how job design affects work motivation, and provides measures of (a) objective job dimensions, (b) individual psychological states resulting from these dimensions, (c) affective reactions of employees to the job and work setting, and (d) individual growth need strength (interpreted as the readiness of individuals to respond to "enriched" jobs)" (p. 159). 'Job enrichment' is the concept used to express the presence of core job dimensions.

The core job characteristics are explained as follows (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.161-2):

- Skill variety: The degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employee.

- Task identity: The degree to which the job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work—that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome.

- Task significance: The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people—whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.

- Autonomy: The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

- Feedback from the job itself: The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

The critical psychological states are (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.162; 1975b, p.60):

- Experienced meaningfulness: The degree to which the employee experiences the job as one which is generally meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile. The individual must perceive his work as worthwhile or important by some system of values he accepts.

- Experienced responsibility: The degree to which the employee feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of the work he or she does.

- Knowledge of results: The degree to which the employee knows and understands, on a continuous basis, how effectively he or she is performing the job. He must be able to determine, on some fairly regular basis, whether or not the outcomes of his work are satisfactory.

JCT (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1976) suggests that the critical psychological states are dependent on the core job characteristics. The three psychological states, in turn, are expected to jointly affect the outcome

variables. Finally, growth need strength (GNS) is conceptualized as a moderator of both of these relationships.

Hackman and Oldham (1975) differentiate among people, such that, some "have strong needs for personal accomplishment, for learning and developing themselves beyond where they are now, for being stimulated and challenged and so on". Such people are high in "growth-need strength" (p. 63).

According to the Job Characteristics Theory of Work Motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) "People with weak growth needs do not respond as positively to high levels of the five core job characteristics as people with strong growth needs." (Champoux, 1991, p.432). In his multivariate test of the job characteristics theory of work motivation, Champoux (1991) found that "the level of general satisfaction fell sharply as autonomy increased and GNS decreased" (p. 439).

An important point that Hackman and Oldham mention about growth need strength (GNS) is the following: it is often the organizations which are responsible for the existing low levels of "growth desires" of employees. Therefore, organizations should offer such employees, a "chance to reverse that trend", through the use of rotations, etc. (p. 63).

The model by Hackman and Oldham has been "well researched" (Robbins&Judge, 2009, p.251). The general framework of their theory has been supported as the evidence indicated that there is a set of job characteristics, which affect behavioral outcomes.

3.4 Expectancy theory

According to expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964; Porter&Lawler, 1968), an individual's motivation to increase effort will depend on two expectations:

1. That their effort will result in a desired level of performance,

2. That their performance will result in desired outcomes.

"Bandura (1986) referred to the former as the self-efficacy expectation, and the latter as the outcome expectation." (Conger and Kanungo, 1988,p.476). When you empower individuals, you increase their self-efficacy expectation. A supervisor "expressing confidence in high performance" (a dimension of LEB) of an employee, is likely to increase the employee's self-efficacy expectation.

> Effort-to-performance expectancy refers to the expectation (assessed probability) that if effort is exerted, the result will be successful performance (though successful performance may fail to result because the job is too difficult, the evaluation process is deficient, or the individual lacks the needed skills). Performance-to-outcome expectancy refers to the expectation (assessed probability) that should effort be successfully exerted, something that is desired will result, such as a financial reward. (Vroom, Porter, and Lawler in Miner, 2005, p.100)

Vroom, Porter, and Lawler (2005) state that intrinsic outcomes are those that come from within a person, such as feelings of accomplishment, of doing important work, of freedom. They also denote that extrinsic outcomes are provided or mediated by external forces such as a superior, the organization, other work-group members. (Vroom, Porter, and Lawler in Miner, 2005, p.100).

For example, an employee may value appreciation in return for performance; not receiving it for some time, s/he may decrease her/his performance (lack of performance-to-outcome expectancy). Alternatively, an employee may be demotivated by a consistent negative supervisory feedback about her/his own performance; decide that no matter how hard s/he tries, her/his effort will not be

accepted as performance; and decrease her/his effort (lack of effort-to-performance expectancy).

According to Lawler's model, "the level of motivation in a given job situation is expressed in expectancy theory terms by a formula. Questionnaires are used to measure the components of this formula, and the scores obtained are inserted in it. The formula is as follows:

Motivation = Effort-to-performance expectancy x the sum of all operating factors (performance-to-outcome expectancies x their valences)" (Vroom, Porter, and Lawler in Miner, 2005, p.100).

The following notions are inherent in this formula:

- "A person's motivation to perform is determined by the performance-to-outcome expectancy multiplied by the valence of the outcome. The relationship is multiplicative; no motivation exists when either performance-to-outcome expectancy or valence is 0.

- Since a level of performance has multiple outcomes associated with it, the products of all performance-to-outcome expectancies x valence combinations are added together for all the outcomes seen as relevant to the specific performance.

- The summed performance-to-outcome expectancies x valences is then multiplied by the effort-to-performance expectancy. Again, the multiplicative relationship indicates that if either effort-to-performance expectancy or the summed performance-to-outcome expectancies times their valences is 0, motivation is 0. (Lawler 1981, 232– 33)" (Vroom, Porter, and Lawler in Miner, 2005, p.101).

If motivation partly depends on the effort-to-performance expectancy, and empowerment –due to its competence dimension- inherently implies this expectancy; expectancy theory gives support to our model, regarding the relationship between psychological empowerment, and performance. Someone having higher psychological empowerment, tends to have a higher effort-to-performance expectancy; thus, a higher motivation to perform (ceteris paribus).

3.5 Social cognitive theory

Bandura and Locke (2003) suggest that people decide whether to initiate coping behavior, to adjust the level of effort they expend, to sustain their effort when faced with obstacles; based on "their beliefs about what they can do"(p. 92). "In the proposed model, expectations of personal efficacy are derived from 4 principal sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states." (Bandura, 1977, p.191). These sources are explained as follows:

- *Performance accomplishments*, as a source of information, is based on personal mastery experiences. "Successes raise mastery expectations, repeated failures lower them" (p. 195).
- *Vicarious experience* involves seeing others perform without adverse consequences, and making similar inferences about one's own situation. The following symbolic expression is another way to explain such cases: "if others can do, I can also do".
- People may be led through *verbal persuasion*, "into believing that they can cope successfully with what has overwhelmed them in the

past" (Bandura, 1977, p.198). Supervisors, due to their positional power, are those who can do this easily and influentially. Leaders can use expressions that include elements of acknowledgment, appreciation and/or encouragement to persuade their subordinates about their performance potential. Such cases represent the potential influence of a supervisor on a subordinate's perception of his competence. As mentioned before, expressing confidence in employee's competence is a dimension of empowering leadership.

- As to the last source, Conger and Kanungo (1988) make the following explanation: "*emotional arousal* states that result from stress, fear, anxiety, depression, and so forth, both on and off the job, can lower self-efficacy expectations." (p. 479).

In support of SCT's (Bandura, 1977) suggestions, "Stajkovic and Luthans (1998, 2003) found considerable support for the role of self-efficacy in determining work-related performance, particularly as moderated by task complexity and locus of control" (Steers et al., 2004, p.382).

Seibert et al. (2011) noted that this theory concerns only one "specific empowerment subdimension", namely competence (p. 998). In line with their statement, we make use of Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) while deriving the relationships between leadership-related variables and psychological empowerment. It is evident how 'beliefs about what one can do', and 'verbal persuasion' in this theory; bring to mind the 'competence' dimension of psychological empowerment, and the 'expressing confidence in high performance' dimension of empowering leadership.

3.6 Self-determination theory

According to Gagne and Deci (2005), "the simple dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation made CET difficult to apply to work settings" (p. 331). Although Gagne and Deci (2005) mentions the harmful effects of tangible extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation, they also admit that there are ways in which such rewards "can be used so as not to be detrimental to intrinsic motivation" (p. 356). They also state that, "self-determination theory has detailed the processes through which extrinsic motivation can become autonomous, and research suggests that intrinsic motivation (based in interest) and autonomous extrinsic motivation (based in importance) are both related to performance, satisfaction, trust, and well-being in the workplace." (p. 356).

Differentiating extrinsic motivation into types that differ in their degree of autonomy, led to self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan and Deci, 2000), which is also mentioned as an extension of content theories in Steers, Mowday, and Shapiro's (2004) theory classification. Central to SDT is "the distinction between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomy involves acting with a sense of volition and having the experience of choice. … In contrast, being controlled involves acting with a sense of pressure, a sense of having to engage in the actions" (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.333-4).

SDT conceptualizes the extrinsic motivation as such a continuum between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation, along which the degree of internalization changes. On the two sides of this continuum lies amotivation, which is wholly lacking in self-determination, and intrinsic motivation, which is invariantly self-determined. The types of extrinsic motivation, starting from the one that is

closest to amotivation, are: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.336).

Self-determination theory proposes environmental factors (job content, job context, and work climate), and individual differences (causality orientation) as antecedents of autonomous motivation. Therefore, it has a common point with JCT, in that it "concurs that the job characteristics will tend to promote autonomous motivation, and research is consistent with this view (e.g., Gagne, Senecal, & Koestner, 1997). Many management theorists have recommended that jobs be enlarged to enhance intrinsic motivation (e.g., Lawler & Hall, 1970).

However, SDT differs in some major ways from Hackman and Oldham's approach. For instance, SDT focuses not only on job characteristics such as choice and constructive feedback as one way to influence autonomous motivation, but it also suggests that the interpersonal style of supervisors and managers is important. (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.342).

Gagne and Deci (2005) emphasize that the three basic psychological needs (competence, autonomy, and relatedness) provide the "nutriments for intrinsic motivation and internalization" (p. 336-7). It is evident, how supervisors have a potential to positively or negatively influence fulfillment of each of these needs of their subordinates.

Deci et al. (1994) specified some behaviors, such as acknowledging others' perspectives, providing meaningful rationales, and minimizing controls, as being autonomy supportive and as facilitating internalization and integration. On the other hand, "fostering participation in decision making", and "providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints" are two dimensions of empowering leadership (in Zhang et al., 2010). The similarity between these concepts may well be pointing to the

potential influence of empowering leadership in facilitating employee's autonomous motivation, through providing her/him with the nutriments of competence, autonomy, and relatedness.

"Research on the effects of an autonomy-supportive managerial style has yielded a variety of positive work outcomes." (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.350). There are findings which indicate that autonomous motivation "maximizes heuristic performance, citizenship, trust, commitment, satisfaction, and wellbeing" (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.354). That is why ways are sought to increase autonomous motivation.

Based on research findings, Gagne and Deci (2005) argue that, intrinsic motivation and internalization of extrinsic motivation will yield the following work outcomes: "(1) persistence and maintained behavior change; (2) effective performance, particularly on tasks requiring creativity, cognitive flexibility, and conceptual understanding; (3) job satisfaction; (4) positive work-related attitudes; (5) organizational citizenship behaviors; and (6) psychological adjustment and well-being" (p. 337).

Based on the findings which show that autonomous motivation predicts volunteering and prosocial behavior, Gagne and Deci (2005) think that autonomous motivation may also promote organizational citizenship. This suggestion is in line with our model that proposes a relationship between intrinsic motivation and OCB.

In addition, "Gagne, Boies, Koestner, and Martens (2004) predicted that affective commitment would be facilitated by employees' autonomous motivation." (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.344-5). They collected data in varied organizations, assessing the external, introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivation of the participants as well as their affective commitment. Their findings supported their

prediction. This finding supports our model, as it confirms the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.

The term 'self-determination' exists both in the name of SDT, and as a dimension of psychological empowerment construct. Autonomy-support, mentioned in the theory, reminds us about leader behaviors that feed the self-determination dimension of empowerment. A meaningful rationale for doing an uninteresting behavior, is very close to the 'meaning' dimension of empowerment. "Acknowledging employees' perspective and feelings about the task" (Deci et al., 1994; Koestner et al., 1984), and "being respectful and concerned about each employee" (in Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.355), seem to have some conceptual intersections with LEB.

Gagne and Deci (2005) also assert that promoting autonomous extrinsic motivation in the workplace will "involve enabling employees to experience meaningfulness, competence, self-determination, and impact at work (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995)" (p. 355-6). In other words, they suggest empowerment as a way to enhance autonomous motivation.

Based on these arguments, the model designed by Gagne and Deci (2005), directly or indirectly support some (namely: empowerment, empowering leadership, and outcome variables) of the relationships suggested in our model.

3.7 Social exchange theory

Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) mention that, SET (Blau, 1964) regards organizations as "forums for transactions (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, and Toth, 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann,& Birjulin, 1999)" (p. 327). Employees work

to get paid, for instance. Next, they "form perceptions as to the fairness of these transactions" (Cropanzano et al., 2002, p.327). "Workers distinguish at least two important exchange partners. One of these partners is the organization", and the other is their supervisors (Cropanzano et al., 2002, p.327).

According to social exchange theory, "people project upon organizations human qualities and then relate to them as if the organizations did in fact have human qualities. They generalize from their feelings about people in the organization who are important to them" (Levinson, 1965, p.377). In other words, "the actions of the individuals who represent the organization are attributed to the intent of the organization itself" (Arsal, Thatcher, Zagenczyk, McKnight, and Ahuja; 2009; p.40).

Levinson (1965) argues that "One can speak of man-organization relationships, first, because phenomena with typical features of transference can be observed; second, because many employees in their relationships with other people, act as agents of the organization" (p. 376). Transference is described as "unconsciously bringing past attitudes, impulses, wishes, and expectations (particularly those usually experienced toward powerful parental figures), in exaggerated form into present situations …" (Levinson, 1965, p.376).

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) accept that there are different views of social exchange; but they point to the agreed upon notion that "social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Emerson, 1976)" (p. 874). "Within SET, these interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person (Blau, 1964)" (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005, p.874). According to SET, "these interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships, although as we shall see this only will occur under certain circumstances". In order for this potential to be realized, "parties must abide by

certain "rules" of exchange. Norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) says the following: "employees who believe they benefit from their employer's discretionary and benevolent actions often feel obligated to reciprocate" (Jones, 2010, p.862).

The summarizing sentences of Levinson's (1965) article that emphasize the importance of reciprocation between the employer and employee, is as follows: "When the process (reciprocation) is operating well, the employee obtains psychological support and stimulation to psychological growth from the organization. He has a contributing responsible role in the company and a continuing opportunity for personal development. The company has his (employee's) cohesive support and his (employee's) creative investment in the organization's tasks, therefore it (the company) gains the potential for both growth and survival. When reciprocation between the two is inadequate, both man and organization suffer." (p. 390).

Based on the rule of reciprocation, the conceptual similarity between the expression "contributing responsible role in the company and a continuing opportunity for personal development", and the relationship between empowerment, and performance and commitment; is evident. In other words, it seems reasonable to propose that, empowering supervisors - by enhancing the meaningfulness of work, expressing confidence in employee's competence, providing employee with autonomy, and fostering employee's participation in decision making- are likely to make positive influence on employee attitudes and behavior.

CHAPTER 4

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Seibert et al. (2004) mention that "empowerment theorists view psychological empowerment as the mechanism through which contextual factors influence individual attitudes and behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Liden & Tewksbury, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997)" (p. 337).

As mentioned before, the objective of this study is to investigate, in a Turkish sample, the relationship between supervisors' empowering behavior, and subordinate's empowerment, attitudes and behavior. While doing this, we will question whether empowerment has a mediating role between supervisor behavior and subordinate attitudes and/or behavior. Dewettinck and Van Ameijde (2011) explored the mediating relationship of psychological empowerment between leadership empowerment behaviour and employee attitudes. They have found that empowerment partially mediates the relationships between leadership empowerment behaviour and job satisfaction and affective commitment (p. 284).

Seibert et al.'s (2011) "findings suggest that leadership is as strongly related to empowerment as other antecedents more traditionally associated with empowerment, such as organizational policies and work design characteristics" (p. 997). These authors, thus, regard a "closer integration of leadership and psychological empowerment theories" as "an important development meriting further investigation" (p. 998). We hope that this study will be one of those investigative steps.

Therefore, even though they may be highly influential in determining motivation and/or performance, the issues such as "extensive training, and the amount of contingent compensation", are not at the focus of this study. Employee's psychological empowerment may be strongly influenced by a supervisor's empowering behavior.

This study aims to add value by demonstrating both that, empowerment has positive effects on job satisfaction, affective commitment and negative effects on turnover intention; and that supervisors' empowering behavior has a strong positive influence on empowerment of their subordinates. As far as we know, having incorporated both the antecedents and the consequences of empowerment, this study is more comprehensive than other studies, which investigate these constructs. If the hypothesized relationships are found, this will point to the importance of empowering leadership and empowerment.

The basic empirical study that guided us through this proposal, belongs to Zhang and Bartol (2010). They examined the relationships between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and employee creativity. They sent e-mails to 670 professional employees, and 219 direct supervisors. They could only match supervisors and subordinates for 367 of the subordinates (p. 113). Their findings that are relevant for this study can be summarized as follows: "Empowering leadership positively affected psychological empowerment, which in turn influenced both intrinsic motivation and creative process engagement. These latter two variables then had a positive influence on creativity." (p. 107).

Moreover, the concepts mentioned by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) led us to find a partial conceptual overlap between empowering leadership and transformational leadership. This overlap, combined with the model of Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), helped us while forming our model. Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) found that transformational leadership has an impact on core job characteristics (CJC), CJC has an influence over intrinsic motivation, and finally intrinsic motivation is positively related to both task performance and OCB (p. 328).

Finally, we refer to Eby et al.'s (1999) theoretical framework of the motivational bases of affective commitment, which was mentioned before. Eby et al. (1999) found that intrinsic motivation is a partial mediator of the relationship between job characteristics and work context variables (namely: skill variety, autonomy, feedback, supervisory satisfaction, and pay satisfaction) and work attitudes of affective organizational commitment and general job satisfaction (p. 477).

4.1 Relationship between empowering leadership and empowerment

CET argues that "social-contextual events (e.g., feedback, communications, rewards) that conduce toward feelings of competence during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action. Accordingly, optimal challenges, effectance-promoting feedback, and freedom from demeaning evaluations were all found to facilitate intrinsic motivation" (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.70).

It is argued that an important influence of leaders on their followers is the "management of meaning" (Smircich & Morgan, 1982 in Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006, p.327). Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) "suggested that individuals rely on informational

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cues from their social contexts when making assessments about work environments."
(In Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006, p.329). Naturally, leaders are "relevant information
points when followers make judgments about their jobs." Griffin (1981) found "that
leaders can influence job perceptions without making any adjustments to objective
job characteristics." (In Piccolo and Colquitt, p.329).

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) think that the five core job characteristics
(Hackman and Oldham, 1976, 1980); variety, identity, significance, autonomy, and
feedback in subordinates' minds; may also be affected by this meaning management
quality of the leaders. They found that "followers in high-quality LMX relationships
report high levels of trust in leaders and commitment to their visions, so they may be
more responsive to transformational behaviors. In contrast, followers in low-quality
LMX relationships have formal, impersonal communication patterns with leaders
that could prove insufficient for transmitting changes in job perceptions" (p. 331).

As to the relationships between CJC and empowerment, the following
findings are relevant: Kraimer, Seibert and Liden (1999) mention that, as job
characteristics represent the objective aspects of jobs, and psychological
empowerment reflects individual's perceptions about the job; job characteristics are
found to be playing a key role in determining psychological empowerment (Conger
and Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990).

Seibert et al. (2011), in their meta-analysis, "expected that all five core job
characteristics would be associated with psychological empowerment", and they
found support for their hypothesis ($rc=.58$, $p<.01$) (p. 984, 989-990). Based on these
associations between CJC and psychological empowerment, we propose that the
"management of meaning" potential of supervisors, will also contribute to the
relationship between LEB and employee psychological empowerment.

"Spreitzer (2008) concluded, based on her narrative review, that a supportive, trusting relationship with one's leader is an important contextual antecedent of psychological empowerment." (in Seibert et al., 2011, p.983). In their meta-analysis, Seibert et al. (2011) "examine all studies that include psychological empowerment and any positive form of leadership behavior", and they "expect these positive forms of leadership to increase employees' perceptions of psychological empowerment because of the important role leaders play in shaping the work experience of followers (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Yukl, 2010)." (p. 983)

In their study, examining the reactions of graduate students to hypothetical situations, Richer and Vallerand (1995) found that people experienced the highest levels of intrinsic motivation when they are under the condition of autonomy-supportive supervisory style.

Self-determination theory also suggests that the interpersonal style of supervisors and managers is important (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.342). Deci et al. (1994) specified some behaviors, such as acknowledging others' perspectives, and minimizing controls, as being autonomy supportive and as facilitating internalization and integration. The similarity between these concepts and "fostering participation in decision making", and "providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints" dimensions of empowering leadership may well be pointing to the potential influence of empowering leadership in facilitating employee's autonomous motivation.

As mentioned before, Amabile (1993) points to a potential of a "synergy" between certain types of extrinsic motivators and intrinsic motivation. She proposes that "any extrinsic factors that support one's sense of competence without undermining one's sense of self-determination should positively contribute to

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intrinsic motivation." (p. 194). All four dimensions of empowering leadership constitute examples of such extrinsic motivators.

Similarly, social cognitive theory states that empowering leaders are in a position to increase, through verbal persuasion, their employees' personal efficacy; which in turn implies a potential increase in the competence dimension of psychological empowerment.

According to expectancy theory, empowering leaders, especially through expressing confidence in high performance of their subordinates; are likely to increase the competence dimension of psychological empowerment of their employees', and their effort-to-performance expectancy.

Based on the dimensions of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, the following reasonings are developed:

1. A supervisor, who clarifies and enhances the meaning of work, is likely to have a positive influence on the level of meaningfulness of work in the eyes of a subordinate.

2. A supervisor, who fosters participation in decision-making, is likely to have a positive influence on subordinate's perceived competence, self-determination, and impact.

3. A supervisor, who expresses confidence in high performance of a subordinate, is likely to have a positive influence on subordinate's perceived competence.

4. A supervisor, who provides autonomy from bureaucratic constraints, is likely to have a positive influence on subordinate's perceived self-determination, and impact.

In an experimental design, Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, and Farh (2011) found that team empowering leadership significantly and positively predicted psychological empowerment (β =.73, p < .05) (p. 547). Last but not least, Zhang and Bartol (2010) found a beta (β) of .81 (p<0.05) between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment (p. 117).

In line with the relevant theories, and empirical evidence, it is hypothesized that:

> H1: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee psychological empowerment.

4.2 Relationships between empowering leadership and outcome variables

A very brief explanation of the relationship between empowerment and performance is provided by Chen et al. (2007): "empowered individuals and teams are motivated to perform well because they believe they have the autonomy and capability to perform meaningful work that can impact their organization" (p. 332).

As noted by Chen et al. (2007), research has shown that employees who develop better relationships with their leader "feel more empowered and, in turn, are more motivated to perform effectively (Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Liden et al., 2000)" (p. 333). Similarly, the positive effect of LEB on empowerment, which is highly supported empirically, is explained in detail in the relevant part of our study.

Based on the memory of some of the in-depth interviews that constitute the qualitative part of this thesis, and of an interview dated 18.12.14 with an MBA candidate at Bilgi University, I filtered the following: Trust of a supervisor in a subordinate's performance leads to feelings of higher responsibility in the

subordinate, and this in turn leads to higher effort by the subordinate. This detection evidently supports a potential positive influence of LEB on task performance, given that a dimension of LEB is expressing confidence in high performance of the subordinate. In our model, LEB is included to explain subordinate performance and satisfaction via empowerment.

As to its influence on JS, and task performance, we will evaluate dimensions of LEB separately. By "fostering participation in decision making", empowering leaders increase subordinates' motivation and commitment regarding the issue at hand (Locke and Schweiger, 1979 in Spreitzer Kizilos, and Nason, 1997), which in turn has the potential to boost job satisfaction and task performance of subordinates. In addition, leader's "expressing confidence in high performance" of subordinate is likely to heighten competence dimension of subordinate's empowerment, which was found to positively affect both satisfaction and performance by Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason (1997). Self-efficacy is found to have "a powerful direct effect on individual performance (Locke, 1991)"; and low self-efficacy is found as leading to "avoidance of all but routine tasks, resulting in low levels of performance (Bandura, 1977)" (Bartram and Casimir, 2007, p.8).

Moreover, the "providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints" dimension of LEB supports self-determination of the subordinate. As mentioned by Stewart, Courtright, and Manz (2011) "Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989) argued that leadership that supports self-determination (i.e., a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions) results in more positive attitudes on the part of employees." (p. 205). Similarly, self-determination of the subordinate is found by Spector's (1986) meta-analysis to have positive relationship with subordinate satisfaction and performance (Bartram and Casimir, 2007, p.8).

Last but not least, an interesting opinion is offered by Vecchio et al. (2010), who -based on their analysis- note that "both performance and satisfaction may be impacted by empowering leadership through the potential linkage of reduced dysfunctional resistance", and that "empowering leadership may help to overcome dysfunctional resistance because it places greater responsibility on the employee and raises an employee's sense of self-worth through offering greater personal and professional challenges." (p. 539). However, "Some previous studies revealed that empowering leadership may arouse resistance (Maynard et al., 2007) … which in turn might hinder individual and organizational performance." Some researchers argue that "the extra responsibilities and autonomy resulting from empowerment programs (e.g. job enrichment, skill enhancement) could be seen as burdens by some individuals." (Humborstad et al., 2014, p.247). Humborstad et al. (2014) emphasize the higher task uncertainty that is associated with ambiguous empowerment conditions, and report that their findings support the "too confusing to be a good thing" model of empowerment (p. 262).Still, due to our perception of the unfulfilled need of subordinates to be empowered, and the existence of supporting empirical evidence; we expect that the benefits of an empowering work-context outweighs the potential risks associated with it; and hypothesize that:

H2: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee job satisfaction.

H3: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee task performance.

Finally, we expect that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between LEB and subordinate performance, and the relationship between LEB and subordinate satisfaction.

Den Hartog and De Hoog (2009) expected that "empowering followers by providing them with voice and listening to their concerns" is likely to lead to more affective commitment (p. 206). In their study that operationalize empowering leader behaviour as including "involving subordinates in decision making, allowing them voice, building self-efficacy through demonstrating confidence in the subordinates' abilities, and providing individualized support", these authors found that LEB increases "a sense of affective attachment and emotional involvement in the organization" (p. 221). They also noted that their finding "is in line with the findings from previous research on antecedents of affective commitment (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1997)".

Mentioning the conceptual overlaps between LEB and participative leadership, and referring to "previous research (Chen et al., 2007, 2011; Konczak et al., 2000; Den Hartog and De Hoogh, 2009; Kirkman and Rosen, 1999)" that consistently support "a positive association between participative leadership and affective commitment", Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, and Prussia (2012) expected to find a relationship between empowering leadership and subordinate affective commitment (p. 136). And, they found a strong correlation between LEB (represented only by items of consultation and delegation) and affective commitment to work unit (p. 139).

Chen et al. (2011) mention that LEB positively influence subordinates' AC because the behaviors lead them "to feel more personally accountable and emotionally engaged with work processes and outcomes in their team and organization" (p. 543). The authors (p. 543) also list research (Chen, Kirkman, et al., 2007; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Seibert et al., 2004;

Tjosvold & Sun, 2006; Zhang & Bartol, 2010) that demonstrate empirical evidence supporting the positive effect of LEB on empowerment and AC.

In line with these reasonings, and empirical evidence, it is hypothesized that:

H4: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee affective commitment.

Dewettinck & van Ameijde (2011) found that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between LEB and affective commitment. Based on all of these that are mentioned above, we expect that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between LEB and affective commitment to organization.

When it comes to the influence of LEB on TI, it is more convenient to think about the case of a non-empowering supervisor. As Chen et al. (2011) emphasize, supervisors "characterized as low in empowering leadership engage in more micromanaging or monitoring behaviors (Spreitzer, De Janasz, & Quinn, 1999)", which discourage self management, and autonomy, and undermine self-confidence (p. 543). I and some of my x-colleagues have experienced working with such supervisors, and most of us decided to leave those companies and/or industries eventually. Chen et al. (2011), who have studied the mediating effect of empowerment between LEB and TI; also point to the study of Chen (2005), which have shown that "individuals who feel a sense of control, competence, intrinsic motivation, and ownership in their work" are less likely to have turnover intentions (p. 544).

In line with these reasonings, it is hypothesized that:

H5: There is a negative relationship between empowering leadership and employee turnover intention.

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As mentioned by Maynard et al. (2012), Avey and colleagues (2008) found that, besides reducing intentions to quit, empowerment also mediates the relationship between transformational leadership, and intentions to quit. Moreover, Chen et al. (2011) presented empirical evidence for the mediating effect of empowerment between LEB and TI. Similarly, we expect that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between LEB and subordinate's TI.

In general, research considered the positive influence of performance-based pay on empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; Melhem, 2004; Gkorezis, 2008). However, we propose that there may be a potential positive impact of empowering leadership on ERS. Our reasoning lies on the mediating influence of empowerment between LEB and ERS.

As previously explained, equity theory suggests that employees compare their input-outcome ratios with that of their colleagues. When they see these ratios as unequal, they experience tension. If such unfairness is believed to exist, subordinates will respond to eliminate inequities. If we leave the assumption of comparison with colleagues aside, a subjectively fair input-outcome ratio may still exist in each employee's mind. And, employees may tend to keep that ratio at that fair level.

Then, empowerment and salary both being outcomes, may be regarded as interacting parts of a whole; and as compensatory, while evaluating the ratio of inputs to outputs. For instance, if an employee feels that s/he is highly empowered at work, s/he may be more likely (than an employee who is not highly empowered) to have the same level of ERS with a lower salary. In other words, if inputs do not change, lower salary may balance higher empowerment, so as to keep the outcome part of the ratio stable. In such a case, empowerment may –in a sense- be said to lead to ERS, by complementing/heightening the perceived level of salary.

In other words, a positive perception about the intrinsic rewards of the job may positively influence employee's perception about the extrinsic rewards s/he receives. The arguments referred to by Williams et al.'s (2006) – especially that of Lawler (1971), which suggests that nonmonetary outcomes like autonomy "may help satisfy some of the same individual needs that pay does"- which are fully cited in our section about the antecedents of ERS, also support our expectation to find a positive influence of empowerment on extrinsic reward satisfaction. Consequently, an empowering supervisor may also have a potential to highten her/his subordinate's satisfaction with pay- either directly and/or indirectly via empowerment. Thinking that, "It is not common to have such an empowering supervisor", a subordinate may tend to be relatively more satisfied with her/his current pay.

H6: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee extrinsic reward satisfaction.

According to social exchange theory, if a subordinate feels empowered as a result of LEB demonstrated by her/his supervisor, the subordinate may feel the need to reciprocate, and consequently conduct OCB. Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) argue that "recipients of positive actions experience a sense of indebtedness that is highly aversive and can be reduced through reciprocation (Greenberg, 1980)." (p. 219). The authors mention that "employees purportedly view in-role behavior, citizenship, and organizational commitment as acceptable commodities for exchange." (p. 220). They also state the following: "discretionary nature of extra-role behavior such as citizenship means they may easily be given or withheld (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Organ, 1988); this makes them ideal wares for reciprocation" (p. 220).

A supplementary view for the reciprocity argument is mentioned by Alge et al. (2006): "Feelings of empowerment can also enhance one's identity with his or her

organization, leading to a stronger tendency to help the organization. … When an organization creates conditions to enhance the value of one's membership in that organization, social identity and exchange motives should lead employees to reciprocate by engaging in citizenship behavior directed at the organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), to enhance the value of the organization and maintain one's status as a valued member of it (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996). Employees who feel they have greater standing and consequently respect their organization because of what it stands for will be more likely to engage in OCB-O." (p. 223-4).

In line with these reasonings, and theoretical arguments, it is hypothesized that:

H7: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee organizational citizenship behavior.

4.3 Relationships between empowerment and outcome variables

Based on the previously explained affective forces, which were defined by Maertz and Griffeth (2004) and utilized by Harris et al. (2005), when an employee has a high-quality LMX with her/his supervisor, and s/he feels empowered, s/he is more likely to feel good about the current organization and enjoy membership.

As mentioned previously, according to expectancy theory, an individual's motivation to increase effort will depend on two expectations, one of which is that their effort will result in a desired level of performance. This is called self-efficacy expectation. When you empower individuals – via increasing meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact dimensions-, you increase their self-efficacy

expectation. It is clearly evident that, ceteris paribus, a person who expects that her/his effort will result in a desired level of performance, will be more satisfied with her/his job.

According to SDT, enhancing employees' intrinsic motivation and promoting full internalization of extrinsic motivation will yield some important work outcomes, two of which are job satisfaction, and positive work-related attitudes (Gagne and Deci, 2005, p.337).

Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance (1999), as mentioned before, found that intrinsic motivation is a partial mediator of the relationship between job characteristics and work context variables (namely: skill variety, autonomy, feedback, supervisory satisfaction, and pay satisfaction) and work attitudes of affective organizational commitment and general job satisfaction. The authors found the relationship between intrinsic motivation, and general job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment to be 0.25 and 0.48 (p<.05), respectively (p. 476).

Quoting from the scale items of intrinsic motivation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, and Tighe, 1994, p.956) and job satisfaction, it is expected that an employee who "enjoys his work" is more likely to consider his job as pleasant, and feel enthusiasm towards his work.

Seibert et al. (2011) state the following: "Because psychologically empowered work is likely to fulfill intrinsic needs for autonomy and growth (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980), researchers have frequently proposed job satisfaction, commitment, and retention as outcomes of empowerment (e.g., Kraimer et al., 1999; Liden et al., 2000)" (p. 983).

Based on data collected from 393 middle managers and 128 lower-level employees, Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason (1997) obtained results, which suggest that different dimensions of empowerment are related to different outcomes (work effectiveness, work satisfaction, and job-related strain) (p. 687-8). Competence is more suggestive about work effectiveness (β=.20); whereas meaning (β=.29), followed by self-determination (β=.14), is more predictive of work satisfaction (p. 692).

There are studies, which have shown that psychological empowerment partially or fully mediates between core job characteristics, and LMX, and job satisfaction (Liden et al., 2000; Aryee & Chen, 2006; Dewettinck & van Ameijde, 2011). Evidently, these studies also constitute support for the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction.

Based on their sample of 192 subordinates and 66 supervisors, Aryee and Chen (2006) found that "empowerment fully mediated the relationship between LMX and the work outcomes", namely job satisfaction, task performance and psychological withdrawal behavior (p. 793, 796). The estimated path coefficients for the relationships between LMX and empowerment, empowerment and job satisfaction/ task performance/ psychological withdrawal behavior are: .71, .67, .54, -.56 (p<.01), respectively (p. 798).

Quoting from the scale items of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, we expect that an employee who:

- regards her/his work as important and meaningful, as opposed to one who does not, is more likely to feel enthusiasm towards his work.

- feels confident about his abilities to do her/his job/ feels that s/he has autonomy in deciding how to carry out his work/ feels that s/he

has considerable influence in his department, is more likely to feel fairly well satisfied with her/his job.

Assuming that an employee who feels high empowerment is more likely to be involved with her/his job; an indirect support is provided by Maden (2010), who found a positive relationship between employees' job involvement and their job satisfaction.

In line with these theoretical basis, arguments and empirical findings, it is hypothesized that:

H8: There is a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and employee job satisfaction.

According to social exchange theory, "people project upon organizations human qualities and then relate to them as if the organizations did in fact have human qualities" (Levinson, 1965, p.377). In addition, norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) says the following: "employees who believe they benefit from their employer's discretionary and benevolent actions often feel obligated to reciprocate" (Jones, 2010, p.862). In case subordinates feel highly empowered in their jobs, they may interpret this as a discretionary and benevolent action of their organization, and by projecting human qualities upon them, may feel obligated to reciprocate. This reciprocation might well be in form of affective commitment.

Maynard et al. (2012) referred to Seibert and colleagues (2011), who "noted a significant, positive relationship based on 31 studies (mean corrected correlation = .63)" between empowerment and commitment; and Avolio et al. (2004), who "found that psychological empowerment was associated with higher levels of organizational commitment" (p. 1249). Suggestions by Gagne and Deci (2005) and the finding by Eby et al. (1999); Kraimer, Seibert and Liden (1999) imply that impact dimension of

psychological empowerment was directly, and self-determination dimension was indirectly related to organizational commitment. Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) showed that the meaning dimension of psychological empowerment mediated the relation between job characteristics and organizational commitment.

All of these studies constitute support for the relationship between psychological empowerment and affective commitment to organization. It might be that, based on social exchange theory, feeling empowered feeds a need to reciprocate, which leads to enhanced commitment.

It is not hard to detect the conceptual overlaps between the "competence" variables exemplified by Meyer and Allen (1991), which were mentioned as antecedents of affective commitment, in the literature review part; and the dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Gumusluoglu and Karakitapoğlu-Aygün (2010), based on their sample of 445 knowledge workers, found that empowerment had the strongest association with occupational commitment, followed by [affective] organizational (with a correlation of .45, p<.01), and supervisory commitment (p. 29). Tolay, Sürgevil, and Topoyan (2012) also found support for the relationship between empowerment and affective commitment.

Once again, assuming that an employee who feels high empowerment is more likely to be involved with her/his job; an indirect support is provided by Maden (2010), who found a positive relationship between employees' job involvement and their [affective] organizational commitment.

Based on these research findings, I suggest that, the affect that results from being psychologically empowered, may be feeding affective commitment. Specifically, we expect that an employee who:

- regards his work as important and meaningful,

- feels confident about his abilities to do his job,

- feels that he has autonomy in deciding how to carry out his work,

- feels that he has considerable influence in his department, is more likely to feel 'emotionally attached' to his organization.

Meaningful work that one is able to do, and the autonomy provided, may create ownership feelings towards the job. Feelings of being provided with autonomy and having considerable influence in one's department may feed feelings of belongingness towards the department.

In line with these arguments and empirical findings, it is hypothesized that:

H9: There is a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and employee affective commitment.

We propose that there may be a potential positive impact of empowerment on ERS. In other words, a positive perception about the intrinsic rewards of the job may positively influence employee's perception about her/his extrinsic rewards.

As explained in more detail in the reasonings supporting H6, a (subjective) fair input-outcome ratio may exist in each employee's mind; and employees may tend to keep that ratio stable. Then, empowerment and salary both being outcomes, they may be regarded as parts of a whole; and as compensatory, while evaluating the ratio of inputs to outputs.

For instance, if an employee feels that s/he is highly empowered at work, s/he may be more likely (than an employee who is not highly empowered) to have the same level of ERS with a lower salary. In such a case, empowerment may –in a sense- be said to lead to ERS, by complementing/ heightening the perceived level of salary.

This is why, we hypothesize a positive relationship between empowerment and ERS.

H10: There is a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction.

An employee, who finds her/his job meaningful, her/himself competent, having enough autonomy, and impact; is directly more likely to be satisfied with her/his job. On the other hand, psychological empowerment of this employee may only be indirectly related with extrinsic reward satisfaction: an employee who thinks that s/he has autonomy and impact may be more likely to be satisfied with the pay-related aspects of the job. In this case, there is a potential impact of satisfaction with intrinsic aspects, on satisfaction with extrinsic aspects. In line with these reasonings, it is hypothesized that:

H11: There is a stronger positive relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, compared to the relationship between psychological empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction.

Based on the findings in the literature, and providing indirect support for the relationship between empowerment and performance, Spreitzer (1995) states that "meaning results in high commitment and concentration of energy (Kanter, 1983). Competence results in effort and persistence in challenging situations (Gecas, 1989), coping and high goal expectations (Ozer & Bandura, 1990), and high performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984). Self-determination results in learning, interest in activity, and resilience in the face of adversity (Deci & Ryan. 1987). Impact is associated with an absence of withdrawal from difficult situations and high performance (Ashforth. 1990)." (p. 1448)

According to Ahearne et al. (2005), "both theoretical arguments (Bandura & Locke, 2003) and meta-analyses (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) have confirmed that self-efficacy exhibits robust correlations with subsequent performance across a wide variety of settings" (p. 947). These arguments and findings indirectly support the influence of the competence dimension of empowerment on task performance.

Sheldon and Elliot (1999) defined self-concordance of goals as "their consistency with the person's developing interests and core values". The authors found that "those pursuing self-concordant goals put more sustained effort into achieving those goals and thus are more likely to attain them"(p. 482). The authors explain this relationship by mentioning the influence of intrinsic motivation, which is experienced when faced with meaningful work. This finding is an indication that meaningful work, by enhancing employees' intrinsic motivation, leads them to put more effort into their work. Performance is likely to increase as a consequence of this increased effort.

Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen and Rosen (2007) also note the existence of research showing that "employees who develop better relationships with their leader (i.e., higher LMX) feel more empowered and, in turn, are more motivated to perform effectively (Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Liden, Wayne, Sparrow, 2000)" (p. 333).

Seibert et al. (2011) also elaborated on this issue. They refer to Spreitzer (1995b, 2008) while noting that "a core proposition of the theory is that psychological empowerment will be related not only to work attitudes but to positive forms of work performance as well due to the more active orientation psychologically empowered employees are said to take toward their work" (p. 983).

Following the conceptual and empirical suggestions, which are mentioned in our literature review part, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) hypothesized that the intrinsic

motivation of follower is positively related to both task performance and OCB. Their hypotheses found support. The correlations values between intrinsic motivation, and task performance and OCB are found as .30 (p<.05), and .35 (p<.05), respectively (p. 334).

Leach et al. (2003) examined the change in employee knowledge following an empowerment initiative. Their "findings showed a substantial increase in job knowledge, particularly among less experienced employees" (p. 27). Further, Wall et al. (2002) refer to Blumberg and Pringle (1982) while stating that "empowerment represents the opportunity structure within which knowledge can be applied and developed" (p. 158). We certainly agree with them. They also mention that "knowledge application, knowledge development, and proactive orientations" may be "mechanisms which link empowerment to performance" (p. 159).

Ke and Zhang (2011) state that, "it is well established that empowerment has a positive effect on performance" (p. 343). The studies of Liden et al. (2000), Seibert et al. (2004), Spreitzer (1995), and Thomas&Velthouse (1990) are examples of such research. Koberg et al. (1999) also found that, among 612 hospital employees, empowerment perceptions were "associated with … work productivity/effectiveness" (p. 71).

In accordance with the reviewed literature and the results of empowerment-performance studies, it is hypothesized that:

H12: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and task performance.

Based on expectancy theory, an individual's motivation to increase effort will also depend on the expectation that their effort will result in a desired level of performance. When you empower individuals, you increase their self-efficacy

expectation. In turn, a person who expects that her/his effort will result in a desired level of performance, will be more likely to exert effort. If an employee believes that her/his effort to conduct OCBs results in the desired performance, s/he is more likely to continue exerting effort.

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Maynard et al 2012 refer to Seibert and colleagues (2011) who note that the mean corrected correlation between psychological empowerment and OCB is .38, "across the 34 and 17 studies captured in their meta-analysis" (p. 1248). Further, Wat, D., & Shaffer, M. A. (2005) found that relationship quality (LMX) influences organizational citizenship behaviors, and this relationship is mediated by the impact dimension of empowerment.

An indirect support is provided by Podsakoff et al. (2000), who emphasize that "job attitudes, task variables (feedback, routinization, intrinsically satisfying), and leadership behaviors (supportive, reward, punishment, etc.) are more strongly related to OCBs than the other antecedents." (p. 532).

Alge et al. (2006) found a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and measures of OCB. Finally, Yücel and Demirel (2012) found positive relationships between the meaning, self-determination, and impact dimensions of empowerment and conscientiousness and sportsmanship dimensions of OCB (p. 19).

In line with reviewed literature and empirical evidence, it is hypothesized that:

H13: There is a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and employee organizational citizenship behavior.

We have already mentioned that, according to expectancy theory, an individual's motivation to increase effort will depend on two expectations: the self-efficacy expectation, and the outcome expectation. When you empower individuals, you increase their self-efficacy expectation. Consequently, if we assume that performance is followed by desired rewards, empowerment is likely to have a positive influence on outcome expectation (via self-efficacy expectation), and thus a negative influence on turnover intentions.

Higher levels of psychological empowerment have been found to be associated with lower levels of intentions to leave (Avey et al., 2008; Harris et al., 2009 in Maynard et al. 2012). In their examination of 17 studies, Seibert and colleagues (2011) found a significant negative relationship (mean corrected correlation $= -.36$) (in Maynard et al. 2012, p. 1249).

Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) refer to some turnover studies which "show that intrinsic motivation and need satisfaction are strongly negatively related to turnover intention (Kuvaas, 2006; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007), as employees should be less prone to leave work settings that contribute to need fulfillment" (p. 626). Assuming

the correspondence between intrinsic motivation and psychological empowerment, the study of Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) provide a direct support for the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intention. The authors conducted a regression analysis and found that intrinsic motivation was significantly and negatively related to turnover intention (β= -0.40, p < 0.001) (p. 630).

An indirect support comes from a study of Griffeth et al. (2000). As a result of their meta-analysis, they found significant and negative correlations between job scope and job involvement, and turnover (p. 468). Further, Harris et al. (2009) mention that "when employees perceive high levels of empowerment, they are motivated towards their jobs and are likely to experience positive accompanying consequences (e.g., Spreitzer et al., 1997)" (p. 372). Consequently, the authors state that, "when empowerment is low, employees will have to look to other aspects of their work lives to find the motivation they do not receive from empowerment" (p. 373). A different job that provides a potential for more empowerment may also be an alternative. In their study, Harris et al. (2009) also found that empowerment was negatively and significantly related to turnover intentions (β=−.26, p<.01) (p. 377).

In their experimental design, Chen et al. (2011) found that psychological empowerment significantly predicted turnover intentions (β=−.35, p < .05) (p. 547). Further, the survey they conducted, provided additional support for this finding (β=−.22, p < .05) (p. 552).

Finally, assuming that an employee who feels high empowerment is more likely to be involved with her/his job; an indirect support is provided by Maden (2010), who found a negative relationship between employees' job involvement and their turnover intentions.

All else being equal, we expect an employee who finds her/ his job meaningful, who believes in her/ his competence of doing his job, who thinks that s/he has enough autonomy while doing his job, and who considers that s/he has an impact on what happens in her/ his department; to have a lower intention to turnover.

Maynard et al (2012) point to the argument, which suggests that commitment plays "a critical role in explaining the effect of individual-level psychological empowerment in reducing intention to leave either an organization or career (e.g. Sparrowe, 1994)" (p. 1249). Based on this, the previously mentioned research findings, and the theoretical reasonings provided in the former chapters; this study predicts that employees' psychological empowerment will predict their JS, AC, and ERS, which in turn will influence their turnover intentions.

In line with these arguments and empirical findings, it is hypothesized that:

H14: There is a negative relationship between employee psychological empowerment and turnover intention.

4.4 Relationships between attitudes and turnover intention

Egan et al. (2004) state that "job satisfaction has been found to have an inverse relationship to turnover intention (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Trevor, 2001)" (p. 286). Tett and Meyer (1993), in their path analyses based on meta-analytic findings, found that satisfaction and commitment each contribute independently to the prediction of turnover intention. They calculated the correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention as -.53 (p. 280). Vandenberghe et al. (2011) assessed the longitudinal changes of job attitudes and turnover intention, and found

that the decline in job satisfaction was significantly associated with an increase in turnover intention (p. 665).

Last but not least, Maden (2010) found a negative relationship (β = -.40, p < .05) between employees' job satisfaction and their turnover intentions (p. 133).

In line with these findings, and the reviewed literature, it is hypothesized that:

H15: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Chen et al. (2011) note that "employees with higher levels of affective commitment have lower turnover intentions (Luchak &Gellatly, 2007; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993)" (p. 544). Commitment to an organization is like a glue that holds back the employee. If commitment becomes weaker, employee is more likely to fall apart. Chang (1999) state that "organizational commitment has been found to negatively affect turnover intention and/or actual turnover (DeCottis & Summers, 1987; Morrow, 1993; Ste errs, 1977; Porter et al., 1974)" (p. 1263). Williams and Hazer (1986) found beta's (β) of -.56 and -.77, in two different samples, between organizational commitment and intent to leave. Wasti's (2003) "results indicated that affective commitment was an important predictor of turnover intentions", with a correlation of -.53 (p<.001) (p. 303, 312).

Bentein et al. (2005) found "that the steeper the decline in an individual's affective … commitment across time, the greater the rate of increase in that individual's intention to quit" (p. 468). Similarly, Vandenberghe et al. (2011) found that the decline in affective commitment was significantly associated with an increase in turnover intention (p. 665). In their meta-analysis, Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) found the correlation between affective commitment and pure turnover intention as -.51 (p. 34).

Finally, Maden (2010) found a negative relationship (β = -.43, p <.01) between employees' affective commitment to the organization and their turnover intentions (p. 136).

In line with these findings, reasonings, and the reviewed literature, it is hypothesized that:

H16: There is a negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention.

Based on the reasoning and the research results mentioned under the ERS part of the literature review chapter; we develop the following hypothesis, regarding the relationship between ERS and turnover intention:

H17: There is a negative relationship between extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention.

If we assume that people choose their jobs and commit to them based on how much they enjoy doing it, ERS is more likely to be a secondary variable that affects turnover intention. O'reilly III and Caldwell (1980) cite as follows: "work done for instrumental reasons, such as for salary alone, has been found to lead to less enjoyment than tasks not justified extrinsically (e.g., Calder & Staw, 1975; Deci, 1972). Hence, when an individual chooses a job for extrinsic rather than intrinsic reasons, for example, salary or location rather than opportunities for learning and advancement, it may be that job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be lower than with a job chosen for intrinsic benefits." (p. 560) This rationale, by implying higher commitment, and thus lower turnover intention for intrinsic job satisfaction –when compared to ERS-, may support our hypothesis below (H18).

The results of Mottaz's study and "those of several other recent studies" suggest that intrinsic (task-related) rewards are "the most critical determinant of

work satisfaction across all occupational groups", when compared to extrinsic social rewards and extrinsic organizational rewards (p. 378, 381). This may, in turn, imply that there is a stronger effect of lack of intrinsic rewards –when compared to lack of extrinsic rewards- on turnover intention.

Thus, although we expect a negative relationship of both JS and ERS with TI, we expect JS-TI relationship to be stronger than ERS-TI relationship.

H18: There is a stronger negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, compared to the relationship between extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention.

The proposed model -without the control variables - is presented in Figure 2.
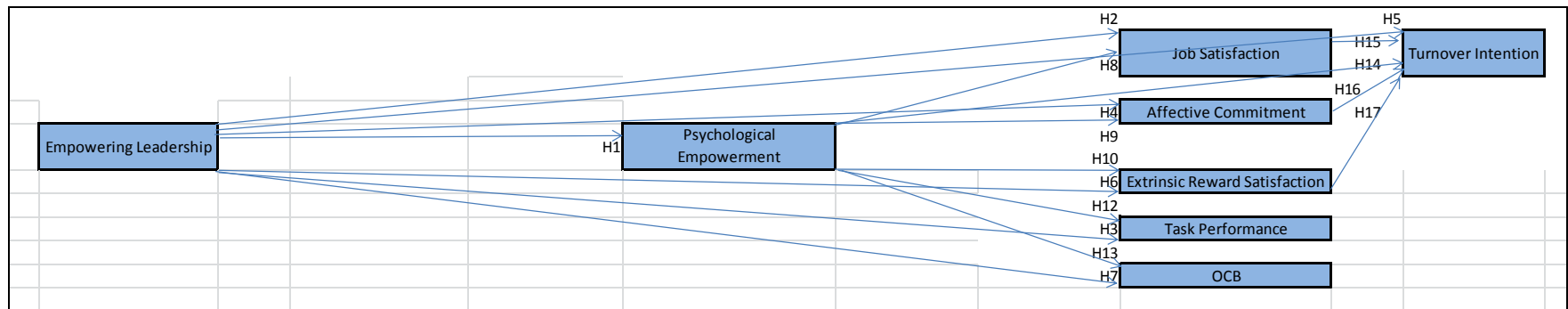
Figure 2. Diagram of the hypothesized model.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Research objectives

The basic aim of this study is to investigate the influence of psychological empowerment on some important employee-related work outcomes. Another objective of the study is testing the mediating effect of psychological empowerment between LEB and outcome variables.

Specifically, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

Is empowering leadership influential in predicting psychological empowerment/ job satisfaction/ affective commitment/ ERS/ task performance/ organizational citizenship behavior /turnover intention?

Is psychological empowerment positively related to job satisfaction/ affective commitment/ ERS/ task performance/ organizational citizenship behavior and negatively related to turnover intention?

Is job satisfaction/ affective commitment/ ERS negatively related to turnover intention?

Does empowerment mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and outcome variables?

Does job satisfaction/ affective commitment/ ERS mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intention?

Does job satisfaction/ affective commitment/ ERS mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention?

Is the relationship between empowerment and JS is stronger than that between empowerment and ERS?

Is the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention stronger than the relationship between ERS and turnover intention?

5.2 Research design

Due to the potential influence of cultural characteristics, it is more meaningful to have findings about a sample from Turkey.

Based on the classification made by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) that is shown in Table 1, a follower-based approach to leadership may be more appropriate to use when there are "highly capable and task committed followers" (p. 224). On the other hand, when the tasks are structured and there is limited diversity among followers, a leader-based approach is recommended.

Table 1. Three Domain Approaches to Leadership.

	Leader-based	Relationship-based	Follower-based
What is leadership?	Appropriate behavior of the person in leader role	Trust, respect, and mutual obligation that generates influence between parties	Ability and motivation to manage one's own performance
What behaviors constitute leadership?	Establishing and communicating vision; inspiring, instilling pride	Building strong relationships with followers; mutual learning and accommodation	Empowering, coaching, facilitating, giving up control
Advantages	Leader as rallying point for organization; common understanding of mission and values; can initiate wholesale change	Accommodates differing needs of subordinates; can elicit superior work from different types of people	Makes the most of follower capabilities; frees up leaders for other responsibilities
Disadvantages	Highly dependent on leader; problems if leader changes or is pursuing inappropriate vision	Time-consuming; relies on long-term relationship between specific leaders and members	Highly dependent on follower initiative and ability
When appropriate?	Fundamental change; charismatic leader in place; limited diversity among followers	Continuous improvement teamwork; substantial diversity and stability among followers; Network building	Highly capable and task committed followers
Where most effective?	Structured tasks; strong leader position power; member acceptance of leader	Situation favorability for leader between two extremes	Unstructured tasks; weak position power; member nonacceptance of leader

(Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 224)

In general, Seibert et al. (2011) found "robust positive effects of psychological empowerment across industry, occupation, and culturally distinct geographical region". (Seibert et al., 2011, p.994) The authors regarded this finding as a "key practical implication", in that it strengthened the effectiveness of empowerment in a broad range of contexts (Seibert et al., 2011, p.995). Still, being able to compare the influence of empowerment on attitudes of blue- and white-collar employees, might provide us with additional insight. This is why we decided to collect survey data from a sample of both blue- and white-collar employees.

"With regard to industry differences, some scholars have speculated that empowerment is likely to be most effective in the service sector, because service workers tend to have more opportunity to engage in discretionary behavior (e.g., with a customer) than their counterparts in a manufacturing environment, where standardized procedures and bureaucratic structures tend to prevail (Batt, 2002). However, Combs et al. (2006) argued that more direct contact with customers itself provides work motivation, obviating the need for intrinsic motivation and thus empowerment." (Seibert et al., 2011, p.986-7). Due to a time limitation, we decided to make convenience sampling, and make use of the easiest-to-be-reached firms-regardless of their industries.

The reason for choosing employees rather than managers into the focus of this study is that, we believe in the existence of an unfulfilled need of employees to be empowered. Further, "empowerment might have a stronger effect among non-managers, due to a lower initial baseline for discretion and control among such employees (Kraimer et al., 1999)." (in Seibert et al., 2011, p.987).

Last but not least, "because HR practices vary considerably by occupational group", limiting the sample to non-managerial employees will enhance the consistency of our findings (Batt, 2002, p.590).

5.2.1 Qualitative research

With the aim of getting deeper into the constructs of leader behavior, empowerment, and employee attitudes; first, some qualitative information is collected through partially structured, in-depth interviews, using convenience sampling. The aim is to

learn the opinions of different individuals about the above-mentioned constructs; and to detect any reflections of the relationships between them.

The 10 in-depth interviews were organized by the research firm. All of them were conducted by me at the research firm's office, and they took a minimum of 30 and a maximum of 75 minutes. The meetings were tape-recorded. Half of the recordings were transcribed by research firm employees and sent to me; the rest were decoded by me.

The gender and industry characteristics of the interviewees, together with the interview dates, are presented in the Table 2.

Table 2. Gender, and Industry Characteristics of the Interviewees.

GENDER	INDUSTRY/ TITLE	INTERVIEW DATE
FEMALE	DENTIST ASSISTANT	18.04.2013
MALE	BANK CLERK	18.04.2013
FEMALE	GEOLOGICAL ENGINEER	19.04.2013
MALE	COMPUTER TECHNICIAN	25.04.2013
MALE	MEDICAL PROMOTION/SALES OFFICER	26.04.2013
MALE	CALL CENTER PERSONNEL	29.04.2013
MALE	HAIRDRESSER	30.04.2013
MALE	TECHNICAL PERSONNEL AT A PRIVATE TV CHANNEL	30.04.2013
FEMALE	MEDICAL PROMOTION/SALES OFFICER	02.05.2013
FEMALE	ARTIFICIAL FLOWER DESIGNER	03.05.2013

The questions that are asked at the interviews are provided in Appendix A and B.

5.2.2 Quantitative research

Survey data from employees, the characteristics of whom are specified below, and their immediate supervisors is collected. Collecting data from different sources, i.e. subordinates and supervisors, helps us avoid common method bias. According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006), and based on the characteristics of my model, a sample size of 250 seems appropriate. Finally, structural equation modeling (SEM) is used for testing the hypotheses.

5.2.2.1 Sampling and data collection

Due to the fact that we aim to collect data from both blue- and white-collar employees, we decided not to set a limitation on industry. A research firm helped us to contact the firms in the sample, and to collect data from their employees. The subordinates were guaranteed for the anonymity of their responses, and their names were not asked within the questionnaire. The firms were visited, surveys were distributed and then collected. In one of these field visits, during which 7 surveys were collected from the subordinates (and 7 surveys regarding their task performance and OCB were collected from their supervisor); the researcher joined the research firm representative. An important point should be noted here: we asked the research firm not to let the supervisors select the subordinates who would fill in our survey. We asked the research firm to select the subordinates on a convenience basis, and then write down each of those subordinates' names on the forms that were to be filled in by the supervisors.

In total, 250 subordinates within 18 organizations, and their supervisors (19) participated in the study. The departments and industries are listed in the Table 3.

In our sample, average age of respondents is 31.7, ranging from nineteen to fifty three. As represented in the Table 4, females constitute 26% of the participants and males constitute the remaining 74%. Half of the sample consists of blue-, half of it white-collar employees. The most frequently reported education level is bachelor's degree (36%), followed by high school degree (22%).

Specifically, 76% of white-collar respondents have either a bachelor's or a master degree (70% and 6%, respectively); whereas, 77% of blue-collar respondents have either a secondary school or a high school diploma (36% and 41%, respectively). Regarding employees' company tenure, majority of the respondents (54%) stated tenures of less than three years whereas 27% of respondents have tenures of between three to six years. Employees with company tenure of six to nine years comprised 14% of the sample.

The characteristics of our sample are presented in Table 4.

Table 3. A List of Department and Industry Information for the Sample.

Department:	Industry:
ASSEMBLY	PRODUCTION
PRINTING PRESS	PRODUCTION
LOGISTICS	PRODUCTION
PAINT SHOP	PRODUCTION
TECHNICAL SERVICE	PRODUCTION
MACHINE MAINTENANCE	PRODUCTION
CONTROL	PRODUCTION
TRUCK DRIVER	PRODUCTION
WELDER	PRODUCTION
SECURITY	PRODUCTION
PRESS	PRODUCTION
MACHINERY	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
LAST PRESSER (SON ÜTÜCÜ)	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
PATTERN MAKER (KALIPÇI)	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
OVERLOCK	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
ARRANGER OF SEWED CLOTHS (ORTACI)	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
MASTER AT ALL MACHINES (KOMPLECİ)	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
MASTER	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
LABEL	TEXTILE (PRODUCTION)
PHYSIOTHERAPY	EDUCATION
TEACHER	EDUCATION
PSYCOLOGIST	EDUCATION
TRUST TEAM	PUBLIC (SECURITY)
LEGAL CASES	PUBLIC (SECURITY)
SOFTWARE CONSULTANCY/ ENGINEERING	COMPUTER (SOFTWARE)
TECHNICAL UNIT	MEDIA/TV
REAL ESTATE ADVISER	REAL-ESTATE AGENCY
SECRETARY	REAL-ESTATE AGENCY
NEWS CENTER	MEDIA/TV
PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT	TEXTILE (BACK-OFFICE)
TECHNICAL SERVICE	COMPUTER (SERVICE-SALES)

Table 4. Sample Characteristics.

(N=250)	Number	Percentage
Age		
<25	30	12%
25-31	115	46%
32-38	65	26%
39-45	29	12%
>45	11	4%
Gender		
Female	64	26%
Male	186	74%
Collar		
White	125	50%
Blue	125	50%
Education Level		
Primary school	21	8%
Secondary school	46	18%
High school	56	22%
Two-year university education	30	12%
Bachelor's	89	36%
Masters	8	3%
Marital Status		
Single	112	45%
Married	138	55%
Child(ren)		
Has child(ren)	98	39%
Does not have child(ren)	152	61%

5.2.2.2 Scales

I have translated the original scales from English to Turkish. Then I asked two colleagues, of whom one is bilingual, and the other lived 10 years in USA; to back-translate. After the discussions and resolutions about the different opinions, the final version of the survey in Turkish was formed. Following the approval of this version by Prof. Kabasakal, our survey was available to be used (Appendices C and D).

Empowering Leadership:

The empowering leadership is measured by using Ahearne et al. (2005) scale, which is available in Zhang et al. (2010).

Enhancing the meaningfulness of work:

1. My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.

2. My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.

3. My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.

Fostering participation in decision making:

4. My manager makes many decision together with me.

5. My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.

6. My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me.

Expressing confidence in high performance:

7. My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.

8. My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.

9. My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level.

Providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints:

10. My manager allows me to do my job my way.

11. My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my

job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.

12. My manager allows me to make important decisions

quickly (This last item is revised in order to avoid a customer-focused

meaning.)

This scale is a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to

"strongly agree."

Given that an "analysis of these subscales revealed a single underlying

dimension of empowering behaviors", Ahearne et al. (2005) "averaged the four scale

scores to create a single composite score that exhibited an alpha of .88" (p. 949).

Psychological Empowerment:

The psychological empowerment scale, developed by Spreitzer (1995), is as follows

(p. 1464-65):

Meaning:

The work I do is very important to me.

My job activities are personally meaningful to me.

The work I do is meaningful to me.

Competence:

I am confident about my ability to do my job.

I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.

I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

Self-Determination:

I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.

I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.

I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do

my job.

Impact:

My impact on what happens in my department is large.

I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.

I have significant influence over what happens in my department.

This scale is a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to

"strongly agree". However, we prefer to use a 5-point response scale.

Job Satisfaction:

Tett and Meyer (1993) state the following: "Concerns have been raised regarding the

equivalence of global and sum-of-facet measures of overall job satisfaction. Ironson,

Smith, Brannick, Gibson, and Paul (1989) listed five differences between the two

types of scales. Specifically, sum of facet measures (a) may omit important

components of overall satisfaction that are tapped implicitly by global measures

(Scarpello & Campbell, 1983), (b) may elicit a more relative frame of reference

which encourages shorter-term decisions (Ryan & Smith, 1954; Smith, Kendall, &

Hulin, 1969), (c) may include satisfaction components that are irrelevant to the given

individual, (d) may include a descriptive component that interferes with the affective

evaluation of the given job, and (e) are less ecologically valid in that they entail the

simple arithmetic combination of specific attitudes." (p. 263). These are the reasons

why a global measure is preferred in this study.

"A number of researchers have criticized job satisfaction measures as being

too cognitive (c.f. Brief, 1998; Organ and Near 1985; Pekrun and Frese, 1992).

Sandelands (1988) points out that most measures of work attitude assess `cold

cognitions' rather than hot emotions, the level at which the job is actually

experienced. Porac (1987) argues that we know next to nothing about how feelings at

work are translated into responses on job satisfaction scales." (Fisher, 2000, p.186).

"According to the findings reported by Brief and Roberson (1987), of the three satisfaction measures, the MSQ reflects the highest cognitive orientation, while the Faces scale represents the most affective stance in the evaluation of satisfaction. On the other hand, the JDI was also reported to be primarily cognitive, with the existence of some affective influence as well. In a similar study, Williams (1988) reported that Brayfield-Rothe scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) has a more affective orientation than other satisfaction measures." (Maden, 2010, p.114-5).

As we are more interested in the affective side of attitudes, the following 5 items

taken out of Brayfield-Rothe scale by Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger (1998), will

be used:

Measure of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951):

- I consider my job rather unpleasant.(R)*

- I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.

- Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.

- Each day of work seems like it will never end.   (R) *

- I find real enjoyment in my work.

  *Item is reverse coded.

Judge et al. (1998) measured these items by an 11-point scale. However, we prefer a

5-point response scale, such that 1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree.

Judge et al. (1998) checked the reliability of these five items by giving this

measure to a sample of 222 university employees. They reached a reliability of .88

(p. 23). They also found an average correlation of .89 between this measure and a

composite measure of the facets of the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, &

Hulin, 1969) (p. 23).

Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction:

We measure satisfaction with pay level and satisfaction with pay raise dimensions by using the relevant items from Heneman and Schwab's (1985) modified pay satisfaction questionnaire (PSQ). Validity of the PSQ has been checked by Judge (1993) and DeConinck et al. (1996) (DeConinck and Bachmann, 2005, p.877). In this scale, there are also items related with satisfaction with benefits and satisfaction with structure/administration; however, as we collect data from different industries, including these items could complicate our respondents' understanding. This is why, out of the 18 items available in this scale, we prefer to use only the most basic and straightforward, following 8 items regarding pay: 1,3,4,5,7,10,14,16.

"The statements below describe various aspects of your pay. For each statement, decide how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your pay, and choose the option that best indicates your feeling." This explanation accompanied the following items in our survey:

1 My take-home pay

2 My most recent raise

3 Influence my supervisor has on my pay

4 My current salary

5 The raises I have typically received in the past

6 My overall level of pay

7 How my raises are determined

8 Size of my current salary

All items use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 = very dissatisfied and 5 = very satisfied.

Affective Commitment:

Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993) scale of affective commitment will be used:

1.   I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

2.   I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

3.   I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)

4.   I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)

5.   I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)

6.   This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me (p. 544).

Originally, responses to all items were made on seven-point scales (1='strongly disagree' to 7='strongly agree') (p. 5). However, we prefer a 5-point response scale.

Task Performance:

We will make use of the task performance measure that was used by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006). The measure was developed by Williams and Anderson (1991).

Supervisors will be asked to decide "the extent to which they agreed with statements about their subordinates' performance. … This employee …" (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006, p.333).

1.   Adequately completes assigned duties.

2.   Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.

3.   Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.

4.   Meets formal performance requirements of the job.

5.   Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.

6.   Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. (R)

7.   Fails to perform essential duties. (R)

 (Williams and Anderson, 1991, p.606)

This measure used a response scale in which 1 was "strongly disagree" and 5 was "strongly agree."

Organizational Citizenship Behavior:

We will make use of a part of the OCB measure that was used by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006). The measure was published by Lee and Allen (2002). OCBO is the name given to those OCBs that are directed to the organization. The reason why we exclude OCBI (OCBs that are directed to individuals) part of this measure is that, it may not be reasonable to assume that supervisors have enough idea about their subordinates' job-related behavior towards their coworkers. The OCBO items are as follows (Lee and Allen, 2002, p.142):

1. Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.

2. Keeps up with developments in the organization.

3. Defends the organization when other employees criticize it.

4. Shows pride when representing the organization in public.

5. Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.

6. Expresses loyalty toward the organization.

7. Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.

8. Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization.

In the original study of Lee and Allen (2002), coworkers were asked to indicate their opinions using 7-point scales. However, as Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) did, we will ask the same questions to supervisors and will use a 5-point response scale (p. 333).

Turnover Intention:

Wasti, who has sent us the Turkish versions of the items[3], told us that she used the first three items of the job withdrawal scale by Hanisch ve Hulin (1990 & 1991). Unfortunately, we could not reach the original (English) version of this scale. However, we made a translation of the relevant items as follows:

1. How often do you consider quitting your job?

A) Never B) Rarely C) Sometimes D) Often E) Continuously

2. What is the probability of you quitting your job within next few months?

A) Not at all probable B) Not probable C) Neither probable, nor unprobable

D) Probable E) Very probable

3. If you consider everything, how desirable is it to quit your job? [reverse-coded]

A) Very desirable B) Desirable C) Neutral; neither desirable, nor undesirable

D) Undesirable E) Not at all desirable

5.2.2.3 Control Variables

Seibert et al. (2011) expected education to have a positive association with psychological empowerment because it adds to "the level of knowledge, skill, or experience the individual brings to her work". They also included gender on an

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[3] 1. İşinizi ne sıklıkta BIRAKMAYI düşünürsünüz? A) Asla B) Nadiren C) Bazen D) Sık sık E) Sürekli 2. GELECEK BİRKAÇ AY İÇİNDE işinizi BIRAKMANIZIN olasılığı nedir? A) Hiç olası değil B) Olası değil C) Ne olası, ne olası değil D) Olası E) Çok olası 3. Her şeyi göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda işinizi BIRAKMAK ne derece arzu edilir bir şeydir? [reverse-coded] A) Çok arzu edilir bir şeydir B) Arzu edilir bir şeydir C) Tarafsızım; ne arzu edilir ne de edilmez bir şeydir D) Arzu edilmez bir şeydir E) Hiç arzu edilmez bir şeydir

exploratory basis. However their hypotheses about education and gender were not supported.

In another study, Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005) placed 'employee empowerment readiness' as a moderator of the relationship between leader empowering behavior (LEB) and self-efficacy. They defined employee empowerment readiness "as the extent to which employees possess an array of task-relevant knowledge and experience that will enable them to benefit from, and to be successful in, an empowered environment" (p. 948). The dimensions of empowerment readiness are: knowledge, tenure in the field, and tenure with current employer.

To the contrary of Ahearne et al.'s (2005) hypothesis, the relationship between LEB and self-efficacy is not more positive for employees who have higher empowerment readiness. The authors conveyed this finding as follows: "Results indicated that contrary to popular belief, employees with low levels of product/industry knowledge and low experience benefit the most from leadership behaviors that are empowering, whereas high-knowledge and experienced employees reap no clear benefit." (p. 945).

Rapp, Ahearne, Mathieu, and Schillewaert (2006) also found a similar result, which indicated that "employees with low levels of product/industry experience benefit the most from leader empowering behaviors." (p. 279).

Inexperienced and/or less educated employees may be benefiting more from an increase in empowering leadership behaviors; as they have not yet built their self-efficacy on the job, and are in a position to highly value any recognition, approval, and appreciation.

In our study gender, collar, and education variables are controlled.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS

6.1 Findings of the qualitative study

With the aim of getting deeper into empowerment, empowering leader behavior, and

employee attitudes, through learning opinions of different individuals about these

concepts; 10 partially structured, in-depth interviews were made.

6.1.1 Questions and answers related to the meaning dimension of empowerment

Summary of answers to the question "Do you think that your job is meaningful

and/or important? Why? How?":

Interviewees mention what they find important, nice, joyful and meaningful in

their job, as follows:

- A way to fulfill their/their family's economic needs

- The responsibility they feel about their job

- The normative commitment they have towards their supervisor or the owner
  of their company

- The respect they feel towards/ the importance and/or meaning they attach to their job/ profession. The greater good that they think their job serves (for example: drug representatives' mentioning "people's health")

- The positive feelings (love, interest, pleasure, happiness, joy, enthusiasm, creativity, relaxation/ getting rid of stress) they have while carrying out their job

These may be further summarized under the following main driving forces behind their motivation towards their work:

- A means for fulfilling an important need (for example: making a living)

- Feeling responsibility and/or obliged to serve their supervisor and/or the owner of their company

- Finding their job meaningful/ important/ deserving respect

- Feelings of love, interest, joy, enthusiasm they have towards their job

It is important to note that these should not be regarded as strict alternatives; as in most of the cases, they were mentioned in combination. These answers may suggest that JS, AC, ERS may be substitutes in explaining task performance of different people, and that empowerment is more strongly related with JS (compared to AC and ERS).

Specifically, if a person attributes importance/ meaning to her/his job, because:

- s/he sees it as a means for making a living; LEB and/ or empowerment may not have a strong influence on task performance of the person. It is likely that extrinsic rewards are strongly linked to performance, and the job itself is -at most- of secondary importance.

- s/he feels a responsibility and/or obligation to serve her/his supervisor and/or the owner of their company; there may be a strong relationship between the behavior of supervisor and/or the owner, and task performance of the person. It is likely that commitment is strongly linked to performance, and the job itself is of secondary importance.

- s/he finds her/his job meaningful/ important/ deserving respect; probably at least the meaning dimension of empowerment already exists, and behavior of the supervisor may only have a partial/ limited impact on task performance of the person. The value attributed to the job itself is likely to be of outmost importance in determining task performance.

- of feelings of love, interest, joy, enthusiasm s/he have towards her/his job; probably at least the competence and self-determination dimensions of empowerment already exist, and behavior of the supervisor may have a partial impact on task performance of the person. The joy the job brings is likely to be of outmost importance in determining task performance.

6.1.2 Questions and answers related to the competence dimension of empowerment

The answers to the question "Do you think that you are competent at doing your job?" can be grouped under the following three explanations:

- Interviewee's own thoughts/ self-confidence regarding her/his competence, ability, effort, experience level. For example: "I do not find myself so good.", "I always do my work well."

- Her/his supervisor's thoughts, based on an evaluation of expressed appreciation, decisions of promotion. For example: "Sometimes even my supervisor blabs and says 'You all, work like Emir!'".

- Interviewee's thoughts about her/his need for development, getting more experienced, learning more. For example: "I do not find myself sufficient yet. I need more time to be in a better position."

6.1.3 Questions and answers related to the self-determination dimension of empowerment

Summary of answers to the question "Do you think that you have reasonable/enough autonomy in deciding how to do your job? Why? How?":

- Almost complete self-determination exists. For example: "I make the decision.", "The boss does not interfere.", "Unless customer makes a specific demand, we decide on the colors and forms." The factors that were regarded as (in general, partially) hindering self-determination are: some requirements due to bureaucracy ("emir demiri keser"), a specified sales order that limits creativity, time limitations, financial limitations of drug-companies that determine the amount of favors available for doctors/ pharmacists, dressing and behavior rules, the "customer is the king" principle of call center ("In any case, you may have to say 'Yes sir'."), the sales pressure.

6.1.4 Questions and answers related to the impact dimension of empowerment

Summary of answers to the question "Do you think that you have an important impact on what happens in your department? Why? How?":

In general, interviewees mentioned that they have an impact on their department/ company. The only interviewee who told that he does not have a considerable impact, is the one who felt more like a 'cog in a machine', and who seemed to have the lowest job satisfaction.

It should be noted that there might be a social desirability bias especially in answers to the questions related to competence, self-determination, and impact dimensions of empowerment, which are more directly associated with the ego of the individual.

6.1.5 Questions and answers related to job satisfaction

Summary of answers to the question "Are you satisfied with your job? What are the reasons behind this satisfaction level? In particular, are these reasons related to the industry, company, department, supervisor, coworkers and/or the job itself?":

The positive aspects that were mentioned are as follows:

- Regarding the job itself: happy, likes the job, feels enthusiastic, recommends this job,

- Regarding the coworkers: warm/ genuine, similar levels of education enabling better communication, trustworthy, harmonious, sharing

- Regarding the supervisor: respectful, patient, help the subordinate like the job, encouraging, kind, humane, knows how to balance her/his distance with the subordinates

- Regarding the office atmosphere: warm, peaceful, gives you a chance to meet interesting people

- Regarding the sector/industry: low/no risk of discontinuity

- Regarding the working conditions: specified and reasonable working, meal and break times and conditions.

- Regarding the salary and benefits (car, cloths): their being good or reasonable, their being available in your non-work/ free-time.

- Regarding the status/ prestige of the job: People respect you for your cloths and/or car. This is a privilege.

The negative aspects that were mentioned are as follows:

- Regarding the job itself: I wish that I had more field work; the job is too tiring, and it requires too much brain and physical energy; I wish that the problems we deal with had a standard/ limit; I wish that there were less problematic customers; I wish that the doctors respected us more; I wish that pharmacists did not approach us with only a commercial focus, and respected our effort more; I do not recommend my job to anybody; there is time pressure; at the office, there is full-time camera recording; working with money is too risky; I wish that all customers had good manners; there is pressure for zero mistake during broadcast.

- Regarding the company: I wish that I was working at a corporate/institutionalized company; I wish that we could afford to employ qualified staff.

- Regarding the salary: I wish that I had a higher salary

- Regarding the sector/industry: I wish that the sector was more stabilized; I wish that the sector was not this tough, it has no forgiveness; I wish that there were no unethical practices; I wish that we could enter the hospitals easily; I wish that the state closely controlled doctors and pharmacists on the sale of risky medicine.

- Regarding the working conditions: work hours are too long; I wish that the work hours were different; I wish that the age limit at my job was more flexible so that I could move to a different company; I wish that working conditions did not have negative consequences for health; I wish that we could use our break-times easily; I wish that we could have more relaxing and informal break-times; I wish that there was no change in our shifts so that I could have a better sleep pattern; I wish that Istanbul was not this tiring; I wish that picnic- type of informal activities were organized; I wish that we did not have to wear suits; I wish that there were limits to time spent at work, as it is not meaningful to earn money if you don't have time to make use of it; I wish that there were more professional staff, rather than the relatives of personnel;

- Regarding the supervisor: I wish that my supervisor was more understanding, humane, and balancing between the management and the subordinates; I wish that supervisors were chosen from among people who had good interpersonal

relations; I wish that there was an open communication and a warm/ genuine relationship between me and my supervisors (i.e. dentists)

When people mention the positive aspects of their jobs, empowering behavior of supervisors are mentioned (such as "encouraging"), and –naturally- no turnover intention is noted. On the other hand, when people talk about the negative aspects, they complain that the requirements of their jobs are higher, and the offerings of their jobs are lower than the levels they would prefer. For instance, they do not refer to the dimensions of LEB, but mention their needs for more basic supervisor qualities, such as open communication and good interpersonal relationships. Still, in general, turnover intention is not mentioned. Only one of the respondents said that he would leave his current employer, if there was no age limit in the industry for similar positions, and another mentioned the lack of both material and non-material rewards ("I earn lower than what I deserve; and my effort is not appreciated. The most important thing in work life is being appreciated."

6.1.6 Questions and answers related to affective commitment

Summary of answers to the question "Would you be happy to spend the rest of your career with this organization? What are the reasons behind this commitment level?":

Most of the interviewees expressed that they had at least one type of commitment, either towards their supervisor or their company. Only three out of ten interviewees, who are thought to have the lowest job satisfaction, told that they did not have any form of commitment.

By those who had commitment, one or more of the following were mentioned:

- Affective commitment to the supervisor, in spite of lack of affective commitment to organization

- Affective commitment to the supervisor due to reciprocity

- Affective commitment to organization

- Affective commitment to organization through affective commitment to the supervisor

- Commitment in the short-run versus commitment in the long-run: in the long-run, most of the respondents have some requirements/ need for change from their organization; in order for their commitment to continue.

6.1.7 Questions and answers related to empowering leadership

Summary of answers to the question "Does your supervisor treat you in a polite manner and with respect? How? What would you say about the quality of your relationship with your supervisor- in terms of affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect dimensions? Do you think that your supervisor heightens the meaning and importance level of your work, fosters your participation in decision making, expresses confidence in your high performance, and provides you with autonomy? How?":

- Genuine/ warm supervisor

- Open communication/ honesty with the supervisor (+/-)[4]

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[4] Here, "+" indicates existence, and "-" indicates lack of the concept mentioned.

- Supervisor's balancing the interpersonal distance with subordinates (+/-)

- Supervisor's trust in you/ supporting you/ giving you a chance

- Feeling responsible and motivated as a result of supervisor's behavior/ approach

- Patient and calm supervisor

- My supervisor made me like the job

- My supervisor values me, shows me respect, asks my opinion (+/-)

- I like my supervisor/ I trust my supervisor/ I would contribute for my supervisor to achieve her/his goals (+/-)

- I respect my supervisor's knowledge/ S/he knows the job well

- S/he taught me the job

- My supervisor provides flexibility (+/-)

- My supervisor has a positive attitude/ My supervisor is humane (+/-)

- My supervisor is fair

- My supervisor is an opportunist

- We work harmoniously with my supervisor (+/-)

- My supervisor has a problem with her/his ego/ A supervisor should not have a problem with her/his ego

When summarized, there are 3 different sub-groups of answers to leadership-related questions:

1. interpersonal/ humane characteristic/ attitude/ behavior of the supervisor

2. characteristic/ attitude/ behavior of the supervisor that is directly related to the work of the subordinate

3. the feeling/ attitude of subordinate towards her/his supervisor, which is formed as a result of the above two.

6.1.8 Questions and answers related to turnover intention

The following questions were asked: "Do you have any intention to quit your current job? If so, what are the reasons behind this intention? If don't have an intention to quit, did you ever quit voluntarily before (from another organization)? If so, what were the reasons behind that?" Based on the answers, here is a summary of reasons for the respondents to have TI:

- Lack of opportunity to do your job (due to your being a newcomer and needing more time to complete a duty, coworkers with tenure do not show patience for you to participate)

- Supervisor-related problems: her/ his attitude/ personality; lack of self-determination dimension of empowerment

- Coworker-related problems (their not being warm/ welcoming)

- Work overload and difficulty in self-development, due to hiring of non-professional personnel

- Problems about work conditions (work hours, physical and psychological conditions)

- Need for a higher wage

- Lack of interest/ enjoyment at the job

- The thought of getting paid much less than the amount you deserve

- Lack of appreciation; while thinking that being appreciated is the most important part of work-life.

- The job's being stressful, and tiring

- The limited job opportunities in the industry

- No time left for a private life, due to work overtime. If you can't spend it with pleasure, there is no meaning in earning a lot of money.

- Thinking that there is an age limit in the industry; decided to leave this industry, if not promoted within a specified time.

And, here is the summary of reasons for the respondents not to have TI:

- Commitment to supervisor (due to reciprocity)

- Thinking that it is not the correct time for leaving

- Being used to the current work environment, and finding it difficult to adapt to a new one.

- Lack of alternative job opportunities due to a perceived age limit in the industry

- Enjoying the current work environment

Finally, we made a comparison of the interview notes of each interviewee with our expectations regarding relationships between the constructs. In 8 out of 10 interviews, potential influences of LEB on empowerment, and empowerment on job satisfaction and commitment, seem to be supported. In one of the other cases, there seems to be no relationship between LEB and empowerment, and there seems to be an influence of empowerment on job satisfaction (except satisfaction with supervisor), and an influence of LEB on commitment (to organization via supervisor).

Among the above-listed reasons mentioned regarding the existence of TI, are job-, supervisor-, and extrinsic reward-related problems. This may be regarded as a support for the relationships we expected among JS-TI, AC-TI, and ERS-TI.

6.2 Findings of the quantitative study

6.2.1 Reliability checks

Using data acquired from 250 employees and their 19 supervisors, reliability checks were made. The most prevalent reliability test is the *Cronbach's alpha*, which is an internal consistency estimation where each item in a scale is correlated with all the other items (inter-item correlations) and with the summated scale score (item-to-total correlations) and a reliability coefficient is produced based on average correlations among items (Hair et al., 2006).

Although a reliability coefficient of .60 is acceptable in exploratory research (Peter, 1979), the general rule of thumb is that Cronbach's alpha measures should be at least .70 to ensure high internal consistency (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978 in Telci, 2010). In addition, measures with item-to-total correlations less than .30 are suggested to be eliminated to improve reliability of scales (Dunn, Seaker, & Waller, 1994 in Telci, 2010).

The resulting Cronbach's alpha values for our study's constructs before any item purifications are demonstrated below. (Please refer to Table 11 in Appendix E to see the full-items "Reliability Statistics for the Constructs in the Study".)

		Alpha
1	Empowerment	0.92
2	Empowering Leadership	0.92
3	Job Satisfaction	0.84
4	Affective Commitment	0.80
5	Turnover Intention	0.79
6	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.96
7	Task Performance	0.82
8	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	0.90

6.2.2 Factor analyses

Before conducting a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the psychometric properties of constructs and then starting hypothesis testing with structural equation modeling; exploratory factor analyses are carried out for the constructs, to examine their dimensionality.

As a preliminary step for factor analyses, the constructs in the study are tested for their normality. Normality is checked by examining the statistical value (z) for skewness and kurtosis as well as the significance of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality (please refer to Table 12 in Appendix F for the relevant (z) and significance values for the assessment of normality). It is seen that none of the constructs meet normality assumption in Kolmogorov-Smirnov. However, some of the constructs such as empowering leadership, and affective commitment fulfill

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normality condition in terms of the z values for their skewness and kurtosis since they are lower than the critical value of 1.96 (p < .05). Taking the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test into consideration, certain transformations, including taking square root, logarithm, inverse, square, and cube are carried out which does not improve the normality. Therefore the factor analyses are continued with the original data.

In order to check linearity assumption, scatter plot of residuals (please refer to Appendix G) are examined. Null plot, where the standardized predicted values for each dependent variable constituted the x-axis and studentized residuals represented by the y-axis, shows a linear relationship between independent and dependent variables since residuals are randomly distributed with relatively equal dispersion about zero, and no strong tendency to be either greater or less than zero (Hair et al., 2006).

Another assumption of multivariate analysis, homoscedasticity, is checked with Levene test of equality of variances in which variances of metric variables are compared across nonmetric variables (Hair et al., 2006). To test this assumption, collar categories of respondents (blue or white-collar) are selected as the grouping variables and equality of variances for all constructs are checked among title groups. As presented in the Table 5, F statistics are nonsignificant for all but one of the constructs, representing that there is no heteroscedasticity problem in these constructs. Affective commitment has a heteroscedasticity problem.

Table 5. Test of Homogeneity of Variances.

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Empowerment	1.109	1	248	.293
LEB	1.242	1	248	.266
Job Satisfaction	3.815	1	248	.052
Affective Commitment	10.065	1	248	.002
Turnover Intention	3.424	1	248	.065
Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	1.426	1	248	.234
Task Performance	0.153	1	248	.696
OCBO	2.746	1	248	.099

Finally, in order to check the existence of a multicollinearity problem among constructs, independent variables of the study are regressed on the dependent variable, turnover intents, and collinearity statistics (i.e., tolerance and variance inflation factor) are examined. Tolerance value is the amount of an independent variable's predictive capability that is not predicted by the other independent variables in the equation. Variance Inflation Factor is the indicator of the effect that the other independence variables have on the standard error of regression coefficient. The results in the Table 6, indicate that tolerance values are lower than 0.9 however since VIF values are still lower than 10, it can be stated that there is not a serious multicollinearity problem among variables. In addition, condition index (18,577), which reflects the multicollinearity problem in overall model, is below the cut off value of 30 (Belsely, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980 in Maden, 2010). Collinearity statistics for each independent construct are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Multicollinearity Tests.

Coefficients[a]

	Model	Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	Empowerment	.703	1.423
	Empowering Leadership	.507	1.972
	Job Satisfaction	.642	1.558
	Affective Commitment	.581	1.721
	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	.715	1.399

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention

Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) are conducted to check each construct's dimensionality, and to further purify measurement scales before the validation of measures through confirmatory factor analyses. The primary purpose of conducting EFA is to understand the underlying structure (dimensionality/unidimensionality) among variables in an analysis (Hair et al., 2006). It is also important to check the appropriateness of data for EFA by examining both the *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy* (KMO) and the significance level of *Bartlett's test of sphericity*. A high KMO value and a significant Bartlett test reflect a high degree of intercorrelations among the variables and justify the use of EFA (Hair et al., 2006).

In all factor analyses, factors are extracted based on the criterion of eigenvalue greater than one and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) using Varimax rotation procedure in SPSS 21 is used. For measure purification purposes,

items that have low factor loadings (Nunnally, 1978), low communality, high cross-loadings (Comrey, 1973) as well as low item-to-total correlations (Dunn et al., 1994) are excluded from the scales.

According to the results of factor analyses, which are represented in Table 7, constructs, other than empowerment, empowering leadership, job satisfaction, and affective commitment, and task performance are unidimensional. Total variances explained range from 65.45% to 83.23% showing that derived factors explain more than half of the variance in the constructs. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy values, which demonstrate the appropriateness of data for factor analysis, are all at acceptable levels, exceeding the critical value of .50. Besides, none of the values in measures of sampling adequacy diagonals is less than the critical value of .50. Significances of Bartlett's test of sphericity are all significant showing that correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al., 2006). Confirming this finding, a hundred per cent of the item correlations are significant for all constructs in their respective correlation matrices.

Different from the general factor analysis findings reported in previous studies, which reported four separate dimensions of empowerment, only two dimensions are extracted in this study. The analysis results show that one item (item 8) has a cross-loading on the extracted two factors. Accordingly, this item is excluded from the measure. Items, which describe the meaning, and competence dimensions of empowerment in previous studies, load on a single factor; whereas one of the three items defining self-determination load on this, and another item on the other factor (the third self-determination item is item 8, which was excluded). Items of the impact dimension load on this second factor. Cumulatively all items accounted

for 71.12% of the total variance. In Appendix H, loadings of empowerment factors –both before (Table 13) and after (Table 14) the elimination of items- are provided with respective eigenvalues, variance explained, and cumulative variance explained figures.

Different from the general factor analysis findings reported in previous studies, which reported four separate dimensions of LEB, only two dimensions are extracted in this study. The analysis results show that three items (items 6, 7, and 9) have cross-loadings on the extracted two factors. Accordingly, these items are excluded from the measure. Items, which describe enhancing the meaningfulness of work, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints dimensions of empowerment, and one item expressing confidence in high performance in previous studies, load on a single factor (the remaining two items expressing confidence in high performance were items 7 and 9, and were excluded). The two items defining fostering participation in decision making load on the other factor (the third item about fostering participation in decision making was item 6 and was excluded). After these item purifications, cumulatively all items accounted for 68.03% of the total variance. In Appendix I, loadings of LEB factors –both before (Table 15) and after (Table 16) the elimination of items- are provided with respective eigenvalues, variance explained, and cumulative variance explained figures.

Different from the general factor analysis findings reported in previous studies, which reported a single dimension of job satisfaction, two dimensions are extracted in this study. The items with a positive meaning loaded on one factor, whereas the items with a negative meaning loaded on the other. Cumulatively all items accounted for 83.23% of the total variance. In Table 17 in Appendix J,

loadings of job satisfaction factors are provided with respective eigenvalues, variance

explained, and cumulative variance explained figures.

Table 7. Summary Information on Factor Analyses. *

	Number of Factors	Total Variance Explained	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Lowest Correlation in Measures of Sampling Adequacy Diagonal	% of Significant Correlations in the Correlation Matrix (at .05 level)
Empowerment	2	71.12%	0.892	0.000	0.832	100%
LEB	2	68.03%	0.874	0.000	0.69	100%
Job Satisfaction	2	83.23%	0.741	0.000	0.654	100%
Affective Commit.	2	72.20%	0.757	0.000	0.712	100%
Turnover Intention	1	71.16%	0.663	0.000	0.617	100%
ERS	1	78.78%	0.938	0.000	0.907	100%
Task Performance	2	74.25%	0.778	0.000	0.557	100%
OCBO	1	65.45%	0.912	0.000	0.891	100%

* After elimination of items based on EFA

Different from the general factor analysis findings reported in previous studies, which reported a single dimension of affective commitment, two dimensions are extracted in this study. The items with a meaning of personal "identification" loaded on one factor, whereas the items with a meaning of "belonging" loaded on the other. Cumulatively all items accounted for 72.20% of the total variance. In Table 18 in Appendix K, loadings of affective commitment factors are provided with respective eigenvalues, variance explained, and cumulative variance explained figures.

Different from the general factor analysis findings reported in previous studies, which reported a single dimension of task performance, two dimensions are extracted in this study. The items with a positive meaning loaded on one factor, whereas the items with a negative meaning loaded on the other. Cumulatively all items accounted for 74.25% of the total variance. In Table 19 in Appendix L, item loadings of task performance factors are provided with respective eigenvalues, variance explained, and cumulative variance explained figures.

Finally, item 1 of OCBO is eliminated due to a low communality problem. The communality of this item was 0,264.

6.2.3 Measure validation with confirmatory factor analysis

After the exploratory factor analyses and related item purifications, psychometric properties of constructs are further evaluated by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS 18. CFA is conducted to assess the reliability and the validity of the endogenous constructs in the study. In the first measurement model, consistent with the basic procedure in CFA, each item's loading is restricted to its priori factor and each factor is allowed to correlate with other factors.

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The fit indices of the initial CFA model are χ^2 (250) / df = 2,654, p < .01; comparative fit index (CFI) = .802; goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = .668; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .081; and root mean square residual (RMR) = .092. Examining the standardized regression weights and squared multiple correlation values, items with relatively low factor loadings (considerably smaller than .70, especially below .50) and correlations are eliminated. In Table 8, the list of deleted items along with their factor loadings and squared multiple correlations are provided.

Table 8. Summary Information on Deleted Items. *

Construct	Item	Standardized Regression Weights	Squared Multiple Correlations
Affective Commitment			
	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	0.452	0.204
	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.469	0.220
	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. (deleted at the second stage)	0.433	0.187
Empowerment			
	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	0.426	0.181
	My impact on what happens in my department is large.	0.483	0.233
	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	0.499	0.249
	I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	0.486	0.236
Performance			
	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	0.246	0.061
	Fails to perform essential duties.	0.311	0.097

* Deleted based on CFA-related reasons

After the item purification and the modification indices-related adjustments (based on the modification indices larger than 20), fit indices become χ^2 (250) / df = 1,586, p < .01, CFI = .948, GFI = .831, RMSEA = .049, RMR = .061; and can be considered to be within acceptable limits. According to Hair et al. (2006) CFI and GFI values should be greater than .90 to indicate good model fit whereas RMSEA should be between .03 and .08; and RMR should be smaller than .08. Contrary to

other multivariate analysis, nonsignificant chi square is desired in confirmatory factor analysis to confirm that observed and estimated covariance matrix is not significantly different from each other (Hair et al., 2006). The chi-square test is sensitive to sample size and the number of parameters in the model. Accordingly, given the high number of parameters in the measurement model, a highly significant chi-square may be expected (Hair et al., 2006). A $\chi2$ / df that is less than 3, is regarded as good (Gaskin, 2015).

All factor loadings that are shown in Table 20 in Appendix M, are significant (p < .01). As can be seen in Table 9, the average variance extracted (AVE) by all of the constructs are larger than .50 indicating the existence of convergent validity.

Discriminant validity, which represents the extent to which a construct is conceptually distinct from other constructs is attained; since the AVE values for any two constructs are greater than the square of the correlation between those constructs (Hair et al., 2006). The reliability of each scale is above .70. Table 9 presents descriptive statistics and correlations for all constructs.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics and Standardized Construct Correlations.

	Mean	SD	AVE	Reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Empowering Leader.	3.25	0.725	N/A	.891	1	.531**	-.150*	.358**	.446**	-.436**	-.200**	.498**
2 Job Satisfaction	3.33	0.810	0.522	.838		1	-.238**	.415**	.449**	-.560**	-.282**	.425**
3 Task Performance	4.14	0.625	0.581	.877			1	-.132*	-.161*	.124	.623**	-.198**
4 Affective Comm.	3.09	0.887	0.651	.842				1	.186**	-.318**	-.155*	.203**
5 Empowerment	3.82	0.839	0.637	.932					1	-.263**	-.293**	.278**
6 Turnover Intent.	2.39	0.827	0.590	.790						1	.107	-.400**
7 OCB	3.81	0.804	0.598	.911							1	-.035
8 Extrinsic Rew. Sat.	2.67	0.923	0.751	.961								1

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

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

Reliability scores are respective Cronbach's Alpha values.

6.2.4 Hypotheses testing with structural equation modeling

After the measurement models are demonstrated to be acceptable, structural relationships in the hypothesized model is tested using the structural equation modeling methodology in AMOS 18. Similar to the procedure in measurement model testing, a model is used for testing the general relationships in the model using the sample data.

Based on the regression weights section the direct relationships from empowerment to affective commitment, empowerment to ERS, empowerment to TI, and LEB to TI are left out of the model. After all the adjustments based on modification indices (both regression weights and covariances), the fit indices ($\chi2$ (250) / df = 1,650, p < .01; CFI = .924; GFI = .791; RMSEA = .051; and RMR = .084) for the structural model, show that the data reasonably fits the hypothesized model. Among the selected indexes, $\chi2$ / df, CFI, and RMSEA are at acceptable levels, and GFI and RMR depart from their critical values to some extent.

In contrast to our hypothesis, the relationship between empowerment and OCB is negative (p<.01). The relationships between empowerment and task performance, LEB and task performance, and LEB and OCB are also negative (all at a significance level of p<.10). This is why we wanted to explore whether all dimensions of empowerment/ LEB have such a negative effect on OCB/ task performance.

Wang and Lee (2009) investigated the "interactive effects of the psychological empowerment dimensions on job satisfaction" (p. 271). They realized that the "way one dimension affects job outcomes is not constant and additive but may be enhanced or suppressed by the levels of other dimensions or the combination

of other dimensions" (p. 290). Based on these findings, they commented as follows: "It appears the received view of the positive effect of psychological empowerment is overly simplistic and incomplete." (p. 289). Wang and Lee's (2009) approach made us consider an alternative scenario of analyzing the influence of psychological empowerment/ LEB on OCB/ task performance by decomposing empowerment/LEB into their dimensions.

However, in CFA, due to low factor loadings (<.50) of the relevant items, the second factor of empowerment had been left out of our model. This is why we only have a chance to decompose LEB into its dimensions during SEM.

As also mentioned in the factor analysis part, two dimensions of LEB appeared in our study. The reliability of the first and the second dimensions are .899 and .815, respectively. Only two items (items 4 and 5) defining fostering participation in decision making, load on the second factor.

After the dimensionalization of LEB and the modification indices-related adjustments, the fit indices ($\chi2$ (250) /df = 1,792, p < .01; CFI = .924; GFI = .808; RMSEA = .056; and RMR = .096) for the structural model, show that the data reasonably fits the hypothesized model. Among the selected indexes, $\chi2$ / df, CFI, and RMSEA are at acceptable levels, and GFI and RMR depart from their critical values to some extent.

The parameter estimates for the paths in the hypothesized model (without the control variables) are provided in Table 21 in Appendix N. The parameter estimates for the paths in the final model (with control variables) are provided in Table 22 in Appendix O. However, the influence of control variables are not listed in this table, as they will be discussed in detail next.

After the elimination of insignificant paths, the fit indices ($\chi 2$ (250) /df = 1,782, p < .01; CFI = .924; GFI = .807; RMSEA = .056; and RMR = .098) for the structural model, show that the data reasonably fits the model. Among the selected indexes, $\chi 2$ / df, CFI, and RMSEA are at acceptable levels, and GFI and RMR depart from their critical values to some extent.

The significant relationships in the final model with standardized path coefficients are presented in Figure 3. The influence of control variables of gender, collar, and education are included in this model, however they are not presented in this figure.

The results suggest that there is a positive relationship between the enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and employee psychological empowerment (β= .54, p<.001) (H1b is supported). Interestingly, the participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership is found to have a negative impact on empowerment (β= -.147, p<.05) (H1a is not supported).
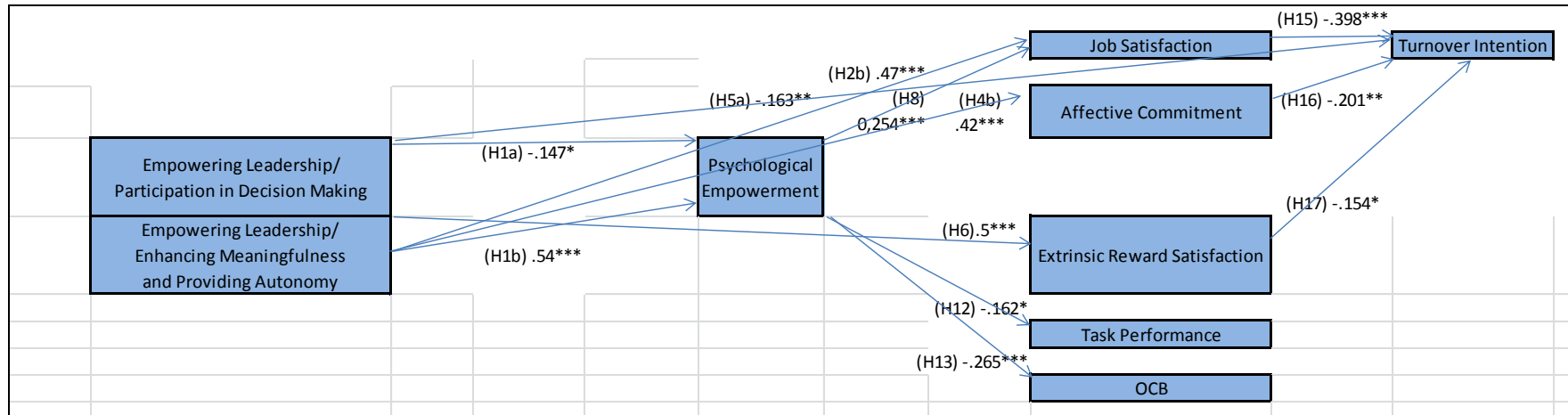
***. Significant at the 0.001 level

**. Significant at the 0.01 level

*. Significant at the 0.05 level

Figure 3. The significant relationships in the final model with standardized path coefficients.

Moreover, there are direct positive relationships between the enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and job satisfaction (β=.47, p<.001), the same dimension of empowering leadership and affective commitment (β=.42, p<.001), and between empowering leadership (as a construct) and extrinsic reward satisfaction (β=.5, p<.001).

H8 is supported as a positive relationship is found between empowerment and job satisfaction (β=.254, p<.001).

Contrary to our hypothesis (H9), empowerment does not have a significant effect on affective commitment.

As to the relationship between empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior directed to the organization, our hypothesis (H13) found no support. There is a significant negative effect of empowerment on OCBO (β=-.265, p<.001). There is also a negative relationship between empowerment and task performance (β=-.162, p<.05) (H12 is not supported).

Our hypothesis 13 (H14) is not supported, as there is no direct significant relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intention. However, there is a negative relationship between participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership and turnover intention (β=-.163, p<.01) (H5a is supported).

As hypothesized (H15), there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (β=-.398, p<.001). Similarly, the relationship between affective commitment to organization and turnover intention is negative and significant; supporting our hypothesis (H16) (β=-.201, p<.01).

The relationship between empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction does not support our hypothesis (H10). There is no significant relationship between these two constructs.

As hypothesized (H17), there is a negative relationship between extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention (β=-.154, p<.05). Moreover, as can be seen in the above-reported coefficients and the relevant significance levels, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is stronger than the relationship between extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention (H18 is supported).

H11 is also supported, which can be detected from the results reported above. The significant positive relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction is stronger than the (insignificant) relationship between empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction.

In order to measure the influence of the control variables, new categorical variables are computed.

The parameter estimates for the demographic control variables of gender, collar, and education that has significant influence on the dependent variables in the final Amos model, are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. The Parameter Estimates for the Demographic Control Variables of

Gender, Collar, and Education. *

Path			Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	P
Gender: woman (when compared to man)	=>	OCB	-0.334	-0.193	0.003
Collar: Blue (when compared to white-collar)	=>	OCB	0.254	0.167	0.008
Gender: woman (when compared to man)	=>	Performance	-0.241	-0.197	0.004

* Only the relationships that are statistically significant in the final Amos model

6.2.5 Mediating effects

According to Hair et al. (2006), given an independent, a potential mediating, and a

dependent construct; the following steps can be followed to evaluate mediation:

1.   Check to see that

    a) The independent construct is related to the dependent construct (significant

        correlation)

    b) The independent construct is related to the potential mediating construct

        (significant correlation)

    c) The potential mediating construct is related to the dependent construct

        (significant correlation)

2.   If the relationship between the independent construct and the dependent

       construct, remains significant and unchanged once the potential mediating

       construct is included in the model as an additional predictor, then mediation

       is not supported.

3.   If the relationship between the independent construct and the dependent

       construct is reduced but remains significant when the potential mediating

construct is included as an additional predictor, then partial mediation is supported.

4.   If the relationship between the independent construct and the dependent construct is reduced to a point where it is not significantly different from 0 after the potential mediating construct is included, then full mediation is supported.

Based on the regression and the hierarchical regression analyses (including only the variables that are mentioned in each bullet) carried out to detect any mediating effects, we reach the following results:

- Job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between (both dimensions of) LEB and TI.

- ERS partially mediates the relationship between (both dimensions of) LEB and TI.

- AC partially mediates the relationship between (both dimensions of) LEB and TI.

- JS fully mediates the relationship between empowerment and TI.

- AC partially mediates the relationship between empowerment and TI.

- ERS fully mediates the relationship between empowerment and TI.

- Empowerment partially mediates the relationship between (both dimensions of) empowering leadership and job satisfaction.

- Empowerment partially mediates the relationship between the participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership and ERS.

- There is no mediation of empowerment between the enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and ERS.

- There is no mediation of empowerment between the enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and AC.

- Empowerment partially mediates the relationship between the participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership and AC.

  The relevant analyses results are available in Table 23 in Appendix P.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to find out, in a Turkish sample, the effect of supervisors' behavior on empowerment perceptions of employees, and the influence of these perceptions on employee attitudes and behavior. Therefore, this study aims to add value by demonstrating both that supervisors may have a strong positive influence on psychological empowerment of their employees, and that empowered employees may have more positive work-related attitudes and behavior.

Moreover, we aim to compare the impact of empowerment on job satisfaction versus extrinsic reward satisfaction, and the impact of job satisfaction versus extrinsic reward satisfaction on turnover intention. Compared to extrinsic reward satisfaction, we expect job satisfaction, which is more related with the intrinsic aspects of the job, to have a stronger negative influence on turnover intention.

In order to get deeper into the constructs of the study, a qualitative study, which consists of ten in-depth interviews; and a quantitative research that comprises a survey are conducted. Survey data are collected from 250 employees and their 19 supervisors who work in different firms operating in Istanbul, Turkey, and in different industries, and analyzed with structural equation modeling procedure in AMOS18.

An important finding of this study is the strong relationship between enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and empowerment. The following themes from the in-depth interviews also provide support for this relationship.

- When asked about the meaning/ importance of their jobs, respondents also mention "feeling responsibility and/or obliged to serve their supervisor and/or the owner of their company"

- From among the answers to the question "Do you think that you are competent at doing your job?" there are sentences that mention respondent's supervisor's thoughts, based on their evaluation of expressed appreciation, decisions of promotion, etc.

- In response to the question "Do you think that you have reasonable/enough autonomy in deciding how to do your job? Why? How?", a factor that is regarded as (in general, partially) hindering self-determination is, some requirements due to bureaucracy ("emir demiri keser")

- Moreover, among the answers to supervisor-related questions; the following items, which may have an influence on empowerment level of the subordinate, are mentioned: genuine/ warm supervisor, open communication/ honesty with the supervisor (+/-), supervisor's trust in you/ supporting you/ giving you a chance, feeling responsible and motivated as a result of supervisor's behavior/ approach, my supervisor made me like the job, my supervisor values me, shows me respect, asks my opinion (+/-), s/he taught me the job, my supervisor provides flexibility (+/-), we work harmoniously with my supervisor (+/-)

"Research posits that empowering leaders create a climate where employees feel inspired and self-confident (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Edwards & Collinson, 2002)." (Maynard et al., 2012, p. 1246).

Interestingly, in our study, participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership is negatively related to empowerment. This might be an indication of the resistance of subordinates towards "being responsible for decisions", due to its being considered 'ambiguous', 'an extra' and/ or 'a burden'. Here, we should also note that the dimension of empowerment that is included at the final stage of our analyses is 'meaning and competence'.

The impact of supervisor's behavior on subordinate's work-related attitudes, is unquestionable. Our findings indicate that the enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership is positively related to both affective commitment and job satisfaction; whereas the participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership is negatively related to turnover intentions. This finding may be an indication of approach-avoidance conflict towards participation in decision making. As explained in the paragraph above, it might be perceived negatively by the subordinate. On the other hand, it might also be a source of feeling honored, which in turn decreases turnover intentions.

A supervisor, who clarifies and enhances the meaning of work, who expresses confidence in high performance of a subordinate, and/or who provides autonomy from bureaucratic constraints, is highly likely to have a positive influence on subordinate's job satisfaction.

As mentioned in the literature review section, and based on arguments backed by social exchange theory, and empirical findings; we hypothesized that psychological empowerment would positively influence employees' affective commitment to their company. We also expected that if the supervisor demonstrates empowering behavior, her/his subordinates are more likely to have affective commitment towards their organization. Although, the relationship between

empowerment and affective commitment is not supported, the relationship between empowering leadership and affective commitment is supported by our data. Here, reasonably, affective commitment towards the supervisor may be supporting affective commitment towards the organization.

The relationship between empowering leadership and affective commitment is also supported by some of the statements collected in our qualitative study. For instance, in response to our question about their affective commitment towards their organization; some answered as follows: "I have normative commitment towards the company. My affective commitment is towards my supervisor", "His father wanted to change the industry of their business; our supervisor decided to continue with the current business after he talked to us about this issue.", "I don't have affective commitment towards my current company. I rather miss my previous job. I cried when that business shut down. We were working for much less money; but I miss the people. When I told my x-supervisor that I had financial difficulty, he gave me his own credit card!", "My real commitment is towards my supervisors; I am continuously learning from them.", "My affective commitment is completely towards my supervisor; she is the one who made me like the job."

Our results indicate a positive relationship between empowering leadership and extrinsic reward satisfaction. A supervisor, who clarifies and enhances the meaning of work, who fosters participation in decision-making, who expresses confidence in high performance of a subordinate, and/or who provides autonomy from bureaucratic constraints, may have an conceptually indirect positive influence on subordinate's extrinsic reward satisfaction. S/he might do this by increasing the salience of other aspects of/regarding the job in the eyes of the subordinate, and thus

pushing extrinsic reward satisfaction to a secondary position, which may lead to its being perceived more positively.

The most surprising finding of our study is the negative relationship between empowerment and task performance. There are several potential explanations about this finding. First, as noted previously, "some previous studies revealed that empowering leadership may arouse resistance (Maynard et al., 2007) … which in turn might hinder individual and organizational performance."

"Kirkman and Shapiro (2001b) provided evidence that team-level resistance [to empowerment] was negatively associated with team productivity (Maynard et al., 2007, p. 148). Maynard et al.'s (2007) "findings also indicate that resistance climates may have a pervasive effect on performance via what has been labeled the "satisfaction mirror" phenomenon (e.g., Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997). In other words, "it is quite possible that employee satisfaction is transparent, influencing customer satisfaction and thereby influencing organizational effectiveness (e.g., Schneider, Hanges, Smith, & Salvaggio, 2003)." (p. 166).

In addition, due to the high power-distance Turkish culture; although they feel psychologically empowered, subordinates may perceive displaying empowered behavior at work as inappropriate. Even when they don't have such a perception, supervisors may perceive empowered behavior as inappropriate; and may reflect this perception to their performance evaluations regarding those subordinates. Robert et al. (2000) "In more vertical national cultures, those who are at the top are expected to take charge, to be in control, to give orders, and to know what is right. … A management strategy of empowerment emphasizing participative decision making may be seen as weak and ineffectual in vertical cultures (Mendonca & Kanungo, 1994)" (p. 645). In addition, Zhang and Begley (2011) mention that "In a situation

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where power distance is high, organizational hierarchies make decisions; people follow the organizational hierarchy rigidly and do not believe in initiating actions (Hofstede 1991; Newman and Nollen 1996; Sagie and Aycan 2003). In these societies, high empowerment of employees does not work effectively." (p. 3605)

As also noted by Meglino and Korsgaard (2007), "because the job characteristics model is relatively individualistic (considering the relationship between the employee and his or her work), … job enrichment strategies may not have the same effects in more collectivistic cultures that they do in the individualistic cultures." (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2007 in Robbins and Judge, 2009).

Moreover, supervisors who execute paternalistic leadership, which is common in our culture, may consider empowered subordinates as non-compliant. Then, such subordinates may be evaluated negatively by her/ his supervisor concerning their performance. In other words, full obedience may be expected from them; which creates a conflict with their demonstrating their empowered motivational state. This is why, future research that is based on objective measures of performance, is needed to clarify the direction of the relationship between empowerment and task performance.

Finally, an indirect support for the negative relationship between empowerment and performance may be provided by Huang and Van De Vliert (2003). These authors found that, from among 49 countries, wealthier countries, countries with stronger social security, countries that are culturally closer to individualism, and countries with a smaller power distance, have a stronger relationship between the intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction. One potential explanation for this finding is suggested by Robbins&Judge (2009) as follows: "in countries with greater wealth and social security, concerns over survival

are taken for granted, and thus employees have a freedom to place greater importance on intrinsic aspects of the job" (p. 271). Based on the study conducted by Huang and Van De Vliert (2003), it seems appropriate to classify Turkey in the poorer group of countries.

Therefore, it is a meaningful effort to investigate whether empowerment has strong positive implications in Turkey. Here, it might also be reasonable to expect that sub-cultural characteristics of a sample, which may be reflected in color of employees' collar, may determine the direction of the results, towards either one of the suggestions mentioned above. However, our findings do not support such a difference between empowerment / job satisfaction / task performance levels of blue- and white- collar employees.

It is also interesting to find out that empowerment has a negative influence on organizational citizenship behaviors. Related to this finding, we can think of two alternative explanations: the first one is that, when employees are very highly concentrated on the meaning/importance of their own job, and have a high feeling of competence at it; they may mind more about personally doing their job well, and less about the image and success of their organization. The other explanation is related with the potential data collection problem, mentioned before (in discussion of our findings about the relationship between empowerment and task performance).

Satisfaction (here, also including extrinsic reward satisfaction) and commitment are attitudes that have strong potential to affect an employee's turnover intention. If you enjoy doing a job, you are happy with your salary, and/ or you have a sense of belonging to your organization; you rarely plan to leave. On the other hand, if you have significant reasons for dissatisfaction and you do not feel any connection to your organization; you search for alternative positions with an

intention to leave. In other words, it is often the case that attitudes are followed by an intention to behave, which is followed by behavior. Supporting this point of view, Tett and Meyer (1993), in their meta-analytic study, found that "satisfaction and commitment each contribute independently to the prediction of intention/cognitions"; and "intention/cognitions mediate nearly all of the attitudinal linkage with turnover" (p. 259).

Analysis results of our quantitative data, showed negative relationships between job satisfaction / affective commitment / extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intentions. Besides, in our interviews, most respondents have turnover intention, due to problems related with the job, supervisor, coworkers, company policies, and/or wages. And the common reasons why they are not planning to leave are, their satisfaction with their current job and/or conditions (including wages), their commitment to supervisor and/or organization, lack of alternative suitable positions in other organizations, and their waiting for the right time to leave. Finally, in our quantitative analysis, the strongest impact on turnover intentions is that of job satisfaction, which is followed by that of affective commitment, and extrinsic reward satisfaction. Tett and Meyer (1993) made a meta-analysis that supports our finding. "Based on aggregations involving a total of 178 independent samples from 155 studies, results showed that (a) satisfaction and commitment each contribute independently to the prediction of intention/cognitions; (b) intention/ cognitions are predicted more strongly by satisfaction than by commitment" (p. 259).

Out of the 18 statements recorded in response to turnover intentions related questions asked during the interviews, except 4 statements that are not related with any of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and/or extrinsic reward satisfaction; we think that the following 9 statements are related with job satisfaction:

- Lack of opportunity to do your job (due to your being a newcomer and needing more time to complete a duty, coworkers with tenure do not show patience for you to participate)

- Supervisor-related problems: her/ his attitude/ personality; lack of self-determination dimension of empowerment

- Coworker-related problems (their not being warm/ welcoming)

- Work overload and difficulty in self-development, due to hiring of non-professional personnel

- Problems about work conditions (work hours, physical and psychological conditions)

- Lack of interest/ enjoyment at the job

- Lack of appreciation; while thinking that being appreciated is the most important part of work-life.

- The job's being stressful, and tiring

- No time left for a private life, due to work overtime. I think that if you can't spend it with pleasure, there is no meaning in earning a lot of money.

Here, it is interesting to note that half of the qualitative answers to turnover intentions questions may be classified as job satisfaction-related. This is also in line with findings of the SEM analysis, which shows job satisfaction - turnover intentions relationship to be the strongest of job satisfaction -, affective commitment -, and extrinsic reward satisfaction- turnover intentions relationships.

Among the reasons for the respondents not to have turnover intentions, the following 3 statements may be classified as being related with affective commitment:

- Commitment to supervisor (due to reciprocity)

- Being used to the current work environment, and finding it difficult to adapt to a new one.

- Enjoying the current work environment

Again, in response to turnover intentions related questions, the following 2 statements are related with extrinsic reward satisfaction:

- Need for a higher wage

- The thought of getting paid much less than the amount you deserve

The positive relationship found between empowerment and job satisfaction is quite easy to interpret. Other things being equal, an employee who finds more meaning in her/his job, thinks that s/he is more competent in carrying it out, has more impact in her/his unit, and has more room for self-determination; is more likely to be more satisfied with the job.

The following themes from our in-depth interviews also provide support for the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction.

When asked about the meaning/ importance of their jobs, respondents mention:

- The respect they feel towards/ the importance and/or meaning they attach to their job/ profession. The greater good that they think their job serves (for example: drug representatives' mentioning "people's health")

- The positive feelings (love, interest, pleasure, happiness, joy, enthusiasm, creativity, relaxation/ getting rid of stress) they have while carrying out their job

When asked "Are you satisfied with your job? What are the reasons behind this satisfaction level?"; regarding the job itself, the following is mentioned: "feels happy, likes the job, feels enthusiastic, recommends this job".

Still, an interesting finding is the strong relationship between empowering leadership and extrinsic reward satisfaction. As to this relationship, we can think of a rather indirect explanation. Being the parts of the same attitude- namely, 'satisfaction with rewards'; satisfaction with intrinsic (which may take the form of confidence of the supervisor) and extrinsic rewards may be reciprocally influencing each other. This may be due to the supplementary roles they play; as both of these rewards are formed in return for employee's effort, and both have a positive impact on psychology of the employee. In other words, an employee supervised by someone who enhances the meaningfulness of work, fosters participation in decision making, expresses confidence in high performance and/or provides autonomy from bureaucratic constraints; may have a more positive perception while evaluating her/his satisfaction with extrinsic rewards.

When it comes to findings about mediations, JS and extrinsic reward satisfaction fully mediate empowerment and turnover intentions. Moreover, attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and extrinsic reward satisfaction) partially mediate (dimensions of) empowering leadership and turnover intentions. In general (with 2 exceptions, where no mediation was found), empowerment partially mediates (dimensions of) empowering leadership and attitudes. Finally, affective commitment partially mediates empowerment and turnover intentions.

According to our control variables-related findings, education does not have a significant impact. On the other hand, women are evaluated by their supervisors as demonstrating lower task performance and lower organizational citizenship behaviors. Finally, Blue-collar employees are evaluated by their supervisors as demonstrating higher organizational citizenship behaviors.

7.1 Theoretical implications

The results of this study have prominent implications for leadership, empowerment, and employee attitudes/ behavior literatures.

As a role-model, a supervisor is in a suitable position for clarifying and enhancing the meaning in a subordinate's job. Moreover, based on Social Cognitive Theory, supervisors can use *verbal persuasion* and express their acknowledgment, appreciation and/or encouragement to persuade their subordinates about their performance potential. This can also be supported by asking for the subordinate's opinion, fostering her/his participation in decision making, and providing her/him autonomy for determining how to carry out her/his job. It is known by experience, how highly influential a supervisor is, on a subordinate's perception of her/ his competence. Therefore, based on these reasonings, and as the dimensions of the two constructs (empowering leadership and psychological empowerment) are highly parallel; a supervisor who displays empowering leadership is theoretically likely to positively affect psychological empowerment of her/his subordinates.

Furthermore, the direct relationships between empowering leader behavior and employee attitudes contribute to leadership literature. A supervisor who scores higher in enhancing the meaningfulness of subordinate's work, expressing confidence in her/his high performance, and providing her/him autonomy from bureaucratic constraints; leads to higher job satisfaction, and affective commitment (to organization) of her/ his subordinates. In addition, fostering participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership leads to lower turnover intentions, and empowering leadership (as a construct) leads to higher extrinsic reward satisfaction.

Our findings provide support for the common relationship between empowerment and JS. On the other hand, no significant relationship is found between empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction. Therefore, as expected, the impact of empowerment on job satisfaction is stronger than that on extrinsic reward satisfaction. This result may be interpreted as an evidence of intrinsic factors' (here, mostly meaning and competence dimensions of empowerment) leading to satisfaction with more intrinsic (rather than extrinsic) aspects of the job.

Finally, a part of Equity Theory can be utilized to explain this finding. As mentioned in the theoretical framework section, Equity Theory suggests that employees compare their input-outcome ratios with that of their colleagues. When they see these ratios as unequal, they experience tension (either in form of anger, when one feels self as under rewarded; or guilt, when over rewarded). There may also be a balance (a subjective fair point in the mind of the employee) between individual input and outcome, without any comparison with that of colleagues. It may be that when an employee perceives her/ himself as having meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact, the outcome part of her/his input-outcome ratio increases and the ratio moves towards the balance point; which may cause job satisfaction.

Although the negative relationship we found between empowerment and organizational citizenship behaviors is not an expected result, it constitutes a signal for further investigation. Spreitzer (1995) states that "meaning results in high commitment and concentration of energy (Kanter, 1983)". Competence results in effort and persistence in challenging situations (Gecas, 1989), coping and high goal expectations (Ozer & Bandura, 1990), and high performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984)." In light of these researchers' views, meaning and competence

seem to be more closely related with in-role performance. Then, we may interpret our finding as an indication of, high concentration in the core activity (of the job), which distances the employee from concerns related to the organization's image.

Next, our study also suggests that the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions is stronger than that between extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intentions. This is an important finding. It may be interpreted as a warning to organizations, which assume that salary is the sole driver for employees' intention to stay.

The progressive nature of Maslow's hierarchy of needs implies that, as the lower order needs are satisfied, higher order needs enter the scene. Extrinsic reward satisfaction is conceptually related with relatively lower order physiological and safety needs. On the other hand, JS is more related with esteem and self-actualization needs. As our sample consists of people who are actively working at the time they completed our survey; it seems reasonable to assume that their basic physiological and safety needs are satisfied, at least at a minimum requirement level. This, in turn, implies that they are likely to give higher attention to the satisfaction of their esteem and self-actualization needs. Finally, it is likely that the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the need they pay more attention, is more influential in shaping their turnover intention.

Finally, we have found a relationship between the enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and affective commitment, and no significant relationship between empowerment and affective commitment. Affective commitment is an attitude of an employee towards a person and/or an institution, rather than the job itself. This may be a reason why, in our model, it is in a relationship with empowering leadership; but not with

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empowerment. In addition, we have already mentioned while explaining the concept of reciprocation that, "people project upon organizations human qualities and then relate to them as if the organizations did in fact have human qualities. They generalize from their feelings about people in the organization who are important to them" (Levinson, 1965, p.377). This tendency might have caused our respondents' perceptions about their supervisors' empowering leadership, to be reflected on their affective commitment towards their organization.

7.2 Practical implications

This study provides important practical implications for organizations, supervisors and employees.

A meta-analysis of previous research (Seibert et al., 2011) has shown "strong relations … between individual-level psychological empowerment and job satisfaction and organizational commitment", and "moderate effects of psychological empowerment on job performance, and OCB" (p. 991). Our study indicates that, some of these relationships may also take the form of direct relationships between empowering leadership and the attitudinal outcome variables of job satisfaction, extrinsic reward satisfaction, and affective commitment.

For the attainment of higher job satisfaction, employees/ subordinates should try their best to find the meaning in/importance of their job and/or to choose a job in which they find meaning, to be/become competent in carrying out their job, to find out how to do their job best, and to have an impact on outcomes (departmental, organizational, and/or societal).

Supervisors, if they are willing to work together with a team of empowered, satisfied and committed employees, should empower their subordinates by enhancing the meaningfulness of their work, fostering their participation in decision making, expressing confidence in their high performance, and providing them with autonomy in carrying out their job.

In order to employ a satisfied and committed workforce, besides personally practicing empowering leadership behavior both towards the supervisors and the subordinates; employers/recruiters should try to employ/choose those supervisors who are able to empower their subordinates.

The relationships found between dimensions of empowering leadership and outcome variables, suggest that different empowering leadership dimensions may have a contribution on different employee attitudes. Therefore, supervisors should not only focus on a single dimension, but try to address all of the dimensions, if they are willing to work with a group of more satisfied employees.

Finally, given the strength of the relationship between empowering supervisor behavior and employee empowerment; organizations are recommended to pay more attention to supervisors' behavior towards their subordinates, and to consider rewarding leaders who can better energize their followers.

7.3 Limitations

The main limitation of this study is its generalizability. Whether the current results, analyzed with the data received from a convenience sample of firms from a mixture

of different industries, extend to other organizational settings are unknown.
Moreover, other characteristics of firms, like their age and size, are not controlled for
in our study. Future research may also consider such variables.

Another limitation is related to the sample used in the study. The sample
included 250 employees and 19 supervisors. Because of the complexity of the
hypothesized relationships, it is important to test the model with a larger sample of
organizations, both from other industries and within specific industries.

7.4 Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of supervisors' behavior on
empowerment perceptions of employees, and the influence of these perceptions on
employee attitudes and behavior. We expect to find that supervisors have a strong
influence on psychological empowerment, attitudes and behavior of their employees,
and that empowered employees have more positive work-related attitudes and
behavior.

Moreover, we aim to compare the impact of empowerment on job satisfaction
versus extrinsic reward satisfaction, and the impact of job satisfaction versus
extrinsic reward satisfaction on turnover intention.

In order to get deeper into the constructs of the study, a preliminary
qualitative research that consists of 10 interviews; and to investigate the relationships
among these constructs, a quantitative study with a cross-sectional design were
conducted.

Our findings provide support for the potential benefits of empowering leader behavior and empowered employees. The results of our analyses showed that:

- There is a strong relationship between enhancing meaningfulness- providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and empowerment. Surprisingly, the relationship between participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership and empowerment is negative.

- There is a strong positive relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction.

- There are strong positive relationships between enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and affective commitment/ job satisfaction, and a strong positive relationship between extrinsic reward satisfaction and empowering leadership (as a construct). There is a negative relationship between participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership and turnover intentions.

- There are negative influences of empowerment on organizational citizenship behaviors and on task performance.

- There are negative relationships between job satisfaction/ affective commitment/ extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intentions.

- The impact of empowerment on job satisfaction is stronger than that on extrinsic reward satisfaction, the impact of job satisfaction on turnover intention is stronger than that of extrinsic reward satisfaction.

- Women are perceived by their supervisors as demonstrating lower organizational citizenship behaviors and lower performance; whereas blue-collar employees are perceived as exhibiting higher organizational citizenship behaviors than white-collar employees.

Based on the regression analyses of mediating effects, the following are in harmony with our Amos findings:

- Job satisfaction fully mediates empowerment and turnover intentions.
- Empowerment partially mediates enhancing meaningfulness- providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership and job satisfaction.

In our study, empowering leadership turned out to be a construct that has considerable direct influence on employee attitudes. Therefore, it seems to deserve higher attention in future leadership research.

Mitchell, Ortiz, and Mitchell (1987) state that, "To the extent that motivation raises a worker's energy and shapes appropriate behavioral patterns, it plays a key role in determining overall *job performance*. Thus, *job performance* can properly be said to represent an operational measure of worker motivation." (p. 31). Given that empowerment is a motivational state, it is very important to study the details of the relationship between empowerment and employee task performance.

In addition, given the different empirical findings regarding their sign (positive and negative), empowerment- task performance, and empowerment- OCB relationships should be further investigated both in Turkey, and in other cultures outside the Western context.

It would also be interesting to investigate whether supervisors' higher perceptions about the organizational citizenship behaviors level of blue-collar employees, and their lower perceptions about the organizational citizenship behaviors and performance levels of female employees, hold in different industries and with more women supervisors (as evaluators).

As Walumbwa, Cropanzano, Hartnell (2009) point out, "organizational justice refers to subjective appraisals of moral propriety or appropriateness (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; French, 1964)." (p. 1108). Based on their meta-analysis, Colquitt et al. (2001) found results that support "relationships among distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice and several organizational outcomes (eg., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, evaluation of authority, organizational citizenship behavior, withdrawal, performance)" (p. 425). Assuming that some leaders may favor only some of their subordinates, future research can also examine the influence of employees' justice perceptions regarding their supervisors, on employee empowerment, attitudes, and behavior.

Amabile (1993) state that "individuals are extrinsically motivated when they engage in the work in order to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself" (p. 188). It would be interesting to investigate whether empowering leadership has different influence on employees, who are more extrinsically versus intrinsically motivated.

1. Do you work right now? Please summarize what your company does and what you personally do at your company.

2. Do you think that your job is meaningful/important? Why/how?

3. Do you think that you can/are able to do your job well? Why/how?

4. Do you think that you have reasonable/enough autonomy in deciding how to do your job? Why/how?

5. Do you think that you have an important impact on what happens in your department? Why/how?

6. Would you encourage your relatives or friends to join your profession? Why?

7. Are you satisfied with your job? If so, what are the reasons behind this satisfaction level? If not, what are the reasons?

8. Does your supervisor behave you respectfully? How?

9. What would you say about the quality of your relationship with your supervisor?

10. Do you think that your supervisor helps you understand the meaning/ importance of your work?

11. Does your supervisor foster your participation in decision making? How?

12. Does your supervisor express confidence in your high performance? How?

13. Does your supervisor provide you with autonomy? How?

14. What kind of changes would make you happy to continue to stay in your present industry/ company and/or work unit?

15. Would you be happy to spend the rest of your career with this organization? If so, what are the reasons behind this commitment level? If not, what are the reasons?

16. Do you have any intention to quit your current job? If so, what are the reasons behind this intention? Is your intention more strongly related with the characteristics of the industry, the company, the work unit, the supervisor, the coworkers, or the work itself?

17. If don't have an intention to quit, did you ever quit voluntarily before (from another organization)? If so, what were the reasons behind that?

18. How important do you think is your pay and promotion in determining your satisfaction and turnover intention? Explain.

19. Does your outcome (such as a pay raise, a promotion decision) reflect the effort you have put into your work? If no, what do you think about the reasons for this situation? Do you think that your supervisor has a role in this unfair outcome?

20. How fair do you think is your pay and promotion, when compared to that of your colleagues? Does this comparison has any influence in determining your satisfaction and turnover intention? Explain.

21. Are you satisfied with your pay level?

22. Are you satisfied with your last pay raise?

23. In general, are you satisfied with your pay raises?

24. Do you think that your supervisor has an influence on your pay? If so, are you satisfied with this influence? Why?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TURKISH)

1. Şu anda çalışıyor musunuz? Firmanızı ve firmanızda yaptığınız işi çok kısa şekilde özetler misiniz?

2. Sizce işiniz anlamlı mı? Önemli mi? Neden? Nasil?

3. İşinizi iyi yapabildiğinizi düşünür müsünüz?

4. İşinizi nasıl yapacağınıza karar verme konusunda makul düzeyde/yeterli bir özgürlüğe sahip olduğunuzu düşünüyor musunuz? Neden? Nasil?

5. Bölümünüzde olan olaylar üzerinde önemli bir etkiniz olduğunu düşünür müsünüz? Neden? Nasıl?

6. Akraba veya arkadaşlarınızı bu mesleğe katılmaları için teşvik eder miydiniz? Neden?

7. İşinizden memnun musunuz? Öyleyse, bu memnuniyetinizin arkasındaki sebepler neler? Eğer memnun değilseniz, bu memnuniyetsizliğinizin nedenleri neler? Bu sebepler daha ziyade sektörle, şirketle, birim/bölümünüzle, yöneticinizle, iş arkadaşlarınızla veya işin kendisiyle mi ilgili?

8. Yöneticiniz -genel olarak- size değer verir mi, saygılı davranır mı? Nasıl?

9. Yöneticinizle olan ilişkinizin kalitesi hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

10. Yöneticinizin işinizin anlam ve önemini anlamanıza yardımcı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?

11. Yöneticinizin karar almada katılımcılığı teşvik ettiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?

12. Yöneticinizin yüksek seviyede performans göstereceğinize dair güvenini ifade ettiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?

13. Yöneticinizin sizin bürokratik kısıtlamalardan bağımsız olmanızı sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?

14. Ne gibi değişiklikler olsaydı mevcut sektörünüzde, şirketinizde ve/veya biriminizde çalışmaya devam etmekten mutluluk duyardınız?

15. Kariyerinizin kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmekten mutluluk duyar mıydınız? Eğer öyleyse, bu bağlılığın arkasındaki sebepler neler? Eğer öyle değilse, bu düşük bağlılığınızın nedenleri neler?

16. Şu anki işinizi bırakmaya niyetiniz var mı? Varsa, bu niyetinizin arkasındaki sebepler neler? Bu sebepler daha ziyade sektörle, şirketle, birim/bölümünüzle, yöneticinizle, iş arkadaşlarınızla veya işin kendisiyle mi ilgili?

17. Şu anki işinizi bırakmaya niyetiniz yoksa, daha önce kendi isteğinizle bir başka bir şirketten ayrıldınız mı? Ayrıldıysanız, bu istifanızın arkasındaki sebepler nelerdi?

18. Sizce iş tatmini ve işten ayrılma eğilimlerinizi belirlemede maaş ve terfi ne kadar önemli? Açıklayınız.

19. Maaş artışınız veya terfi durumunuz, işiniz için sarfettiğiniz çabayı yansıtmakta mıdır? Yansıtmıyorsa, bu durumun sebebinin ne(ler) olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? Sizce yöneticinizin bu duruma etkisi var mı?

20. Sizce, iş arkadaşlarınızla mukayeseli olarak değerlendirdiğinizde, sizin maaş ve terfi düzeyiniz ne kadar adil? Bu mukayesenin iş tatmininize ve işten ayrılma eğilimlerinize etkisi var mı? Açıklayınız.

21. Maaş/ücret düzeyinizden memnun musunuz? Neden?

22. Son maaş artışınızdan memnun musunuz? Neden?

23. Genel olarak, maaş artışlarınızdan memnun musunuz? Neden?

24. Yöneticinizin maaşınız üzerinde bir etkisi var mı? Varsa, bu etkiden memnun

musunuz? Neden?

APPENDIX C

SURVEY QUESTIONS FOR SUBORDINATES

TURKISH

ÇALIŞAN TUTUM VE DAVRANIŞLARI ANKETİ

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Doktora Programı kapsamında Çiğdem Asarkaya tarafından yürütülen bir tez çalışmasının parçasıdır.

Çalışma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece söz konusu akademik araştırmaya hizmet edecek şekilde kullanılacak; başka kişi, kurum ve kuruluşlarla paylaşılmayacaktır.

Çalışmadan sağlıklı sonuçlar elde edilebilmesi için anketteki tüm soruların cevaplanması önemlidir.

Araştırmaya gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve yardımlarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Çiğdem Asarkaya

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, İşletme Bölümü

1. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
• Yaptığım iş, benim için çok önemlidir.					
• İşteki görevlerim benim için kişisel olarak anlamlıdır.					
• Yaptığım iş, benim için anlamlıdır.					
• İşimi yapma yeteneğime güvenirim.					
• İşteki görevlerimi yerine getirebilme kabiliyetimden eminim.					
• İşim için gereken becerilere hakimim.					
• İşimi nasıl yapacağımı belirleme konusunda, kayda değer bir özerkliğe sahibim.					
• İşimi nasıl yapacağıma kendim karar verebilirim.					
• İşimi nasıl yapacağım konusunda bağımsız ve özgür olmak için hayli fırsatım var.					
• Bölümümde gerçekleşenlere etkim büyüktür.					
• Bölümümde gerçekleşenler üzerinde epey kontrol sahibiyim.					
• Bölümümde gerçekleşenler üzerinde önemli ölçüde etkim var.					

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2. Lütfen şu andaki yöneticinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
• Yöneticim, amaç ve hedeflerimin, şirketin amaç ve hedefleri ile bağlantısını anlamama yardımcı olur.					
• Yöneticim, yaptığım işin şirketin toplam verimliliği açısından önemini anlamama yardımcı olur.					
• Yöneticim, görevimin genel görünüme nasıl oturduğunu anlamama yardımcı olur.					
• Yöneticim, birçok kararı benimle birlikte alır.					
• Yöneticim, stratejik kararlarda sık sık bana danışır.					
• Yöneticim, beni etkileyecek kararlar hakkında fikrimi alır.					
• Yöneticim, zahmetli işlerin üstesinden gelebileceğime inanır.					
• Yöneticim, hata yaptığımda bile, gelişim göstereceğime inanır.					
• Yöneticim, yüksek seviyede performans gösterme kabiliyetime güvendiğini ifade eder.					
• Yöneticim, işimi kendi tarzımda yapmama izin verir.					
• Yöneticim, kural ve düzenlemeleri basit tutarak, iş yapışımı daha verimli hale getirir.					
• Yöneticim, önemli kararları hızlı bir şekilde almama izin verir.					

3. Lütfen yapmakta olduğunuz işi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
• İşimin oldukça sevimsiz bir iş olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
• Şu anki işimden oldukça memnunum.					
• Çoğu zaman işimle ilgili heves doluyum.					
• Her iş günü bana asla bitmeyecekmiş gibi geliyor.					
• İşimden gerçekten zevk alıyorum.					

4. Lütfen çalıştığınız kurumla ilgili olarak aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
☐ Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.					
☐ Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir "aitlik" hissim yok.					
☐ Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.					
☐ Bu kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.					
☐ Bu kuruma kendimi "duygusal olarak bağlı" hissetmiyorum.					
☐ Kendimi kurumumda "ailenin bir parçası" gibi hissetmiyorum.					

5. İşinizi ne sıklıkta BIRAKMAYI düşünürsünüz?

A) Asla   B) Nadiren   C) Bazen   D) Sık sık   E) Sürekli

6. GELECEK BİRKAÇ AY İÇİNDE işinizi BIRAKMANIZIN olasılığı nedir?

A) Hiç olası değil   B) Olası değil   C) Ne olası, ne olası değil

D) Olası   E) Çok olası

7. Her şeyi göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda işinizi BIRAKMAK ne derece arzu edilir bir şeydir?

A) Çok arzu edilir bir şeydir

B) Arzu edilir bir şeydir

C) Tarafsızım; ne arzu edilir ne de edilmez bir şeydir

D) Arzu edilmez bir şeydir

E) Hiç arzu edilmez bir şeydir

8. Aşağıdaki ifadeler, işyerinizden aldığınız ücretin çeşitli yönlerini tarif etmektedir. Lütfen her ifade için, ücretinize ilişkin olarak ne kadar tatmin olmuş/olmamış hissettiğinize karar verip, hissiyatınızı en iyi anlatan cevabı işaretleyin.

	Çok memnuniyetsizim	Memnuniyetsizim	Ne memnunum ne memnuniyetsizim	Memunum	Çok memnunum
☐ Net maaşım					
☐ En son ücret artışım					
☐ Yöneticmin maaşım üzerindeki etkisi					
☐ Şu anki maaşım					
☐ Genel olarak geçmişteki ücret artışlarım					
☐ Toplam ücret düzeyim					
☐ Ücret artışlarımın nasıl belirlendiği					
☐ Mevcut maaş düzeyim					

9. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın _____

Erkek _____

10. Yaşınız: _____

11. Medeni durumunuz: A) Evli   B) Bekar

12. Çocuğunuz var mı?   A) Evet   B) Hayır

13. En son bitirdiğiniz okul:

İlkokul _____

Ortaokul _____

Lise _____

2 yıllık üniversite
(Önlisans, Meslek Yüksek Okulu) _____

4 yıllık üniversite (Lisans) _____

Yüksek lisans (Master) _____

Doktora _____

14. Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumdaki bölümünüz/departmanınız:

_____

15. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız?

A) 0 – 3 yıl   B) 3 – 6 yıl   C) 6 – 9 yıl   D) 9-12 yıl   E) 12-15 yıl

F) 15-18 yıl   G) 18-21 yıl   H) > 21 yıl

16. Şu an çalışmakta olduğunuz sektörde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

A) 0 – 3 yıl   B) 3 – 6 yıl   C) 6 – 9 yıl   D) 9-12 yıl   E) 12-15 yıl

F) 15-18 yıl   G) 18-21 yıl   H) > 21 yıl

17. Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

A) 0 – 3 yıl   B) 3 – 6 yıl   C) 6 – 9 yıl   D) 9-12 yıl   E) 12-15 yıl

F) 15-18 yıl   G) 18-21 yıl   H) > 21 yıl

EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS SURVEY

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire is prepared by Çiğdem Asarkaya as a part of her dissertation in her PHD program at Boğaziçi University, Department of Management.

Data collected throughout this study will be used for scientific purposes and will not be shared with third parties.

In order to get accurate results from the study, all questions should be answered.

Thank you for your help and interest,

Çiğdem Asarkaya

Boğaziçi University, Department of Management

1. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The work I do is very important to me.					
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.					
The work I do is meaningful to me .					
I am confident about my ability to do my job.					
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.					
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.					
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.					
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.					
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.					
My impact on what happens in my department is large.					
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.					
I have significant influence over what happens in my department.					

2. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements considering your current supervisor.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.					
My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.					
My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.					
My manager makes many decision together with me.					
My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.					
My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me.					
My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.					
My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.					
My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level.					
My manager allows me to do my job my way.					
My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.					
My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly.					

3. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements about your job.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I consider my job rather unpleasant.					
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.					
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.					
Each day of work seems like it will never end.					
I find real enjoyment in my work.					

4. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements with respect to the organization that you work for.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.					
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.					
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.					
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					

5. How often do you consider quitting your job?

   A) Never B) Rarely C) Sometimes D) Often E) Continuously

6. What is the probability of you quitting your job within next few months?

   A) Not at all probable B) Not probable C) Neither probable, nor unprobable

   D) Probable E) Very probable

7. If you consider everything, how desirable is it to quit your job?

   A) Very desirable B) Desirable C) Neutral; neither desirable, nor undesirable

   D) Undesirable E) Not at all desirable

8. The statements below describe various aspects of your pay. For each statement, decide how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your pay, and choose the option that best indicates your feeling.

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither Dissatisfied nor Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
My take-home pay					
My most recent raise					
Influence my supervisor has on my pay					
My current salary					
The raises I have typically received in the past					
My overall level of pay					
How my raises are determined					
Size of my current salary					

9. Gender: Female _____ Male _____

10. Age: _____

11. Marital Status: Married _____ Single _____

12. Do you have children?   A) Yes   B) No

13. Your last graduation:

    Primary school   _____

    Secondary school   _____

    High school   _____

    2-year University
    (Associate degree, Vocational High School)_____

    4 -year University (Bachelor's)   _____

    Master   _____

    PhD   _____

14. The name of the department/ division, in which you are currently working:

    _____

15. Total work experience?

    A) 0 – 3 years   B) 3 – 6 years C) 6 – 9 years D) 9-12 years E) 12-15 years

    F) 15-18 years   G) 18-21 years   H) > 21 years

16. Total experience in your current industry?

    A) 0 – 3 years   B) 3 – 6 years C) 6 – 9 years D) 9-12 years E) 12-15 years

    F) 15-18 years   G) 18-21 years   H) > 21 years

17. Tenure in your current organization?

    A) 0 – 3 years   B) 3 – 6 years C) 6 – 9 years D) 9-12 years E) 12-15 years

    F) 15-18 years   G) 18-21 years   H) > 21 years

SURVEY QUESTIONS FOR SUPERVISORS

TURKISH

ÇALIŞAN TUTUM VE DAVRANIŞLARI ANKETİ

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Doktora Programı kapsamında

Çiğdem Asarkaya tarafından yürütülen bir tez çalışmasının parçasıdır.

Çalışma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece söz konusu akademik araştırmaya

hizmet edecek şekilde kullanılacak; başka kişi, kurum ve kuruluşlarla

paylaşılmayacaktır.

Çalışmadan sağlıklı sonuçlar elde edilebilmesi için anketteki tüm soruların

cevaplanması önemlidir.

Araştırmaya gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve yardımlarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Çiğdem Asarkaya

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, İşletme Bölümü

---

1. Adınız- Soyadınız: _____ _____ _____

Size bağlı olarak çalışan kişinin/ astınızın adı- soyadı:

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2. Lütfen <u>yukarıda adı belirtilen çalışanınız</u> hakkında düşünerek bu kişiyle ilgili olarak aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
☐ Verilen görevleri layığıyla tamamlar.					
☐ İş tanımında belirtilen yükümlülükleri yerine getirir.					
☐ Kendisinden beklenen işleri yapar.					
☐ İşinin resmi olarak gerektirdiği performans şartlarını karşılar.					
☐ Performans değerlendirmesini doğrudan etkileyecek olan görevlerle uğraşır.					
☐ Yapmakla yükümlü olduğu işin bazı yönlerini ihmal eder.					
☐ Önemli görevleri yerine getirmede yetersiz kalır.					

3. Lütfen <u>yukarıda adı belirtilen çalışanınız</u> hakkında düşünerek bu kişinin davranışlarını en iyi anlatan cevabı işaretleyin.

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık/ Genelde	Her zaman
☐ İşinin gerektirmediği, ancak kurumun imaji için faydalı olan görevlere katılır.					
☐ Şirketteki gelişmelere ayak uydurur.					
☐ İş arkadaşları şirketi eleştirdiğinde, o savunur.					
☐ Kurumu toplum içinde temsil etmekten gurur duyar.					
☐ Kurumun işlevini daha iyi yerine getirmes için önerilerde bulunur.					
☐ Kuruma sadakatini ifade eder.					
☐ Kurumu olası problemlerden korumak için adımlar atar.					
☐ Kurumun imajını umursar.					

4. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın _____

   Erkek _____

5. Yaşınız: _____

6. Medeni durumunuz: A) Evli   B) Bekar

7. Çocuğunuz var mı?   A) Evet   B) Hayır

8. En son bitirdiğiniz okul:

İlkokul   _____

Ortaokul   _____

Lise   _____

2 yıllık üniversite
(Önlisans, Meslek Yüksek Okulu)   _____

4 yıllık üniversite (Lisans)   _____

Yüksek lisans (Master)   _____

Doktora   _____

9. Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumdaki bölümünüz/departmanınız:

    _____

10. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız?

 A) 0 – 3 yıl   B) 3 – 6 yıl   C) 6 – 9 yıl   D) 9-12 yıl   E) 12-15 yıl

F) 15-18 yıl   G) 18-21 yıl   H) > 21 yıl

11. Şu an çalışmakta olduğunuz sektörde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

A) 0 – 3 yıl   B) 3 – 6 yıl   C) 6 – 9 yıl   D) 9-12 yıl   E) 12-15 yıl

F) 15-18 yıl   G) 18-21 yıl   H) > 21 yıl

12. Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

A) 0 – 3 yıl   B) 3 – 6 yıl   C) 6 – 9 yıl   D) 9-12 yıl   E) 12-15 yıl

F) 15-18 yıl   G) 18-21 yıl   H) > 21 yıl

EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS SURVEY

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire is prepared by Çiğdem Asarkaya as a part of her dissertation in her PHD program at Boğaziçi University, Department of Management.

Data collected throughout this study will be used for scientific purposes and will not be shared with third parties.

In order to get accurate results from the study, all questions should be answered.

Thank you for your help and interest,

Çiğdem Asarkaya

Boğaziçi University, Department of Management

---

1. Name- Surname: _____ _____ _____

Name- Surname of your subordinate:

---

2. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements considering your subordinate, whose name is provided above.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Adequately completes assigned duties.					
Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.					
Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.					
Meets formal performance requirements of the job.					
Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.					
Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.					
Fails to perform essential duties.					

3. Considering the same subordinate, please indicate the answer that best describes the behaviors of this person.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.					
Keeps up with developments in the organization.					
Defends the organization when other employees criticize it.					
Shows pride when representing the organization in public.					
Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.					
Expresses loyalty toward the organization.					
Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.					
Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization.					

4. Gender: Female _____ Male _____

5. Age: _____

6. Marital Status: Married _____ Single _____

7. Do you have children?   A) Yes   B) No

8. Your last graduation:

   Primary school   _____

   Secondary school   _____

   High school   _____

   2-year University
   (Associate degree, Vocational High School)_____

   4 -year University (Bachelor's)   _____

   Master   _____

   PhD   _____

9. The name of the department/ division, in which you are currently working:

   _____

10. Total work experience?

    A) 0 – 3 years   B) 3 – 6 years C) 6 – 9 years D) 9-12 years E) 12-15 years

    F) 15-18 years   G) 18-21 years   H) > 21 years

11. Total experience in your current industry?

    A) 0 – 3 years   B) 3 – 6 years C) 6 – 9 years D) 9-12 years E) 12-15 years

    F) 15-18 years   G) 18-21 years   H) > 21 years

12. Tenure in your current organization?

    A) 0 – 3 years   B) 3 – 6 years C) 6 – 9 years D) 9-12 years E) 12-15 years

    F) 15-18 years   G) 18-21 years   H) > 21 years

RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR THE CONSTRUCTS

Table 11. Reliability Statistics for the Constructs in the Study. *

		Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	Empowerment	0.92	
1	The work I do is very important to me .		0.911
2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me.		0.911
3	The work I do is meaningful to me.		0.91
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job.		0.91
5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.		0.911
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.		0.913
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.		0.911
8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.		0.914
9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.		0.921
10	My impact on what happens in my department is large.		0.917
11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.		0.916
12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department.		0.917
	Empowering Leadership	0.923	
1	My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.		0.919
2	My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.		0.915
3	My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.		0.917
4	My manager makes many decision together with me.		0.92
5	My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.		0.924
6	My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me.		0.914
7	My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.		0.914
8	My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.		0.916
9	My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level.		0.916
10	My manager allows me to do my job my way.		0.919
11	My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.		0.914
12	My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly.		0.915
	Job Satisfaction	0.838	
1	I consider my job rather unpleasant.		0.831
2	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.		0.787
3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.		0.798
4	Each day of work seems like it will never end.		0.821
5	I find real enjoyment in my work.		0.788

*Before any item purifications

Table 11. Reliability Statistics for the Constructs in the Study (Continued)

		Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	Affective Commitment	0.795	
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.		0.787
2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.		0.78
3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.		0.773
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.		0.766
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.		0.735
6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.		0.733
	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	0.901	
1	Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.		0.911
2	Keeps up with developments in the organization.		0.891
3	Defends the organization when other employees criticize it.		0.882
4	Shows pride when representing the organization in public.		0.884
5	Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.		0.883
6	Expresses loyalty toward the organization.		0.88
7	Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.		0.882
8	Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization.		0.889
	Turnover Intention	0.79	
1	How often do you consider quitting your job?		0.627
2	What is the probability of you quitting your job within next few months?		0.693
3	If you consider everything, how desirable is it to quit your job?		0.823
	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.961	
1	My take-home pay		0.955
2	My most recent raise		0.956
3	Influence my supervisor has on my pay		0.961
4	My current salary		0.955
5	The raises I have typically received in the past		0.956
6	My overall level of pay		0.955
7	How my raises are determined		0.956
8	Size of my current salary		0.955

APPENDIX F

ASSESSMENT OF NORMALITY

Table 12. Assessment of Normality

	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov	
	Statistic	z value	Statistic	z value	Statistic	Significance
Empowerment	-0.694	-4.48	1.372	4.43	0.088	0.000
Empowering Leadership	0.014	0.09	-0.054	-0.17	0.101	0.000
Job Satisfaction	0.062	0.40	-0.105	-0.34	0.114	0.000
Affective Commitment	0.218	1.40	0.261	0.84	0.114	0.000
Turnover Intention	0.478	3.09	0.563	1.82	0.098	0.000
Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.096	0.62	-0.906	-2.92	0.097	0.000
Task Performance	-0.308	-1.99	-0.124	-0.40	0.074	0.002
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	-0.888	-5.73	0.818	2.64	0.102	0.000

SCATTER PLOT OF RESIDUALS
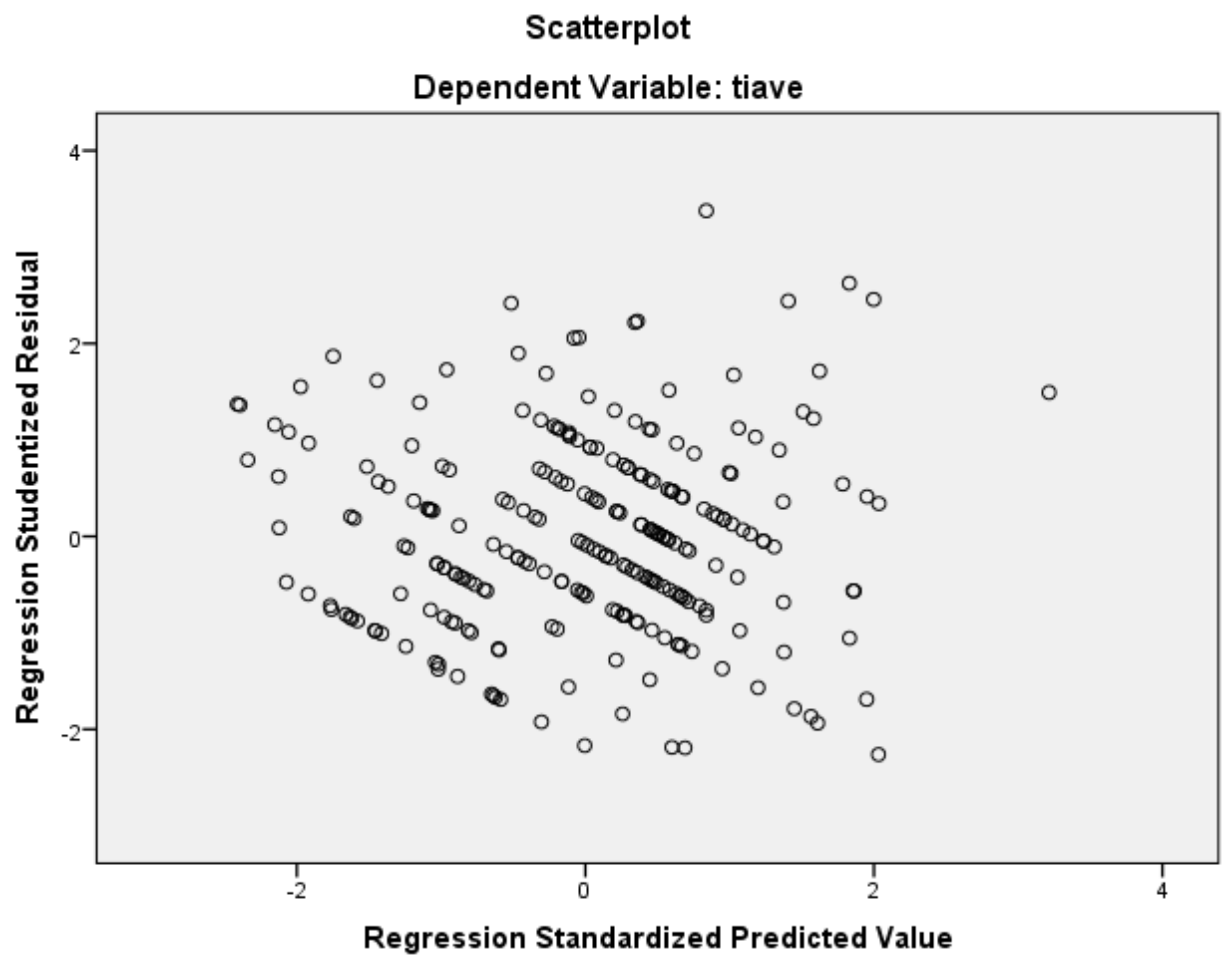
TI: Dependent variable; LEB, Empowerment, JS, AC, ERS, task performance, OCB: included

Figure 4. Scatter plot of residuals

FACTOR LOADINGS OF EMPOWERMENT ITEMS

Table 13. Factor Loadings of Empowerment Items (Before the Elimination of Items)

		Meaning, Competence	Impact
1	The work I do is very important to me (meaning 1).	.818	.202
2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me (meaning 2).	.793	.220
3	The work I do is meaningful to me (meaning 3).	.816	.229
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job (competence 1).	.874	.184
5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities (competence 2).	.849	.176
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job (competence 3).	.774	.218
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job (self-determination 1),	.775	.255
8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work (self-determination 2).	.575	.427
9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job (self-determination 3).	.210	.714
10	My impact on what happens in my department is large (impact 1).	.202	.843
11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (impact 2).	.215	.848
12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department (impact 3).	.217	.833
	Eigenvalue	5.156	3.137
	Variance (%)	42.965	26.138
	Cumulative Variance (%)	42.965	69.103

Table 14. Factor Loadings of Empowerment Items (After the Elimination of

Items).*

		Meaning, Competence	Impact
1	The work I do is very important to me (meaning 1).	.827	.215
2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me (meaning 2).	.802	.233
3	The work I do is meaningful to me (meaning 3).	.822	.239
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job (competence 1).	.875	.186
5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities (competence 2).	.848	.176
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job (competence 3).	.772	.215
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job (self-determination 1),	.762	.240
9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job (self-determination 3).	.203	.706
10	My impact on what happens in my department is large (impact 1).	.205	.848
11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (impact 2).	.221	.857
12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department (impact 3).	.218	.836
	Eigenvalue	4.845	2.978
	Variance (%)	44.044	27.073
	Cumulative Variance (%)	44.044	71.117

* Based on EFA

APPENDIX I

FACTOR LOADINGS OF LEB ITEMS

Table 15. Factor Loadings of LEB Items (Before the Elimination of Items)

1. My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.	.797	.061
2. My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.	.841	.155
3. My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.	.775	.156
4. My manager makes many decision together with me.	.237	.818
5. My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.	.084	.905
6. My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me.	.502	.665
7. My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.	.658	.471
8. My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.	.754	.261
9. My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level.	.613	.436
10. My manager allows me to do my job my way.	.613	.346
11. My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.	.724	.353
12. My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly.	.708	.362
Eigenvalue	5.035	2.840
Variance (%)	41.960	23.664
Cumulative Variance (%)	41.960	65.625

Table 16. Factor Loadings of LEB Items (After the Elimination of Items). *

	Meaningfulness, Autonomy, Confidence	Fostering participation in decision-making
1. My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.	.810	.067
2. My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.	.857	.140
3. My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.	.794	.149
4. My manager makes many decision together with me.	.276	.843
5. My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.	.128	.923
8. My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.	.754	.193
10. My manager allows me to do my job my way.	.628	.335
11. My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.	.739	.338
12. My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly.	.719	.336
Eigenvalue	4.139	1.984
Variance (%)	45.989	22.042
Cumulative Variance (%)	45.989	68.030

* Based on EFA

FACTOR LOADINGS OF JOB SATISFACTION ITEMS

Table 17. Factor Loadings of Job Satisfaction Items

		Positive	Negative
1	I consider my job rather unpleasant.	.214	.895
2	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	.879	.230
3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	.897	.157
4	Each day of work seems like it will never end.	.212	.899
5	I find real enjoyment in my work.	.862	.249
	Eigenvalue	2.413	1.749
	Variance (%)	48.251	34.975
	Cumulative Variance (%)	48.251	83.226

APPENDIX K

FACTOR LOADINGS OF COMMITMENT ITEMS

Table 18. Factor Loadings of Affective Commitment Items

		Identification	Belonging
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.109	.781
2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	.848	.024
3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.	.134	.831
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	.209	.803
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	.878	.220
6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.836	.276
	Eigenvalue	2.262	2.070
	Variance (%)	37.692	34.503
	Cumulative Variance (%)	37.692	72.195

FACTOR LOADINGS OF TASK PERFORMANCE ITEMS

Table 19. Factor Loadings of Task Performance Items

		Positive	Negative
1	Adequately completes assigned duties.	.859	.105
2	Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	.866	.078
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	.827	.061
4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	.818	.124
5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	.722	.163
6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	.085	.937
7	Fails to perform essential duties.	.157	.928
	Eigenvalue	3.394	1.803
	Variance (%)	48.491	25.762
	Cumulative Variance (%)	48.491	74.254

MEASUREMENT MODEL FACTOR LOADINGS

Table 20. The Measurement Model Factor Loadings

Serial (not item) numbers	Constructs: Items	Item Loadings
	Empowerment:	
1	The work I do is very important to me.	0.754
2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	0.716
3	The work I do is meaningful to me.	0.739
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job.	0.905
5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	0.890
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	0.798
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	0.762
	Job Satisfaction:	
1	I consider my job rather unpleasant.	0.475
2	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	0.869
3	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	0.844
4	Each day of work seems like it will never end.	0.459
5	I find real enjoyment in my work.	0.839
	Affective Commitment:	
1	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	0.672
2	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	0.886
3	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.847
	Turnover Intention:	
1	How often do you consider quitting your job?	0.874
2	What is the probability of you quitting your job within next few months?	0.791
3	If you consider everything, how desirable is it to quit your job?	0.616
	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors:	
1	Keeps up with developments in the organization.	0.679
2	Defends the organization when other employees criticize it.	0.768
3	Shows pride when representing the organization in public.	0.784
4	Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.	0.797
5	Expresses loyalty toward the organization.	0.831
6	Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.	0.801
7	Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization.	0.742

Table 20. The Measurement Model Factor Loadings (Continued)

Serial (not item) numbers	Constructs: Items	Item Loadings
	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction:	
1	My take-home pay	0.907
2	My most recent raise	0.852
3	Influence my supervisor has on my pay	0.777
4	My current salary	0.907
5	The raises I have typically received in the past	0.839
6	My overall level of pay	0.910
7	How my raises are determined	0.830
8	Size of my current salary	0.899
	Task Performance:	
1	Adequately completes assigned duties.	0.756
2	Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	0.755
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	0.776
4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	0.818
5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	0.702

PARAMETER ESTIMATES FOR HYPOTHESIZED MODEL

Table 21. The Parameter Estimates for the Paths in the Hypothesized Model. *

Hypothesis	Path			Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	P	Hypothesis Testing
H1: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee psychological empowerment.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Empowerment	-0.126	-0.159	0.015	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; for the other dimension, the relationship is negative)
H1: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee psychological empowerment.	Enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Empowerment	0.545	0.567	***	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; for the other dimension, the relationship is negative)
H2: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee JS.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Job Satisfaction	0.036	0.04	0.52	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H2: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee JS.	Enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Job Satisfaction	0.497	0.452	***	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H3: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee task performance.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Task Performance	-0.006	-0.01	0.897	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.
H3: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee task performance.	Enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Task Performance	-0.067	-0.096	0.277	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.

* Without the control variables

Table 21. The Parameter Estimates for the Paths in the Hypothesized Model (Continued)

Hypothesis	Path			Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	P	Hypothesis Testing
H4: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee AC.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Affective Commitment	-0.002	-0.002	0.973	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H4: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee AC.	Enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Affective Commitment	0.477	0.4	***	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H5: There is a negative relationship between empowering leadership and employee TI.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.109	-0.163	0.016	Partially Supported (Supported only for participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H5: There is a negative relationship between empowering leadership and employee TI.	Enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Turnover Intention	0.026	0.032	0.73	Partially Supported (Supported only for participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H6: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee ERS.	Empowering Leadership	=>	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.979	0.532	***	Supported
H7: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee OCB.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	0.045	0.056	0.445	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.
H7: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee OCB.	Enhancing meaningfulness-providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	-0.144	-0.147	0.081	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.
H8: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee job satisfaction.	Empowerment	=>	Job Satisfaction	0.305	0.267	***	Supported
H9: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and affective commitment.	Empowerment	=>	Affective Commitment	0.057	0.046	0.549	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.

Table 21. The Parameter Estimates for the Paths in the Hypothesized Model (Continued)

Hypothesis	Path			Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	P	Hypothesis Testing
H10: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction.	Empowerment	=>	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.053	0.042	0.547	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.
H11: There is a stronger positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, compared to the relationship between psychological empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction.	Empowerment-Job Satisfaction	vs.	Empowerment-Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.305 vs. 0.053	0.267 vs. 0.042	*** vs. 0.547	Supported
H12: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and task performance.	Empowerment	=>	Task Performance	-0.121	-0.168	0.041	Not Supported. There is a negative relationship.
H13: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and OCB.	Empowerment	=>	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	-0.247	-0.242	0.002	Not Supported. There is a negative relationship.
H14: There is a negative relationship between employee psychological empowerment and turnover intention.	Empowerment	=>	Turnover Intention	0.029	0.035	0.638	Not Supported. The relationship is insignificant.
H15: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.	Job Satisfaction	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.319	-0.431	***	Supported
H16: There is a negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention.	Affective Commitment	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.144	-0.211	0.003	Supported
H17: There is a negative relationship between employee extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention.	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.111	-0.167	0.015	Supported
H18: There is a stronger negative relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intention , compared to the relationship between employee extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention.	Job Satisfaction-Turnover Intention	vs.	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction-Turnover Intention	-0.319 vs. -0.111	-0.431 vs. -0.167	*** vs. 0.015	Supported

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PARAMETER ESTIMATES FOR FINAL MODEL

Table 22. The Parameter Estimates for the Paths in the Final Model. *

Hypothesis	Path			Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	P	Hypothesis Testing
H1: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee psychological empowerment.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Empowerment	-0.116	-0.147	0.023	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; for the other dimension, the relationship is negative)
H1: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee psychological empowerment.	Enhancing meaningfulness- providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Empowerment	0.518	0.54	***	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; for the other dimension, the relationship is negative)
H2: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee JS.	Enhancing meaningfulness- providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Job Satisfaction	0.516	0.47	***	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H4: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee AC.	Enhancing meaningfulness- providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Affective Commitment	0.501	0.42	***	Partially Supported (Supported only for enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)
H5: There is a negative relationship between empowering leadership and employee TI.	Participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.11	-0.163	0.009	Partially Supported (Supported only for participation in decision making dimension of empowering leadership; with the other dimension, no significant relationship exist)

* The control variables of gender, collar, and education are included in the analysis.

Table 22. The Parameter Estimates for the Paths in the Final Model (Continued)

Hypothesis	Path			Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	P	Hypothesis Testing
H6: There is a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee ERS.	Empowering Leadership	=>	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.959	0.5	***	Supported
H8: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee job satisfaction.	Empowerment	=>	Job Satisfaction	0.29	0.254	***	Supported
H11: There is a stronger positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, compared to the relationship between psychological empowerment and extrinsic reward satisfaction.	Empowerment-Job Satisfaction	vs.	Empowerment-Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	0.29 vs. insign.	0.254 vs. insign.	*** vs. insign.	Supported
H12: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and task performance.	Empowerment	=>	Task Performance	-0.116	-0.162	0.021	Not Supported. There is a negative relationship.
H13: There is a positive relationship between employee psychological empowerment and OCB.	Empowerment	=>	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	-0.271	-0.265	***	Not Supported. There is a negative relationship.
H14: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.	Job Satisfaction	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.296	-0.398	***	Supported
H16: There is a negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention.	Affective Commitment	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.138	-0.201	0.003	Supported
H17: There is a negative relationship between employee extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention.	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction	=>	Turnover Intention	-0.103	-0.154	0.018	Supported
H18: There is a stronger negative relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intention, compared to the relationship between employee extrinsic reward satisfaction and turnover intention.	Job Satisfaction-Turnover Intention	vs.	Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction-Turnover Intention	-0.296 vs. -0.103	-0.398 vs. -0.154	*** vs. 0.018	Supported

MEDIATING EFFECTS

Table 23. Mediating Effects

Regression	Adjusted R-Squared	Beta	P
LEB_Participation in decision making-Empowerment-JS			
1 Regress JS on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.053	0.237	0.000
2 Regress Empowerment on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.012	0.126	0.047
3 Regress JS on Empowerment controlling for LEB_Participation in decision making	0.247	0.447	0.000
Beta for LEB_Participation in decision making		0.181	0.001
LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy-Empowerment-JS			
1 Regress JS on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.305	0.555	0.000
2 Regress Empowerment on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.24	0.493	0.000
3 Regress JS on Empowerment controlling for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.354	0.259	0.000
Beta for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy		0.427	0.000
LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy-Empowerment-ERS			
1 Regress ERS on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.24	0.493	0.000
2 Regress Empowerment on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.24	0.493	0.000
3 Regress ERS on Empowerment controlling for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.238	0.046	0.473
Beta for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy		0.47	0.000
LEB_Participation in decision making-Empowerment-ERS			
1 Regress ERS on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.09	0.306	0.000
2 Regress Empowerment on LEB__Participation in decision making	0.012	0.126	0.047
3 Regress ERS on Empowerment controlling for LEB__Participation in decision making	0.145	0.243	0.000
Beta for LEB__Participation in decision making		0.275	0.000
LEB_Participation in decision making-Empowerment-AC			
1 Regress AC on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.031	0.186	0.003
2 Regress Empowerment on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.012	0.126	0.047
3 Regress AC on Empowerment controlling for LEB_Participation in decision making	0.054	0.165	0.008
Beta for LEB_Participation in decision making		0.165	0.008
LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy-Empowerment-AC			
1 Regress AC on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.131	0.367	0.000
2 Regress Empowerment on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.24	0.493	0.000
3 Regress AC on Empowerment controlling for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.128	0.006	0.924
Beta for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy		0.364	0.000
Empowerment-JS-TI			
1 Regress TI on Empowerment	0.066	-0.263	0.000
2 Regress JS on Empowerment	0.218	0.47	0.000
3 Regress TI on JS controlling for Empowerment	0.299	-0.549	0.000
Beta for Empowerment		-0.005	0.934
Empowerment-ERS-TI			
1 Regress TI on Empowerment	0.046	-0.223	0.000
2 Regress ERS on Empowerment	0.134	0.371	0.000
3 Regress TI on ERS controlling for Empowerment	0.159	-0.368	0.000
Beta for Empowerment		-0.086	0.169
Empowerment-AC-TI			
1 Regress TI on Empowerment	0.066	-0.263	0.000
2 Regress AC on Empowerment	0.031	0.186	0.003
3 Regress TI on AC controlling for Empowerment	0.138	-0.279	0.000
Beta for Empowerment		-0.211	0.000
LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy-JS-TI			
1 Regress TI on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.176	-0.423	0.000
2 Regress JS on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.305	0.555	0.000
3 Regress TI on JS controlling for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.319	-0.458	0.000
Beta for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy		-0.169	0.008
LEB_Participation in decision making-JS-TI			
1 Regress TI on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.081	-0.291	0.000
2 Regress JS on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.053	0.237	0.000
3 Regress TI on JS controlling for LEB_Participation in decision making	0.326	-0.512	0.000
Beta for LEB_Participation in decision making		-0.17	0.002
LEB_Participation in decision making-ERS-TI			
1 Regress TI on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.081	-0.291	0.000
2 Regress ERS on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.09	0.306	0.000
3 Regress TI on ERS controlling for LEB_Participation in decision making	0.185	-0.343	0.000
Beta for LEB_Participation in decision making		-0.186	0.002

Table 23. Mediating Effects (Continued)

Regression	Adjusted R-Squared	Beta	P
LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy-ERS-TI			
1 Regress TI on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.176	-0.423	0.000
2 Regress ERS on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.24	0.493	0.000
3 Regress TI on ERS controlling for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.221	-0.252	0.000
Beta for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy		-0.299	0.000
LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy-AC-TI			
1 Regress TI on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.176	-0.423	0.000
2 Regress AC on LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.131	0.367	0.000
3 Regress TI on AC controlling for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy	0.204	-0.188	0.002
Beta for LEB_Enhancing meaningfulness and providing autonomy		-0.354	0.000
LEB_Participation in decision making-AC-TI			
1 Regress TI on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.081	-0.291	0.000
2 Regress AC on LEB_Participation in decision making	0.031	0.186	0.003
3 Regress TI on AC controlling for LEB_Participation in decision making	0.15	-0.274	0.000
Beta for LEB_Participation in decision making		-0.24	0.000

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