

Empowering Leadership and Employee Motivation, Behaviors, and Well-Being: Enabling or
Burdening?

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Abstract

Empowering leadership has shown to be related to a variety of positive organizational outcomes, as well as positive individual outcomes for employees. However, some evidence suggests that there is also a burdening side to empowering leadership, whereby the increased autonomy and responsibility provided to employees can in fact be detrimental to firm and employee performance. The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of both enabling and burdening empowering leadership on employee motivation, extra-role behaviors, and well-being, while taking into account individual differences such as employee general self-efficacy and proactive personality. Drawing on the self-determination theory and social cognitive theory, this study proposes that empowering leadership will lead to positive behaviors, and reduced emotional exhaustion and turnover intention, through autonomous motivation, and that personality traits in subordinates will moderate these relationships. The data was collected using a short online questionnaire using employees ($n = 267$) from various firms across North America. Empowering leadership was positively related to autonomous motivation, and was also positively related to extra-role behavior, and negatively related to emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. Results showed support for the moderating effects of self-efficacy and proactive personality on extra-role behavior, emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. The findings of this study are relevant for the workforce, as leaders who are more aware of the effects of their leadership style will be better able to adjust their behavior accordingly in order to ensure their employees are performing at an optimal level, which will result in a more motivated and engaged workforce, and ultimately increased overall firm effectiveness

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Empowering Leadership and Employee Motivation, Behaviors, and Well-Being: Enabling or Burdening?

Introduction

In today's increasingly complex and cognitively demanding corporate environment, organizations are continuously improving their processes in order to become more efficient and effective, as well as to increase profits while reducing costs. The strategic management literature emphasizes the importance of leadership at all levels of an organization in order to effectively develop and manage vital firm resources, and argues that those firms with the most unique and valuable resources will experience greater success (Hitt & Ireland, 2002). In particular, a firm's human capital has been outlined as a unique and valuable resource in predicting positive organizational outcomes, particularly through improved performance and organizational citizenship behaviors of employees (Hitt & Duane, 2002; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Additionally, employee behavior is primarily determined by the behavior of his or her immediate supervisor, thus making leadership a key predictor of both employee performance and overall firm effectiveness (Lawler, 2009).

In recent years, there has been increased attention towards supporting the employees of an organization to help them operate at an optimal level, in order to increase the effectiveness of each individual at work, as well as the organization as a whole. Current research argues that this can be done by providing high levels of autonomy to employees at all levels of an organization, as well as by being in an empowerment-oriented culture, which forms the basis for an empowerment-oriented organization, and that leads to the development of organizational citizenship behaviors (Morgeson, Delaney-Klinger, & Hemingway, 2005; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). An empowerment-oriented organization allows the employees more responsibility as well

as the liberty to engage in a variety of tasks, which will have the effect of displaying their job-related skills and competence to their supervisors. Additionally, if this employee empowerment results in increased motivation and positive attitudes and behaviors in employees, it could give organizations an advantage in acquiring and sustaining a competitive advantage (Kim, Beehr & Prewett, 2018).

A common perception of leadership involves a person in power instructing and directing subordinates in order to achieve a common organizational goal (Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009). Empowering leadership, however, involves moving away from a traditional hierarchical organizational structure by increasing autonomy and decision-making authority in employees, thus increasing their responsibility, self-efficacy and risk-taking behaviors, and ultimately leading to improvements in performance (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Lee, Cheong, Kim & Yun, 2017). Empowering leadership has received increased attention in research and in practical settings as it has shown to be associated with a variety of positive organizational outcomes, such as enhanced creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010) and intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), improved performance of employees, increased job satisfaction (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010) and affective commitment, as well as a decrease in turnover intention (Dewettinck & Amejide, 2011). These findings suggest that leadership style, as well as the relationship between leaders and subordinates, is able to influence the degree to which employees identify with and are willing to stay with their organization, and how satisfied they are with their jobs, all of which have positive outcomes on organizational success.

Empowering leadership, however, may not always be beneficial. Some scholars have suggested that empowering leadership may have negative effects, and that too much empowerment, specifically if it goes unregulated, may result in deviant behavior or in detrimental

outcomes for employees and the organization for which they work (Forrester, 2000; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kim & Beehr, 2017). Other research has outlined that employee empowerment has inconsistent effects on employees, leading researchers to propose a curvilinear effect between empowering leadership and employee outcomes (Forrester, 2000; Lee, Cheong, Kim & Yun, 2017). Cheong, Spain, Yammarino & Yun (2016) proposed this to be a burdening effect of empowering leadership, whereby empowerment involves some loss of control by the leader, and if it continues in an unregulated fashion, it could result in role ambiguity or ignorance towards task performance of the employee, leading to detrimental overconfidence and a reduction in efficiency. These burdensome work conditions have also been shown to be a precursor to employee burnout (Kim & Stoner, 2008) and emotional exhaustion (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970), which are further linked to increased turnover intention and absenteeism. Cheong and colleagues (2016) further propose that disregarding both enabling and burdening aspects would result in an incomplete understanding of empowering leadership and its effects, thus making the question of when an empowering leader's behavior is perceived as enabling or burdening an important question for research and practice.

The research on the burdening aspect of empowering leadership, however, has heavily focused on employee performance, and so this study looks to extend the literature by considering its effects on additional employee outcomes. Although empowering leadership can have positive and negative effects on employee outcomes in the workplace, the research conducted thus far has not yet examined both positive and negative effects of an empowering leader on employee motivation, extra-role performance, and well-being (or ill-being) directly (Cheong et al., 2016; Kim & Beehr, 2017). Additionally, little is known of the mechanisms in which empowering leadership is thought to have these contrasting effects. This study aims to understand the effects

that empowering leadership has on extra-role performance, employee ill-being and turnover intention, and proposes that these effects occur through employee's work motivation. This research uses the self-determination theory of motivation (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004), which particularly emphasizes the role of autonomy in fostering motivation of the highest quality: autonomous motivation.

This research also posits that whether an employee feels enabled or burdened by their empowering leader will depend on individual differences in the employee (Langfred & Moya, 2004). This study examines the influence of perceived general self-efficacy and proactive personality in individuals on the proposed relationship between empowering leadership and the aforementioned outcomes. Self-efficacy has been referred to as an individual's confidence in their ability to carry out tasks in a successful and effective way (Bandura, 1997). Many researchers, however, have argued that this definition is too restrictive and has given the construct too narrow of a focus, which prompted further research, and thus created a delineation between task-specific and general self-efficacy (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001). The construct of general self-efficacy is more broad and encompasses an individual's performance across a variety of situations and tasks. General self-efficacy is considered more as a motivational trait, while task-specific self-efficacy is seen as a motivational state. General self-efficacy will be examined in this study as we aim to understand how individual trait differences influence the perception of empowering leaders on a variety of subordinate outcomes. An employee with high levels of self-efficacy may wish for more autonomy than an employee with low self-efficacy, suggesting that these individuals may benefit from having an empowering leader and be protected from the burdening effect that such leaders may inflict (Langfred & Moya, 2004). Proactive personality may be another relevant individual difference. Proactive followers, contrary to passive followers, tend to shape their environment in

order to ensure the accomplishment of their goals (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Employees with a proactive personality may take a more active role in managing the behavior of their supervisor in a constructive way that will limit the threat of demands to their psychological resources (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Thus, self-efficacy and proactive personality may be important conditions determining whether empowering leadership is experienced as enabling or burdening by an employee.

The purpose of this research is to conceptualize these relationships and expand the research on empowering leadership and motivation by examining the following question: What are the effects of an empowering leader on subordinate motivation, extra-role behaviors, well-being and turnover intention, and does subordinate personality matter? The investigation of this relationship can be used to help firms understand both the positive and negative effects of empowering leadership, allowing managers and executives to balance their authority and empowerment behaviors in order to contribute to effective firm performance and avoid negative organizational outcomes. The employees of a properly managed empowering work environment will also benefit from the right amount of autonomy and direction, allowing them to perform to the best of their ability but still within the confines of their job roles. The findings of this study will also contribute to the literature by offering a better understanding of the concept of an empowering leader, and a fuller range of effects that an empowering leader has on an organization. This study proposes that empowering leadership is related to the studied employee outcomes, and proposes that employee individual differences in perceived self-efficacy and personality play a key role in moderating these relationships.

Review of the Literature, Theory and Hypotheses

Defining Empowering leadership.

In today's fast-paced and ever-changing work environment, leaders have been facing increasing demands and responsibilities, and so leadership styles have thus shifted in order to become more ethical and people-centered, specifically emphasizing the well-being of employees (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015; Van Dierendonck, 2011). This is in line with the field of positive organizational behavior research that has been increasing in importance, which maintains that employees who are more engaged in their work and work environment will lead to more successful organizations (Van Dierendonck, 2011). In particular, leadership, as well as the interaction between leader and follower, is being recognized as a critical factor in increasing employee engagement and organizational success. In addition, organizations have been moving more towards a self-managed team structure, in which leadership and responsibility would be shared between multiple members in an organization (Lord et al., 2001). This became the foundation for the definition of empowering leadership, as it indicates how this leadership style promotes autonomy and self-leadership skills in employees (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010).

Empowering leadership is defined by scholars as a process of distributing power, autonomy and responsibility to followers in order to enhance the internal motivation of followers with the goal of increasing organizational success (Ahearne, Mathieu & Rapp, 2005; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015; Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009). Empowering leadership is argued to be an efficient leadership style, as it involves transferring power from top management to subordinates, giving employees the autonomy and authority to make decisions on mundane tasks, thus allowing upper management to focus on more important assignments (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Other scholars suggest that it is imperative for leaders to adopt empowering

behaviors as the role of leaders is becoming more challenging and demanding, and it is not realistic or feasible for leaders to make all decisions all on their own (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Furthermore, organizations employing empowering initiatives have been shown to outperform organizations who use more traditional hierarchical structures.

An empowering leader is therefore defined as a leader who supports the development of self-management and self-leadership skills in subordinates by providing the employees with the same type of power as possessed by the leader (Pearce et al., 2003; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). An empowering leader will engage subordinates in decision-making processes, emphasize their jobs as meaningful and express confidence in employees to accomplish tasks, as well as eliminate bureaucracy in the work environment as much as possible (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). This involves empowering and supporting employees in a way that promotes initiative and open communication, with both of these practices having been linked to individual performance improvements (Chowhan, 2016).

An empowering leader will also teach subordinates self-leadership skills through learning and by providing them with increased autonomy and responsibility. Learning can be generalized from Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, which explains how the behavior of an individual influences the environment they are in, which in turn influences the behavior of the individual through observation (as cited in Pearce et al., 2003). In the case of empowering leaders, the research has proposed that empowering leaders will model self-leadership and autonomous behaviors, which their subordinates will therefore adopt. Therefore, the behavior of the empowering leader will influence the self-leadership behavior in employees, thus creating an empowering organizational climate. These self-leadership skills and increased autonomy will allow employees to increase their role breadth by engaging in a variety of tasks, which will

demonstrate to their superiors their level of job-related skill and competence. Some scholars have argued that empowerment is able to increase employees' self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Bandura, 1977, as cited in Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). This will allow subordinates to believe that they are able to perform their job tasks in a competent manner, subsequently increasing their cognitive abilities, work-related skills, and ultimately improving their job performance.

Distinguishing Empowering Leadership from Related Approaches.

Empowering leadership can be distinguished theoretically and empirically from other leadership approaches. Based on a meta-analytic review of the literature on leadership, Pearce and colleagues (2003) have proposed that there are four distinct types of leadership: directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering. Directive leadership is a top-down leadership approach rooted in bureaucracy and that is based on legitimate and coercive power, where the directive leader will primarily influence subordinates using intimidation and command. Transactional leadership is dependent on an effort-reward exchange between the leader and subordinates, and is consistent with the transactional-transformational paradigm that has historically defined the leadership literature (Pearce et al., 2003; Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009). This is another top-down leadership approach, wherein the employees provide their efforts in exchange for a reward. Similarly, a transformational leader support subordinate development, but will attempt to inspire subordinates through the use of charismatic behavior and communicating ideological values (Pearce et al., 2003; Choi, Goh, Adam & Tan, 2016). An empowering leader, on the other hand, is focused on promoting initiative, self-management and self-leadership in subordinates by providing them with increased autonomy, responsibility, confidence, and opportunity for growth. The meta-analysis by Pearce and colleagues (2003) proposes empowering leadership as a distinct type of leadership, stepping away from the traditional transactional-

transformational paradigm. The concept of empowering leadership will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

Empowering leadership can also be distinguished from other positive and supportive leadership styles, such as servant leadership, participative leadership, and leader-member exchange (LMX). A servant leader is one who is primarily concerned with the well-being of their subordinates, and whose goal is to create opportunities within the organization to allow their followers to grow (Dierendonck, 2011). Essentially, servant leaders put the needs of their subordinates above their own (Liden, Wayne, Meuser, Hu, Wu & Liao, 2015). Although servant leaders empower their subordinates as well, it is only one dimension among others and is not the main focus of this leadership style. Empowering leaders will not necessarily create opportunities for their followers to grow, but will instead allow them the autonomy and responsibility to do their work as they see fit and to create their own opportunities within the organization. This will allow employees to see themselves as equals to their leaders, thus abolishing traditional organizational hierarchy. Empowering leadership is also distinct from participative leadership, which aims to include subordinates in decision-making processes, and leader-member exchange (LMX), which focuses specifically on the unique two-way interaction between leader and subordinate (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Participative leadership has been positively linked to various aspects of organizational culture, such as involvement, adaptability, and psychological empowerment, which includes feelings of intrinsic motivation, self-determination and self-efficacy (Bell, Chan & Nel, 2014). Empowering leadership is a broader concept that includes aspects of both participative leadership and LMX, as an empowering leader will include subordinates in decision-making processes as well as allow them to make their own decisions, typically increasing confidence in subordinates and resulting in a positive, trusting relationship between leader and subordinate.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Research has shown empowering leadership to be associated with beneficial, as well as detrimental outcomes for individuals and organizations. On the one hand, empowering leadership has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction and performance (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010), intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), self-efficacy and in-role behaviors (Kim & Beehr, 2017), and affective commitment, while being negatively related to turnover intention (Dewettinck & Amejide, 2011). On the other hand, empowering leadership has also been found to be associated with role ambiguity and ignorance towards task performance (Cheong et al., 2016), as well as detrimental overconfidence and a reduction in efficiency (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In the following paragraphs, the mechanisms through which empowering leadership has been proposed to exert its effects is discussed.

Scholars have proposed different mechanisms through which empowering leadership may impact the aforementioned outcomes. These include autonomy (Hocine & Zhang, 2014), psychological empowerment (Dewettinck & Amejide, 2011), intrinsic motivation (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), self-efficacy and psychological ownership (Kim & Beehr, 2017), employee resistance (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010), job satisfaction (Salam, Cox & Sims, 1996), knowledge-sharing and team efficacy (Srivastava, Bartol & Locke, 2006; Tung & Chang, 2011), creativity and intrinsic motivation (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), top management team behavioral integration and potency (Carmeli, Schaubroeck & Tishler, 2011), working conditions in the form of cognitive resources and demands (Tuckey, Bakker & Dollard, 2012), self-awareness (Tekleab, Sims, Yun, Tesluk & Cox, 2008), passion (Hao, He & Long, 2018), job crafting (Kim & Beehr, 2017), and leader-member exchange (Lee, Willis & Tian, 207).

This study focuses on the role of employee work motivation, and particularly autonomous motivation, as a mechanism through which empowering leadership affects employee outcomes. Indeed, employee behavior and well-being is partially determined by motivation, which, according to the self-determination theory, lies on a continuum from autonomous to controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Raub & Robert, 2010). This theory suggests that the product of autonomous motivation is behavior that is done freely and by choice, whereas controlled motivation, located on the opposite end of the spectrum, typically involves engaging in behavior that “has to get done” and that is dictated by external pressure. Controlled motivation also involves engaging in behavior in order to obtain a reward or to avoid punishment, such as doing a job simply because it involves a bonus, instead of doing it based on volition. Thus, autonomous motivation is considered to be motivation of a “higher quality”.

Self-determination theory further argues that the satisfaction of the three basic needs, which are autonomy, competence and relatedness, will generate positive work-related outcomes and will lead to autonomous, or self-directed, motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). The self-determination theory thus sees autonomy, competence and relatedness as essential nutriments for the survival, growth and integrity of an individual, and argues that they are innate characteristics and that they are universal across cultures (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004; Deci et al., 2001). The need for autonomy involves free choice and the initiation of one’s own actions, the need for competence concerns succeeding at relatively challenging tasks and accomplishing goals, and the need for relatedness encompasses interpersonal relationships that include respect, reliance and support. The satisfaction of the three basic needs has indeed been found to lead to autonomous motivation, and positive outcomes such as increased job satisfaction (e.g., Gagné & Deci, 2005), positive work-related attitudes, organizational citizenship behaviors, psychological adjustment, and well-being at work

as well as general well-being (e.g., Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe & Ryan, 2000), and job performance (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). In contrast, the thwarting of needs will have maladaptive consequences (Baard et al, 2004; Deci et al., 2001). We propose that by fulfilling the basic psychological need for autonomy, proposed by the self-determination theory as being the most important basic need, empowering leaders foster autonomous motivation in their subordinates, which in turn contributes to positive employee outcomes. Autonomous motivation would thus mediate relationships between empowering leadership and employee outcomes. Our reasoning is based on the fact that providing autonomy to subordinates is a defining factor of empowering leadership itself. We argue that empowering leaders can create an autonomy-supportive work environment which fulfills employees' basic needs and could thus foster autonomous motivation, and subsequently, organizational citizenship behaviors and increased well-being.

An autonomy-supportive work environment has been shown to be a key factor in the satisfaction of the three needs as defined by the self-determination theory, as well as an important contributor to physical and psychological well-being at the workplace (Deci et al., 2001; Reis et al., 2000). Autonomy support is defined as when a supervisor is understanding of and acknowledges subordinates' opinions and ideas, is able to provide relevant information and appraisals in a way that does not manipulate or undermine subordinates, and encourages autonomy, decision-making and self-initiation in subordinates (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004). Other researchers examining the self-determination theory have shown that a managerial style that supports autonomy in subordinates is related to several positive employee outcomes, such as increased task motivation (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004) and improved performance evaluations (Deci, Connell & Ryan, 1989). Autonomy is, in sum, one of the main components of the self-determination theory,

as proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985). Thus, it could be expected that empowering leaders, who teach their followers self-leadership skills, and allow them the autonomy and power to complete tasks as they see fit, would contribute to employees' autonomous motivation.

However, we argue that empowering leadership may not have this positive relationship – or “enabling effect” – with autonomous motivation for all employees. More specifically, we propose that two individual differences, self-efficacy and proactive personality, may moderate this relationship. This is based on the idea that the effectiveness of leadership styles is contingent on factors related to the employee and the situation. We elaborate on this below.

Contingency

The leadership literature provides little guidance as to when a specific leadership style would be most useful, however, no one style is applicable to all contexts (Lord, Brown, Harvey & Hall, 2001; Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009). Rather, it is suggested that perceptions of leaders and appropriate leadership styles are dependent on the social, cultural, interpersonal and task environments at hand, and must also be flexible enough to meet the constantly changing demands of the environment. Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Ahearne and Bommer (1995) list a variety of situational factors that could affect leadership style and how it impacts subordinate behavior, such as subordinate individual characteristics, supervisor individual characteristics, task characteristics, role perceptions such as role ambiguity, and organizational characteristics, such as group cohesion. Other researchers cite follower development, situational urgency, and task environment as the key contingency factors in the relationship between self-leadership and empowerment (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). The authors, however, argue that identifying meaningful moderators is like “searching for a needle in a haystack” (p. 422), although it can be seen that the detailed

identification of certain situational factors supports a contingency model of leadership (Yun, Faraj & Sims, 2005; Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009; Yukl & Fu, 1999).

Despite there being a variety of leadership styles defined in the literature, most leaders are interested in determining when a specific type of leadership behavior will be most effective in a given environment. Situational theories of leadership argue that different types of leadership could be beneficial in different situations, and some research has found that there are several situational factors were able to determine whether a work environment would benefit from an empowering or directive leader. Sims, Faraj and Yun (2009) studied situational leadership in the context of a trauma center, and found that directive leadership was used more in situations of high trauma severity and when an inexperienced team treated a severely injured patient, whereas empowering leadership was used more in situations of low trauma severity and when an inexperienced team treated a patient with minor injuries (Yun, Faraj & Sims, 2005; Sims, Faraj & Yun, 2009). They reason that an empowering leadership style is used to develop creativity and flexibility in subordinates, and could lead to increased long-term performance, self-confidence, development and innovation in subordinates. Additionally, an empowering leader was found to provide more opportunities for learning to their subordinates. However, the increased autonomy could lead to confusion, which is why this style of leadership is not used in emergency situations, especially with inexperienced employees.

Vroom and Jago (1988) argue that joint decision making in an organizational setting is more efficient than autocratic decision making when followers have adequate information (as cited in Yun, Faraj & Sims, 2005). Additionally, they suggest that when follower development and the promotion of team learning is important, leadership should be “follower-centric”. On the other hand, the research has shown that leaders tend to delegate less responsibility and discretion to

subordinates when decisions are important or sensitive, and that a heavy workload is a factor in the decision to delegate tasks and accept responsibility (Yukl & Fu, 1999). Other situational boundary conditions that could impact the influence of a leader's behavior on the actions of their followers, including task variety and feedback, task clarity, and the amount of advisory support available to subordinates (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne & Bommer, 1995).

Individual characteristics of subordinates and the relationship between leader and follower may also play a key role in determining whether a particular leadership style is appropriate for a given situation. These individual characteristics include locus of control, need for autonomy, need for clarity, and role ambiguity (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne & Bommer, 1995), as well as follower capabilities (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Yukl and Fu (1999) argue that managers will delegate more responsibility to subordinates that they perceive to be more competent and trustworthy, as well as those who they have supervised for a longer period of time or who they have developed a more favorable relationship with, as prescribed by leader-member exchange (LMX) theory.

Recent research, as was mentioned above, has proposed that empowering leadership has both an enabling and burdening effect on self-efficacy and job performance of employees (Cheong et al., 2016). The behavior of an empowering leader may prompt feelings of work-related tension, thus preventing employees from experiencing the positive effects that empowering leadership has to offer. This tension could arise through increased autonomy, resulting in cognitive distraction and interference from the task performance and subsequently increasing strain, or through receiving added tasks and responsibilities, which increases work role stress. Lee and colleagues (2017) provide evidence that the relationship between empowering leadership and employee task performance is an inverted U-shaped curve, indicating that empowering leadership is enabling up

to a point, after which it becomes burdening. Their findings go against the “more is better” mentality that has been previously associated with empowering leadership, arguing that either too little or too much empowerment can be detrimental to employee performance. It is proposed that the increased stress and tension that results due to an increase in autonomy and responsibility, as well as increased decision-making pressure, would result in a burdening effect from the empowering leader and lead to decreased performance (Cheong et al., 2016). Specifically, the literature has shown that role conflict and role ambiguity can precede emotional exhaustion in subordinates, which could lead to further detrimental outcomes for the organization as a whole. In this study, we contend that individual differences play a role in determining whether empowering leadership will be perceived as enabling, or will create job-related tension, and thus be perceived as burdening. Specifically, we propose that employees’ level of perceived self-efficacy and proactive personality will play a role in this regard.

Self-efficacy, which is an individual’s confidence in their ability to carry out tasks in a successful and effective way in a variety of contexts (Bandura, 1997), has been proposed by some authors as a mechanism through which empowering leadership could exert its effects. Self-efficacy was first described as an individual’s belief in their competence to successfully carry out certain tasks, given situational demands (Bandura, 1997; Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001). Additionally, according to social cognitive theory, self-efficacy is said to be composed of three dimensions: (a) magnitude, (b) strength, and (c) generality. Many researchers argue that the situational-specific nature of Bandura’s (1997) self-efficacy has narrowed the focus of research on the construct, centering on the magnitude and strength of self-efficacy but ignoring the generality dimension (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001). This debate led to the distinguishing of task-specific self-efficacy from general self-efficacy, which is a broader term to encompass feelings of self-efficacy across a

variety of situations and contexts. Self-efficacy is typically used as a mechanism through which empowering leadership exerts its effects, however, there are reasons to expect that general self-efficacy would play a differential role in empowering leadership as opposed to task-specific self-efficacy, which is why it is used in the present study as a moderating variable. For this reason, this study focuses on general self-efficacy, and any reference to the construct should be assumed to refer to general self-efficacy unless otherwise stated. Other researchers have also begun examining the role of self-efficacy as a moderator between two other variables. For instance, self-efficacy was argued to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and passion for work in one study, in which the authors proposed that high levels of self-efficacy will result in a positive relationship between empowering leadership and work performance (Hao, He & Long, 2018). The authors found that employee performance did depend on levels of self-efficacy, in which individuals with higher perceived self-efficacy exhibited higher creative performance at work under the supervision of an empowering leader.

There has also been a lot of research examining self-efficacy as a mechanism through which empowering leadership would be related to employee outcomes. For instance, Kim and Beehr (2017) examined self-efficacy, as well as psychological ownership, as mediating variables through which empowering leadership could impact employee in-role performance and deviant behaviors. The authors maintain that self-efficacy is an inherent aspect of motivation from the view of Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, under the belief that an individual's effort will lead to performance outcomes (as cited in Kim & Beehr, 2017). They argue that if an empowering leader's behavior results in increased self-efficacy and psychological ownership in his or her employees, the employees will be more willing to engage in positive behaviors, and less likely to engage in deviant or negative behaviors. The authors found support that empowering leadership did in fact

lead to increased self-efficacy and psychological ownership in employees, and furthermore, that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of in-role behaviors. There was also evidence of decreased deviant behavior, however, this was proposed through the mediating mechanisms of self-efficacy and psychological ownership, and did not relate to empowering leadership directly. Similarly, Cheong and colleagues (2016) also proposed self-efficacy as the mechanism through which empowering leadership is enabling on work role performance. The authors argue that high levels of self-efficacy lead individuals to put more effort into their tasks and initiation of behaviors, and also allows for these effects to endure.

While empowering leadership may contribute to self-efficacy, this study rather examines the role of perceived self-efficacy as a moderating variable in the relationship between empowering leadership and motivation. Specifically, we propose that for employees with low levels of self-efficacy, empowering leadership may result in job-induced tension, which would prevent these employees from experiencing the positive effects of having an empowering leader, while employees with high levels of self-efficacy will be more receptive to the benefits of an empowering leader and will thus be autonomously motivated in their jobs. This is related to the work of Cheong and colleagues (2016), who proposed job-induced tension as a mechanism through which empowering leadership is burdening on work role performance. They use theories of cost of autonomy (Langfred & Moye, 2004) and role theory (Kahn, Donald, Wolfe, Quinn & Robert, 1964) to argue that increased autonomy and responsibility provided by an empowering leader may contribute to job-induced tension, increase strain and stress levels, and prevent employees from experiencing the positive effects of empowering leadership. The authors also draw upon conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002) to argue that individuals who experience this tension and strain will attempt to conserve their remaining resources from

depletion, thus further interfering with successful performance outcomes (as cited in Cheong et al., 2016). Research also suggests that employees with high levels of self-efficacy wish for more autonomy than those with low levels of self-efficacy (Langfred & Moye, 2004). Cheong and colleagues (2016) found evidence for both enabling and burdening processes of empowering leadership, however, the enabling process was shown to be stronger than the burdening process. Thus study provides a solid foundation for future research to build upon by examining in further detail when empowering leadership is perceived as enabling or burdening, as well as additional outcomes that may be affected by the burdening aspect of empowering leadership. The present study draws on this work to propose self-efficacy as a moderating variable in the relationships between empowering leadership and positive outcomes. This leads to this study's first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) positive among followers with high levels of self-efficacy (enabling effect), and b) negative among followers with low levels of self-efficacy (burdening effect).

Proactive personality in subordinates is another factor that may have a significant impact on the relationship between empowering leadership and motivation. Proactive followers, contrary to passive followers, tend to shape and manipulate their environment in order to ensure the accomplishment of their goals, and to do so in the most effective way possible (Bateman & Crant, 1993). A follower with a proactive personality will manage the behavior of their supervisor in a constructive way that will support their productivity at work while limiting the threat of demands to their psychological resources. A study by Kim (2019) examined the relationship between proactive personality and creativity, using empowering leadership as the moderating factor. It was hypothesized that empowering leadership would interact with proactive personality to strengthen

the positive relationship between proactive personality and creativity when empowering leadership was high rather than low, which was supported in the results. This study examines the role of proactive personality instead as the moderating variable between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation, arguing that the positive relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation will be strengthened when individuals have higher levels of proactive personality. In this case, the followers of an empowering leader who possess a proactive personality may be able to mitigate the burdening effects that an empowering leader may have by adequately protecting their psychological resources and manipulating their environment in order to successfully accomplish their goals at work. Furthermore, the enabling effects of an empowering leader will be strengthened in followers with a proactive personality, increasing the probability of positive extra-role behaviors and well-being, while further decreasing turnover intention.

Hypothesis 2: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) positive among followers with high levels of proactive personality (enabling effect), and b) negative among followers with low levels of proactive personality (burdening effect).

Empowering leadership and Extra-Role Behaviors, Employee Well-Being and Turnover Intention.

The present study focuses on three employee outcomes: (1) employee extra-role behaviors, (2) well-being, and (3) turnover intention. In the following paragraphs, we present our theoretical rationale for expecting relationships between empowering leadership and these outcomes.

Extra-role behavior.

The research has shown that empowerment is linked to positive organizational citizenship behaviors, or OCBs, which are defined as discretionary individual behaviors that promote the

effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988 as cited in Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). These behaviors include prosocial organizational behaviors, extra-role behavior, and organizational spontaneity. The literature cites supportive leadership styles as one possible antecedent for OCBs, and has argued that OCBs are related to increased managerial and subordinate productivity, stability of performance, and ability to adapt to environmental changes, among others (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). This study further argues that empowering leadership is related to the development of OCBs in the form of extra-role behaviors.

Extra-role behaviors are defined as behaviors that go above and beyond the formal defines of an employee's job role to contribute to organizational output in a positive way (Kim & Beehr, 2017). The literature suggests that both in-role (formally defined job roles) and extra-role behaviors are necessary for an organization to be functioning effectively, and is even more important now as employees are being given more autonomy and responsibility, thus allowing them to perform tasks that are not defined in their job descriptions (Bergeron, 2007; Caillier, 2016). The leadership literature, however, has not yet examined the effect of empowering leadership on extra-role behavior specifically, in which individuals go above and beyond their formal job requirements to engage in behaviors that are helpful to the effectiveness of the organization (Kim & Beehr, 2017). Other research that has looked at extra-role behaviors in employees has found it to be negatively associated with authoritarian leadership (Bergeron, 2007; Zhang & Xie, 2017), which is conceptually similar to directive leadership styles, and positively associated with authentic and transformational leadership (Malik & Dhar, 2016; Caillier, 2016), both of which are in line with the stream of supportive leadership styles, similarly to empowering leadership.

Raub and Robert (2010) suggest that extra-role behaviors can be divided into two types: affiliative extra-role behaviors, which are based on interpersonal relationships, cooperation and

are governed by controlled motivation, and challenging extra-role behaviors, which are implemented in order to change existing workplace conditions and considers the degree to which employees become involved in the implementation process, and are governed by autonomous motivation. The basis for their argument is that affiliative extra-role behaviors include behaviors that are based on appropriate social norms, despite not being formally outlined (Raub and Robert, 2010). The present study focuses on challenging extra-role behaviors, which are neither explicitly nor implicitly expected, and are therefore based in autonomous motivation. For an individual to engage in challenging extra-role behaviors, they must believe that their behavior will lead to some desirable outcome, despite stepping outside the boundaries of behavior formally defined by their work role. They must also have been assigned some level of autonomy to be able to engage in non-role tasks, and therefore ought to have moderate to high levels of self-efficacy in order to possess the confidence that their actions will have a successful and effective impact.

Like the study by Kim and Beehr (2017), the study by Raub and Robert (2010) does not look specifically at the enabling and burdening aspects of empowering leadership, and the effects that both sides of this construct have on the types of motivation and in-role and extra-role behaviors that the employees are engaging in. We contend that, if challenging extra-role behaviors result from autonomous motivation and if empowering leadership can contribute to autonomous motivation, empowering leadership should lead to employees engaging in challenging extra-role behaviors. However, we expect this relationship to be weaker for individuals with low levels of self-efficacy and proactive personality – those who are hypothesized to experience empowering leadership as burdening. Indeed, for these employees, empowering leadership should increase job-related tension, reduce autonomous motivation and thus decrease challenging extra-role behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' challenging extra-role behaviors via autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) positive among followers with high levels of self-efficacy (enabling effect), and b) negative among followers with low levels of self-efficacy (burdening effect).

Hypothesis 4: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' challenging extra-role behaviors via autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) positive among followers with high levels of proactive personality (enabling effect), and b) negative among followers with low levels of proactive personality (burdening effect).

Well-Being.

Employee well-being (and ill-being) can be divided into occupational well-being, which is associated with job satisfaction and burnout, as well as general well-being, which refers to overall life happiness and health (Kim & Beehr, 2018). One of the main measures of ill-being at work is Maslach's burnout inventory, where burnout is defined as a psychological condition consisting of three elements: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, typically resulting from demanding work conditions (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). Emotional exhaustion refers to the extent to which an individual feels that their psychological resources are depleted and that it is draining to be in contact with other people (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996; Burke & Greenglass, 1996). Depersonalization is experienced when individuals develop negative or cynical attitudes and feelings about others they are in contact with, leading to a callous affect. Reduced personal accomplishment denotes individuals who tend to view themselves and their work negatively, specifically experiencing a decline in feelings of competence. According to Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996), burnout can lead to a decrease in the quality of work and interactions, as well as turnover, absenteeism, and morale, which could be detrimental to

successful and efficient organizational functioning. Burnout affects those individuals who work with and interact with others to some extent, and the consequences of burnout will affect all individuals who are involved in these interactions. More specifically, burnout has been found to affect the quality of interpersonal relationships with clients, coworkers and supervisors, as well as other various attitudinal outcomes such as aspects of ill-being, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, and substance abuse (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996; Kim & Stoner, 2008).

Work setting characteristics are argued to influence psychological burnout levels in employees, particularly as it relates to work stress (Burke & Greenglass, 1996). Quality of supervision, expectations and constraints in the organizational environment, and features of the job itself are some of the characteristics that impact psychological burnout levels, though it is unclear as to how certain job conditions may affect burnout. Studies have found consistent evidence that displays work stressors to be strongly related to burnout, work attitudes, as well as other measures of emotional and physical well-being or ill-being, such as physical health and lifestyle behaviors (Burke & Greenglass, 1996).

According to the self-determination theory, the satisfaction of the three basic needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness within the workplace will contribute to employees' autonomous motivation, increasing engagement and psychological well-being (Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov & Kornazheva, 2001). Research also suggests that individuals who are autonomously motivated are more satisfied with their jobs and have a sense of personal accomplishment, thus protecting them from emotional exhaustion and burnout (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). Furthermore, the extent to which individuals are able to make choices about aspects in their life is argued to be a good indicator of their well-being (Fischer & Boer, 2011). Interestingly, individualism and autonomy were better predictors of well-being in employees than

monetary wealth. Alternatively, employees who feel overwhelmed and who experience work stress as a result of their empowering leader, instead of increased autonomy, may suffer from decreased well-being, which would manifest in the form of higher levels of emotional exhaustion. This leads to the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 5: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' emotional exhaustion via autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) negative among followers with high levels of self-efficacy (enabling effect), and b) positive among followers with low levels of self-efficacy (burdening effect).

Hypothesis 6: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' emotional exhaustion via autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) negative among followers with high levels of proactive personality (enabling effect), and b) positive among followers with low levels of proactive personality (burdening effect).

Turnover Intention.

Turnover intention is defined as an individual's plan, or willingness, to leave the organization for which they currently work for, and is considered to be a strong predictor of an employee's future behavior to quit (Klerk & Slander, 2014). Employee turnover could be costly to organizations, and so the majority of organizations aim to reduce turnover and retain talent in order to minimize costs. Some factors that could lead to actual employee turnover include burnout, demanding job conditions that lead to burnout, role stress, as well as frustration and confusion with job roles and job clarity (Kim & Stoner, 2008).

Although higher levels of burnout and role stress have been shown to influence turnover intention in employees, studies have also examined the impact of autonomy, social support, and empowerment behaviors on turnover intentions. Studies have shown that lack of autonomy and

social support, regardless of burnout levels, were able to increase turnover intention among employees (Kim & Stoner, 2008). Additionally, leadership empowerment behavior was significantly and positively related to employee psychological empowerment and work engagement, and negatively related to turnover intention (Klerk & Sander, 2014). The authors argue that leaders who display empowering behaviors are therefore able to influence the perceptions and experiences of their employee's at work, increasing their perceptions of competence, self-efficacy, and meaningfulness.

The effect of empowering leadership on job satisfaction and affective commitment was evaluated as a way of predicting turnover intention in employees (Dewettinck & Amejide, 2011). The study found that the relationship between empowering leadership, job satisfaction and employee commitment can be explained in part by psychological empowerment, and, consistent with Bandura's (1977, 1986, 2001) social cognitive theory, environmental factors can have an influencing effect on cognition and motivation of employees (as cited in Dewettinck and Amejide, 2011). The findings indicate a direct relationship between empowering leadership and job satisfaction and affective commitment of employees, whereby job satisfaction and affective commitment are directly related to turnover intention. These findings demonstrate the positive effects of empowering leadership in increasing job satisfaction and affective commitment to the company, which in turn decreases turnover intention in employees. This suggests that leadership style, as well as the relationship between leaders and subordinates, is a key influencing factor in the degree to which employees identify with the organization and their willingness to stay there. Empowering leaders therefore have the ability to lower turnover intention in their employees by increasing their job satisfaction (Dewettinck and Amejide, 2011). Research also suggests that individuals who are autonomously motivated are more satisfied with their jobs and have a sense

of personal accomplishment, thus decreasing the likelihood of turnover intention (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). This leads to this study last two hypotheses.

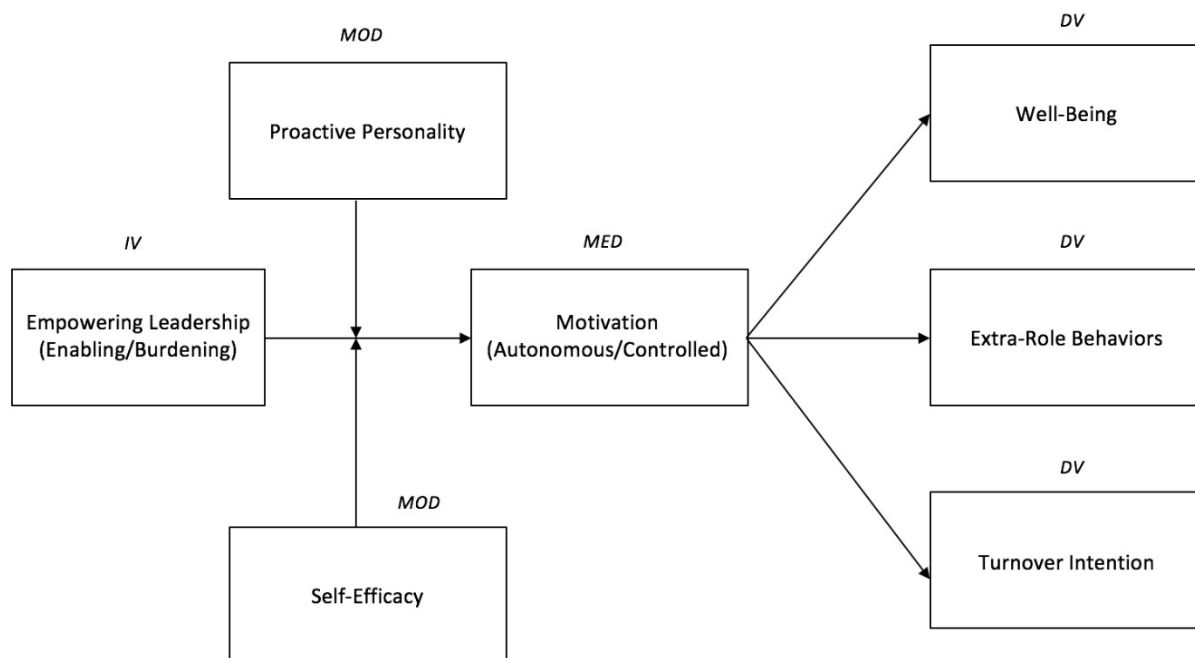
Hypothesis 7: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' turnover intentions via autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) negative among followers with high levels of self-efficacy (enabling effect), and b) positive among followers with low levels of self-efficacy (burdening effect).

Hypothesis 8: Empowering leadership will be related to subordinates' turnover intentions via autonomous motivation such that the relationship will be a) negative among followers with high levels of proactive personality (enabling effect), and b) positive among followers with low levels of proactive personality (burdening effect).

Research Model

In sum, this study proposes that empowering leadership will be related to employees' autonomous motivation, and through autonomous motivation, increased employee extra-role behaviors and reduced ill-being, and turnover intention. However, we propose that these relationships will be moderated by subordinate general self-efficacy and proactive personality, whereby employees with higher perceived self-efficacy and proactive personality will be more autonomously motivated, and will therefore engage in more positive extra-role behaviors, suffer less from emotional exhaustion, and will be less likely to leave the organization. On the other hand, among employees with low levels of self-efficacy and low proactive personality, an empowering leader will be perceived as burdening and reduce autonomous in their subordinates, which will lead to lower levels of extra-role behaviors, higher emotional exhaustion, and increased turnover intention.

Figure 1. Proposed research model.



Methodology

Procedure and Sample

The proposed model was empirically tested using a sample of employees working in various organizations. All data was collected through two short online questionnaires, in which the questionnaires were provided to the participants through a data panel service. The questionnaire was created on and distributed to participants through the data panel service Qualtrics. The first page of the questionnaire contained the consent form, and the participants agreed to participate in the study by continuing on to the questionnaire, and were compensated by the data panel service directly. The online questionnaires, which were identical at Time 1 and Time 2, included measures of general self-efficacy and proactive personality, work motivation, empowering leadership, emotional exhaustion, extra-role behavior, turnover intention, as well as

servant leadership, directive leadership, and participative leadership, and demographic variables including gender, age, organizational and supervisory tenure.

The participants were asked to complete the questionnaire at two time points, two weeks apart. All variables were measured at both time points. In total, we received usable data from 267 participants at the first time point, and 115 at the second time point. However, due to quality issues with the second wave of data, we were unable to use the data collected at the second time point. The final sample was thus composed of 267 participants, 50.2% of whom women, 49.6% were men, and 0.4% who self-described as transgender. Participants ranged in age from 22 to 80 years old ($M = 53.03$, $SD = 12.74$). Participants worked in a variety of industries, including Health and Social services domain (15.2%), Education and Academia (12.7%), and Law and Insurance (6.6%). Other industries included accounting, finance and banking, consulting, marketing and sales, biotechnologies and pharmaceuticals, and human resources. All participants were full-time employees.

Measures

Empowering leadership. In order to assess empowering leadership, the Empowering Leadership Scale (*ELS*) was used (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). The *ELS* is a two-dimensional scale composed of 18 items which measures autonomy-supportive and development-supportive constructs. Within these constructs, four items measure power sharing, six items measure development support, and eight items measure motivational support. Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). The scale includes items such as, “My leader gives me power” (power sharing), “My leader guides me in how I can do my work in the best way” (development support), and “My leader listens to me” (motivational support). The scale was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .97$).

General self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was assessed using the New Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). This questionnaire contains eight items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). The scale includes items such as, “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself”. The scale was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .92$).

Proactive personality. Proactive personality was assessed using 10-item proactive personality scale (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The questionnaire was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”), and contains items such as “If I see something I don’t like, I fix it”, and “I excel at identifying opportunities”. The scale was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .92$).

Motivation. Autonomous and controlled motivation were assessed using the 19-item scale developed by Gagné and colleagues (2015). This scale asks participants to what extent they agree that different factors are reasons why they put efforts in their jobs, using a scale of 1 to 7 (1 being “not at all for this reason” and 7 being “exactly for this reason”). It captures autonomous (e.g., “because I have fun doing my job”), controlled motivation.” (e.g., “because I risk losing my job if I don’t put effort into it”) and amotivation (e.g., “I don’t know why I’m doing this job, it’s pointless work”). The scale for amotivation was deemed reliable in the present sample ($\alpha = .82$), as was the scale for controlled motivation ($\alpha = .83$), and for autonomous motivation ($\alpha = .86$).

Extra-role behavior. Extra-role behavior was measured using a 14-item organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) questionnaire (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Each item is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). The scale includes items such as, “Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)”, and “Helps others who have heavy workloads”. The scale was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .86$).

Emotional exhaustion. Well-being in employees was measured using the 9-item emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“Never”) to 7 (“Everyday”). The scale includes items such as “I feel emotionally drained from my work”, and “I feel I’m working too hard on my job”. The scale was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .93$).

Turnover intention. Turnover intention was measured using two items, adapted from Hom and Griffeth (1991) and a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 7 (“Strongly agree”): “I often think about leaving my organization” and “I intend to look for a job in another organization in the next year” ($r = .70, p < .001$).

Control variables. In order to rule out the measurement of other types of leadership, other leadership scales were used as a control. Servant leadership was assessed using a 7-item servant leadership scale (Liden et al., 2015), and contains items such as “My leader puts my best interests ahead of his/her own”. The scale was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .909$). Directive and participative leadership were assessed using a 5-item directive leadership and a 5-item participative leadership scale, respectively (Euwema, Wendt, & Van Emmerik, 2007). The directive leadership scale includes items such as “My leader makes most decisions for employees”, and was deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .85$). The participative leadership scale includes items such as “My leader encourages subordinates to participative in most decision-making”, and was also deemed reliable within the present sample ($\alpha = .91$). All scales were Likert-type scales, ranging from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 7 (“Strongly agree”).

Ethical Considerations

The research proposal for the present study was reviewed and approved by Concordia University's ethics committee. The questionnaire began with a consent form, informing participants of the purpose of the research, and that their participation was voluntary. Additionally, all responses to the questionnaire were confidential, and only a summary report of aggregated data would be available to them upon request. The participants agreed to the terms and participated in the study by beginning the questionnaire on the following page, and were allowed to withdraw their participation at any point without consequence.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

With the data received at the first time point, descriptive statistics and reliability analyses for all scales were conducted. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations among the variables in the study. As would be expected, the correlation shows that empowering leadership was positively and significantly related to autonomous motivation ($r = .51$, $p < .01$), extra-role behavior ($r = .30$, $p < .01$), proactive personality ($r = .30$, $p < .01$), and self-efficacy ($r = .21$, $p < .01$), and was negatively related to emotional exhaustion ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$) and turnover intention ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$). Expectedly, emotional exhaustion was found to be positively related to turnover intention ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), and negatively related to autonomous motivation ($r = -.41$, $p < .01$). Extra-role behavior, on the other hand, was found to be positively related to and autonomous motivation ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), proactive personality ($r = .51$, $p < .01$), and self-efficacy ($r = .52$, $p < .01$). Self-efficacy, in turn, was positively related to autonomous motivation ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), and proactive personality ($r = .63$, $p < .01$), while proactive

personality was also positively related to autonomous motivation ($r = .45, p < .01$). See Table 1 for the full list of correlations between relevant variables in the study.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Empowering Leadership	4.86	1.20	-					
2. Autonomous Motivation	5.41	1.18	.51**	-				
3. Emotional Exhaustion	2.74	1.43	-.48**	-.41**	-			
4. Turnover Intention	2.46	1.74	-.48**	-.39**	.68**	-		
5. Extra-Role Behavior	5.85	.73	.30**	.47**	.03	-.01	-	
6. Proactive Personality	4.62	.97	.30**	.45**	-.04	.01	.51**	-
7. Self-Efficacy	4.12	.96	.21**	.47**	-.12	-.04	.52**	.63**
8. ELS x Self-Efficacy	.29	1.78	.05	-.03	-.30**	-.29**	-.27**	-.21**
9. ELS x Proactive Personality	.40	1.67	-.00	-.15*	-.20**	-.16*	-.28**	-.17**
10. Age	53.03	12.74	-.01	.09	-.23**	-.12*	-.01	-.06
11. Gender	1.50	.50	-.12	-.05	.19**	.04	.11	-.04
12. Organizational Tenure	12.88	9.57	.10	.13*	-.21**	-.20**	.05	.77
13. Supervisor Tenure	5.72	6.24	.12*	.11	-.19**	-.22**	-.02	.08

Note. $N = 267$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 1 (continued).

	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
7. Self-Efficacy	-						
8. ELS x Self-Efficacy	-.18**	-					
9. ELS x Proactive Personality	-.26**	.77**	-				

10. Age	-.01	.05	.12*	-			
11. Gender	.03	-.04	-.06	-.20**	-		
12. Organizational Tenure	.10	.11	.13*	.38*	-.06	-	
13. Supervisor Tenure	-.01	.21**	.29**	.30**	-.09	.39**	-

Note. $N = 267$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis Testing

In order to examine the proposed relationship shown in the model in Figure 1, linear regressions were first conducted between empowering leadership, autonomous motivation, and the two moderating variables. Self-efficacy and proactive personality were expected to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation such that the relationship would be positive among followers with high levels of self-efficacy and proactive personality, and negative among followers with low self-efficacy and proactive personality. A linear regression with an interaction term composed of the centered values for each variable was computed in SPSS to test these hypotheses.

A three-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with autonomous motivation as the dependent variable in order to test the first hypothesis. The control variables of age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at the first stage of the regression, empowering leadership and self-efficacy were entered at the second stage, and an interaction term between empowering leadership and self-efficacy was entered in the third stage of the regression. The regression revealed that at stage two, empowering leadership ($\beta = .43$, $t(264) = 8.74$, $p < .001$) and self-efficacy ($\beta = .38$, $t(264) = 7.83$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of autonomous motivation. The interaction term added at stage three, however, was not a significant predictor of autonomous motivation ($\beta = -.07$, $t(264) = -1.45$, *ns*). Hypothesis 1, which proposed that self-

efficacy would moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation, is thus not supported.

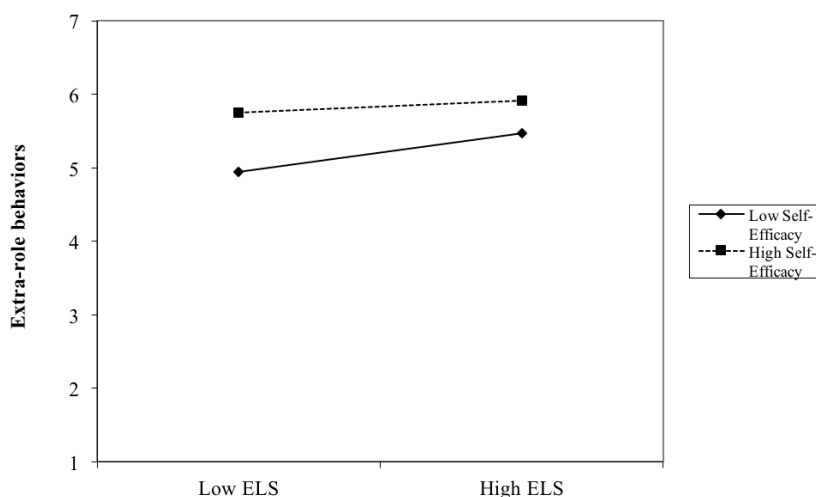
To test the second hypothesis, a similar three-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted, with proactive personality as the moderating variable. The first stage of the regression included the control variables of age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure. In the second stage, empowering leadership ($\beta = .42, t(264) = 7.94, p < .001$) and proactive personality ($\beta = .33, t(264) = 6.37, p < .001$) were significant predictors of autonomous motivation. In the third stage, the interaction term between empowering leadership and proactive personality, however, was not a significant predictor of autonomous motivation ($\beta = .01, t(264) = -.23, ns$). Hypothesis 2, which proposed that proactive personality would moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation, is thus not supported.

Hypotheses 3-8 proposed indirect moderated relationships, whereby autonomous motivation mediates relationships between empowering leadership and a variety of outcomes, the direction of these relationships depending on employees' general self-efficacy and proactive personality. To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, we first conducted a three-stage hierarchical regression to examine the relationship between empowering leadership, autonomous motivation, and extra-role behaviors. The control variables of age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership was entered at stage two, and autonomous motivation was entered at stage three. The regression revealed that empowering leadership $\beta = .33, t(264) = 5.48, p < .001$ contributed significantly to the model. When autonomous motivation was added to stage three, empowering leadership $\beta = .11, t(264) = 1.66, p < .10$ was marginally significant, and autonomous motivation $\beta = .43, t(264) = 6.77, p < .001$ was a significant predictor of extra-role behavior, suggesting that autonomous motivation mediates the relationship between

empowering leadership and extra-role behaviors. However, as Hypotheses 1 and 2, which proposed that the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation would be moderated by self-efficacy and proactive personality were not supported, we examined the moderating role of self-efficacy and proactive personality on the direct relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behavior.

A three-stage hierarchical regression was thus computed to examine the moderating role of self-efficacy on the previously mentioned relationship. The control variables age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership and self-efficacy were entered in stage two, the interaction term between empowering leadership and self-efficacy was entered in stage three. Model two shows empowering leadership $\beta = .23$, $t(264) = 4.26$, $p < .001$ and self-efficacy $\beta = .47$, $t(264) = 8.94$, $p < .001$ to significantly predict the regression model. With the addition of the interaction term in the third stage, empowering leadership $\beta = .23$, $t(264) = 4.42$, $p < .001$ and self-efficacy $\beta = .43$, $t(264) = 7.94$, $p < .001$ were significant predictors, and the interaction between them $\beta = -.16$, $t(264) = -3.08$, $p < .01$ was also significant, explaining an additional 2.4% of variance in the model. This suggests that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behavior in employees. To better understand the nature of the interaction, we plotted the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behavior at high and low (± 1 SD) levels of self-efficacy. Results indicate that the slope for individuals high on self-efficacy is positive, but only marginally significant, while that slope is positive and significant among individuals low on self-efficacy (see Figure 2). These results are not in the direction predicted in Hypothesis 3.

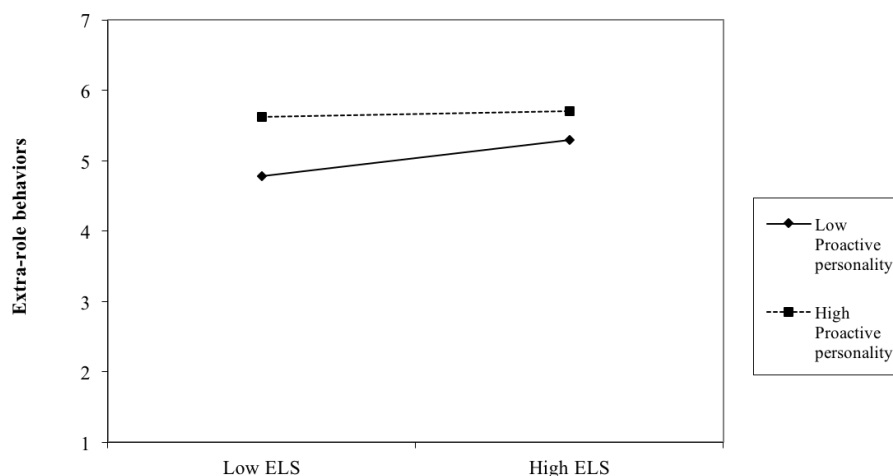
Figure 2. Moderating role of self-efficacy on empowering leadership and extra-role behavior.



Similarly, we tested the moderating role of proactive personality on the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behavior. The control variables age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership and proactive personality were entered in stage two, the interaction term between empowering leadership and proactive personality was entered in stage three. Model two shows that both empowering leadership $\beta = .19$, $t(264) = 3.38$, $p < .01$ and proactive personality $\beta = .48$, $t(264) = 8.80$, $p < .001$ are significant predictors of the model. When the interaction term was added in the third stage, empowering leadership $\beta = .20$, $t(264) = 3.70$, $p < .001$ and proactive personality $\beta = .43$, $t(264) = 7.79$, $p < .001$ remained significant predictors, and the interaction between them $\beta = -.18$, $t(264) = -3.30$, $p < .01$ was also significant, adding an additional 2.8% of variance in the model. This suggests that proactive personality moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behavior. Again, to better understand the nature of the interaction, we plotted the relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behavior at high and low

(± 1 SD) levels of proactivity. Counter to Hypothesis 4, the slope for individuals who were higher on proactive personality is non-significant, but the slope is positive and significant for individuals low on proactive personality (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Moderating role of proactive personality on empowering leadership and extra-role behavior.

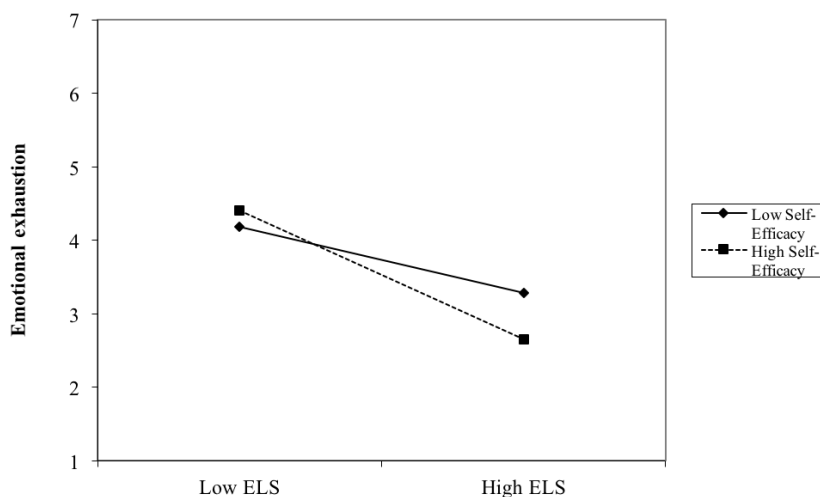


Hypotheses 5 and 6 focused on relationships between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion. To test these hypotheses, we first conducted a three-stage hierarchical regression to examine the relationship between empowering leadership, autonomous motivation, and emotional exhaustion. The control variables of age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership was entered at stage two, and autonomous motivation was entered at stage three. The regression revealed that empowering leadership $\beta = -.47$, $t(264) = -8.90$, $p < .001$ contributed significantly to the model. When autonomous motivation was added to stage three, empowering leadership $\beta = -.37$, $t(264) = -6.14$, $p < .001$ and autonomous motivation $\beta = -.19$, $t(264) = -3.26$, $p < .01$ were both significant predictors of emotional exhaustion, suggesting that autonomous motivation mediates the

relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion. However, again, as tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2 suggested self-efficacy and proactive personality do not moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation, we examined the moderating role of self-efficacy and proactive personality on the direct relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion.

A three-stage hierarchical regression was thus computed to examine the moderating role of self-efficacy on the previously mentioned relationship. The control variables age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership and self-efficacy were entered in stage two, the interaction term between empowering leadership and self-efficacy was entered in stage three. Model two shows empowering leadership $\beta = -.47$, $t(264) = -8.62$, $p < .001$ to be a significant predictor, while self-efficacy was not $\beta = -.02$, $t(264) = -.347$, *ns*. With the addition of the interaction term in the third stage, empowering leadership $\beta = -.46$, $t(264) = -8.70$, $p < .001$ remained a significant predictor, while self-efficacy was not $\beta = -.07$, $t(264) = -1.32$, *ns*, and the interaction between them was significant $\beta = -.20$, $t(264) = -3.65$, $p < .001$, adding an additional 3.4% of variance in the model. This suggests that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion in employees. To better understand the nature of the interaction, we plotted the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion at high and low (± 1 SD) levels of self-efficacy. Results indicate that both slopes were negative and significant, but the slope for individuals who were higher on self-efficacy was stronger, which is consistent with Hypothesis 5 (see Figure 4).

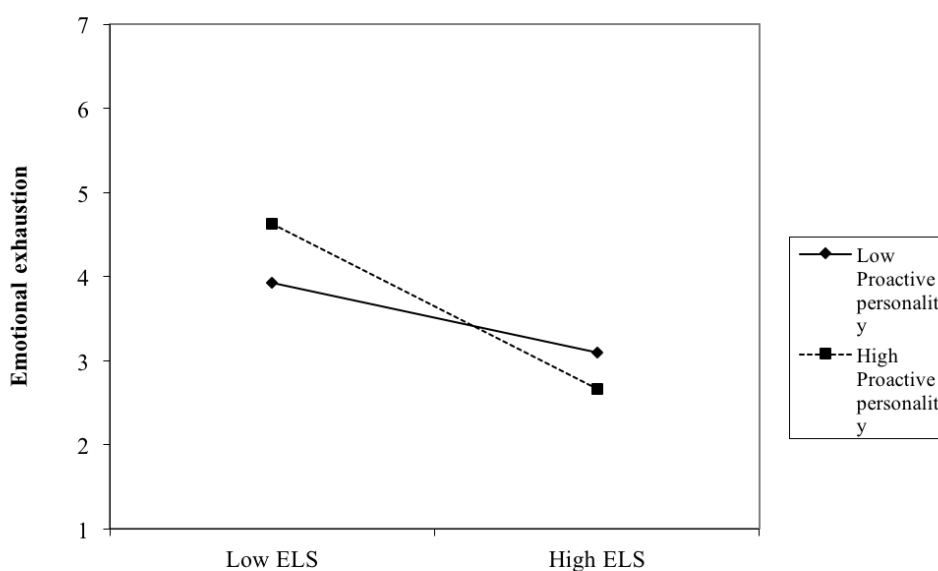
Figure 4. Moderating role of self-efficacy on empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion.



Similarly, we tested the moderating role of proactive personality on the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion. The control variables age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership and proactive personality were entered in stage two, the interaction term between empowering leadership and proactive personality was entered in stage three. Model two shows that both empowering leadership $\beta = -.50$, $t(264) = -9.17$, $p < .001$ and proactive personality $\beta = .11$, $t(264) = 2.05$, $p < .05$ are significant predictors in the model. When the interaction term was added in the third stage, empowering leadership $\beta = -.48$, $t(264) = -9.11$, $p < .001$ remained a significant predictor, proactive personality $\beta = .047$, $t(264) = .88$, $|ns|$ was no longer significant, and the interaction between them $\beta = -.24$, $t(264) = -4.53$, $p < .001$ was a significant predictor of the regression model, adding an additional 5.0% of variance in the model. This indicates that proactive personality moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion. To better understand the nature of the interaction, we plotted the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion at high and low (± 1 SD) levels of proactive personality.

Results indicate that both slopes were negative and significant, but the slope for individuals who were higher on proactive personality was stronger, which is consistent with Hypothesis 6 (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Moderating role of proactive personality on empowering leadership and emotional exhaustion.

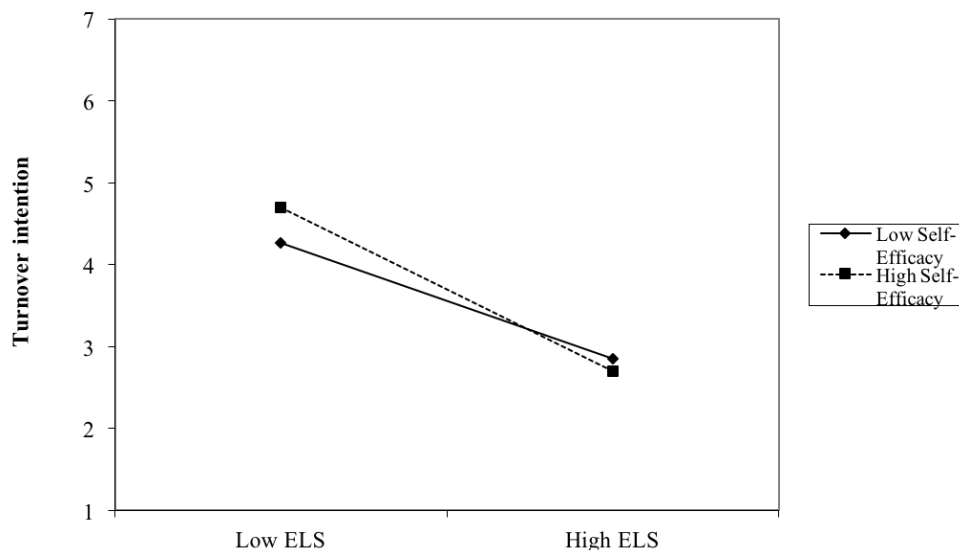


The last set of hypotheses, Hypotheses 7 and 8, examined the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention. To test these hypotheses, we first conducted a three-stage hierarchical regression to examine the relationship between empowering leadership, autonomous motivation, and turnover intention. The control variables of age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership was entered at stage two, and autonomous motivation was entered at stage three. The regression revealed that empowering leadership $\beta = -.47$, $t(264) = -8.80$, $p < .001$ was a significant predictor of turnover intention. When autonomous motivation was added to stage three, empowering

leadership $\beta = -.39$, $t(264) = -6.28$, $p < .001$ and autonomous motivation $\beta = -.17$, $t(264) = -2.70$, $p < .01$ were both significant predictors of turnover intention, suggesting that autonomous motivation mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention. However, again as Hypotheses 1 and 2, which proposed that the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation would be moderated by self-efficacy and proactive personality were not supported, we examined the moderating role of self-efficacy and proactive personality on the direct relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention.

We thus computed a three-stage hierarchical regression to examine the moderating role of self-efficacy on the previously mentioned relationship. The control variables age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership and self-efficacy were entered in stage two, the interaction term between empowering leadership and self-efficacy was entered in stage three. Model two shows empowering leadership $\beta = -.49$, $t(264) = -8.88$, $p < .001$ to be a significant predictor of turnover intention, while self-efficacy $\beta = .071$, $t(264) = 1.31$, $|ns|$ was not. With the addition of the interaction term in the third stage, empowering leadership $\beta = -.48$, $t(264) = -8.86$, $p < .001$ remained significant, self-efficacy $\beta = .041$, $t(264) = .74$, $|ns|$ remained non-significant, and the interaction between them $\beta = -.11$, $t(264) = -1.98$, $p < .05$ was a significant predictor, adding 1.1% of variance in the model. This indicates that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention in employees. To better understand the nature of the interaction, we plotted the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention at high and low (± 1 SD) levels of self-efficacy. Results indicate that both slopes are significant and negative, but the slope for individuals high on self-efficacy is stronger than the slope for individuals low on self-efficacy (see Figure 6). This is consistent with Hypothesis 7.

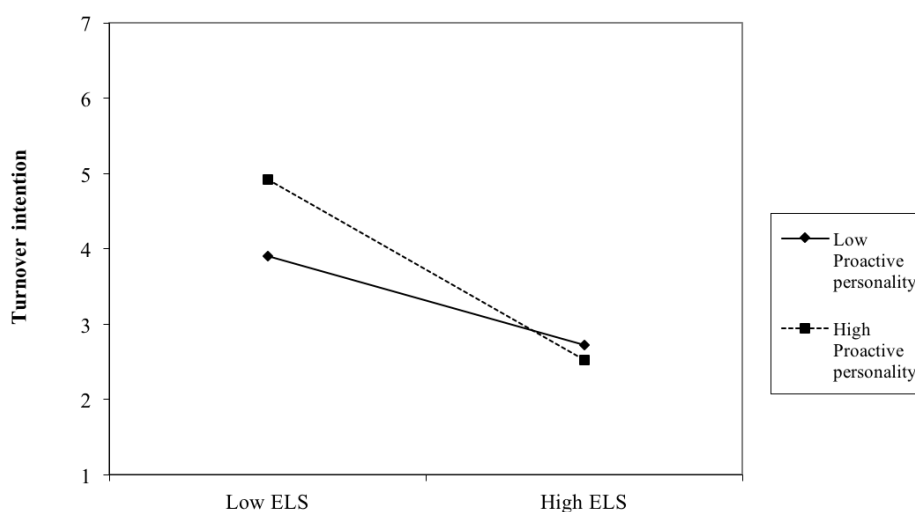
Figure 6. Moderating role of self-efficacy on empowering leadership and turnover intention.



Finally, we tested the moderating role of proactive personality on the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention. The control variables age, gender, organizational tenure, and supervisory tenure were entered at stage one, empowering leadership and proactive personality were entered in stage two, the interaction term between empowering leadership and proactive personality was entered in stage three. Model two shows that both empowering leadership $\beta = -.52$, $t(264) = -9.49$, $p < .001$ and proactive personality $\beta = .18$, $t(264) = 3.20$, $p < .01$ are significant predictors in the model. When the interaction term was added in the third stage, empowering leadership $\beta = -.51$, $t(264) = -9.41$, $p < .001$ and proactive personality $\beta = .12$, $t(264) = 2.15$, $p < .05$ remained significant, while the interaction between them $\beta = -.21$, $t(264) = -3.93$, $p < .001$ was also a significant predictor, adding 4% of variance in the model. This indicates that proactive personality moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention. To better understand the nature of the interaction, we plotted the relationship between empowering leadership and turnover intention at high and low (± 1 SD) levels

of proactive personality. Results indicate that both slopes were negative and significant, but the slope for individuals who were higher on proactive personality was stronger, which is consistent with Hypothesis 8 (see Figure 6).

Figure 6. Moderating role of proactive personality on empowering leadership and turnover intention.



Discussion

Leadership styles that are effectively able to harness the potential of their available human capital will benefit from increased motivation and performance by their employees, which will further benefit the organization as a whole. Researchers and managers alike are searching for the “right” style of leadership in order to capitalize on these enhanced employee behaviors, and to achieve a sustained competitive advantage on the market as compared to their competitors. In line with the recent literature on positive and supportive leadership styles (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000), empowering leadership had started gaining traction as it was known for

its ability to increase intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), performance and job satisfaction (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010) in subordinates, as well as other positive organizational outcomes. More recently developed research on empowering leadership, however, has suggested that empowering leadership may not always be beneficial, and may even have detrimental consequences on employees and the organizations in which they work in certain contexts (Forrester, 2000; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kim & Beehr, 2017). Researchers thus had proposed that empowering leadership can be both enabling or beneficial (Cheong et al., 2016).

The current study examined the effects of empowering leadership on several employee outcomes, namely extra-role behavior, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intention. The possible mediation of autonomous motivation on these relationships were also taken into account, as well as the possible moderation of perceived general self-efficacy and proactive personality. The purpose of this study was to contribute to the literature by providing a more complete understanding of empowering leadership by examining both its enabling and burdening effects on employee outcomes, while also taking into account individual characteristics of employees to determine whether they play a role in the perception of the empowering leader's behaviors. This study also aimed to understand the mechanisms through which empowering leadership may not only affect employees' behaviors that could benefit the organization as a whole, but also how it could impact the well-being of their employees. One of the main reasons this study was conducted was to bring to light the mechanisms through which empowering leadership could either improve or worsen the work lives of their employees, and to therefore understand how leaders could reduce negative and potentially very costly outcomes for their organization. Although the literature on both enabling and burdening effects of empowering leadership has examined outcomes like employee job performance, we argue that employee well-being and turnover are also key elements

that could become very costly for organizations, arguably more so than job performance, and warrant attention.

Our first hypothesis proposed a positive relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation when employee self-efficacy was higher rather than lower. Although both empowering leadership and self-efficacy alone were found to significantly predict autonomous motivation, the proposed moderating effect was not significant. Previous research has shown that empowering leadership could lead to increased self-efficacy in employees (Kim & Beehr, 2017), and the significant correlation ($r = .212, p < .001$) between these two variables indicates that they may be measuring similar constructs, thus alluding to issues of multicollinearity. Self-efficacy has also been proposed to be motivational in nature, (Vroom, 1964, as cited in Kim & Beehr, 2017), and the significant correlation between self-efficacy and autonomous motivation ($r = .472, p < .001$) may also be indicative that the scales are measuring similar constructs. Additionally, empowering leadership has been shown to lead to increased intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Velthouse), which is conceptually similar to autonomous motivation, stating that an individual's willingness to engage in certain behaviors is dictated from within. This is in line with our findings, which show a significant correlation between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation ($r = .513, p < .001$). Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy may also believe they are more capable of performing tasks, regardless of whether their direct supervisor is considered empowering or not, thus rendering the moderated relationship moot.

Similarly, the second hypothesis proposed that the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation would be positive when proactive personality in subordinates was higher rather than lower. This was expected due to the fact that individuals with proactive personalities are actively shaping their environments in order to achieve their goals

(Bateman & Crant, 1993), thus making those individuals better able to manage the behaviors and effects of their empowering leader. In this study, while both empowering leadership and proactive personality significantly and positively predicted autonomous motivation, the proposed moderating effect of proactive personality was not significant. One of the reasons this may be is because individuals with more proactive personality traits are able to successfully shape their work environment, including the behaviors of their leader, in order to achieve their goals, which means that these individuals will be motivated to accomplish their work tasks regardless of whether their leader is perceived to be empowering or not.

Looking at the mediation effects, results suggest that autonomous motivation mediates a positive relationship between empowering leadership and extra-role behaviors, and negative relationships between this leadership style and emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. These findings are in the expected direction. With regards to extra-role behavior, this expectation is based on the fact that an employee who is governed by autonomous motivation is expected to go above and beyond what is explicitly asking them, displaying exceptional performance, while an individual governed by controlled motivation is expected to only perform their defined job roles, in other words, to display only in-role behavior (Kim & Beehr, 2017; Bergeron, 2007; Caillier, 2016). Since extra-role behaviors are done willingly by the employee in order to help organizational success and are not behaviors that are explicitly asked of them, it could be argued that these behaviors are autonomously motivated. Previous research has also linked employee empowerment to extra-role behavior (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000), which is consistent with the findings in this study. Similarly, results suggest empowering leadership reduces emotional exhaustion and turnover intention in part via autonomous motivation, as expected. This

is in line with previous studies that have shown burdensome and stressful work environments to lead to burnout (Burke & Greenglass) as well as intention to quit (Kim & Stoner, 2008).

While we did not find self-efficacy and proactive personality to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and autonomous motivation in this study, these individual differences moderated direct relationships between empowering leadership and all three studied outcomes: extra-role behavior, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intention. We found no evidence of a truly burdening effect, as empowering leadership did not reduce the occurrence of the positive outcome, extra-role behaviors, or enhance the two negative outcomes, emotional exhaustion and turnover intention, among individuals low on self-efficacy or proactive personality. However, we found evidence of an enabling effect, and this effect was stronger among individuals with high levels of self-efficacy and proactive personality. Indeed, empowering leadership was associated with lower emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions for all followers, but among high self-efficacy and high-proactive individuals, this effect was even stronger. This suggests that, consistent with hypotheses, these individuals are more likely to benefit from having an empowering leader, but it is also encouraging in suggesting that there may not be a burdening “risk” for a leader to adopt an empowering style. Findings with regards to extra-role behaviors paint a different – but not negative – picture. Indeed, while we expected empowering leadership to lead to increased manifestations of extra-role behaviors among followers high on self-efficacy or proactive personality and to reduce manifestations of such behaviors among followers who are low on these traits, we found that having an empowering leader practically did not contribute to extra-role behaviors among followers high on self-efficacy and proactive personality, but did contribute positive to these outcomes among individuals low on these traits.

Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study contribute to the literature by providing a more complete understanding of empowering leadership by extending the stream of research concerning the duality of enabling and burdening behaviors, and the effect that they could have on subordinates. The current research examining the potential negative effects of empowering leadership have only examined its effects on employee performance, which in and of itself could be defined differently depending on the organization. This study broadened the scope of empowering leadership research by examining both facets of empowering leadership in relation to motivation, as defined by the self-determination theory, extra-role behaviors, the emotional exhaustion component of burnout, and employee intentions to quit. The research on empowering leadership had also only previously looked at in-role behaviors, since they are easier to define within an organizational setting and are those behaviors which are expected of employees, whereas it is argued that in-role and extra-role behaviors are equally important for the organization to run smoothly (Bergeron, 2007; Caillier, 2016).

Practical Implications

The findings of this study help to address certain gaps in the literature pertaining to the proposed positive and negative effects of an empowering leader, but they also have practical implications for employees, leaders, and the organizations in which they work. As mentioned previously, organizations are constantly looking for the “one-size-fits-all” leadership style that will be effective in motivating subordinates and resulting in increased individual and overall firm performance. This is not the case, however, and different employees may react differently to different leadership styles. The findings of this study propose that the individual differences in employees, or personality factors, are key in moderating the behaviors of their leaders, specifically

in a way that benefits them. This could help organizations in matching their employees' personalities to their supervisors, especially when attempting to recruit new hires, as well as help employees to understand and potentially mitigate any negative effects of their leader. The findings will also help managers and executives to better understand the effects that their behavior has on subordinates, which will give them the insight into balancing their authority and empowerment behaviors in order to avoid negative organizational outcomes as much as possible. However, this study has clear implications for leader selection, training and development, as findings show that empowering leadership has positive consequences for organizations, both in terms of enhancing positive outcomes (extra-role behaviors) and reducing negative outcomes (emotional exhaustion and turnover intention), and no burdening effect was found in this study.

The employees working in a properly managed organization will thus benefit from the right amount of autonomy and direction, which will be specially catered to their needs, and which will allow them to perform to their utmost potential and to the best of their ability, but still within the confines of their job roles. These employees will also benefit from greater well-being, both from their relationship and trust in their supervisor, as well as deriving satisfaction from their job and organizational culture. The organizations who can properly manage employees will also benefit from reduced costs due to turnover, absenteeism, and lower productivity at work, allowing them to focus their efforts on the business itself and increasing efficiency and profits.

Limitations

One limitation of this study is that the sample contained only one participant per leader. Specifically, the data was sampled from a variety of individuals in many different industries, however, using the data from one participant referring to their leader is not necessarily representative of that leader or their leadership style. As mentioned previously, the behaviors of

leaders can be perceived by followers differently based on situational, environmental, and personal factors, and, for example, a leader perceived as empowering by some may be perceived as directive by another. It would have been ideal to sample teams of employees, who would have answered the questionnaire based on a shared immediate supervisor.

In addition to using only one source, another limitation of the study is that it is cross-sectional in nature, as the data collected at the second time point were not usable. When examining cross-sectional data, it is always a possibility that the snapshot in time in which the data was recorded reflected certain situational differences that may not be representative of the situation as a whole. For example, certain situational or environmental factors could have caused a participant to respond in a way that is different than how they would have responded otherwise. It is typically ideal to collect data at two time points, at least one month apart, to account for this limitation.

A final limitation to the study was that the construct of empowering leadership was not differentiated into separate enabling and burdening empowering leader behaviors. Although the scale used was meant to capture both positive and negative sides of the empowering leader, we believe that it would have been more beneficial to have two separate scales measuring these constructs in order to more clearly define them and better analyze them in relation to the other variables in the study.

Future Directions

This study attempted to address certain gaps in the empowering leadership culture, specifically as it related to the burdening side of empowering leadership, as well as a variety of individual outcomes which had not been examined in the literature. Future research could continue piecing together the parts of empowering leadership by conducting a similar study using teams of employees, and asking them to answer the questions based on their shared current supervisor. This

would allow the results to be more representative, and allow us to gain a better understanding of which leaders would actually be considered as empowering. Future research should also devise a separate scale to measure burdening empowering leadership specifically, in order to treat it as a separate construct that needs attention.

Future directions could also be found in including other individual differences that could influence the proposed relationships, such as task-specific self-efficacy, and personality factors such as extroversion and neuroticism. Additional studies could be conducted to examine different types of motivation and how they are related to the given variables, such as controlled motivation and amotivation. Finally, there are infinitely many outcomes that could be looked at as well, such as other components of burnout, as well as employee performance, organizational performance, or other organization-level variables. This might be a particularly fruitful direction for future research, as this study's results showed empowering leadership to have a greater impact for followers with high self-efficacy and proactive personality for certain outcomes, and a greater impact for the same followers on another outcome.

As work environments become increasingly changing and becoming more demanding, as well as the recent trend towards improving mental health, organizations are putting more efforts into understanding and increasing well-being in their employees. Future research should examine the proposed relationships using the other aspects of burnout as well, in order to get a more comprehensive understanding of how the aforementioned variables impact burnout as a whole. Future research could also examine general well-being in employees, which includes aspects of both mental and physical health. Research has shown that positive interactions at work could positively impact cardiovascular and immune system functioning, indicating that job characteristics indeed have an effect on physical health as well (Kim & Beehr, 2018). Studies could

examine the effect that empowering leadership and certain personality characteristics have on employees' physical health, assessing factors such as medication use, psychosomatic symptoms, as well as other lifestyle behaviors (Burke & Greenglass, 1996).

Conclusion

Leaders are able to influence work environments and organizational culture, as well as individual employee behaviors and perceptions. Leader behavior is therefore able to have a potentially drastic impact on organizational performance, either improving it through a motivated and satisfied workforce, or by incurring extraneous costs and employee turnover. The findings of this study show how individual differences are complex constructs that may impact how leaders can impact individual employee outcomes. This goes to show that not only is leader behavior an important factor, but so is the personality characteristics of employees.

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Appendix. Questionnaire

I. Demographic Questions

1. What gender do you most identify with? Female Male Prefer to self-describe _____
2. What is your age?
3. What industry does your company operate in? (Choose)
 - a. If other: _____
4. Are you employed full-time (35h/week)?
5. What is your current job title?
6. How long have you worked at your current organization? _____ years
7. How long have you worked for your current supervisor? _____ years
8. How long have you been part of your current work team? _____ years
9. How many people make up your current organization? _____ people (list)
10. How many people make up your current work team? _____ people (list)

II. Empowering Leadership Scale. Amundsen, S., & Martinsen, Ø L. (2014). Empowering Leadership: Construct Clarification, Conceptualization, and Validation of a New Scale. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(3), 487-511.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Scale: 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”)

1. My leader conveys that I shall take responsibility
2. My leader gives me power
3. My leader gives me authority over issues within my department
4. My leader encourages me to start tasks on my own initiative
5. My leader expresses positive attitudes related to me starting with my own defined tasks
6. My leader encourages me to take initiative
7. My leader is concerned that I reach my goals
8. My leader makes me work towards goal attainment
9. My leader is concerned that I work in a goal-directed manner
10. My leader listens to me
11. My leader recognizes my strong and weak sides
12. My leader invites me to use my strong sides when needed
13. My leader is enthusiastic about what we can achieve
14. My leader conveys a bright view of the future
15. My leader shows that he/she is optimistic about the future
16. My leader coordinates his/her goals with my goals
17. My leader talks with me about his/her own and my goals
18. My leader discusses shared affairs with me
19. My leader lets me see how he/she organizes his/her work

20. My leader's planning of his/her work is visible to me
21. I gain insights into how my leader arranges his/her work days
22. My leader shows me how I can improve my way of working
23. My leader guides me in how I can do my work in the best way
24. My leader tells me about his/her own way of organizing his/her work

III. Servant leadership. Liden R. C., Wayne, S. J., Meuser, J. D., Hu, J., Wu, J., & Liao, C. (2015) Servant leadership: Validation of a short form of the SL-28. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26, 254-269.

1. My leader can tell if something work-related is going wrong
2. My leader makes my career development a priority
3. I would seek help from my leader if I had a personal problem
4. My leader emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community
5. My leader puts my best interests ahead of his/her own
6. My leader gives me the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way that I feel is best
7. My leader would NOT compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.

IV. Directive and participative leadership. Euwema, M. C., Wendt, H., & Van Emmerik, H. (2007). Leadership styles and group organizational citizenship behavior across cultures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28, 1035–1057. As used in Stoker, J. I., Garretsen, H., & Soudis, D. (2019). Tightening the leash after a threat: A multi-level event study on leadership behavior following the financial crisis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 199-214

Directive leadership

1. Expects employees to follow his/her instructions precisely.
2. Requires employees to submit detailed reports of their activities.
3. Makes most decisions for employees.
4. Supervises employees very closely.
5. Expects employees to carry out instructions immediately.

Participative leadership

1. Encourages subordinates to participate in most decision making.
2. Keeps everyone involved and well-informed about organizational issues that may affect them.
3. Holds frequent meetings to share information and ideas with subordinates.
4. Give capable subordinates the freedom to make decisions and mistakes without close supervision.
5. When making decisions, tries to get a great deal of input from subordinates.

- V. **Motivation.** Gagné, M., Forest, J., Vansteenkiste, M., Crevier-Braud, L., Broeck, A. V., Aspeli, A. K., . . . Westbye, C. (2014). The Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale: Validation evidence in seven languages and nine countries. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 24(2), 178-196.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Scale: 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”)

Why do you or would you put efforts into your current job?

1. I don't, because I really feel that I'm wasting my time at work.
2. I do little because I don't think this work is worth putting efforts into.
3. I don't know why I'm doing this job, it's pointless work.
4. To get others' approval (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients...).
5. Because others will respect me more (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients...).
(Because I can teleport through time and space)
6. To avoid being criticized by others (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients...).
7. Because others will reward me financially only if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor...).
8. Because others offer me greater job security if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor).
9. Because I risk losing my job if I don't put enough effort in it.
10. Because I have to prove to myself that I can.
11. Because it makes me feel proud of myself.
12. Because otherwise I will feel ashamed of myself.
13. Because otherwise I will feel bad about myself.
14. Because I personally consider it important to put efforts in this job.
15. Because putting efforts in this job aligns with my personal values.
16. Because putting efforts in this job has personal significance to me.
17. Because I have fun doing my job.
18. Because what I do in my work is exciting.
19. Because the work I do is interesting.

- VI. **Emotional Exhaustion Scale.** Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The Measurement of Experienced Burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2(2), 99-113.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Scale: 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”)

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
(I eat cement occasionally)
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
6. I feel frustrated by my job.
9. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.

VII. Turnover Intention. Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(3), 350-366.

1. I often think about leaving my organization
2. I intend to look for a job in another organization in the next year

VIII. Extra-Role Behavior. Williams, L.J., & Anderson, S.E. (1991). Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship and In-Role Behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17, 601-617.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.
Scale: 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”)

My coworkers would describe me as someone who:

1. Helps others who have been absent.
2. Helps others who have heavy workloads.
3. Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
4. Takes time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries.
5. Goes out of way to help new employees.
6. Takes a personal interest in other employees.
7. Passes along information to co-workers.
8. Attendance at work is above the norm.
9. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.
10. Takes underserved work breaks.
11. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations.
12. Complains about insignificant things at work.
13. Conserves and protects organizational property.
14. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.

IX. Proactive Personality. Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The Proactive Component of Organizational Behavior: A Measure and Correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 103-118.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.
Scale: 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”)

1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.
3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
4. If I see something I don’t like, I fix it.
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others’ opposition.

7. I excel at identifying opportunities.
8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

- X. New Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale.** Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a New General Self-Efficacy Scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4, 62-83.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Scale: 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”)

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
(I have never used a computer)
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.