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Antecedents of Leader Empowering Behaviour: A Leader Self-Concept Perspective

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Our task is not to learn where to place power; it is how to develop power […] Genuine power can only be grown, it will slip from every arbitrary hand that grasps it; for genuine power is not coercive control, but co-active control. Coercive power is the curse of the universe; co-active power, the enrichment and advancement of every human soul.

Mary Parker-Follett (1924)

Résumé

L'intérêt quant à l'habilitation des employés persiste étant donné les nombreux avantages associés à un personnel habilité. Les recherches empiriques démontrent que les employés psychologiquement habilités sont plus performants (Ahearne et al., 2005), s'engagent à des comportements extra- roles (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010), sont plus satisfaits (Vecchio et al., 2010), sont plus intrinsèquement motivés (Chen et al., 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), et sont plus engagés envers leur travail (Hassan et al., 2012; Konczak et al., 2000; Mare, 2007; Tuckey et al., 2012).

Malgré les résultats positifs de l'habilitation des employés, les interventions ne parviennent pas à atteindre les résultats attendus. De plus, rares sont les recherches qui examinent l'habilitation du point de vue des leaders. Donc, employant la perspective des leaders, cette étude tente de combler cette lacune en élucidant les facteurs qui contribuent à mieux comprendre pourquoi certains dirigeants habilitent les employés tandis que d'autres ne le font pas.

À cette fin, les facteurs relationnels et de personnalité des leaders, ainsi que contextuels au travail et leur relation avec les practiques d'habilitation ont été examinés sur un échantillon de dirigeants au sein de sept ministères gouvernementales d'une province canadienne. Il a été constaté que plus le leader se définit par un concept de soi inclusive dans ses relations au travail, plus il/elle a tendance à habiliter ses subordonnés. Les attributs de personnalité, soit de l'honnêteté-humilité (positivement), d'identité morale (positivement) et le désir de dominer (négativement) ont également servi à prédire le comportement d'habilitation du leader. L'insécurité positionnelle s'est avéré prévoir négativement les comportements d'habilitation des leaders.

En outre, il a été constaté que les dirigeants avec un sens de pouvoir plus élevé sont plus susceptibles d'habiliter leurs employés, contrairement à ce que prédit la littérature sur le pouvoir, perçu comme une force corruptrice (Kipnis, 1972; Maner & Mead, 2007). À l'inverse aux attentes, le trait d'implication de la culture organisationnelle s'est avéré non lié au comportement d'habilitation des leaders. Cette constatation correspond aux recherches sur le pouvoir et sa suppression des influences contextuels en faveur des traits internes du leader

(Galinsky et al., 2003). En effet, le sentiment de puissance et le concept de soi collectif sont apparus comme les deux variables étudiés les plus importantes pour prédire le comportement d'habilitation des leaders.

Cette étude a des implications considérables pour le domaine du leadership. Pour une main d'oeuvre plus habilitée, il est recommandé que les programmes de leadership tentent à développer un concept de soi plus inclusive chez leurs leaders, pour ensuite leur céder accès au pouvoir.

Mots-clés : pratiques d'habilitation, concept de soi, honnêteté-humilité, identité morale, désir de dominer, culture organisationnelle, sens du pouvoir, insecurité du role, developement organisationnelle

Abstract

Interest in employee empowerment persists given the wide range of positive individual and organizational outcomes associated with an empowered workforce. Psychologically empowered employees perform better (Ahearne et al., 2005), undertake extra-role behaviour (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010), are more satisfied (Vecchio et al., 2010), are more intrinsically motivated (Chen et al., 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), are more committed (Hassan et al., 2012; Konczak et al., 2000; Mare, 2007), and are more engaged (Tuckey et al., 2012).

Despite these positive outcomes communicated to leaders, interventions fail to reach the expected results. Yet, existing research rarely examine empowerment from the view of the leader. This study attempts to fill this gap by elucidating on factors that contribute to our understanding of why certain leaders empower whereas others don't. To that end, relational, personality and situational variables and their relationship with leader empowering behaviour were examined on a sample of leaders within seven ministries of a Canadian provincial government. It was found that the more inclusive the leader self-defines in his/her relationships at work, the more likely he/she is to empower subordinates. The personality attributes of honesty-humility (positively), moral identity (positively), and desire for dominance (negatively) were also found to be associated to leader empowering behaviour. Positional insecurity was found to negatively predict leader empowering behaviour.

Furthermore, results reveal that leaders with a higher sense of power are more likely to empower, in divergence with the literature on power as a corrupting force (Kipnis, 1972; Maner & Mead, 2007). Also, contrary to expectation, the involvement trait of organizational culture was found to be unrelated to leader empowering behaviour. This finding is consistent with the research on power and it's suppressing of contextual influences in favour of more internal traits to the leader (Galinsky et al., 2003).

Leader sense of power and collective self-concept emerged as the two most important variables predicting leader empowering behaviour. This study has significant implications for the field of leadership. For a more empowering organization, it is recommended that leadership programs work to develop a more inclusive self-concept in their leaders, following which, they can be entrusted with more power.

Keywords: Empowering leadership, self-concept, honesty-humility, moral identity, desire for dominance, organizational culture, sense of power, positional insecurity, leadership development

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For Sarina

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Chapter 1: The Study

Introduction

Leaders, by their direct or indirect influence of employees, are instrumental in organizational performance (Northhouse, 2010). By nature and as a function of their position, leaders have authority and power and the responsibility to achieve organizational goals. However, the challenges of our time, such as globalization, increased interconnectedness and change are increasingly requiring them to exert leadership and to foster leadership in their subordinates (Saks & Haccoun, 2013). Indeed, some (e.g. Heifetz, 2005) have noted this trend has become a necessity as the mere management of the complexity of modern organizational life might well overwhelm the capacity to 'do it alone' of any one leader. This, as noted by Kozlowski and Bell (2003) might well be one of the important reasons explaining why many organizational contexts have moved towards teams and away from a sole leader. Consequently, there is an increasing need to understand how leadership might be constructed more collectively. The argument proposed is that a shift in power relations is central to the introduction of post-bureaucratic organizational forms. Given this organizational shift, traditionally dominated leadership practices should be balanced with leadership practices that are aimed at the empowerment of employees (Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011).

Many studies have demonstrated that follower empowerment is enhanced when leaders provide support and delegate control over decisions (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Chen & Aryee, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000). What has rarely been examined is why leaders engage in these behaviors. As discussed by Hakimi, van Knippenberg and Giessner (2010), there is a lack of understanding of what motivates a leader to empower. If, in theory, leaders show interest in the concept of empowerment, practice has shown that leaders less successfully implement it (Argyris, 1998). A better understanding of the motivation behind leader empowering behaviour would help us understand why leaders often fail to empower their followers.

To that end, the present study attempts to elucidate the concept of empowerment from a leader's perspective. Drawing upon leadership theory, constructive developmental theory, and

management research, with this research, I seek to answer: Do leader characteristics influence leader empowering behaviour? If so, what are the conditions for that to occur? Does sense of power and organizational culture moderate this relationship? Investigating these relationships will help better understand a leader's motivation to empower his or her subordinates and will be an important step in discerning why empowering interventions may succeed or fail and the mechanisms through which it works.

Several factors encompassing relational, situational and personality variables of the leader will be explored. Although, the ultimate objective is employee empowerment, these variables will be examined from the leader's perspective only, given their critical role in the empowerment process. An exploration of the literature on empowerment has led to several variables, potentially promoting this behaviour in leaders. These factors will be first conceptually demonstrated to be related to leader empowering behaviour and subsequently empirically examined within an organizational setting.

A leader's self-perception as independent or in dependence of others (self-concept) is one of the main factors expected to contribute to leader empowerment behaviour. More specifically, leaders with a more inclusive self-concept, being predisposed to improve others' outcomes rather than merely benefit themselves, are more likely to empower their subordinates. To that effect, research on the subject of self-concept and leadership will be synthesized to hypothesize that these concepts will converge to tell when and why certain leaders empower whereas others are reluctant to do so.

Power is expected to interact with the personal characteristics of the leader and the organizational environment to predict empowering behaviour by leaders. Additionally, other relevant leader characteristics and contextual factors expected to affect leader empowering behaviour will be examined as well as their relative importance in predicting empowering behaviour.

Empowerment, Self-concept and Power

Empowerment, as the process of sharing power and authority with subordinates (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) has been a key issue in organizations in the last century (e.g. Shapira, 1976; Tannenbaum, 1968). It focuses on passing power from higher organizational levels to lower ones. Organizations worldwide, private and public, are attempting to implement initiatives

aimed at empowering lower level workers with leadership and decision making responsibilities, resulting in varying degrees of empowerment.

Employee empowerment has been linked to a wide range of positive individual and organizational outcomes, such as enhanced job performance (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005), increased extra-role behaviour (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010), job satisfaction (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010), employee voice (Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011), intrinsic motivation (Chen et al., 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), organizational commitment (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2012; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000; Mare, 2007), work engagement and innovation (Tuckey et al., 2012) and decreased turnover intention (Mare, 2007). With a more empowered workforce, employees are enabled to perform tasks previously performed by managers, which in turn changes the role of managers from a controlling style to leading in ways that focus on the development and motivation of their followers (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Hakimi, van Knippenberg & Giessner, 2010).

Empowerment programs are depicted as a set of complex organizational changes (Leiba & Hardy, 1994) implemented as part of a larger organizational program (Brown, 1990). These programs may include motivational techniques aimed at increasing feelings of self-efficacy, altering the working environment to decentralize power, or incorporating both components (Hardy & Leiba–O'Sullivan, 1998). However, cumulative evidence suggests that empowerment practices often fail to meet the expectations of the organization (e.g. Barker, 1993; Bernstein, 1992; Brown, 1992; Cullen & Townley, 1994; Eccles & Nohria, 1993; Gordon, 2008; Matthes, 1992; Parker, 1993; Eccles, 1993; Parker, 1993).

It may have been assumed that leaders have the motivation and qualities necessary to successfully empower followers (Argyris, 1998). However, either consciously or unconsciously many leaders fail to empower, despite being aware of the organizational benefits of empowerment. For example, Gordon (2008) found that senior officers and detectives, especially those who had previously held traditional positions of leadership, continue to practice acts of domination (disciplining and punishing other officers) in spite of the interventions to instill a dispersed leadership strategy. Interestingly, these senior officers and detectives were found to rationalize these acts of domination as enhanced supervision, suggesting a deeper belief system within these officers, inhibiting them to gain a more empowering mindset. While total

empowerment is not necessarily the objective of these interventions, such levels of constraint run the risk of resulting in the continued centralization of leadership's power and control.

It is proposed that resistance by leaders to share power may explain why empowerment programs have not seen the desired effects (Argyris & Schon, 1996, 1978; Forrester, 2000; Leiba & Hardy, 1994; Jesaitis & Day, 1992). The research on leadership has focused on traits and behaviours of leaders that may enhance effectiveness (Yukl, 2010), but little evidence is there about which factors are important for enabling or motivating leaders to empower subordinates. Based on the vital role of the leader in the empowerment process, a more in depth investigation of the leader is important to understand the factors contributing to leaders empowering their subordinates.

The current research will begin by exploring leader variables expected to influence the empowering behaviour. To that end, a constructive developmental lens is applied to determine variables potentially at play in the leader empowerment process. Constructive developmental theories of adult development (Cook-Greuter, 2013; Kegan, 1994; Loevinger, 1976; Torbert, 1987), posit that as leaders transition from lower to higher levels of development, several interrelated components evolve. Primarily, there is a change in the knowing of others (interpersonal) from a focus on the self to a focus on others. Such that more developed leaders are more likely to facilitate the development of others (Kegan & Lahey, 1984) and are more likely to take others' views into consideration by collaborating more often and negotiating a common frame (Fisher & Torbert, 1991). These theories assert that several other traits evolve as individuals transition through the stages. For instance, the cognitive component addresses the question of how a person thinks about him or herself and the world. It is stated that at higher stages of development, people start to express their own personhood and assert their needs and wants, operationalized here as honesty-humility. They also have high moral standards and a strong sense of what should be, oeprationalized as moral identity. At higher levels of development, individuals also overcome domination tendencies exhibited at lower stages (Cook-Greuter, 2013).

The first variable assessed, the self-concept is a powerful self-regulating mechanism that influences behaviour (Howell & Shamir, 2005; Johnson, Selenta, & Lord, 2006; Lord & Brown, 2004). The self-concept is defined as a set of schemas that organizes past experiences, beliefs,

goals, and values into a frame of reference (Johnson et al., 2006). It provides an individual meaning about their memory and behaviour (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). This cognitive framework of knowledge can be influenced from external sources but may itself influence the interpretation of external activities (Schlenker, 1985).

The self-concept has three levels of identities, which include individual, relational, and collective (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Lord & Brown, 2004; Lord et al., 1999). At the first level, the individual self-concept, one compares one's self to other individuals and is primarily motivated by self-interest. At the next level of self-concept, an individual with a high level of relational identity is motivated by interpersonal relationships or roles with others (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Finally, the collective self-concept gives way for one to compare across groups (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Johnson et al., 2006). While the self-concept is a composite of these different identity levels (Bass & Riggio, 2006), only one level is activated in a given situation or context (Kark & Shamir, 2002; Lord & Brown, 2004; Lord, Brown, & Feiberg, 1999).

Furthermore, each level has distinct influence on an individual's self-worth, social representation, and motivation (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). How each of these three levels of self-concept impacts the leader's empowering behaviour will be evaluated on page 25 of Chapter 2, and lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 a: Leader individual self-concept is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Hypothesis 1 b: Leader relational self-concept is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Hypothesis 1 c: Leader collective self-concept is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Moreover, this study will examine the impact of other leader characteristics and contextual factors enabling a more comprehensive understanding of the empowerment process. One such aspects of personality assessed is the trait of honesty-humility measuring tendencies toward honesty, sincerity, and humility. On page 31 of Chapter 2, it will be shown that this aspect of personality has important implications for leader empowering behaviour and results in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Leader honesty-humility personality characteristic is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Another characteristic of the leader expected to influence the empowerment process is moral identity, or the extent to which an individual holds morality as part of his or her self-concept (Aquino & Reed, 2002). The concept of moral identity has been shown to influence the degree to which people emphasize their own needs versus others' (Aquino, Freeman, Reed, Lim, & Felps, 2009; Reed & Aquino, 2003; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007). It will be shown on page 32 of Chapter 2 how a leader's moral identity will impact leader empowering behaviour:

Hypothesis 3: Leader moral identity is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Yet, another characteristic of the leader expected to influence the empowerment process is the desire for dominance. On page 33 of Chapter 2, it will be explored how that desire is related to leader empowering behaviour, yielding the following relationship:

Hypothesis 4: Leader social dominance is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Furthermore, on page 34 of Chapter 2, it will be shown that leaders under threat of losing their position may be less inclined to demonstrate leader empowering behaviour, particularly that this behaviour does not secure their own hold on power. Therefore, it will be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Leader positional insecurity is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Additionally, on page 35 of Chapter 2, it will be investigated whether the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour is moderated by the personal sense of power of the leader. It is suggested that power interacts with the relational and collective self-concepts of the leader to produce behaviour that benefits the group as opposed to only the leader. Specifically, the present model proposes that the antecedents of leader empowering behaviour among leaders arise from a central characteristic of power- that power facilitates goal pursuit.

In general, humans go after things they want and like (Ferguson & Bargh, 2004). However, goal-action relationship has also been shown to be moderated by power. It will be shown that sense of power moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and leader empowering behaviour:

> Hypothesis 6: Power moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and leader empowering behaviour. That is, high power leaders should rely more on their self-concepts in making empowering decisions than low power leaders.

Furthermore, contextual variables such as organizational culture, especially the empowering component, was assessed as a potentially important factor (Schein, 2010), and added to the variables assessed (on page 38 of Chapter 2). It is expected that organizational culture will influence directly as well as interact with a leader's self-concept in predicting leader empowering behaviour.

> Hypothesis 7a: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the involvement dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low on the involvement dimension.
>
> Hypothesis 7b: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the consistency dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low consistency.
>
> Hypothesis 7c: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the adaptability dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low adaptability.
>
> Hypothesis 7d: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the mission dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low clarity on mission and strategies.
>
> Hypothesis 8: The involvement dimension of organizational culture will moderate the relationship between a leader's self-concept and his/her empowering behaviour.

Figure 1 illustrates the relationships between the study variables, capturing the hypotheses that will be tested in the current study.

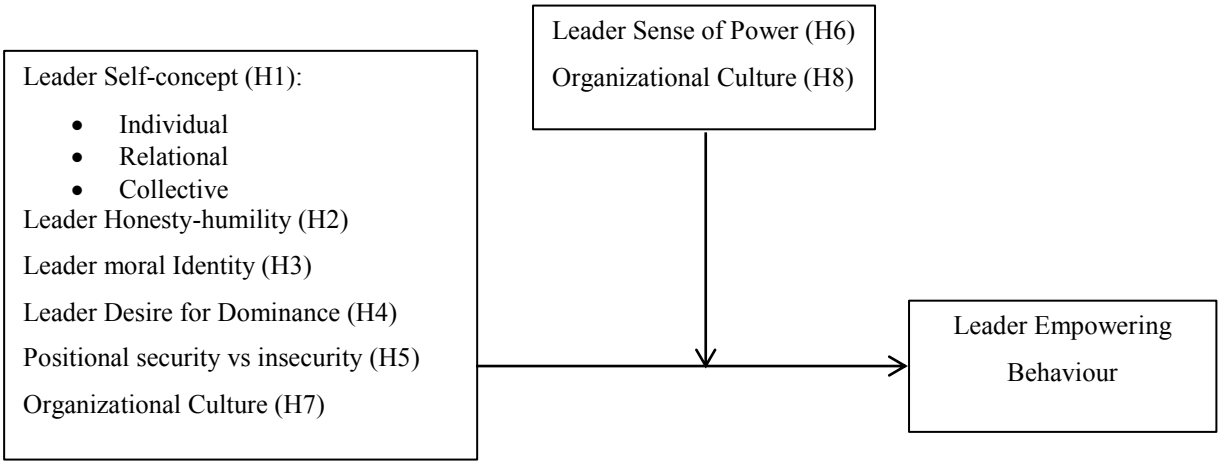

Figure 1. *Conceptual Model*

Outline of the Study

The present dissertation contains five chapters. The problem statement, purpose and significance of the study were presented in Chapter 1. A review of the relevant theory and research literature is presented in Chapter 2. To that end, an overview of theories of leadership with a focus on empowering leadership, self-concept and other leader characteristics are presented, including a summary of research on the empowering leadership- self-concept connection and associated theoretical models. Chapter 2 will also outline power and organizational culture and its link to leader empowering behaviour.

Chapter 3 explains the research design, participant organization, demographics of the population, instrumentation, and data collection methods that were utilized in the current study. Each of the variables tested and the measurement tools employed are explained in detail.
In chapter 4, the findings of each research hypotheses are outlined along with the statistical tests that were conducted. Chapter 5 discusses the results of the study and places the current work in a general context, while describing the limitations and recommendations for future research in the field. Finally, its practical implications are also considered.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

Introduction

The current chapter reviews the pertinent literature related to empowerment, the self-concept, power, and leader characteristics relevant to the empowerment process. Furthermore, organizational culture as a factor influencing the empowerment process will also be reviewed. This chapter is organized around the stated research objectives and provides the basis for the hypotheses.

The first section includes a historical review of leadership, with a special emphasis given to leader empowering behaviour. Secondly, leader self-concept is outlined, including a full description of the characteristic behaviours of leaders with mainly one of the collective, relational and individual self-concepts followed by a research documenting the consequences of their behaviour. Other leader characteristics likely to impact their empowering behaviour are explained. Additionally, the gap in research between empowering and the variables considered is addressed including insights from the literature as to why they are related.

Leadership

Leadership effectiveness, a key role in the success of organizations (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003), has been extensively researched. Traditionally, leadership is defined as the capacity to influence others (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). It is described as a unidirectional influence process through which a group is shaped according to the leaders will. According to Bass's model, the

individual who has the most influence compared to the rest of the group or organization will be considered the leader. However, Rost's (1993) definition of leadership as *"...an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes"* better encapsulates the theme of this study. In that sense, the influence relationship is multidirectional, *"in that influence flows in all directions and not just from the top down and it is noncoercive, meaning that it is not based on authority, power or dictatorial actions but is based on persuasive behaviours..."*(p.121). This new paradigm, wherein followers and leaders do leadership together, has not been the way leadership was conceptualized through the years. As will be discussed next, leaders play an important role in the leadership process, and they may very well be the ones who are reluctant to change it from the traditional top down model.

Historical Views of Leadership

Early writings on leadership provide many examples of leaders representing symbols and role models for their people. References to the central role of leaders throughout history can be found through documented history ranging from early Chinese classics to Egyptian hieroglyphics to the classical Greek literature of Homer and Aristotle and the writings of Renaissance Scholars such as Machiavelli (Wren, 1995). As societies searched to elucidate the myths and legends about their heroes, they shaped the development of civilized societies (Bass, 1980).

Trait theories. The early 20th century researchers (Bowden, 1926; Carlyle, 1907; Galton, 1869; Gibb, 1947; Jenkins, 1947; Kohs & Irle, 1920; Terman, 1904) favoured "the great man" theories with the idea that certain people are born to be leaders and were endowed special trait-like characteristics (e.g. personality and intelligence). This view has been credited to the influence of "Social Darwinism" at the beginning of the 19th century that recognized the notion of survival of the fittest to human societies and organizations (Delavigne, 1994). This view that leaders were born, not made, was established as the consented view of leadership.

The trait approach to leadership determined that personnel selection would benefit from the identification of such traits associated with effective leaders. However, there was no clear list of traits identified, which gave impetus to the behavioural approach.

Behavioural theories. During the 1940's and 1950's, the behavioural approach displaced "the great man" theory, with a focus on state-like individual differences (e.g. knowledge and skills). This perspective postulates that individual differences of effective leaders do not remain constant during the leader's life-span (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011). Rather, they are more changeable than trait-like individual differences (Day & Zaccaro, 2007).

Behavioural researchers, first became concerned with the approach of classifying behaviour to facilitate the understanding of leadership. Hence, they differentiated between authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership behaviours (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Subsequently, great progress in this approach were due to two large-scale efforts: the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan studies. The Ohio State leadership studies explored descriptive dimensions of leadership behaviour in order to categorize the behaviours along the dimensions of consideration and initiating structure (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). In a similar vein, the University of Michigan studies distinguished leadership behaviour that are employee-centered from production-centered (Kahn & Katz, 1953; Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951; Likert, 1961; Mann, 1965). Both these research efforts endeavoured to predict leadership effectiveness based on the distinguishing factor of task- or people- oriented behaviours. Despite the large body of research, a single best leadership style was not identified, as the same behaviour could be effective in one context and not another. It was thereby concluded that the behavioural view of leadership was not complete in our understanding of leadership (Cribbin, 1972).

Contingency theories. Subsequently, in the 1960's and 1970's, leadership research advanced into contingency theories, taking into account situational factors to understand the complexities of leadership. Accordingly, there was no single preferred approach to leadership. The contingency models considered both how the qualities of the leader and the situational demands interact to make leader qualities appropriate to the task undertaken (e.g. Fiedler, 1964, 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

Fidler's contingency theory proposed that leadership effectiveness is dependent upon the interaction of the leadership style and situational characteristics. He posited that task-oriented leaders would be more effective in highly favourable or highly unfavourable situations, whereas

those who are relationship-oriented would be advantaged by somewhat favourable situations. Thus, this approach takes into account the situation in which leadership is embedded in determining leadership effectiveness.

Similarly, the path-goal theory of leadership (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974) is concerned with the situational factors whereupon leadership occurs. Path-goal theory finds its bases in Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964), which advances that employees are more likely to engage in activities if they perceive a high probability that their behaviour will lead to valued outcomes. Accordingly, leadership effectiveness is contingent upon increasing a follower's motivation by providing the needed clarifications such that the follower can expect to attain work goals and receive rewards for the achievement of the goal. The path-goal theory takes into account the employee's personal characteristics and the contextual demands on employees in determining which leadership styles (e.g. directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership) are useful in clarifying the employee's paths. For example, path-goal theory suggests that the level of task structure moderates the relationship between directive leader behaviour and job satisfaction. The relationship is positive for low task structure and negative for high task structure. In the event of high task structure, the employees already identify the path to success. Any additional directions by the leader may be taken as undue control. Thereby, followers are distinguished from situational factors and are viewed as actively affecting the leadership process.

Social exchange perspective. Alternative to the contingency models, at around the same time, a line of research emerged shifting attention from the actions and behaviour of leaders towards the dyadic relationship between leaders and their followers. One such theories, leader-member exchange (LMX), produced by Graen (1975) recognizes that leaders develop different relationships with each subordinate. The central tenet of this theory is that these relationships impact important leader and member outcomes differently. For example, subordinates who perceive a high quality relationship with their supervisors contribute more and achieve more than those reporting low-quality relationships (Liden & Graen, 1980).

Furthermore, LMX researchers recognized leadership styles that leaders can develop with their vertical dyadic followers with varying amounts of authority. Leaders can influence without authority if they have developed higher levels of mutual support, trust and loyalty, and

latitude towards their followers. Inversely, they need more authority when influencing based on more formal supervisory roles and practices.

Transactional, transformational and charismatic leadership theories. Similar to the path-goal theory, transactional leadership was based in Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation. Transactional approach to leadership emphasizes the social exchange or transaction over time that exists as transactional leaders clarify how follower's needs be fulfilled in exchange for job fulfillment (Burns, 1978). Thus, the role of the transactional leader is identifying the followers' needs, monitoring their job performance and clarifying contingencies (i.e., rewards and punishments). This view places the leader at the center of all follower behaviour, which can lead to micro-managing.

Later, Bass (1985) moved away from this transactional view and towards transformational/charismatic leadership. Based on Weber's (1947) early work, it emphasized behaviours that allow such leaders to remarkably influence their followers. In charismatic/transformational leadership, the accent is placed on raising the follower's aspirations and activating their higher-order values. As a result, the followers identity with the leader's vision, feel more satisfied with their work, and exercise more effort, beyond simple transactions and expectations (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004). In addition, transformational leaders, by their delegation behaviours, empower their followers, allowing them to think independently and to challenge the leader's status quo (Kark & Shamir, 2003). Through their attitudes and behaviours, transformational leaders develop the leadership potential of their followers and favour more collective forms of leadership (Bass, 1985; Denis, Langley, & Sergi, 2012).

Shared leadership. The increasing complexity in the work environment gave way to more collective forms of leadership (Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffer, 2012). Employees' initiatives and self-directed performance were recognized as important assets in responding to the growing complexity. Ensued a shift in management from control to autonomy, and the expansion and development of the roles of followers in the leadership of organizations. Building on this groundwork, recent models have progressively emphasized the follower's role as being less passive than previously observed. Employees from all levels are allowed and even encouraged to participate in affecting their work environment. Therefore, power and influence

as well as decision-making and responsibility are shared among subordinates, superiors, and groups of employees (Weber, 2012).

The underlying assumption of these collective practices of leadership is that shared leadership will only take place if group members are empowered to participate in the leadership process. Sharing is a choice on the part of hierarchical leaders who empower others (Hollander & Offerman, 1990). As Sveiby (2011) posits, collective forms of leadership do not appear in a vacuum, it rather requires benevolent action on the part of the hierarchical leader to allow others to be involved. Individuals who want to have the sole responsibility of leading and who have difficulty sharing these responsibilities may fail in situations that may involve collective performance (Foushee, 1984). Conversely, individuals who are skilled at empowering others by sharing of leadership responsibilities may be best suited for collectivist leadership assignments. In accordance, empowering leadership, reflecting the concept of granting power to employees or enhancing employee efficacy level has gained prominence (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Management and leadership. Towards the end of the 20th century, surged an increasing controversy and debate over the differentiation between leadership and management (Rost, 1991). Katz and Kahn (1978) proposed the following distinction:

> We maintain that every act of influence on a matter of organizational relevance is to some degree an act of leadership… We consider the essence of organizational leadership to be the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directives of the organization. (pp. 302-303).

Moreover, Zaleznik (1989) adopted a trait approach to make the difference between leaders and managers, specifying the difference between these two groups as reflected in their personality styles. The differences in manager's and leader's worldviews can be assessed through their orientations toward their goals, their work, their human relations, and their selves (Zaleznik, 1977).

Rost (1991) reported that the majority of theorists and researchers interchangeably used the terms leadership and management due to the lack of resolution concerning how best to differentiate these constructs. Eventually, the implicit assumption was simply that leadership was good management. Rost further observed that the "good guy/bad guy" view of leadership/management was prevalent in the 1980's and was still well established in the leadership literature of the early 1990's.

The definitional ambiguities associated with leadership and management have yet to be resolved (Yukl, 1998). Some scholars suggest that leadership and management characterize qualitatively different types of people (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Zaleznik, 1977). According to another view, leadership and management are distinct processes that can be carried out by the same individuals (Bass, 1990; Kotter, 1988). This confusion about leadership and management is likely to continue for some time as the leadership construct is rebuilt in ways that distinguish it from management.

Conclusion

The decline of the heroic leader and the rise of the collective styles of leadership in the past years is the response to the complexity of the environments in what Ronald Heifetz calls "adaptive challenges". Whereas it started with individuals who could contemplate a situation analytically and then direct subordinates to carry out well planned procedures, it is no longer possible for any one individual to know the solution or even define the problem. There is the increasing necessity for groups to share information, create plans, influence each other, and make collective decisions. However, shared leadership will take place only if group members are empowered to engage in leadership roles or processes.

In the same line of thought, Gemmill and Oakley (1992) propose that the traditional notion of leadership in the 20th century had the goal of preserving existing social systems by offering members a means to avoid personal responsibility for change. Instead, the authors offer the notion of today's leadership as a dynamic collaboration among individuals in which all members take part in improving the social systems. They posit that change cannot take place with traditional leadership structures and the associated experimentation with concepts and ideas. Instead, it requires that all its constituents participate in forming new methods of collaborating together.

McGill and Slocum (1998) suggest that leadership can be developed by giving the opportunity to lead to all employees through organizations by reducing the situation to the task at hand. Leading from the front, was the way to lead in the 20th century, empowering from behind will become the main leadership paradigm of the 21st century (Bagshaw & Bagshaw, 1999).

Given the salience of this relatively new leadership style, particularly since 2000, leadership scholars have explored leader empowering behaviours (Ahearne, 2000; Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Hui, 1994; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000) and examined the outcomes of those behaviours (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). Moreover, a number of authors have discussed the factors that may affect the process of empowerment (e.g. organizational factors, leadership style, reward systems, job design). The next section of the literature review examines the results of these findings as well as how the present study attempts to fill identified gaps in the literature.

Empowerment

Clearly, the concept of empowerment has emerged as a key initiative in responding to new environmental demands (Forrester, 2000). Follower empowerment has proved to be effective for the employee and the organization if properly used (Forrester, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995). Indeed, empowerment has been found by some to be at the root of organizational effectiveness (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kanter, 1979, 1983; McClelland, 1975). Yet, it is not the case that all leaders and all organizations empower their members. The question then becomes "why?".

A number of scholars have investigated the contextual factors affecting empowerment (e.g. organizational factors, reward systems, job design; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Others have focused on the skills and competencies of the follower in carrying out the task as influencing the empowerment process (Leana, 1986, 1987; Yukl & Fu, 1999). While much effort has focused on discerning organizational characteristics related to empowerment, scant research has examined how individual differences relate to empowering behaviour by the leader. This study attempts to fill this gap by identifying important leader characteristics influencing the empowerment process. Moreover, Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) recently argued strongly that, going forward, the field would be better served by focusing on the constituent elements, processes, or mechanisms of leadership (such as, for example, the process of empowering followers) rather than on leadership as a unitary construct. This research investigates empowering behaviour as one such element of leadership. An understanding of how the specific mechanisms of empowering behaviour unfold will inform the broad construct of leadership and provide insight into why leaders do what they do.

Empowering Leadership

At large, empowering leadership refers to the general category of leadership styles engaged with enabling or sharing power with subordinates. As such, leadership styles concerned with the concept of empowerment, such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and shared leadership (cf. Avolio, Jung, Murry, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2000; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Pearce, Yoo, & Alavi, 2004) are often considered as empowering leadership styles. For example, research on transformational leadership recognizes empowerment to be a significant influence mechanism of the leader (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Bass, 1985; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). However, transformational leadership has been distinguished from empowering leadership in at least one way. That is transformational leaders, through charisma, are found to make subordinates highly dependent on them through high degrees of personal identification (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Howell, 1988; Kark et al., 2003; Shamir, 1991). This distinction between transformational and empowering leadership suggests that true empowerment is independent of the leader and is primarily concerned with the behaviours of the leader towards followers.

Two main notions of empowerment have emerged (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The first, labeled the relational approach, focuses on the behaviour of the leader. It concerns a transfer of some of the power from the leader to the follower that takes place in order to reduce some of the dependencies in doing the work (Burke, 1986; Lawler, 1992; Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003).

In the second approach, as Page and Czuba (1999) suggested, "empowerment is a multi-dimensional social process that helps people gain control over their own lives" (p.5). It is described as a four-dimensional psychological state manifested in meaning (the value of a work goal or purpose), competence or self-efficacy (an individual's belief in having the skills and capabilities to perform activities), self-determination (an individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions), and impact (the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work). However, this latter perspective is focused on the consequences of empowering behaviour of leaders on subordinates. In that sense, empowerment is an enabling construct rather than a delegating process, as is the first

perspective. Given the second approach's focus on the consequences of empowerment, it is less suitable to the study of determinants of empowering behaviour. Thus, in agreement with previous researchers (e.g. Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003; Hakimi, van Knippenberg, & Giessner, 2010), the first approach, the relational approach will be used in the present study given its focus on the leader.

Leader empowering behaviours. Researchers examining the role of the leader in subordinate empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000; Bartram & Casimir, 2007) have proposed the construct of empowering leadership to be a six-dimensional construct including *(a) authority, (b) accountability, (c) self-directed decision-making, (d) information sharing, (e) skill development, and (f) coaching for innovative performance.*

(a) The first dimension, delegation of authority, is central to the empowerment process. It concerns the granting of power to subordinates, by giving up control and becoming more dependent on followers. Thereby, risks are involved by giving greater responsibilities to followers; for example, leaders may perceive their job security and career progression more at risk if they depend on others (Forrester, 2000).

(b) Leader empowering behaviour entails more than the delegation of certain amount of authority and autonomy to followers to exercise control over work decisions (Arnold et al., 2000; Konczak et al., 2000). In effect, by sharing of power by the leader, new responsibilities are placed on followers for which they should be held accountable. Ford and Fottler (1995) suggested that the process of empowerment is a mechanism through which individuals and teams are held accountable for outcomes.

(c) Also, empowering leaders encourage their subordinates to participate in decision-making in identifying problems and correcting them given the greater level of accountability assumed (Wellins et al., 1991).

(d) Also, truly empowering leaders share information and knowledge necessary to improve subordinate work performance (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Consequently, access to information and knowledge allows followers to contribute to the organization and enables them to make influential decisions.

(e) Furthermore, empowerment encompasses the development of subordinate skills needed to enable them to participate in leadership activities (Wellins, et al., 1991)

(f) Empowering behaviours also include coaching behaviours such as inciting calculated risk-taking, and the inspiration of new ideas as well as using mistakes and setbacks as learning opportunities (Konczak et al., 2000). Per se, empowerment is both a process of giving subordinates resources and as increasing their sense of self-worth (Neilsen, 1986) by enhancing feelings of efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Other dimensions of empowering leader behaviours distinguished in the literature are leading and demonstrating concern for employees (Arnold et al., 2000; Pearce & Sims, 2002), encouragement, interacting with team and group management (Arnold et al., 2000), as well as leading by example (Pearce & Sims, 2002). As a result of these leader practices, subordinates are likely to report higher levels of psychological empowerment with their associated individual and organizational outcomes (Spreitzer, 1996).

Consequences of empowerment. Kanter (1977) posited, in her seminal work of structural power in organizations, that contingent on certain structural supports (power & opportunity), different behaviours are exhibited by its members. She identified early on that the empowered give rise to an effective workplace, whereas the powerless are more rigid, a mindset regulated by rules and are less concerned with the achievement of the organization's goals. Leaders in that respect have an important role in creating the empowerment process.

Indeed, empowering leader behaviours have been shown to bring about a number of consequences on employees and organizations (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). Empowering leaders have been shown to psychologically empower their subordinates (Ahearne, et al., 2005; Mathieu et al., 2006; Konczak et al., 2000; Mathieu et al., 2006; Raub & Robert, 2010; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). More precisely, by enhancing the meaningfulness of work through their behaviour, they help an employee understand the importance of their contribution to the organizational effectiveness. Also, by expressing confidence in the employee's competence and vision for high performance, a high level of employee self-efficacy results (Ahearne et al., 2005). Moreover, the empowering leader provides subordinates with autonomy and prospects for self-determination, serving as encouragement for the employee to carry out work (Pearce et al., 2003; Sims & Manz, 1996).

Finally, empowering leaders foster participation, giving employees feelings of greater control over the immediate work situation. Therefore, empowering behaviours by the leader have been consistently related to enhanced employee psychological empowerment.

Studies have shown that through the effect of psychological empowerment, employees act in ways that are beneficial to their organization in a variety of ways, such as enhanced job performance (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005), increased extra-role behaviour (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010), job satisfaction (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010), employee voice (Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011), intrinsic motivation (Chen et al., 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), organizational commitment (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2012; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000; Mare, 2007), work engagement and innovation (Tuckey et al., 2012) and decreased turnover intention (Mare, 2007).

Given these positive outcomes associated with the empowerment of employees, it is not surprising that there is a shift of focus from leader as a source of control to leaders as a source of motivation and development (Conger, 1989; Forrester, 2000). Indeed, with the many benefits of empowerment, organizations around the globe are seeking to empower their employees to better compete in the demanding global marketplace (Deming 1993; Kirkman & Rosen 1999). Yet, despite ample empirical evidence linking leader empowering behaviour to positive individual and organizational outcomes, and the benefits communicated to leaders, empirical results show that leaders fail to practice it (Argyris, 1998; Coleman, 2009; Forrester, 2000). Given that part of the problem is attributed to leaders, as empowerment depends largely on their actions (Argyris, 1998; Forrester, 2000; Yukl, 2002), it is essential to better understand the phenomenon of empowerment from the leader's perspective. What factors contribute to leader empowerment behaviour remains an open question.

A host of organizational factors have been studied in the empowerment process (e.g. organizational factors, reward systems, job design; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). However, the leader is required to make an evaluation on a number of these organizational dimensions affecting their decision to empower. This assessment is dependent on the outcome the leader may be biased towards (Hollander et al., 1990). For instance, more empowering oriented leaders are more inclined to see that their subordinates have the essential skills and to share necessary information with them to carry on important decisions affecting them. Even if the subordinate did not possess the required skills, they would

be willing to help the subordinate develop those skills. Conversely, if the leader is not willing to empower, he/she can choose to withhold information, development and decision-making opportunities (Mulder, 1971). Therefore, given the centrality of leader volition to empower or not their followers (Burke, 1986; Kanter, 1983), it is expected that the construct of power occupies a central position in elucidating the empowerment process from a leader's perspective.

Power

Power, or the asymmetric control over valued resources (Fiske, 1993; French & Raven, 1959; Keltner et al., 2003), is inherent in organizations where hierarchies are ubiquitous. Hierarchies among organizations facilitate cooperation and coordination (Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). As such, power and leadership are intimately related, although they are viewed as distinct constructs. Power use by leaders is essential in directing and coordinating the activities of group members to meet a goal (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). More importantly, possessing power has transformative impacts on an individual's psychological state (Keltner et al., 2003; Kipnis, 1972).

A number of studies have investigated the consequences of the psychological effects of power and added to the body of evidence about its dual nature: its constructive and destructive facets (Follett, 1924; Kanter, 1979; McClelland, 1975; Pfeffer, 1981). The positive aspect of power involves the coordination of human activity to accomplish organizational goals. In that respect, studies have found the powerful to be less likely to be distracted by conformity pressures (Chen et al., 2001; Galinsky et al., 2007), are more creative (Smith & Trope, 2006), are more goal-focused (Guinote, 2007), are more agentic (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Galinsky et al., 2003; Magee, Galinsky, & Gruenfeld, 2007) and act more in line with their personalities and attitudes (Anderson et al., 2001; Bargh, Pryor, & Strack, 1995).

Also power has been shown to have destructive impact, turning leaders into selfish, corrupt individuals (Kipnis, 1972; Maner & Mead, 2007), reducing empathy and openness to the perspectives, emotions, and attitudes of others (Chen et al., 2001; Maner et al., 2007; Snodgrass, 1992; Van Kleef et al., 2006) and a tendency to objectify and stereotype others (Galinsky et al., 2003; Galinsky, Magee, Inesi, & Gruenfeld, 2006; Goodwin, Gubin, Fiske, & Yzerbyt, 2000; Gruenfeld et al., 2008).

Inherently, power is neither constructive nor destructive, it is essentially "the ability to bring about desired outcomes" Salancik and Pfeffer (1977, p.3). How the individual who possesses power uses it determines its constructive or destructive outcomes. Coleman (2009) suggests that power is understood through the individuals' personal experiences and the basic assumptions they hold about human nature and the nature of relations between people. Accordingly, Chen, Lee-Chai, and Bargh (2001), taking a social-cognitive approach to examine the effects of power, found that depending on whether the participants in their study were communal- or exchange- oriented, power was mentally associated with different goals. Communally oriented individuals who are more relationship-oriented, were predicted to pay attention to others' needs and associate power with social-responsible goals. On the other hand, individuals who are exchange-oriented were predicted to have a salient personal self and more likely to think of power for self-interest goals. As predicted, their results show that power-primed communally oriented individuals responded more responsibly towards others, whereas power-primed exchange-oriented individuals responded in more self-serving ways. However, they did not see any exchange or communal effects in behaviour when participants were not power-primed.

Given that power derives meaning from the social context in which it exists, it is similarly expected that factors that affect a person's relational or social orientation may significantly influence power processes. A principal aspect of an individual's relationship with others lies in the individual's self-definition in the relationship, which is his or her self-concept (Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012). Given that the fundamental problem in empowering initiatives is the reluctance of some who are in power to share it (Argyris & Schon, 1996, 1978; Jesaitis & Day, 1992), self-concept may well prove a significant factor that helps distinguish those leaders who do empower from those who do not. It is to this issue that we now turn.

Self-concept Theory

Self-concept describes the values, attributes and qualities an individual uses to define one's self (Hoelter, 1985). The review of the literature finds self-concept to be associated with a number of different labels (e.g. self-identity, self-definition, personal identity, individual identity). Generally, this feeling of knowing oneself is important as it helps in making sense of events, in motivating and self-regulating processes in making choices (Oyserman et al., 2012)

and has significant consequences for behaviour (Swann & Bosson, 2010). Self-concept has gained prominence in the leadership literature, given that leadership emerges in a social context (Lord & Brown, 2004; Lord, Brown, & Frieberg, 1999; Uhl-Bien, 2006; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). Importantly, as elaborated later on, it may also help explain empowerment processes.

Importantly, people can think of themselves in different ways based on their level of inclusiveness at which they define themselves. Based on Brewer and Gardner's (1996) model, Lord, Brown, and Friedberg (1999) szhave conceptualized self-concept at three conceptually independent selves: individual, relational and collective.

Three levels of Self-concept

Individual. At the individual level, self-concept is based on the comparison of one's traits to those of others to perceive one's uniqueness. Categorizing oneself more strongly with an individual self-concept means seeing oneself as distinct from others and guided by personal rather than group goals (Stets & Burke, 2003). The primary motivation in pursuing personal goals is to maximize one's own welfare, similar to the individualism cultural value (Hofstede, 2001). In a work context, valued economic and socioemotional rewards and the prevention of the loss of investments, such as pay and career development opportunities, as well as recognition, power, and respect represent such self-beneficial outcomes. Generally, those incentives that directly benefit the person or serve to compare oneself with others is important at this level. People with mainly individual self-views prioritize competition and standing out from others over cooperation and fitting in with others (Brockner, Chen, Mannix, Leung, & Skarlicki, 2000; Heine, Lehman, Markus, & Kitayama, 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). For instance, a leader who uses valuable organizational resources to distinguish his status from others can be thought as functioning from an individual self-concept by being focused on standing out from others.

Relational. At the relational self-concept, the self is understood in light of others and in terms of the roles that specify his/her relationship with others (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). For example, in work settings, the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) represents the characteristics associated with a relational self-concept. Individuals

at this level are motivated to act in favor of specific other's benefit and their self-worth derives from engaging in appropriate role behaviours with relational partners and maintaining those relationships (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). In an organizational context, individuals with higher levels of relational self-concept may contribute to other-focused behaviours, such as helping behaviours, and support of a coworker, subordinate or supervisor.

Collective. When the self is understood collectively, an individual self-identifies at the group level or the larger collective (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). He or she is motivated to enhance group welfare and performance (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Moreover, collective self-concept is similar to social identity (Hogg, 2006) and collectivism (Hofstede, 2001) reflecting, as in each of these concepts, a general tendency to define oneself as having the characteristics of a particular social group.

Whereas relational self-concept is based on interactions between dyads, collective self-concept differentiates by its incorporation of more abstract values and norms prototypical of the group (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Although relational and collective self-concepts may at times overlap, they are unique in terms of the referent targets. For instance, in a group context, individuals with a collective self-concept may identify with the group's values and objectives but not necessarily with the relationships with other group members, as the relational self-concept level would imply. An individual with a collective self-concept is likely to identify with workgroups, departments, and the organization (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000).

While individuals have all three self-concepts- individual, relational, and collective- one level of the self is believed dominant over the others (Thatcher & Greer, 2008). As situations arise, it is the dominant self-concept which defines the orientation with which the individual approaches it. Evidence exists that the majority of individuals do indeed have a dominant self-concept orientation (Kashima & Hardie, 2000) and it is this self-concept orientation that influences empowerment through behaviours and cognitions (Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010; Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006; Johnson & Chang, 2006).

Self-concept and Organizational Outcomes

The empirical literature on leader self-concept finds this construct to be linked to a number of organizational phenomena such as leadership (Lord & Brown, 2004), team

functioning (Jackson, et al., 2006), employee commitment (Johnson, et al., 2010), high-quality LMX (e.g. Chang & Johnson, 2010; Johnson & Saboe, 2011) and behaviour (e.g. Chang & Johnson, 2010; Johnson, Saboe, & Chang, 2009; Johnson & Saboe, 2011; Jackson, et al., 2006; Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012).

In one such study, Johnson et al. (2012) collected self-report data from 53 high-level managers on their daily behaviour for a period of three weeks and related them to the self-concept orientations of the leaders. The authors found that leaders with a strong collective identity displayed more transformational behaviours (r= .61, p < .01), those with a strong relational identity engaged in more consideration behaviour (r= .62, p < .01), whereas those with a strong individual identity were involved in more abusive behaviours (r= .64, p < .01).

Findings from the self-concept approach to leadership inform us that at each level, unique leader motives and behaviours may influence their behaviour (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Gelfand, Smith, Raver, & Nishii, 2006; Gore, Cross, & Kanagawa, 2009; Lord et al., 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In view of the evidence that self-concept is a fundamental sense-making frame in interpersonal relationships (Leary & Tangney, 2003), affecting leadership outcomes, an important question is how the theory on self-concept may be related to empowerment processes.

Individual self-concept and empowering behaviour. As previously noted, when the leader self-defines at the individual self-concept, a sense of unique identity, separate from others and comprised of unique attributes is activated (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The leader's motivations have a predominantly egocentric character, which may make them focus more on self-benefit (Brewer & Gardner, 1966) and autonomy (Hui & Villareal, 1989).

Empirical research demonstrates that a motive of individual self-concept orientation is self-enhancement (Heine, et al., 1999; Yuki, 2003). Such individuals are concerned with gaining prestige for themselves (Hwang, Francesco, & Kessler, 2003). Correspondingly, it has been found that leaders with a higher individual self-concept appear more concerned with gaining prestige for themselves than individuals with a lower self-concept orientation (Hwang, et al., 2003). In fact, a key characteristic of leaders with this self-concept is their concern with individual interests and individual gain (Chen, Chen, & Meindl, 1998; Sagie, Elizur, & Yamauchi, 1996). Leaders functioning mainly from an individual self-concept may be conscious

that one's and other's goals may be incompatible, in which case power will be wielded for one's own benefit at the expense of the outcomes for others. This perspective may lead them to a competitive process (Wisse & van Knippenberg, 2009). In turn, a competitive perspective may lead to more hostility, less communication, close-mindedness, defiance to other's influence and goal frustration (Tjosvold & Wu, 2009). Furthermore, those behaviours enhancing the difference between leaders and followers are often abusive in nature. In support of this view, individual self-concept has been linked to self-serving behaviour (Rus, van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010), abusive acts towards others (Johnson et al., 2012) and harmful relations with subordinates (Chang & Johnson, 2010; Jackson & Johnson, 2012).

Johnson et al. (2012) associate the status and power inherent in leadership roles to be further appealing to individual self-concept leaders given their potential for differentiating themselves from others (Brickson, 2000; Lord & Brown, 2004). Consequently, people who regard their power as a core of their self-concept are less likely to share power as sharing would reduce their differentiation with others. They persevere to their deeply held views of leadership as primarily an individual attribute that is owned by them and serves to dominate others (Drath, 2001). They may feel obligated to protect their superiority by asserting their dominance towards employees (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Kipnis, 1976; McClelland, 1975).

A reason for the expression of these personally possessed qualities or characteristics, which may be abusive (e.g. Rus et al., 2010), is that occupying the role of a leader activates certain cognitive frameworks referred to as role schemas (Fiske, 1993). In organizational groups (Ancona, 1990), individuals perceive themselves in terms of their roles within the group. The role schemas guide how social information is processed and how decisions are made. According to the social-cognitive literature, it is assumed that once role schemas are activated, certain knowledge about the roles, expectations and privileges associated with that role become accessible (Fiske, 1993; Fiske & Taylor, 1991). The individual self-concept (influenced by role schemas) may in turn motivate a leader to perceive certain behaviours to be acceptable.

Also important to the discussion on empowerment and self-concept is the tendency for leaders who self-define at the individual level, to view one's resources as belonging to the self (Aron & Aron, 2000). Given the inherent power in the leader role, they have possession of power and control over decisions. Hollander and Offermann (1990) proposed that there might be a belief that by empowering others the leader loses power posseed. Accordingly, Coleman (2009)

posited that managers who view power as fixed and limited are unlikely to share it. Given the appeal of power to leaders with an individual self-concept (Johnson et al., 2012), the fear of loss of power may be constraining them to share power with their subordinates. Also, viewing their relationship with their subordinates as competitive, the gain of the employees comes at their expense.

Together, these characteristics and behaviours of leaders with an individual self-concept, makes it unlikely to be associated with the sharing of power with others and the desire to empower subordinates. Therefore, hypothesis 1a states:

> Hypothesis 1a: Leader individual self-concept is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Relational self-concept and empowering behaviour. Unlike individual self-concept, the relational self-concept includes a view of the self as connected to others through relationships (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Aron, McLauglin-Volpe et al. (2004) posited that the motivation to include others in their self-concept may stem from their desire for self-expansion. It may be a way through which they acquire goals and perspectives, and accomplish objectives. When the other is included in the self, this means that the other's resources are perceived as one's own. Thus, by helping others, they are helping self and by interfering with the other, they are interfering with self (Aron, et al., 2004).

Hence, prosocial motivation, as the desire to benefit others (Batson, 1987) is enhanced. Motivated by prosocial behaviour, more satisfaction is drawn from behaviours that have a positive impact on others. In accordance, relationally oriented leaders have been shown to lead in a self-sacrificial manner (Jackson et al., 2006). Their identities being intertwined with those of their partners, satisfying their partner's needs enhances their self-worth (Brickson, 2000). Consequently, goals are likely to be cooperative. Therefore, at the relational self-concept, the basic social motivation is to strive for dyadic goals and mutual enhancement (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Chang & Johnson, 2010). Also, their contingent self-worth on their partners also motivates relationally oriented leaders to exert effort to develop and maintain high-quality relationships (Andersen et al., 2002).

The concern for cultivating quality relationships with their followers (Chang & Johnson, 2010) assists leaders with relational self-concept to self-regulate based on their follower's needs, provide feedback to followers, as well as accepting feedback from followers and adapting accordingly. As such, Sluss and Ashforth (2007) claim that strong supporting and developmental relationships with followers may facilitate their empowerment. The high quality relationship may inspire leaders to trust their subordinates, be more willing to delegate tasks and create the conditions for participative decision-making (Brower et al., 2000). Also, given the salience of relationships to the relational self-concept, Cross and Morris (2003) found that individuals with this orientation have a higher tendency to attend to and remember the perspectives of others than do individuals low in this level of self-concept (Cross et al., 2003). Moreover, Drath (2001) proposed that through an interpersonal relationship, leaders who rely less on directing others, engage in negotiating influence. Being less directive, leaders refer more to a process of agreeing or disagreeing, planning and negotiating in order to develop the independence and autonomy of others (Day & Harrison, 2007). Developing their subordinate's potential, there is less need for guidance on the part of the leaders.

Furthermore, based on the attachment theory (Bowlby, 1973, 1980), when there are trusted others around to support and help them, individuals can realize their full potential. Knowing that help is available decreases the sense of uncertainty, anxiety and loneliness (Flum, 2001). Also, fostering close relationships has been shown to be essential for the psychological growth of followers since it can fulfill important needs such as self-enhancement, and self-expansion (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). Leaders, by showing interest in individual subordinates, show concern for their distinct skills and capabilities, increasing their self-efficacy and empowering them to develop fully (Wang & Howell, 2010).

Correspondingly, in a practical setting, Coleman (2006) found a relationship between leaders who develop constructive relationships with their employees and involve them in decision-making and the sharing of power. Those leaders encouraging cooperation, willing to help employees be more able and successful, are more likely to view power as expandable. This is in contrast to leaders with an individual self-concept who may view power as limited and a source of competition.

Hence, at the relational self-concept, there is an increase in behaviours encouraging high levels of social support, shared responsibility and interdependence (Chang & Johnson, 2010; Venus et al., 2012) contributing to subordinate empowerment. Therefore, hypothesis 1b states:

> Hypothesis 1b: Leader relational self-concept is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Collective self-concept and empowering behaviour. Similar to how the relational self-concept lessens the distinction between leader and other, self-defining at the collective level diminishes the distinction between leader and group and fits the group into part of the leader's self (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). At the collective self-concept level, one focuses on group membership, perceiving oneself as embedded in a larger social unity (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Given their perceived unity with the group, leaders with a more dominant collective self-concept internalize group goals and values.

According to the social identity theory and self-categorization models of leadership (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Tajfel & Turner, 2004; van Knippengerg & Hogg, 2003), by emphasizing group-level self-concept, one is provided with the basis for the perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioural effects of group membership. Such that, the more one self-perceives as belonging to a group, and hence identifies with the group, the more one's attitudes and behaviours are guided by the group. Therefore, as the collective self-concept is enhanced, behaviour is motivated by the collective's interest, as the group now forms part of the self.

Individuals with a stronger collective self-concept strive to foster relationships with the group and its members. In addition, when the group constitutes part of the self, resources, perspectives and identities of the group also comprise the self. Consequently, leaders are less likely to behave in ways that may endanger the relationship they have with group members (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). They will use power to benefit the collective and behaviours aimed at improving group outcomes.

As Day and Harrison (2007) contend, at this level of self-concept, leadership is no longer viewed as the property of a single individual but as the property and responsibility of the social system and entities within the given system. If group achievement requires leaders to both lead and follow at times, they are willing to do so (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007). Accordingly,

Johnson and Saboe (2011) demonstrated that leaders with a collective self-concept behave in more self-sacrificial ways, benefitting the collective interest. They act with others rather than individually and are less likely to act in self-serving behaviours (Jonson et al., 2012). They undertake more citizenship and supportive behaviours (Johnson et al., 2011) fostering the empowerment of subordinates. Therefore, hypothesis 1c states:

> Hypothesis 1 c: Leader collective self-concept is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Personality and Situational Attributes and Leader Empowering Behaviour

In addition to self-concept, leaders vary in terms of other personality characteristics expected to influence their empowering behaviour. Leader characteristics, including honesty-humility, moral identity and desire for dominance, as well as situational characteristics such as positional insecurity and sense of power will be explored next and their relative importance to leader empowering behaviour will be assessed in the current study.

Leader honesty-humility and empowering behaviour. One perspective on personality expected to influence leader empowering behaviour is the trait of honesty-humility measuring tendencies toward honesty, sincerity, and humility. Humility refers to the ability to look at one's own accomplishments and talents in their proper perspective (Patterson, 2003). For instance, leaders who are more prone to admit they do not know it all and that they can learn from others.

The trait of honesty-humility negatively predicts self-focused actions (Grover & Enz, 2005; Lee, Ashton, & de Vries, 2005). For instance, it has been found that those in a position of power and low in honesty-humility keep more resources for themselves in a series of economic games (Hilbig & Zettler, 2009). Similarly, those low in honesty-humility were more likely to use a position of power to make a self-benefitting business decisions, such as choosing to pursue a personally profitable but environmentally damaging mining project, and to report that they might use a supervisory role to extract sexual favors from a subordinate (Ashton & Lee, 2008). Similarly, Lee, Gizzarone and Ashton (2003) found that sexual coercion from a position of

power was negatively predicted by honesty-humility. Finally, managers low on honesty-humility, were less likely to be described by their employees as using an ethical leadership style (de Vries, 2012). Similarly, given that empowering leadership requires a focus on others and a willingness to support them in leading themselves, it was expected that those leaders high on honesty-humility are more likely to act in an empowering fashion towards their subordinates. Hence, hypothesis two states:

> Hypothesis 2: Leader honesty-humility personality variable is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Leader moral identity and empowering behaviour. This section explores the relation between a leader's core values and empowering behaviour. Drawing on Aquino and Reed's (2002) moral identity internalization concept or the extent to which an individual holds morality as part of their selves, moral identity has been shown to influence the degree to which people emphasize their own versus others' needs (Aquino et al., 2009; Reed & Aquino, 2003; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007).

Values guide individuals to evaluate the desirability of their own and others' behaviour (Schwarts & Bilsky, 1987). Indeed, individuals are said to differ in how self-enhancing conditions are desirable for them (such as achieving power, wealth, public accomplishments, or pleasure; Van Lange, Otten, De Bruin, & Joireman, 1997) and, conversely, the extent to which they view it as desirable to transcend the self (such as by acting for the benefit of close others or society as a whole; Schwartz et al., 2012) or to maintain a caring and compassionate self-view (termed moral identity internalization; Aquino & Reed, 2002). For instance, DeCelles, DeRue, Margolis and Ceranic (2012) found that those higher in moral identity, took fewer resources for themselves compared to those low in moral identity. Two field studies also found that managers with low moral identity were seen by their subordinates as offering fewer voice opportunities (Brebels, DeCremer, Van Dijke, & Van Hiel, 2011) and acting as less ethical (Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012).

Similarly, in a study investigating the consequences of holding self-enhancing values versus self-transcendent values, researchers found those in a position of power were more likely to decrease the size of the offers that they made to their partners in a game, thus generating

larger final payouts for themselves (Lönnqvist, Walkowitz, Verkasalo, & Wichardt, 2011). In another study, it was found that people with self-enhancement values were more likely to view themselves as more deserving than their partners leading them to keep a greater portion of the bonus for themselves (van Dijk & De Cremer, 2006). Also, Illies and Reiter-Palmon (2008), exploring the behaviour of managers in a series of business decisions, found that managers with self-enhancement values are more likely to display behaviours with short-term self-benefiting outcomes over long-term organizational goals.

Yet, in another study, individuals with a competitive value orientation showed a negative relationship between their power and the prospect of them taking their partner's perspective, whereas there was no effect of relationship power on partner perspective taking within individuals with a more cooperative value orientation (Gordon & Chen, 2013). Likewise, Blickle et al. (2006), conducting a field study, found that self-enhancement values were higher within managers who were convicted of white-collar crimes as compared to a matched sample of managers. Therefore, it is expected that leaders who place a higher value on serving and assisting others (high moral identity) versus personal achievement (low moral identity) are more likely to empower their subordinates.

Hypothesis 3: Leader moral identity is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Motivation for power or desire for dominance. This section reports on the evidence for the view that some individuals may have a higher desire for dominance and how that desire translates into different behaviours. Foster and Rusbult (1999) refer to a common lay view that the very desire for power is suspect and that those who seek it necessarily have self-interested aims. Furthermore, these individuals who highly value power, once they achieve it, may do more to keep it even if it implies harming others.

The evidence exploring this view indeed links the desire for dominance to self-serving behaviours. Maner and Mead (2010) investigated in a series of studies the desire for dominance in leaders whose hold on power depended on continued high performance. It appeared that those leaders high in dominance motivation saw talented subordinates as threats to their own power, rather than as assets to the group, and were more likely to act against them in response. For

instance, those high on the motivation for dominance, were more likely to keep information necessary for problem-solving to themselves, eliminate subordinates from the team, give subordinates poor evaluations, or lower their positions. Each of these behaviours had the effect of making the leader look good by enhancing his or her comparative individual performance, but harming the group's performance by removing the contributions of talented team members.

In another study on military-officer trainees, social dominance orientation was negatively related to leadership behaviours that take into consideration the needs of subordinates (Nicol, 2009). Also, in a lab setting, Son Hing et al. (2007) found that leaders high (versus low) in social dominance orientation were particularly likely to serve self-interests, and ignore those of others in hypothetical business decisions. For instance, leaders high in social dominance orientation were more likely to choose to move their company's polluting waste-storage process to a country with laxer environmental regulations rather than paying to improve the storage process and end the pollution.

Therefore, individuals in positions of power appear to respond to power differently based on being high (versus low) in social dominance orientation. Accordingly, the following hypothesis emerges:

> Hypothesis 4: Leader social dominance is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Positional insecurity and leader empowering behaviour. Power in itself has been shown to present a hedonically pleasurable state for some individuals (Anderson, Kraus, Galinsky, & Keltner, 2012; Drake & Mitchell, 1977; Keltner et al., 2003). In organizations, it has been shown that employees at higher organizational levels (versus those at lower levels) are happier, less stressed, and more satisfied with their jobs (Brown, Gardner, Oswald, & Qian, 2008; Marmot, 2004; Oshagbemi, 1997; Robie, Ryan, Schmeider, Parra, & Smith, 1998; Sherman et al., 2012). It follows from this evidence that positions of higher rank are inherently more desirable, and most people would prefer to be in a state of higher rather than lower power. Furthermore, research on loss aversion indicates that people's motivations to keep a position of power and avoid loss will surpass their motivation to achieve more power than they currently have (Kermer, Driver-Linn, Wilson, & Gilbert, 2006; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Therefore, those in a position of power are expected to be strongly motivated to keep their power and highly attentive to potential threats to their power. It follows that leaders who are conscious that their power could be lost at any time may have more difficulty maintaining attention on others, and instead focus on how their own position might be sustained (Jordan, Sivanathan, & Galinsky, 2011).

Studies by Maner and Mead (2010), described previously, confirm that leaders with high dominance motivation who were threatened by talented subordinates, acted against them (e.g. by keeping valuable information to themselves), in order to appear more skilled by comparison. Notably, these outcomes were found to occur only in conditions of positional insecurity, when the leader knew that he or she could be replaced by a more talented team member—and not when the leader had no reason to doubt his or her position. Similarly, a study by Georgesen and Harris (2006) reported that when leaders' power was insecure (they could be replaced by a subordinate) versus secure, participants evaluated subordinates more negatively, presumably to minimize the threat they posed. They also kept more prize money for themselves.

Thus, leaders under threat may be less inclined to demonstrate leader empowering behaviour, particularly that this behaviour does not secure their own hold on power. In contrast, those leaders who do not experience a threat to their power may be in a better position to take the broader organizational goals in mind and pursue empowering behaviours.

Hypothesis 5: Leader positional insecurity is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour.

Moderating Role of Power

The previous sections explored leader characteristics expected to have an impact on leader empowering behaviour. The following analysis of power illustrates that power moderates the relative sway of these internal beliefs on leader empowering behaviour. The mechanisms through which power influences behaviour may shed more light on leadership and why some leaders empower more than others.

First, based on the insights from the power-approach theory (Keltner, et al., 2003), it is proposed that the common restrictions that guide the beliefs, thoughts, and behaviour of most people may not apply in the same way to the more powerful. Keltner and colleagues asserted that power has a wide range of psychological and behavioural consequences by transforming

the way individuals perceive the world, others and themselves. This theory predicts that the possession of power activates approach tendencies, leading to a focus on rewards and movement toward stimuli that would satisfy an active goal. Conversely, the theory predicts low power to be associated with inhibition and movement away from stimuli that are threatening. Inesi (2010) confirmed this theory and further found that the powerful are more likely to pursue rewarding outcomes because they are less concerned about potential negative consequences of their actions than the powerless.

Extensive evidence demonstrates that power-holders, in particular, tend to act decisively and quickly in pursuit of their goals, whereas those without power may spend a longer period pondering or may be more easily distracted by goal-irrelevant information (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Galinsky, Magee, Gruenfeld, Whitson, & Liljenquist, 2008; Gruenfeld, Inesi, Magee, & Galinsky, 2008; Guinote, 2007; Karremans & Smith, 2010; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Magee & Smith, 2013; Slabu & Guinote, 2010; Smith, Jostmann, Galinsky, & van Dijk, 2008). It is argued that the effect of power on goal orientation occurs because power enhances the executive function processes. The effect of power on goal orientation is said to occur as power provides a boost to executive function processes such as increasing the ability to keep a goal front and center in working memory while performing other tasks (Smith et al., 2008).

In addition to leading to assertive, goal-directed action in the pursuit of rewards, power also changes the person's object of attention. Indeed, findings suggest that the information the powerful attend to is different from what those with low power attune to (Bargh, et al., 1995; Chen, et al., 2001; Galinsky, et al., 2008). For example, Galinsky et al. found that the social value orientations of high power participants predicted their negotiation behaviours better than their partner's reputations.

In addition, Gruenfeld, et al. (2008) showed that power increases objectification, or propensity to see others as tools for one's own purposes. As such, individuals in high power tend to think about social interactions in terms of how others can satisfy their own needs and desires. Thus, depending on the leader's personal goals, others will be seen as objects to achieve those goals. Moreover, Galinsky et al. (2006) demonstrated that possessing power seems to decrease attentiveness to others' internal experiences as well as impair the ability to take others' perspectives and interests.

Consequently, those with power feel less obliged to conform to the wishes of others, and as such are more likely to act in line with their dispositions or personal desires than are those without power (Galinsky et al., 2008; Hirsh, Galinsky, & Zhong, 2011; Kraus, Chen, & Keltner, 2011). Therefore, the content of a leader's goals is of critical importance in predicting their behavior, even if these goals do not need to be recognized consciously in order to affect behaviour (Bargh, Gollwitzer, & Oettingen, 2010). In other words, power "makes you more like yourself" (Galinsky, Rus, & Lammers, 2011).

Consistent with this line of thinking, and as pointed to earlier, Chen et al. (2001) found that possessing power leads those with a communal orientation to display greater generosity, whereas those with an exchange orientation to engage in more self-serving behaviour. However, when individuals lacked power, this difference in behaviour was not apparent in communal versus exchangers. Essentially, their results show that power enhances the tendency for the most powerful to pursue internally generated goals and that lack of power diminishes the influence of internal states and traits on behaviour.

Together, the bulk of the evidence indicates an assertive pursuit of rewards by the powerful coupled with a lack of attention to others' point of views and interests and the use of others towards one's own goals. Also and more importantly, there is an increase in behavioural sensitivity to information of the more powerful derived from internal states rather than from the situational, context-dependent sources of information. As a consequence, studies found that those with more power, act more (Galinsky, et al., 2003) and with greater variability (Guinote, Judd, & Brauer, 2002) than the less powerful.

Furthermore, this variability in the behaviour of the powerful is contingent on the amount of power possessed by the leader. Higher levels of leader power should be associated with a greater sway of leaders' internal beliefs. Specifically, high power leader behaviour is expected to be more representative of their personal characteristics than low power leader behaviour. This variability in power experienced by a leader is expected, given that not all leaders have the same amount of power at their disposal. These power differentials emerge since organizations tend to give rise to some form of hierarchy, either by design or organic processes (Anderson, et al., 2012). Consequently, some leaders will be in command of more power compared to other leaders. Usually, this command of control increases as one rises higher in the organizational hierarchy (Tannenbaum, 1968).

Cognitively, power is represented by a psychological state, which is one's perception of one's capacity to influence others (Bugental, Blue, & Cruzcosa, 1989; Galinsky et al., 2003). This sense of power is distinct from sociostructural indicators of the leader's power and is more in line with the definition of leadership above (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). While sometimes, this sense of power coincides with control over resources and authority over others, it may also differ (Anderson, Srivastava, Beer, Spataro, & Chatman, 2006; Fast & Chen, 2009).

The subjective sense of power is important to the context of the current study as it influences thought, feeling and action most directly. In principle, the leader does not need to use power to be considered powerful in an empowering context, but needs to feel powerful enough to act assertively based on internal beliefs. To that end, it is important to assess the leader's personal sense of power across his or her subordinates (Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2005).

Therefore, given that high power individuals act more in tune with internal states and traits than situational cues compared to low power individuals (Galinsky et al., 2003), it is predicted that high power leaders should rely more on their self-concept beliefs than low power leaders. This implies that:

> Hypothesis 6: Power moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. That is, high power leaders should rely more on their self-concepts in making empowering decisions than low power leaders.

Organizational Culture

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of the concept of organizational culture and its links to empowering leadership as portrayed in the literature. Organizational culture may be defined as a common set of values and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization which influences how people perceive, think and act (Schein, 2004). There has been a renewed interest in organizational culture and its impact on the work organization within the last 30 years (Hawkins, 1997). This refocus on culture has introduced the importance of building organizations around its people instead of techniques (Morgan, 1998). In that vein, organizational culture has evolved existing models of organization from a collection of structures and systems to a collection of shared cognitions and beliefs. By gaining greater insights into the nature of cultural dynamics, there is a higher likelihood that it can contribute to organizational effectiveness and performance (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, & Falkus, 2000). It can

further help manage the human side of organizations in better facing the continuous technological advancement, increasing globalization, accelerated changes in market trends, and a growing reliance on knowledge capital (Rothwell, Prescott, & Taylor, 1998).

Organizational culture has been portrayed as a multilevel phenomenon which may be displayed at three levels; first at the level of artifacts, such as dress codes, the language, and the architecture. Cultural artifacts are easily described but their underlying meanings are not easily deciphered. The second level is at the level of values representing the beliefs of key individuals. Espoused values function as a normative guide to direct the actions, decisions and behaviours of the group such as norms and ideologies. The third and deepest level of culture are its basic assumptions that guide perceptions, feelings, and behaviours of individuals throughout the organization (Schein, 2010).

The concept of culture is seen to reflect the dominant managerial ideology within the organization. This shared dominant ideology is used by its members in making their work-related decisions. More specifically, one view suggests that organizational culture is the center, from which management influences member's perception of commitment, motivation, morale, and satisfaction (Harris & Mossholder, 1996). On the contrary, Pool (2000) suggested that organizational culture provides the foundation for an organization's management system and has a strong influence on leadership. Moreover, management systems derived from the organizational culture develop the strategies and processes which determine the success of a business and may be a stronger influence than the individual leadership of key members (Pool, 2000). However, Schein (2004) argues that leadership and organizational culture are a reciprocal, dynamic relationship that operates to make certain the survival in a changing context. Schein's model portrays leaders as the creators of culture, as well as the product of the cultural socialization. Likewise, culture is viewed as a consequence of leadership as well as an agent of socialization among leaders. Therefore, integrating organizational culture to the study of empowering leadership behaviour is of high relevance.

Organizational culture can be assessed along many dimensions, resulting in conceptually different, but fundamentally similar models and theories. For example, culture can be categorized as adaptability/achievement/clan/bureaucratic (Daft, 2005), clan/adhocracy/hierarchy/market (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983), and communal/fragmented/networked/mercenary (Goffee & Jones, 1998).

One such organizational culture framework is developed by Denison (1990). This framework conceptualizes organizational culture along four dimensions that were shown to be associated with organizational effectiveness: involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission. The two dimensions of involvement and consistency represent learned responses to the problems of internal integration of the organization. The other two dimensions, adaptability and mission reflect an organization's coping with the external environment. This model provides a systems approach to impacting organizational effectiveness (Denison, 2000).

More specifically, the involvement trait of the framework emphasizes employee's commitment and sense of ownership, involvement in decisions that affect them, and team orientation. In effective organizations, employees are empowered, teamwork is encouraged, and attention is devoted to the development of their employee's capacities (Denison, 2000; Fey & Denison, 2003; Lawler, 1996; Likert, 1961).

The consistency dimension relates to the presence of systems and processes that exist within an organization allowing alignment and efficiency over time. It involves a common set of management principles, consensus regarding right and wrong ways of doing things, and coordination and integration across the organization. ''The fundamental concept is that implicit control systems, based on internalized values, are a more effective means of achieving coordination than external control systems that rely on explicit rules and regulations'' (Denison, 1990, p. 9). Furthermore, in effective organizations, the involvement and consistency dimensions are both made use of in a continual cycle, in which involvement is used to generate the ideas and solutions that are then enhanced into a specific set of principles (Denison, 1990).

The adaptability dimension refers to the organization's ability for internal change to adapt to external conditions (Denison & Mishra, 1995). Highly internally focused or integrated organizations may have difficulty to adapt to the external demands (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). The last dimension of mission is related to an organization's level of clarity on the reason for its existence and its direction. The direction and meaning provided by the mission of effective organizations to their employees contains both economic and noneconomic objectives (Denison & Mishra, 1995). These organizations have well-defined purpose and direction, goals and objectives, and a vision for the future (Fey & Denison, 2003; Mintzberg, 1987, 1994).

Relevant research. A stream of research evaluates organizational culture as a key ingredient of organizational effectiveness (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). Value-based models of organizational culture have demonstrated significant relationships between culture and work-based outcomes (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). For example, bureaucratic culture, has been found to produce a lack of value congruence, negatively affecting organizational performance and a lack of long-term growth and in some cases the failure of the organization (Ogbonna et al., 2000). The authors demonstrated that innovative or competitive organizational cultures that are sensitive to external conditions are associated with positive organizational outcomes.

In another study, Hennessey (1998) investigated the role of leadership in implementing a major organizational culture change initiative in nine operational level organizations of the U.S. Veterans Administration and the Defense Department. While no single leadership competency was more strongly associated with changing organizational culture, the highest rated leaders consistently demonstrated the ability to create an environment in which reinvention was more likely to occur.

Pillai and Meindl (1998) examined the effect of contextual factors in the emergence of charismatic leadership among a sample of 101 work units drawn from a large government health service agency. Their results reveal that collectivism is positively associated with charismatic leadership, whereas the presence of crisis was negatively related to charismatic leadership. They conclude that contextual factors play a role in the emergence of charismatic leadership behaviour.

In an unpublished dissertation by Ridgway (1998), the relationship between leadership practices, and cultural values to organizational effectiveness was investigated in a random sample of small organizations. The results reveal no significant relationship between leadership, organizational culture, and organizational effectiveness for both high and mixed performance companies. Another unpublished dissertation investigated the relationship between leader characteristics, planned change, and organizational culture in a dynamic manufacturing environment (Chodkowski, 1999). Employee's perceptions of their superior's leadership behaviour as either contemporary or traditional was significantly associated to employee's perceptions of the strength of the organizational culture in what pertains to enacted behaviours.

The author concludes that traditional leader behaviours may have a negative influence on follower's perceptions of culture by contradicting common values and expected norms, whereas contemporary leader behaviours may positively affect follower's perceptions by displaying and strengthening shared values and expected norms.

The bulk of the research on organizational culture and leadership presented supports theories that there exists a significant relationship between leader's behaviour and the cultural context of the organization. Wherein culture provides the medium through which leaders express their character and in turn culture shapes their character (Ogbonna et al., 2000; Pillai et al., 1998).

The present research partly intends to investigate the relationships between a specific type of leadership behaviours, empowering behaviours, and the organizational context in which it takes place using established measurement tools. In order to achieve that, one of the objectives of this study is to relate the corporate culture model described above to the empowering behaviour of its leaders. It will be explored whether the culture of an organization is an important driver of the empowering behaviour of its leaders. Using Denison's organizational culture model, it is hypothesized that each of the four organizational culture dimensions (involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission) will relate to leader empowering behaviour.

Firstly, the organizational trait of involvement is related most obviously to leader empowering behaviour, as it pertains to employee functioning and ownership empowerment, capacity development, and team orientation. Therefore, hypothesis 7a predicts that:

> Hypothesis 7a: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the involvement dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than those leaders who perceive low organizational involvement dimension.

Furthermore, the consistency dimension, through the focus on building shared values, systems and an infrastructure, equips the leadership with tools to empower their employees better. Consequently, it is predicted that:

> Hypothesis 7b: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the consistency dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than those leaders who perceive low consistency.

Together, adaptability and mission represent an external focus, which include its goals and the capacity to respond to changing market demands. Although at first glance it may not seem to relate to employee empowerment, however, the adaptability trait, given that it relates to how an organization may learn and create change, is expected to be related to how much leaders empower their employees. Therefore, it is expected that:

> Hypothesis 7c: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the adaptability dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than those leaders who perceive low adaptability.

Similarly, the mission trait, by providing clarity on the reason for the organization's existence and its direction are expected to be related to a leader's empowering behaviour. Therefore, hypothesis 7d states:

> Hypothesis 7d: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the mission dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than those leaders who perceive low clarity on mission and strategies.

Furthermore, the involvement dimension- by way of empowering employees- is also expected to exert an indirect effect by moderating the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. Such that the environment in which leadership occurs- the empowering dimension - will amplify a leader's internal self-concept in empowering their employees. Therefore, hypothesis 8 states that:

> Hypothesis 8: the involvement dimension of organizational culture will moderate the relationship between a leader's self-concept and his/her empowering behaviour.

In conclusion, this section explored literature that offers initial insights into what factors are important in determinig the empowering behaviours of leaders. Consequently, eight hypotheses were developed reflecting the nature and direction of their expected relationships. The next chapter details the methodology for this research.

Chapter 3: Method

This chapter presents the methods and procedures utilized to answer the hypotheses presented in chapter 2. The purpose of the current quantitative correlational study is to explore the relationships between leaders' relational, personality and situational variables and leader empowering behaviour. The research design is outlined, followed by a description of the population studied. Data collection is then presented along with the detailed descriptions of the instruments used to measure the dependent and independent variables.

Research Design

The present research used a cross-sectional survey design to reach the research objectives as all data was gathered at a single point in time.

Procedure

The first step was to draft an invitation letter with the help of thesis supervisor (see Appendix A). Letters of invitations were sent to the senior executives of several large organizations as well as governmental entities in eastern and western Canadian provinces. Appointments were made with those companies who expressed interest in the research project. After several sessions with interested organizations, during which the details of research and its implementation were reviewed, the researcher selected the organization which was able to fully support the study without limiting the type of information gathered. Also, this organization was quick to act and make available those resources to the researcher.

The participant organization is a Western Canadian province organization providing services to its citizens through seven of the ministries (finance, education, energy, health, human sciences, infrastructure, justice and solicitor general) selected for this research. The invitation letter was sent through their organization's contact to the seven ministries, by the senior executive, requesting them to forward it to their managers who have at least three subordinates directly reporting to them. Participants responded to the on-line, self-report survey link that was embedded in the invitation letter. A web-based commercial survey program facilitated data collection in the current study. An Internet questionnaire format was chosen because it is deemed to be an effective way to obtain confidential information quickly and inexpensively

from managers. Furthermore, a large number of participants could be reached in a short span of time.

Upon accessing the survey, the respondents received electronic introductory letters (see Appendix B), including information on the nature of the study, its intended audience and about any possible risks to the participants. The participants responded confidentially to the survey questions and were requested to sign an electronic form before they could complete the survey. The respondents participated on a voluntary basis and received instructions that they could withdraw at any time with no penalty.

Self-report data were collected for variables related to leader empowering behaviour, self-concept, honesty-humility, moral identity, desire for dominance, positional insecurity, personal sense of power and organizational culture as well as demographic variables. Given the potential for method bias, certain precautions were employed: (1) The scales (IV and DV) were administered in a counterbalanced fashion; (2) The survey and research were positioned to participants as a PhD research study and not a corporate mandated effort; (3) Participation was voluntary and anonymous; (4) The objective of the study was positioned as to better understand organizational culture, taking the emphasis away from leaders as the center of the study behaviours.

Furthermore, as summarized in Appendix C, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the distinctiveness of all self-reported variables. The results of the one factor, two-factor, and eight factor models all reveal poor fit of the model and thus it cannot be concluded from this analysis that method bias is not existant. Despite these efforts it is possible that residual bias remains. As with all other research studies that rely on self-reports, it must be considered a potential weakness and a limit of the current study.

Efforts were made to adequately describe the respondents so that the results of the study could be generalized to populations with the same characteristics. The data gathered was subsequently downloaded into Excel and then uploaded into SPSS for analysis.

Power Analysis

An apriori power analysis was conducted to estimate the required sample size for this study, based on the anticipated size of the effect. Power analysis is based on the relationship between the effect size, the sample size, the type I significance level (alpha), and error variances

(Keppel, 1991). The type I error rate (alpha) was set at the conventional level of .05 (i.e. 5% chance that significant findings are random error; false positive) and the type II error rate (beta) was set at .20 (i.e. 20% chance to miss detecting a significant effect) leading to an 80% chance of finding desired effects and future replicability.

The primary measure of this study is leader empowering behaviour. Based on prior similar research by Hakimi, van Knippenberg, and Giessner (2011), a moderate effect size of .21 was expected. Freeware software GPOWER was used to estimate a priori sample size based on the error rates and effect sizes described above. This power analysis resulted in a requirement of 160 participants for a statistical power level of 80%.

Participants

Approximately 400 surveys were distributed solely to managers, of those, 254 (64%) surveys were answered. Some questionnaires could not be used due to sections that were incomplete, making up a final sample consisting of 200 (50%) leaders who completed the surveys in its entirety. This participation rate was attained by close follow-up through reminder communication from the participating organization. The questionnaires were administered in English.

Table I displays the characteristics of this sample. The study sample consisted of both male (52.3%) and female (47.7%) participants. The majority of the participants were white (82.7%) and 4.3% Chinese, 1.6% aboriginal, 1.2% black and 1.6% south Asian. Given that most participants were of white descent, the ethnicity variable was left off from analysis. A total of 22.4% of the participants were between the ages of 35-44 years, 39.8% were between the ages of 45-54 and 34.4% were between the ages of 55-64. A total of 41.3% reported a university degree qualification; 31.4% reported graduate degrees. Of the participants, 16.1 % were line managers, 50.4% were middle managers and 28% were top managers; 3.3% of the participants reported less than 3 direct reports, 37.6% had between 3 to 5 direct reports, 24.4% had between 6 to 8 direct reports and another 34.7% reported more than 8 direct reports.

Table I

Characteristics of the Participants (N=200)

Item	Category	Percentage	Frequency
Gender	Male	47.7	95
	Female	52.3	105
Ethnicity	White	86.8	173
	Aboriginal	1.7	3
	Black	1.2	2
	Chinese	4.5	9
	Filipino	.4	1
	Japanese	.4	1
	South Asian	1.7	3
	South East Asian	1.6	3
	Other	2.5	5
Age	25 to 34	2.1	4
	35 to 44	22.4	45
	45 to 54	39.8	80
	55 to 64	34.4	69
	65 to 74	1.2	2
Education	High School / GED*	8.7	17
	College / Cegep	18.6	37
	University Degree	41.3	83
	Master's Degree	26.0	52
	Doctoral Degree	5.4	11
Managerial Level	Line Manager	16.1	32
	Middle Manager	50.4	101
	Top Manager	28.0	56
Number of Direct Reports	Less than 3	3.3	7
	3 to 5	37.6	75
	6 to 8	24.4	49
	More than 8	34.7	69

* General Education Diploma

Instrumentation

Self-concept measure. Building on the three levels of self-concept as defined by Brewer and Gardner (1996)'s framework, Selenta and Lord (2005) developed an instrument, the Levels of Self-Concept Scale (LSCS) to measure the three subscales. The scale distinguishes among the three levels of self-concept, referring to the "focus of concern": concern for one's well-being, concern for a specific other (e.g. one's co-worker), or concern for the welfare of a group (e.g. an affiliated organization; Selenta & Lord, 2005).

The validity for the LSCS was established through factor analysis and item associations. Item associations included self-consciousness, masculinity-femininity, and individual gender. Sufficient convergent and discriminant validity was determined, but the validity results were part of an unpublished dissertation (Selenta & Lord, 2005).

The LSCS has been utilized to measure both the chronic and working self-concept manipulations. This research is focused on the chronic self-concept. Each subscale of the LSCS is measured through five items. The reliabilities for the comparative individual self-concept (α = .80), relational self-concept (α = .87), and collective self-concept (α = .89). Each subscale is measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. A sample individual level question is "I have a strong need to know where I stand with my co-workers." A relational level item is "I value friends that are caring, empathetic individuals." A collective level item is "I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I am not the reason for its success." Additional evidence for the construct- and criterion-related validity of the measure is provided by published research that used the LSCS (e.g. Johnson & Chang, 2006; Johnson et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2011). The complete instrument can be found in Appendix D.

Leader empowering behaviour. Leader empowering behaviour was assessed using the 17 items of the Leader Empowering Behaviour Questionnaire (LEBQ*:* Konczak et al., 2000). As shown by Arnold et al. (2000). The LEBQ is composed of six multi-item subscales focusing on delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development and coaching for innovative performance. A sample item is "My manager gives me the authority I need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures". Items are measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Using this scale, the items were slightly modified to include their perception of their own behaviour. Participants rated the degree to which they engage in empowering behaviours. Konczak et al. reported reliability coefficients that ranged between 0.82 and 0.88 with the exception of one score that measured 0.70. Higher scores indicate higher leader empowering behaviours. The complete instrument can be found in Appendix E.

Personal sense of power. The theory in the current study focused on the psychological experience of power—a sense of power that should be present across both trait power and state experiences of power (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002). Personal sense of power was assessed using Anderson et al's measure. It uses eight items to assess an individual's power across his or her social relationships (eight items; e.g. ''I think I have a great deal of power in my relationships with others''; Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2005). Items are measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Scores on this sense-of-power scale predict the same behaviours as structural manipulations of power (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). Coefficient alpha reliabilities for the eight-item index average .85. The items are listed in Appendix F

Honesty-humility. According to a six-factor model of personality (Ashton & Lee, 2007), the honesty-humility scale measures tendencies towards cooperation with others despite the possibility to exploit or defect against them. The scale measures honesty and sincerity via 10 items such as "I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me" and humility or self-deprecation via such items as "I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is." In previous research, the scale was shown adequate psychometric properties, with alpha reliabilities >.80. The items can be found in Appendix G.

Moral identity. The five-item measure of Aquino and Reed's (2002) moral identity internalization was used. The five items are the subscale measuring the degree to which a person's moral identity is core to his or her sense of self (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Aquino et al., 2007; Detert et al., 2008). Participants indicated their agreement with each of the five items on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Reliability was calculated at .77. The items for this scale can be found in Appendix H.

Social dominance orientation. Social dominance orientation theory points out that people differ in their general attitude toward favouring social inequality (Pratto, Sidanius,

Stallworth, & Malle, 1994). Those who favour social inequalities are considered to be high in social dominance orientation, and these individuals have been shown to be highly motivated to maintain or sustain their privileged status. The Social Dominance Orientation Scale (Pratto, Cidam et al., 2013) was used to assess the social dominance orientation of leaders via four items. Participants rated social dominance orientation on a scale from 1 (strongly oppose) to 7 (strongly favour; $\alpha = .76$) via such items as "Superior groups should dominate inferior groups". Items are presented in Appendix I.

Organizational culture. Denison's Organizational Culture Survey (Denison & Mishra, 1995) was selected to measure this construct. After receiving permission from Denison Consulting to use this measure, a 36-item version was used (Fey & Denison, 2003). This framework was developed using a combination of qualitative and quantitative investigations of organizational culture. The Denison Organizational Culture scale is comprised of four traits (involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission), each of which contain three indexes, for a total of 12 indexes that contain five items each. A sample item is "Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own". Respondents describe their organizational culture using a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, to 5= strongly agree). Organizational culture researchers generally measure individuals' perceptions (or a group's shared perceptions) of these constructs using some sort of standard questionnaire to assess culture across groups or organizations.

Current psychometric property report of Denison's Organizational Culture Survey included Cronbach alphas of 0.87 to 0.92 for the four culture traits, suggesting robust construct validity. The 36-item version of the scale is presented in Appendix J arranged by trait and index.

Demographic variables. Demographic variables for use as controls include age, gender, managerial level, number of direct reports and educational level.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This chapter of the research contains the results of the study. Procedures to analyze data are described in conjunction with the statistical findings. The analyses conducted for each of the eight hypotheses in this study will be reported. A number of significant results were obtained. In several cases, supplemental analyses were conducted to further investigate obtained results.

Preliminary Analyses

Data screening. The procedure recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) was followed to clean the data before hypothesis testing. Table II displays the descriptive statistics (including Cronbach alpha coefficients, means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness) of all variables measured.

Outliers. Outliers are those values with large standardized scores (z scores) greater than 3.3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Using SPSS descriptives (i.e., save standardized values) to compute the z scores for every case, no outliers were detected.

Normality check. To test whether the distribution of all scales were normally distributed, skewness and kurtosis were examined. Skewness describes how unevenly the data are distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Kurtosis describes how "peaked" or how "flat" a distribution is (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Skewness values between + and – 2 and kurtosis values between -7 to + 7 are considered acceptable. As indicated in Table II, skewness of all variables are within the range of -1.41 to 1.36 and kurtosis ranged from -.65 to 1.99, which are within acceptable values. Therefore, it was concluded that the normality assumption was not violated in the current dataset.

Reliability. Cronbach alpha coefficients (α) were computed to determine the reliability of the measuring instruments in this study as shown in Table II. Whereas the reliability estimates for most variables were satisfactory, the internal consistency score for the collective self-concept (α=.58) was found to be below the conventionally acceptable reliability level of 0.70. Given the low reliability obtained, the results associated with that item should be interpreted with caution.

Furthermore, the Desire for Dominance scale (α=.67) and the honesty-humility scale (α=.68) were marginally reliable. The implications of these low reliability scales will be described in the discussion section.

Table II

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	α	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Leader Empowering Behaviour	.90	4.40	.38	-.39	-.52
Self-Concept Individual	.79	2.37	.76	.32	-.35
Self-Concept Relational	.75	4.38	.44	-.60	.10
Self-Concept Collective	.58	4.40	.40	-.24	-.65
Desire for Dominance	.67	3.24	1.51	.32	-.64
Moral Identity	.78	4.65	.45	-1.41	1.99
Honesty-Humility	.68	4.10	.48	-.33	-.22
Personal Sense of Power	.76	4.15	.54	-.47	.94
Culture Involvement	.92	3.78	.71	-.47	-.19
Culture Constancy	.92	3.46	.66	-.54	-.07
Culture Adaptability	.92	3.10	.65	-.30	.06
Culture Mission	.92	3.38	.79	-.71	.26
Positional Insecurity	n/a	1.71	.89	1.36	1.61

Tests of the Hypotheses

Table III lists the inter-correlations between all variables measured in the study (as well as their basic descriptive statistics). Hypotheses 1 through 5 and hypothesis 7 predict simple relationships between pairs of variables. There was one dependent variable (leader empowering behaviour) and nine predictor variables (three levels of self-concept, positional insecurity, need for dominance, moral identity, honesty-humility, organizational culture and personal sense of power). The simple relationships between the variables were measured using a Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficient.

Table III

Inter-correlation of all key Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Leader Empowering Behaviour	1												
2. Self-Concept Individual	-.13*	1											
3. Self-Concept Relational	.37**	-.04	1										
4. Self-Concept Collective	.42**	-.21**	.61**	1									
5. Desire for Dominance	-.20**	.16**	-.17**	-.22**	1								
6. Moral Identity	.31**	-.17**	.47**	.43**	-.18**	1							
7. Honesty-Humility	.24**	-.38**	.29**	.31**	-.20**	.32**	1						
8. Personal Sense of Power	.30**	-.08	.10	.21**	.04	.15*	.08	1					
9. Culture Involvement	.09	.00	.15*	.10	-.09	.04	-.02	.08	1				
10. Culture Constancy	.16*	.01	.16*	.13*	-.11	.05	.02	.15*	.73**	1			
11. Culture Adaptability	.11	-.05	.13*	.08	-.15*	-.02	-.03	.14*	.71**	.68**	1		
12. Culture Mission	.16*	-.14*	.23**	.22**	-.10	.04	.05	.14*	.63**	.64**	.62**	1	
13.Positional Insecurity	.21**	.26**	-.11	-.24**	.01	-.14*	-.13	-.27**	-.10	-.17*	-.16*	-.26**	1
Means (N = 200)													

*p< .05, ** p< .01

Demographics

The effects of demographics (age, gender, education level, managerial level, and number of direct reports) were examined to investigate whether demographics have any impact on the main hypotheses observed. Correlations between each demographic and the dependent variable (leader empowering behaviour) were examined and reported in Table IV. Age and managerial level were the only variables significantly related to leader empowering behaviour ($r(200) = .12$, $p < .05$ & $r(200) = .15$, $p < .05$) respectively, concluding that older leaders and those at higher managerial levels self-perceive to be more empowering. These two variables were included in all analyses to control their effects on leader empowering behaviour.

Table IV

Inter-correlation of all Demographic Variables and Leader Empowering Behaviour

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-Gender	1						
2- Age	0.03	1					
3- Industry	-.14*	0.01	1				
4- Direct Reports	0.04	0.04	-.12*	1			
5- Education	0.04	-0.05	.22**	-0.08	1		
6- Managerial Level	.18**	.18**	.09	.15*	.09	1	
7- Empowering behaviour	-.11	.12*	.05	.04	-.09	.15*	1
Means (N = 200)							

*p< .05, ** p< .01

Hypothesis 1- leader self-concept. The first hypothesis proposed that self-concept is related to leader empowering behaviour. In this study, self-concept included three factors: individual, relational and collective self-concept. Hypothesis 1a predicted that leaders high on individual self-concept are less likely to empower their subordinates than leaders low on individual self-concept. This hypothesis was confirmed. There is a negative significant relationship between leader individual self-concept and leader empowering behaviour $r(200) = -.13$, $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 1b proposed that leaders high on relational self-concept are more likely to empower than leaders low on relational self-concept. This hypothesis was also confirmed. There is a positive and significant relationship between leader relational self-concept and leader empowering behavior $r(200) = .37$, $p < .001$. Similarly, hypothesis 1c stated that leaders high on collective self-concept are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders low on this level of self-concept. This hypothesis was confirmed. There is a positive significant relationship between leader collective self-concept and leader empowering behaviour $r(200) = .42$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1 was also tested using hierarchical regression analysis with control variables, age and managerial level, entered in the analysis (Table V). At step one, the control variables age, not significant ($\beta = .11$), and managerial level, not significant ($\beta = .13$), are entered producing an $R^2 = .03$. At step two, the three levels of self-concept are added, which raises the overall prediction from $R^2 = .03$ to $R^2 = .22$, henceforth is a significant improvement ($p < .001$). Leader age, managerial level and individual self-concept are not significant ($\beta = .10$), ($\beta = .12$), and ($\beta = -.05$) respectively, whereas relational self-concept is significant ($\beta = .23$) and collective self-concept is also significant ($\beta = .24$) producing $R^2 = .25$. Therefore, hypothesis 1a is no longer supported when we control for age and managerial level whereas hypotheses 1b and 1c remain significant.

Table V

Hypothesis 1: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Leader Self-concept

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03**	.02**	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.13
Step 2	.22***	.19***	
Age			.10
Managerial Level			.12
Individual Self-Concept			-.05
Relational Self-Concept			.23**
Collective Self-Concept			.24**
Total R^2	.25***		

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 2- honesty-humility personality trait. Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive relationship between the trait honesty-humility, which is tendencies towards honesty and sincerity, and leader empowering behaviour. The prediction was confirmed as the two variables were positively correlated $r(200) = .24$, $p < .001$. This hypothesis was also tested using hierarchical regression analysis with control variables, age and managerial level entered in the analysis as shown in Table VI. At step one, the control variable age was found to be not significant (β =.11), and similarly, managerial level (β =.12) was not significant, producing an R^2=.03. At step two, the variable honesty-humility was added, raising the overall prediction from R^2=.03 to R^2=.13, henceforth is a significant improvement (p<.01). Leader age remains non significant (β =.12), managerial level also remains non significant (β =.13), whereas honesty-

humility is significant (β =.22). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported after controlling for leader age and managerial level.

Table VI

Hypothesis 2: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Leader Honesty- Humility

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03**	.03**	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.12
Step 2	.08***	.05***	
Age			.07
Managerial Level			.13
Honesty-Humility			.22**
Total R^2	.11***		

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 3- moral identity. Hypothesis 3 predicted that leaders with a higher moral identity, or valuing being a caring and compassionate person, empower more than leaders low on moral identity trait. The positive correlation found between these two variables suggest that they are positively correlated $r(200) = .30$, $p < .001$. Same as in hypotheses 1 and 2 above, regression analysis with the control variables was used to test this hypothesis as shown in Table VII. At step one, the control variable age was found to be not significant (β =.11), and similarly, managerial level was not significant (β =.13), producing an R^2=.03. At step two, the variable honesty-humility was added, raising the overall prediction from R^2=.03 to R^2=.14, henceforth is a significant improvement (p<.001). Leader age remains non significant (β =.12), while

managerial level is significant (β =.14) and moral identity is also significant (β =.31). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported after controlling for leader age and managerial level.

Table VII

Hypothesis 3: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Leader Moral Identity

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03**	.03**	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.13
Step 2	.13***	.10***	
Age			.12
Managerial Level			.14*
Moral Identity			.31***
Total R^2	.14***		

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 4- desire for dominance. Hypothesis 4 stated that leaders with a higher desire to hold a position of power and influence over others are less likely to empower than leaders low on the desire for dominance. As expected, the two variables were strongly negatively correlated $r(200) = -.21$, $p < .01$. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was supported. This hypothesis was also tested using hierarchical regression analysis with control variables, age and managerial level entered in the analysis as displayed in Table VIII. At step one, the control variable age was found to be not significant (β =.14), and managerial level was similarly not significant (β =.12), producing an R^2=.04. At step two, the variable honesty-humility was added, raising the overall prediction from R^2=.04 to R^2=.13, resulting in a significant improvement (p<.001). Leader age remains non significant (β =.12), while managerial level is significant (β =.17), and desire for

dominance is also significant (β =-.23). Therefore, after controlling for leader age and managerial level, this hypothesis is still supported.

Table VIII

Hypothesis 4: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Leader Desire for Dominance

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.04**	.03**	
Age			.14
Managerial Level			.12
Step 2	.09***	.06***	
Age			.12
Managerial Level			.17*
Desire for Dominance			-.23**
Total R^2	.13***		

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 5- positional insecurity. The fifth hypothesis suggested that leaders who feel more positional insecurity are less likely to empower than leaders with low positional insecurity. As predicted, the two variables were negatively correlated $r(200) = -.21$, $p < .01$. When controlling for age and managerial level using regression analysis (Table IX), in step one, the control variables age and managerial level were found to be not significant (β =.11), producing an R^2=.03. At step two, the variable positional insecurity was entered, raising the overall prediction from R^2=.03 to R^2=.09, henceforth is a significant improvement (p<.001). Leader age and managerial level remain non significant (β =.10), while positional insecurity is significant (β = -.18). Therefore, hypothesis 5 was supported

Table IX

Hypothesis 5: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Leader Positional Insecurity

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03**	.03**	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.11
Step 2	.06***	.06***	
Age			.10
Managerial Level			.10
Positional Insecurity			-.18**
Total R^2	.09***		

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 6- sense of power. Hypothesis 6 suggested that sense of power moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. That is, leaders who are high on personal sense of power and high on collective or relational self-concepts are expected to be more empowering than those low on personal sense of power and high on collective or relational self-concept.

First, it was found that the direct relationship between leader sense of power and leader empowering behaviour was significant. That is, leaders with higher sense of power will tend to empower more than leaders with lower sense of power, $r(200) = .29$, $p < .01$.

Support for hypothesis 6 requires a statistically significant interaction between sense of power and each level of self-concept. Self-concept and sense of power variables were mean centered. Centering reduces collinearity without altering the structure of the relationships between variables and allows direct interpretation of coefficients (Jaccard, Turrisi, & Wan, 1990). Interaction terms were then calculated, by calculating the product of the two centered

variables, following Aiken and West (1991) and added as the last step of a hierarchical regression predicting leader empowerment behaviour. That is, were the interactions to be statistically significant, this would demonstrate the moderating effect: the interaction between variables would produce incremental prediction of empowerment behaviour over that produced by the main effects of the variables. The results of that analysis are presented in Table X.

At step one, the predictor variables are control variables age and managerial level and they are non-significant (β =.11) and (β =.13) respectively. At step 2, the predictors are age and is significant (β =.13), managerial level and it is non significant (β =.04), while leader sense of power is significant (β =.27) producing an R^2=.10. At step three, the three levels of self-concept are added, which raises the overall prediction from R^2=.10 to R^2=.25, henceforth is a significant improvement (p<.001). Age and managerial level are no longer significant, (β =.12, & β =.06 respectively). Leader sense of power is significant (β =.20) and has not changed substantially from step two. Individual self-concept is not significant (β = -.03), relational self-concept is significant (β =.22) and collective self-concept is also significant (β =.23) producing R^2=.25. In step three, the predictor interaction terms between sense of power and self-concept levels were added. It is noted that none of the interaction terms are significant and the overall prediction of empowerment is not improved and the previously noted relationships with the main effects reported in step three remain unchanged. The interaction of power and self-concept levels are not significant and the overall R^2 (R^2=.26) remains significant. The inclusion of the interaction terms and the model in step four failed to explain significant incremental variance (ΔR^2 = .01, ns), counter to hypothesis 6. Therefore, hypothesis 6 is not supported. The leader sense of power does not moderate the relationship between leader self-concept levels and empowering behaviour.

Table X

Hypothesis 6: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Sense of Power and Leader Self-Concept

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03**	.02**	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.13
Step 2	.10***	.09***	
Age			.14*
Managerial Level			.04
Leader Sense of Power			.27***
Step 3	.25***	.15***	
Age			.12
Managerial Level			.06
Leader Sense of Power			.20**
Individual Self-Concept			-.03
Relational Self-Concept			.22**
Collective Self-Concept			.22**
Step 4	.26***	.01	
Age			.12
Managerial Level			.07
Leader Sense of Power			.20**
Individual Self-Concept			-.02
Relational Self-Concept			.22**
Collective Self-Concept			.23**

Leader Sense of Power x Individual Self-Concept	-.04
Leader Sense of Power x Relational Self-Concept	.03
Leader Sense of Power x Collective Self-Concept	-.04
Total R^2	.26***

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 7- organizational culture. Hypothesis 7 explored the relationship between organizational culture and empowering behaviour. Hypothesis 7a stated that leaders who perceive their organizational culture as more empowering are more likely to empower their subordinates than those leaders who perceive low organizational empowering culture. The results of the study indicate that the relationship between these variables are not significant $r(200) = -.09$, $p > .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 7a is not supported.

Hypothesis 7b stated that leaders who perceive higher consistency in their organizational culture are more likely to empower than leaders who perceive low consistency in organizational culture. As expected, the two variables are positively correlated $r(200)= .16$, $p < .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 7b is supported.

Hypothesis 7c stated that leaders who perceive their organizational culture as more adaptable are more likely to empower than leaders who perceive low adaptability in their organizational culture. However, the two variables are not related $r(200)= .11$, $p > .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 7c is not supported.

Hypothesis 7d stated that leaders who perceive their organizational culture as having clear mission and strategies are more likely to empower than leaders who perceive low clarity in their organizational mission and strategies. The two variables were positively correlated $r(200) = .16$, $p < .01$. Therefore, hypothesis 7d is supported.

When testing the hypotheses 7a to 7d controlling for variables age and managerial level using regression analysis, all four cultural dimensions failed to significantly predict leader empowering behaviour as shown in Table XI.

Table XI

Hypothesis 7: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Organizational Culture

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03	.03	
Age			.10
Managerial Level			.12
Step 2	.05	.02	
Age			.07
Managerial Level			.10
Empowerment Culture			-.10
Mission Culture			.11
Adaptability Culture			.04
Constancy Culture			.11
Total R^2	.05		

N=200

Hypothesis 8- moderating effect of organizational culture. Hypothesis 8 suggested that the involvement or empowerment dimension of organizational culture moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was tested for each of the self-concept levels (individual, relational, & collective).

As in above, a significant interaction between predictor variables, the involvement dimension of culture and self-concept levels is expected to fully support this hypothesis. The results of that analysis are presented in Table XII.

At step one, the predictor variables are age and managerial level and they are not significant with (β = .11) and (β = .12) respectively. At step two, the predictors are age and managerial which remain not significant, empowerment culture and it is not significant (β = .08)

producing an R^2=.04. At step three, the three self-concept levels are added to the regression. Control variables and empowerment culture remain not significant and statistically unchanged, and individual self-concept is also non significant (β= -.04), but relational self-concept is significant (β =.20) and collective self-concept is also significant (β = .27) producing an R^2= .22. Entering the main effects of self-concept levels in step three explained significant incremental variance above empowerment culture (ΔR^2 = .22, p<.001). In step four, the predictor interaction terms between empowerment culture and self-concept levels are added. As illustrated in Table XII, the main effects of regression coefficients obtained at step three are statistically unchanged. The empowerment culture (β = .02) and the individual self-concept (β = -.04), as in step three are not significant while the relational self-concept (β = .20) and the collective self-concept (β =.27) remain significant. The interaction of empowerment culture and self-concept levels are not significant and the model in step four failed to explain significant incremental variance (ΔR^2 = .00, NS), counter to hypothesis 8. Therefore, there is no support for this hypothesis, as empowerment culture does not moderate the relationship between leader self-concept levels and empowering behaviour.

Table XII

Hypothesis 8: Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Empowerment Culture and Leader Self-Concept

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.03*	.03*	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.12
Step 2	.04	.01	
Age			.11
Managerial Level			.12
Empowering Culture			.08
Step 3	.22***	.18***	
Age			.09
Managerial Level			.12
Empowering Culture			.03
Individual Self-Concept			-.04
Relational Self-Concept			.21*
Collective Self-Concept			.27**
Step 4	.22***	.00***	
Age			.09
Managerial Level			.12
Empowering Culture			.02
Individual Self-Concept			-.04
Relational Self-Concept			.20*
Collective Self-Concept			.27**

Empowering Culture x Individual Self-Concept	.04
Empowering Culture x Relational Self-Concept	-.04
Empowering Culture x Collective Self-Concept	.06
Total R^2	.22***

N=200
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Relative Importance of Variables Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour

The zero order correlations reported in the tests of hypotheses 1 through 7 showed that empowerment behaviour is related to a number of leader self-concept and leader characteristic variables. This second set of analyses is designed to test the relative importance of these variables in predicting leader empowerment. To that end, a hierarchical regression strategy is employed. The dependent variable, for these analyses is leader empowering behaviour. In step one, the independent variable is the empowerment culture variable. Step two of the hierarchy included honesty-humility, sense of power, desire for dominance, moral identity and positional insecurity. In step three, the independent variables are the self-concept levels (individual, relational, and collective). The purpose for entering the variables in this order is that it might have been thought that empowerment culture would be a prime determinant of empowerment. The simple results indicate that this is not the case. Yet, it is placed first in the hierarchy to allow it to explain as much of the total variance of leader empowering behavior. Then the personality dimensions (honesty-humility, moral identity, and desire for dominance) are inputted. The "new" variables introduced in this research are those of self-concept. They are introduced last. This process "stacks the deck" against finding them to be significant. That is, if they add to the overall prediction, even as there is relatively less prediction available, then, the self-concept variables must be important. Table XIII shows the regression results.

Table XIII

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from organizational culture, personality and self-concept variables

	Leader Empowering Behaviour						
Predictor	β	R	R^2	ΔR^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	Tolerance	VIF
Step 1		.10	.01	.01	.38		
Culture	.10					.97	1.03
Step 2		.46**	.19**	.20***	.34		
Honesty-humility	.12					.86	1.16
Dominance	-.15*					.93	1.07
Moral Identity	.19**					.86	1.16
Power	.23**					.91	1.11
Positional Insecurity	-.10						
Step 3		.53**	.28*	.07**	.33		
Individual Self-concept	.02					.78	1.28
Relational Self-concept	.16					.55	1.81
Collective Self-concept	.18*					.54	1.85

N=200

$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

The results of step one did not explain a significant proportion of variance in leader empowering behaviour. Step two revealed a significant positive relationship between the combination of culture, traits and motivation of the leader and leader empowering behaviour. More importantly, step three explained a significant proportion of variance in leader empowering behaviour and also accounted for significant incremental variance due to leader self-concept in predicting leader empowering behaviour.

However, the aforementioned analyses revealed a high degree of correlation between relational and collective self-concept (r= .61), increasing a collinearity concern (see Table III). This finding introduced the possibility that the overlap between these two variables may mask the true magnitude of the relationship between the relational and collective self-concept levels on leader empowering behaviour. Thus, two collinearity indexes, tolerance and variable inflation index (VIF), were examined for relational and collective self-concepts (tolerance = .55; VIF =1.81) as displayed in Table XIII. It can be noticed that collinearity between the two variables is present, which could affect the relative importance of the predictive variables.

To address the collinearity concern, principal factor analysis (PFA) with Varimax rotation was conducted on the predictor self-concept variable items. This analysis resulted in a forced three-factor solution with all items loading .40 or higher. The first of the three factors represents the same items as in the individual self-concept, herein identified as Ind2. The other two factors contain items from both the relational and collective self-concepts.

More specifically, the second factor contains four items from the original relational self-concept and two from the collective self-concept and has been labelled Rel2. It is highly correlated to the original relational self-concept $r(200) = .71$, $p < .01$. Therefore, it can still be interpreted as a factor representing relational self-concept.

However, the third factor is more difficult to interpret as it contains two relational and two collective self-concept items from the original scale, labelled as Col2, and has a weaker correlation with the original scale $r(200) = .34$, $p < .01$. Therefore, it is not interpretable as such. The items after PFA are displayed in Table XIV.

Table XIV

Rotated Component Matrix of the 15 Items Constituting the Self-concept Scale

	Component		
	1	2	3
I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers (Ind2)	**.827**	-.107	.176
I often find myself pondering over the ways that I am better or worse off than other people around me (Ind2)	**.733**	-.200	.098
I often compete with my friends (Ind2)	**.715**	.013	-.204
I thrive on opportunities to demonstrate that my abilities or talents are better than those of other people (Ind2)	**.638**	.225	-.357
I feel best about myself when I perform better than others (Ind2)	**.637**	.086	-.303
Making a lasting contribution to groups that I belong to, such as my work organization, is very important to me (Rel2)	-.021	**.712**	.113
If a friend was having a personal problem, I would help him/her even if it meant sacrificing my time or money (Rel2)	.084	**.643**	.283
It is important to me that I uphold my commitment to significant people in my life (Rel2)	-.091	**.637**	.269
I would be honored if I were chosen by an organization or club that I belong to, to represent them at a conference or meeting (Rel2)	.047	**.605**	.198
When I'm part of a team, I am concerned about the group as a whole instead of whether individual team members like me or whether I like them (Rel2)	-.306	**.482**	-.076
Knowing that a close other person acknowledges and values the role that I play in their life makes me feel like a worthwhile person (Rel2)	.326	**.416**	.211
Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me (Col2)	.012	.350	**.730**
I value friends who are caring, empathetic individuals (Col2)	-.006	.532	**.604**

I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I'm not the main reason for its success (Col2)	-.226	.255	**.595**
When I become involved in a group project, I do my best to ensure its success (Col2)	-.050	.106	**.566**
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.			

After rearranging items to decrease collinearity, using the new three self-concept factor scores in the predictive model above, regression analyses were conducted. Results are shown in Table XV. The two collinearity indexes are displayed and show improvement over the model with the original scores (Table A1 in Appendix K).

Table XV

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Cultural, Personality and new Self-concept Variables after Principal Component Analysis

	Leader Empowering Behaviour						
Predictor	*B*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	Toler-ance	VIF
Step 1		.09	.01	.01	.38		
Culture	.09					1.00	1.00
Step 2		.47***	.22***	.21***	.34		
Honesty	.09					.87	1.15
Dominance	-.14*					.94	1.06
Moral Identity	.22**					.87	1.15
Power	.25**					.91	1.10
Positional Insecurity	-.10					.91	1.10
Step 3		.53**	.28**	.07**	.33		

Ind2	.00	.80	1.26
Rel2	.20**	.81	1.24
Col2	.23***	.80	1.25

Means (N = 200)

*p< .05, ** p< .01

Further analysis was conducted using the new self-concept factor scores after PFA to explore the role of empowering organizational culture on leader empowering behaviour when one has the most inclusive self-concept. Therefore, hypothesis 8 above is replicated with the new scales after PFA to test the interaction between the new self-concept scales and empowering culture in predicting leader empowering behaviour.

As in above, a significant interaction between predictor variables, the involvement dimension of culture and self-concept levels is expected to fully support this hypothesis. The results of that analysis are presented in Table XVI.

At step one, the predictor is empowerment culture and it is not significant (β =.09) producing an R^2=.01. At step two, the predictor variables are empowerment culture and the three self-concept scales Ind2, Rel2, Col2, where empowerment culture is not significant (β =.02), Ind2 is not significant (β = -.08), Rel2 is significant (β = .30), and Col2 is also significant (β = .31) producing R^2=.19. Thus, entering the main effects of self-concept levels in step two explained significant incremental variance above empowerment culture (ΔR^2 = .19, p<.001). In step three, the predictor interaction terms between empowerment culture and new self-concept scores were added. As illustrated in Table XVI, the main effects variables of the regression coefficients obtained at step two are statistically unchanged, the empowerment culture (β = .01) and the Ind2 (β =- .09), as in step two is not significant while the Rel2 (β = .30) and Col2 (β = .31) self-concept factors remain significant.

The interaction of empowerment culture and the new self-concept factors are not significant and the model in step three failed to explain significant incremental variance (ΔR^2 = .00, NS). Therefore, the empowerment culture does not moderate the relationship between leader self-concept levels and empowering behaviour. It appears that leader empowerment behaviour is a function of personality and relational factors (self-concept) and that culture does

not seem to have any significant main or moderating effects. The non-significant effect of organizational culture may also be a consequence of using a single organization in the study, with a unique culture. Therefore, culture being a constant, it cannot explain or interact with other measures as will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Table XVI

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Empowerment Culture and Leader Self-Concept after PFA

	Leader Empowering Behaviour		
Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.01	.01	
Empowering Culture			.09
Step 2	.20***	.19***	
Empowering Culture			.02
Ind2			-.08
Rel2			.30***
Col2			.31***
Step 3	.20	.01	
Empowering Culture			.01
Ind2			-.09
Rel2			.30***
Col2			.31***
Empowering Culture x Ind2			.03
Empowering Culture x Rel2			.10
Empowering Culture x Col2			-.05
Total R^2	.21 ***		

N=200
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

It is noted by observing the beta weights after PFA (Table XV) that the individual and relational self-concepts do not add significantly to the unexplained variance in predicting leader empowering behaviour. In fact, the variables leader sense of power (β =.25) and collective self-concept (β =.23) have the highest predictions. Therefore, the most parsimonious model includes only leader sense of power and collective self-concept, explaining 22% of the variance in predicting leader empowering behaviour (Table XVII). We conclude that these two variables have the greatest effect of the studied variables on leader empowering behaviour. Given that the relational self-concept scale does not appear in this model, the original collective self-concept scale was used, as it is interpretable, and collinearity is no longer a concern. When including all the variables, sense of power and collective self-concept have the strongest relationship to leader empowering behaviour. However, their interaction term is not significant, leading us to conclude that they have independent incremental validity.

Table XVII

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis Predicting Leader Empowering Behaviour from Leader Sense of Power and Leader Collective Self-Concept

	Leader Empowering Behaviour						
Predictor	*B*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	Tolerance	VIF
Step 1		.18*	.03*	.02*	.37		
Age	.11						
Managerial Level	.13						
Step 2		.32***	.10***	.09***	.36		
Age	.14*						
Managerial Level	.04						
Power	.27***					.91	1.05
Step 3		.47***	.22	.21	.34		
Age	.12						
Managerial Level	.06						
Power	.19***					.91	1.05
Collective Self-concept	.36***					.96	1.05

N=200

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Summary

Eight major hypotheses concerning leader empowering behaviour and its antecedent variables were examined using a correlational field study involving 200 leaders from a governmental organization. The results of the analyses are presented:

Hypothesis 1a: Leader individual self-concept is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. $r(200) = -.13$, $p < .05$. After controlling for age and managerial level, this relationship is no longer significant, $\beta = -.11$, $t(200) = -1.52$, $p > .01$.

Hypothesis 1b: Leader relational self-concept is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = .37$, $p < .001$. After controlling for age and managerial level, this relationship remains significant, $\beta = .38$, $t(200) = 5.89$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1 c: Leader collective self-concept is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = .42$, $p < .001$. After controlling for age and managerial level, this relationship remains significant, $\beta = .39$, $t(200) = 6.10$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2: Leader honesty-humility personality variable is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = .24$, $p < .001$. After controlling for age and managerial level, this relationship remains significant, $\beta = .22$, $t(200) = 3.25$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 3: Leader moral identity is positively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = .30$, $p < .001$. After controlling for age and managerial level, this relationship remains significant $\beta = .31$, $t(200) = 4.65$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 4: Leader social dominance is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = -.21$, $p < .01$. After controlling for age and managerial level, a significant relationship remains, $\beta = -.23$, $t(200) = -3.36$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 5: Leader positional insecurity is negatively and significantly related to leader empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = -.21$, $p < .01$, even after controlling for age and managerial level, $\beta = -.18$, $t(200) = -2.67$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 6: Power moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. That is, high power leaders should rely more on their self-concepts in making empowering decisions than low power leaders. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 7a: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the involvement dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low organizational empowering culture. This hypothesis was not supported, $r(200) = -.09$, $p > .05$.

Hypothesis 7b: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the consistency dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low consistency. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = .16$, $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 7c: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the adaptability dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low adaptability. This hypothesis was not supported, $r(200) = .11$, $p > .05$.

Hypothesis 7d: Leaders who perceive their organizational culture as high on the mission dimension are more likely to empower their subordinates than leaders who perceive low clarity on mission and strategies. This hypothesis was supported, $r(200) = .16$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 8: The involvement dimension of organizational culture will moderate the relationship between a leader's self-concept and his/her empowering behaviour. This hypothesis was not supported.

Furthermore, using a hierarchical regression analysis in exploring the relative importance of all studied variables in predicting leader empowering behaviour, it was found that leader sense of power and leader collective self-concept contributed the highest variance in predicting leader empowering behavior, and are therefore concluded to have the highest predictive value out of the variables investigated.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The last chapter of this research summarizes the key findings and their implications for practitioners in the field. Also, recommendations are offered with regard to future research opportunities. Limitations of the current research are then discussed. The concluding remarks include a discussion of the characteristics of leaders and their environment conducive to leader empowering behaviour.

An important objective of this research was to look at the empowerment process from the leader's perspective and more specifically to investigate the determinants of leader empowering behaviour. Given that leaders, by the nature of their position, are important for driving organizational results and that leader empowering behaviour is an important factor in organizational effectiveness, it is imperative to better understand what factors contribute to empowering behaviour. A goal of the study was therefore to uncover trends in the relationship among the variables that are important in leader empowering behaviour. To that end, relational, personality and situational influences that may determine leader empowering behaviour were investigated. This research broadens the previous empowerment studies in the leadership domain by taking the focus off the follower's empowerment and by zooming in the leader as an important actor in the empowerment process.

The study has a close-ended, rather than open-ended purpose, making a quantitative design more appropriate than a qualitative design. When describing a trend, researchers seek to establish the overall tendency of individuals' responses and not how the tendency varies among people. The data in this study were based on one rating source (i.e., leaders). Leaders throughout seven ministries of a Canadian provincial government completed a set of surveys asking them to rate their work environment on a variety of cultural dimensions, their own empowering behaviour as well as self-concept and other personal characteristics.

Eight major research hypotheses were tested. The first one involved the leader's self-concept (individual, relational, and collective) as an antecedent to leader empowering behaviour. Also, three hypotheses focused on stable leader traits (honesty-humility, moral identity, and social dominance orientation) and the following two hypothesis on leader state

(positional insecurity, sense of power) in predicting empowering behaviour. Furthermore, the main and interaction effect of organizational culture, as a contextual factor, was tested in predicting leader empowering behaviour. Those factors contributing most to empowerment behaviour were detected and further analyzed.

Hypothesis 1 – Leader Self-concept and Leader Empowering Behaviour

The findings of this investigation provide strong support for the importance of leader self-concept in relation to their empowering behaviour. As predicted, leader individual self-concept was negatively related (r = -.13, p < .05) and relational (r=.37, p <.01) and collective self-concepts (r=.42, p < .001) were positively related to their empowering behaviour. However, when controlling for leader age and managerial level, the individual self-concept no longer significantly predicts this variable. The present findings confirm prior research demonstrating that self-concepts are implied in motivational processes (Banaji & Prentice, 1994; Markus & Wurf, 1987) and that there is a link between individuals' behaviour and what is reflected by their self-concepts (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Gelfand et al., 2006; Lord et al., 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). However, the link between leader's self-concept and empowering behaviour was not investigated prior to this research, extending the self-concept stream of leadership research (Lord et al., 1999; Gardner & Avolio, 1998, Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

The proposition that there is a negative relationship between leader individual self-concept and their propensity to empower supports the key characteristic of the individual self-concept as mainly concerned for individual interests and individual gain (Chen et al., 1998; Sagie et al., 1996). The attention of the individual self-concept on their unique personal qualities (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) may inhibit their interest in the perspective of others. Furthermore, their emphasis on autonomy (Hui & Villareal, 1989) and personal uniqueness (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) may limit the desire to depend on others and to collaborate in decision-making and task completion. Also, empowerment behaviour diverges with the concern of leaders with an individual self-concept to gain prestige for themselves (Hwang et al., 2003). These

characteristics of individuals functioning mainly from an individual self-concept contribute to the reluctance of the leader to empower subordinates. The results obtained are also in line with previous studies, linking abusive leadership style to this level of self-concept (Rus et al., 2010).

Our results further revealed a positive relationship between the relational self-concept and leader empowering behaviour. Individuals with a relational self-concept value relationships and are motivated to create and maintain relationships. The findings from this study support the proposition that leaders with a relational self-concept are more inclined to undertake activities that are beneficial to their relationship partner (Kashima & Hardie, 2000) such as sharing information and taking in the perspective of others. Accordingly, Cross and Morris (2003) found that individuals high on relational self-concept are more likely to attend to and remember the perspectives of others than do individuals low on this self-concept level.

Furthermore, when the relational self-concept is predominant, individuals are less likely to be motivated to enhance their own sense of self and will instead tend to evaluate themselves in terms of their interpersonal roles (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Based on the findings in the current study, this tendency might translate into stronger relationships that are more beneficial and empowering to their partner.

In support of the positive relationship found between collective self-concept and leader empowering behaviour, individuals functioning primarily from a collective self-concept tend to view the world as composed of groups (Triandis, 1994). They attribute events to the disposition of the groups (Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999) and consequently tend to involve and empower the group. Consistent with this view, empirical research has shown that these individuals are more likely to seek situations where they feel similar to other group members as a collective self-concept was found to be negatively related to the need for uniqueness (Yamaguchi, Kuhlman, & Sugimori, 1995). In line with the results found in this study, these individuals are likely to cooperate with others (Sedikides, Gaertner, & Vivea, 2005) as a way to contribute to the group rather than to strive to see themselves exceptionally.

As to the reasons behind these different self-concept levels and how/if they develop, various theories have been advanced. For instance, Day and Harrison (2007) as well as Lord and Hall (2005) propose that over time and with more leadership experience, the leaders' individual-level self-concepts would be first transcended by relational, and subsequently by collective self-concepts. This perspective suggests a hierarchical development view on leader

self-concept, such that novice leaders are likely to have a more individual self-concept. Their main concern is to learn leadership behaviours and to be seen as a leaders by others, and as unique individuals. As the leader learns his/her new role, a shift to a more relational self-concept is facilitated by the lessened demands of routine tasks on working memory. This shift, in turn, will involve development into more inclusive self-concepts, such as many differentiated relationships with subordinates. This view of leadership has been extensively studied in terms of qualitative differences in leader-member exchange (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The most successful of these leaders are those who develop many positive, but differentiated relationships by a subordinate by subordinate basis.

Moreover, depending on the leader's propensity or contextual factors promoting a collective identity, some leaders will develop to a collective self-concept guiding their leadership behaviour. In this case, group membership is salient, involving very close adherence to group norms (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg et al., 2004). At this level of self-concept, the leader is expected to have a depersonalized style of leadership treating all group members similarly (Hogg, Martin, & Weeden, 2003).

However, data related to age, managerial level and number of direct reports collected in this study do not fully support the above developmental pathway from an individual to a more inclusive self-concept as leadership experience accumulates. In fact, no significant relationship was found between managerial level and number of direct reports as it relates to the leader's self-concept. It is noteworthy that these results are based on a cross-sectional analysis and confirmation of the above proposition for a developmental pathway is better afforded by a longitudinal study.

Perhaps that constructive developmental theories of adult development (Cook-Greuter, 2013; Kegan, 1994; Loevinger, 1976; Torbert, 1987), may better serve as an explanatory potential in the development of self-concept from one level to the next more inclusive level. The constructive developmental theories propose that there are patterns in the ways adults mature, such that more complex patterns of meaning-making develop, integrating previous, simpler ways, based on one's experiences (Berg & Sternberg, 2003; Moshman, 2003). This line of literature posits that as leaders move from lower to higher levels of development, there is a transition in the knowing of others (interpersonal) from a focus on the self to a focus on others.

Thus, at the lowest developmental levels, leaders are described as interpersonally self-centered, whereas at the higher levels leaders exhibit a more inclusive understanding. Similarly, their understanding of the world becomes more complex at higher levels. Such that leaders at higher levels realize that working in collaboration is more efficient in making sense of complex situations and constructing adaptive responses. According to Kegan (1994), at higher levels, leaders' value system transcends their own needs and those of others. They can take perspective on their own value system from a broader value system- that related to the well-being of greater entities, such as an organization, industry, and even an entire society. Individuals at this level of meaning-making can generally help mediate between groups, help leaders find common ground, and remind others they exist within the larger community of human beings.

Similarly, Cook-Greuter (2013) postulates that at higher levels, adults exhibit patterns of development moving towards increased complexity of how one understands oneself and one's relationship to the wide world. Also, Kegan and Lahey (1984) propose that more developed leaders are more effective in their roles because they are more likely to facilitate the development of others in the process. For instance, in an empirical study, Fisher and Torbert (1991) studied how 17 managers differed in the way they led subordinates, related to superiors, and proposed and implemented solutions. The results suggested that individuals at higher levels of development collaborated more often and negotiated a common frame. On the contrary, adults at lower levels of development were more likely to persuade others to consent to their own perspective even though they acknowledged the importance of others' point of views.

Therefore, it is argued that the constructive developmental theories of adult development provide a more comprehensive framework for understanding how certain adults develop a more inclusive view of the world. However, an empirical examination would to confirm the relationship between leaders' level of development, self-concept and their empowering behaviour is warranted. Consequently, through a better understanding of the mechanisms wherein more inclusive self-concepts develop, organizations can benefit in leadership development initiatives as will be discussed in the practical application section.

Hypothesis 2- 4 – Leader Traits and Leader Empowering Behaviour

A model of personality dimension that has been increasingly adopted in personality research is the HEXACO framework (Ashton & Lee, 2007). It is composed of a six-dimensional framework of personality structure HEXACO (Honesty– Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, & Openness). The model includes important personality variance not represented in the five-dimensional models. It has shown advantages in various constructs. In particular, variables related to self-serving behaviour at the detriment of others. The suggested sixth factor, honesty-humility, described by facets of Sincerity, Fairness, Greed-avoidance, and Modesty, has been shown to be an important factor in cooperation and interpersonal relationships, which are highly related to the topic of the current research.

In fact, the honesty-humility factor represents how much individuals vary in their inclination to cooperate with others even when they could successfully exploit them. Previous research has shown this personality variable to be inversely related to selfish exploitation of others (Ashton & Lee, 2008; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Lee, Ashton, & De Vries, 2005). Correspondingly, the honesty-humility factor was predicted to be positively related to the willingness of the leader to use their position of power to empower subordinates. As expected, leaders scoring higher on the honesty-humility scale were found to be significantly more likely to empower subordinates than leaders low on this scale (r= .24, p < .001). In other words, a leader with a low level of honesty-humility tends to evade empowering subordinates if they perceive the empowering behaviour to be a disadvantage to their own situation. This is consistent with previous research that found that leaders low on this scale tend to seek any situation reinforcing their approach towards life, even if that is seeking wealth and status by a dishonest and deceitful attitude regarding others (Ashton & Lee, 2008; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Lee et al., 2005). Conversely, a leader high on the honesty-humility factor is expected to have a tendency to empower subordinates when the opportunity is present.

Another leader trait, hypothesized to be related to the empowering behaviour of leaders is moral identity. The moral dimension to leadership is not new and concerns how individuals with power should lead with values. Since leaders have the power to impact others, both to support and to harm, values become an important guiding mechanism in the process of using

that power. Essentially, more advanced moral reasoning implies enhanced capacity to take broader and diverse perspectives into account. Consequently, leaders with more advanced moral identities are able to envision more possibilities, create innovative solutions and better make sense of complex solutions.

Henceforth, hypothesis 3 posits that leaders with more advanced moral identity are more likely to empower subordinates. As predicted, the moral identity of the leaders studied was positively associated with their empowering behaviour ($r = .30$, $p < .001$). Leaders with more developed moral identities were more likely to empower than leaders with low moral identities. We can reason that as moral identity develops, leaders are better able to understand the complexity of today's work environment and problems to be addressed. There is also an enhanced understanding of other's developmental needs in order to enable them to contribute to the solutions. With higher moral reasoning also comes the capacity to take others' perspective into account to solve challenges in a collaborative fashion.

Moreover, advanced moral development may also help individuals better integrate the self with other individuals, the situation and the environment, whereas lack of development can result in more self-centered behaviour. Therefore, higher moral development can lead to enhanced ability to integrate the needs of many into the situation, to consider the interests of followers, the organization and the society at large. As a consequence, leaders use their power for the collective well-being rather than their own personal gain.

Additioally, the social dominance orientation of the leader was studied and expected to impact leader empowering behaviou. Leaders vary in their personal need for dominance (Moskowitz, 1994). This might cause some leaders to want to maintain power over all activities preventing them from empowering their subordinates. Therefore, hypothesis 4 predicted that leaders with a higher need for dominance are less likely to empower their subordinates. As expected, the results confirmed this relationship ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$). Scholars argue that leaders often perceive power as limited. If employees are powerful, then leaders must be less powerful. Hence, it is argued that leaders who want to keep their control and dominance are unlikely to empower as they may believe that with empowering comes sharing some of that power and control (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In accordance with this view, Maslow cautions us to be wary of leaders in the quest for power: "The person who seeks power for power, is the one who is just exactly likely to be the one who shouldn't have it. Such people are apt to use power very

badly; to overcome, over-power, use it for their own selfish gratifications" (Maslow, 1998, p.152). Therefore, leaders who have a high need for dominance are unlikely to be willing to give it up, preventing them from empowering despite being encouraged to do so.

Accordingly, data from this study support that desire for dominance is an important characteristic of leaders influencing their empowering behaviours. Key then, to leaders being more empowering, is for them to understand that power is expandable, that when employees become more powerful, they can be more effective and more appreciated. That, by delegating, they can better focus on higher-level strategic issues instead of day-to-day routines. And more importantly, that leaders will not lose power by empowering their subordinates.

Hypothesis 5– Positional Insecurity and Leader Empowering Behaviour

Hypothesis 5 claims that leader empowering behaviour will vary based on the perception of leader's positional insecurity. Participating leaders in the study indicated their degree of positional insecurity by responding to a single question: ''how secure do you feel in your position in general". Answers ranged from 0 (very secure) to 9 (very insecure).

The data set confirmed the hypothesis that leaders who are less insecure with their position will tend to empower more compared to less secure leaders (r = -.21, p < .01). This result indicates that when leaders are threatened to lose power, such as by positional insecurity, they are more likely to consider their self-interest first. If this threat is perceived as significant, their actions are primarily motivated by their concern about securing their own position and will be less concerned with the collective's well-being.

Despite this evidence, we ought to be cautious in concluding that leaders will be most likely to empower if they are informed that they are competent and that they may not lose their position. Leaders who think too highly of themselves may feel more entitled than leaders who sometimes feel doubt. A balance between feelings of security and efficacy may be optimal to prevent leaders from abusing of their position while feeling sufficiently secure that they do not need to constantly prove their skills and authority. In other words, while leaders need to feel secure in their position, it is favored that they feel the need to account for their actions towards others. Accordingly, previous studies found that individuals in power who know they will be

held accountable are more inclined to consider social consequences and to take others' perspectives into account (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999; Tetlock, 1992; Rus et al., 2012). Similarly, Winter and Barenbaum (1985) found evidence that to the extent that high-power individuals are accountable, they are less likely to engage in destructive activities.

The risk involved with empowerment may alos be another reason why leaders who experience positional insecurity may be less likely to empower. By empowering followers, a leader assumes a certain level of risk to their position and career progression (Forrester, 2000). For those leaders who are insecure in their position, their tolerance for additional risk is depressed, affecting their willingness to further depend on their subordinates' performance. It is therefore important to consider positional insecurity when empowering behaviours are expected from leaders.

Hypothesis 6- Leader Sense of Power

Hypothesis 6 explored the relationship between leader sense of power and leader empowering behaviour. It was found that leader sense of power is positively and significantly related to their empowering behaviour *(r*= .30, $p < .01$). A great deal of research has debated whether power is a functional force or a corrupting one (e.g. Chen et al., 2001; Gruenfeld et al., 2008; Keltner et al., 2003). The results of the current study revealed that power is not inherently corrupting. Indeed, the more powerful leaders felt, the more likely they were to empower their subordinates. It may be the power processes that take place at the individual self-concept level that have added to power's bad reputation. But then again, power by itself does not constitute a source of egocentric behaviour.

Perhaps it can be argued that leadership can raise, in addition to entitlement concerns, responsibility concerns on the part of the more powerful (Tjosvold et al., 2009). Such that when leaders are entrusted with a certain level of power, they feel responsible for using that power towards the better good of the organization. Another explanation for the results found may be that with a higher sense of power, leaders feel sufficient power is at their disposition, and are not threatened by the prospect of losing power if they were to share some of it with others. Conversely, when leaders have a restricted sense of power, they may be undisposed to share that power with others by fear of being left with even less of the already scarce resource.

Alternatively, the findings associated with power could be explained by the conservation of resources theory. This theory suggests that individuals seek to acquire and maintain resources to reduce stress (Hobfoll, 1989). According to this theory, threats to resources can present themselves in three distinct ways: a possible loss of resources; the actual loss of resources; and failure to acquire resources. Accordingly, it was found in the current research, that higher sense of power was related to higher likelihood of leaders empowering. Perhaps, leaders with a higher sense of power do not perceive empowering others as a loss or a threat of loss. However, leaders with low levels of power are less likely to empower as a possibility to lose the limited power at their disposition.

Given that the conservation of resources model proposes that people try to prevent resource loss and seek to attain and sustain resources that are important to them, it is assumed that leaders with higher collective self-concept are less likely to perceive empowering from the perspective of losing resources. In fact, they may see power as an aim to acquire other goals important to them, such as the success of the entire group. On the other hand, leaders with mainly an individual self-concept are likely to perceive empowerment as a loss of their privileged resources such as high status or control over resources at their disposition.

Alternatively, since power is associated with a set of resources such as information, development or advancement opportunities, as well as with latitude of decision making, leaders who do not have control over such resources are restricted in their empowering beahviours. It may be assumed that control over such resources increases as leaders climb higher on the managerial level. Interestingly, the relationship between leader empowering behaviour is stronger with leader sense of power (r=.28, p<.01) than with managerial level (r=.15, p<.05). Thus, suggesting that sense of power emerges as an important determinant of leader empowering behavior, above control over organizational resources.

In addition, hypothesis 6 tested the moderating effect of leader sense of power on the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. It was predicted that leaders with a predominant individual self-concept and a higher sense of power, are less likely to empower than those leaders with a lower sense of power. Given that at this level of self-concept, leaders' motivations have a primarily egocentric character (Brewer & Garner, 1996), their focus is mainly one's own outcomes. When such goals are not consistent with the goals of

others, power provides the means to preserve control over critical decisions to secure benefits to oneself at the expense of the outcomes for others.

On the other hand, when leaders function from a relational or collective self-concept, they are expected to have a more cooperative orientation, which was expected to be associated with more empowering behaviour. It is argued that when their selves are more expanded to include others, they are motivated to strive for the mutual or collective benefit and the enhancement of others (Brewer & Gardner 1996; Lee et al. 2000). Aaron and Aaron (2000) stipulate that at these levels of self-concept, individuals perceive others as self. Therefore, when it comes to sharing power with others, it does not have the same negative connotation experienced by a leader with mainly an individual self-concept.

The relationship between the three levels of self-concept and leader empowering behaviour has already been established in hypothesis 1. Moreover, based on the stream of research demonstrating that power reduces the strength of the situation, the personality and belief systems of individuals in power is expected to have a stronger influence on their behaviour. It was therefore expected that sense of power moderates the relationship between leader self-concept and empowering behaviour. However, contrary to expectation, the results obtained in this study indicate that a higher sense of power does not moderate this relationship.

The lack of interaction effect for sense of power and the collective self-concept may be explained by the relatively low alpha (α=.58) obtained for collective self-concept. However, this cannot be invoked for the non-significant interactions found for the individual and relational self-concepts. Although previous studies have found that sense of power moderates the relationship between internal individual characteristics and behaviour (e.g. Chen et al., 2015), the current data set does not confirm such moderating effect.

Hypothesis 7 and 8 - Organizational Culture and Leader Empowering Behaviour

The preceding sections examined the relationship between leader individual characteristics and empowering behaviour. This section highlights organizational culture, as a test of the impact of four broad characteristics of an organizational culture, on leader

empowering behaviour. This effort aimed at further investigating antecedents to leader empowerment behaviours beyond personal characteristics within organizations.

It has been argued that organizational culture provides the foundation for an organization's management system and has a strong influence on leadership (Pool, 2000). Another view reveals that leadership and organizational culture are a reciprocal, dynamic relationship that operate to make certain the survival in a changing context (Schein, 2004). This latter model portrays leaders as the creators of culture, as well as the product of the cultural socialization. Both views expose a link between leadership and organizational culture, and that one shapes the other, or both exercise a reciprocal force on each other. Accordingly, a positive and significant relationship was predicted between leader empowering behaviour and organizational culture (involvement, adaptability, mission, & consistency dimensions) within the investigated sample.

More specifically, of the four organizational culture traits, involvement was expected to have the strongest link to leader empowering behaviour. The involvement trait of the cultural framework emphasizes employees' commitment and sense of ownership, involvement in decisions that affect them, and team orientation. Contrary to expectation, a significant relationship between leader empowering behaviour and this dimension of organizational culture did not emerge in the sample of leaders studied. This non-significant and counter-intuitive finding may be accounted for by the study being conducted in a single organizational culture. Culture being a constant, it cannot explain or interact with other measures.

Alternatively, the lack of relationship observed may be accounted for by the behaviour of the powerful being driven primarily by their personal inclinations rather than contextual factors (Galinsky et al., 2008; Hirsh et al., 2011; Kraus et al., 2011). Given this finding, important consequences emerge for the leadership and organizational culture streams of research and practices as will be elaborated on later.

In addition to the empowering trait of organizational culture, other dimensions of culture were also measured and expected to have a significant and positive relationship to the leaders' inclination to empower subordinates. The consistency dimension, through the focus on building shared values, systems and an infrastructure, was expected to equip leaders with the tools to improve employee empowerment. As expected, this relationship was positive and significant ($r(200) = .16$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, this dimension of culture, offering a more stable

environment, was expected to reduce uncertainty and provide leaders a context to experiment with empowering behaviours.

The other trait of organization culture measured is the adaptability dimension, referring to an organization's ability for internal change to adapt to external conditions (Denison & Mishra, 1995). In contradiction to hypothesis 7c, a non-significant relationship was found between this dimension of culture and leader empowering behaviour. Leader empowering behaviour and an organization's response or adaptation to external environments appear to be unrelated. This result is in disagreement with the proposition that a more empowered workforce has a higher capacity to adapt to external environmental conditions. However, no causal link can be inferred from the current cross-sectional analysis as this non-significant finding can be attributed to other unmeasured factors.

The mission trait of organizational culture and its link to leader empowering behaviour was also assessed. The mission trait refers to an organization's level of clarity on the reasons for its existence and its direction (Denison & Mishra, 1995). As expected, this dimension of organizational culture was found to be significantly related to leader empowering behaviours ($r(200) = .16$, $p < .05$). It is reasoned that through a well-defined direction and meaning for an organization's existence, leaders have more confidence that empowered followers will behave in alignment with the organization's goals and objectives. Hence, it is argued that the risk involved with leaders empowering their subordinates is lowered in such environments. Conversely, in an organization where goals and missions are not clearly understood, leaders may be reluctant to empower, given their concern with employees performing in counter-productive ways if they are not closely supervised.

Collectively, there are mixed results as to an organization culture's role in predicting leader empowering behaviours. Specifically, the expected significant relationship between the involvement trait, and leader empowering did not hold. This finding may be a result of assessing this construct within a single organization, restricting the level of variability within this variable. In point of fact, members of the same organization are expected to agree in their perceptions of the relevant characteristics of the organization. In the absence of such agreement within organizational members, the construct of organizational culture is untenable and would have no construct validity. For example, if there isn't substantial agreement among members about the

organization's empowerment norms, then that organization simply has no shared norms around empowerment.

Nevertheless, some level of variation among members' perceptions is also expected– represented as the individual leader's perception of the workplace environment. Given that the data collected in this study is only available at the level of one large organization, which is a collection of seven ministries, I expect some variation due to the various functions they serve (Schein, 2010). Consequently, there is reason to believe that the organizational culture data collected from the seven ministries vary somewhat in homogeneity. Despite this expected variability, results do not allow us to conclude whether the insignificant interaction effect is due to low variability in organizational culture or that culture does not impact leader empowering behaviour.

What seems to have a more important relationship to leaders empowering followers are the consistency and mission traits of organizational culture. Together, these positive and significant relationships suggest that when there are consistent systems and processes in place and a clear sense of direction within an organization, employees' behaviours may be bounded by a set of organizationally imposed limits, creating a favourable environment to leader empowering behaviours.

Summary of Variables Related to Leader Empowering Behaviour

In this section, the variables related to leader empowering behaviour were revisited to determine their relative predictive value. Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted on all studied variables encompassing organizational culture, the three levels of leader self-concept, leader characteristics including honesty-humility, need for dominance and moral identity, as well as positional insecurity and sense of power. The most parsimonious model emerged including leader collective self-concept and leader sense of power (Table XVII). These two variables alone explained 21% of the variance in predicting leader empowering behaviour. Given that their interaction term is not significant, the two variables have independent incremental validity predicting leader empowering behaviour.

Furthermore, it is noteworthy that organizational culture was not retained in this model. This result agrees with the line of research suggesting that internal belief systems and

characteristics of individuals in position of power have prominence over contextual factors in determining behaviour (Galinsky et al., 2008; Hirsh et al., 2011; Kraus et al., 2011).

In addition, despite the significant relationships observed between the three levels of self-concept and leader empowering behaviour, only the collective level was retained. This finding further suggests that the collective self-concept has a critical predictive value as it pertains to leader empowering behaviour. This relationship can have important implications for selection, promotion and development practices for organizations willing to achieve higher levels of employee empowerment.

Lastly, leader sense of power emerged as a critical variable, suggesting that leaders, with elevated states of psychological power, are most likely to empower subordinates. In line with this result, a non-published dissertation by Anthony (2012) exposed leader psychological empowerment as an essential antecedent to follower empowerment. More research is needed to further clarify the link between leader sense of power and leader empowering behaviour.

Moreover, the non-significant interaction between leader sense of power and collective self-concept suggests that leader sense of power plays an important role in the empowerment process independent of a leader's self-concept. This is in contrast to the broad literature speaking of the corrupting role of power. In fact, the current findings reveal that power by itself is not inherently corrupting. Rather, leaders who experience higher sense of power are more likely to empower. In light of this outcome, it is suggested that organizations look past the stereotype of power as corrupting and instead consider delegating power to those fit to lead, who will in their turn empower employees.

In conclusion, leader empowering behaviour and its predictive variables were investigated in a practical setting. Given that organizations are cognizant of the benefits of empowerment, a better understanding of the factors that contribute to empowering employees is crucial. The bulk of the analysis reveals several variables with a crucial role in determining leader empowering behaviours. These have been discussed individually and put into perspective by comparing their relative importance.

Future Research and Limitations

Although this study extends our understanding of leader empowering behaviour, there are limitations to this study, offering opportunities for future research. First, only leaders are

considered in this study due to their key role in the empowerment process and in achieving organizational goals. As such, this study relied on the responses from mid-level to senior-level individuals within the organization studied. Therefore, the results may not be relevant to leaders at lower levels of an organization.

Second, the study adopted a cross-sectional design and is not possible to test causality in terms of antecedents of leader empowering behaviours. Future research should consider using a longitudinal design to allow for causality determination. However, despite the cross-sectional nature of the design, the current study provides some interesting findings extending current leadership theory. The study addresses different issues than would a longitudinal design, which might examine how personality traits facilitate empowering behaviour over the course of a career. Collectively, the questions and results presented uncover relational, situational and personality influences that may co-determine and expand our knowledge regarding leader empowering behaviour. Nevertheless, future research is warranted to illuminate how these relationships develop with a longitudinal design. For example, how a collective self-concept might help people climb the corporate ladder because of their links with helping achieve organizational goals.

Third, leaders in this study rated their own perception of their empowering behaviour. Undoubtedly, self-reports as repeatedly reported in the literature (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino 1992; Podsakoff & Organ 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003) are subject to leniency bias, social desirability, etc. These biases would impact on the mean responses that would be inflated: more positive than reality. However, because this study is correlational, these inflations are not necessarily critical. Means–inflated or not–are essentially statistical constants that do not affect correlations except in one particular case. When means are 'too inflated' they can produce ceiling effects on the measures causing restriction of variances. And these in turn can have the effect of under-estimating the size of the population correlations. In other words, these biases 'stack the deck' against finding significant correlations in the sample studied. Nonetheless, the study does yield significant correlations. From this, it may be deduced that whereas these response biases may well exist, they are insufficient to invalidate the results.

Furthermore, the question of why not rely on subordinate perception instead of leader perception of their behaviour may arise. Previous research has focused on empowerment as

perceived by subordinates. However, this is not quite as helpful or valid as one might assume: in an overview article, Fleenor and colleagues (2010) demonstrate how employee ratings of leadership to some extent can be explained by individual subordinate characteristics (e.g., gender, age, expectations & experiences), which have nothing to do with supervisor behaviour. The decision to focus on supervisory perceptions only was elected, as this particular focus fills a gap in the literature. Focusing on leaders' perceptions of their own behaviours has rarely been treated in past studies. These studies have tended to focus on environmental–such as culture and reinforcements–as determinants of empowerment. But this study is concerned with personality–a non-environmental determinant–of empowerment and as such it is concerned with self-perceptions. The question it asks is 'do supervisors holding various personality structures view their empowerment behaviours differentially?'

Future studies should also consider evaluating leader empowering behaviour from the perception of followers in addition to superior's own ratings. In fact, the results of the present study would have benefitted if we also included the subordinates' rating of their leader's empowering behaviour in addition to the leader's rating of their own behaviour.

One more possible limitation relates to measurement issues concerning the low reliability value of the self-concept scales (LSCS; Selenta & Lord, 2005) used, specifically the collective self-concept scale (α=.58). LSCS has been shown to be a reliable measure of individual, relational, and collective self-concept in previous studies (e.g., Fehr & Gelfand, 2010; Johnson & Lord, 2010; Johnson & Saboe, 2011; Johnson et al. 2012). Five items each measure individual self-identity (α = .80), relational self-identity (α = .87), and collective identity (α = .89). It remains the case that in this study this scale showed low level of internal consistency (alpha). Nonetheless, it is essential to consider that low reliability is of importance only because it obscures the relationship to external variables (i.e., validity or hypothesis confirmation). However, in this case it was found that even those scales with low alphas did indeed significantly predict outcome variables in the direction hypothesized. Therefore, it is deduce that in spite of this handicap those variables with low alphas were useful for prediction purposes. This suggests that with better scales (i.e., more reliable) these variables may become

even more important in understanding how supervisors view their own empowerment behaviours.

Yet, another limitation is the use of a single question for measuring leaders' insecurity in their current position. Based on the single question administered, no psychometric properties were assessed. Future research would benefit from evaluating this model with other measures of job insecurity to add to the psychometric robustness of this finding.

Furthermore, based on the current study and its focus on the leader, a link cannot be drawn between a leader's empowering behavior and follower psychological empowerment. Indeed, future research may benefit from measuring the follower psychological empowerment in the same sample for a more comprehensive understanding of the empowerment process.

Lastly, questions remain as to the generalizability of the observed effects of empowering leadership to other organizational settings. As such, the obtained results and the associated interpretations may be limited to the particular sample that was surveyed. Future research could look into extending the study population to collect input from several organizations from different sectors of the industry. Similarly, differences in self-concept and empowering behaviours in various ethnicities could be investigated.

Practical Implications

Several implications for leadership can be drawn from the current research. First, in light of the evidence that leaders with relational and collective self-concepts are more likely to use their position of power to empower subordinates, the most direct solution might be for organizations to select leaders based on their self-concept levels. A recruiter hiring or promoting for a job that requires empowerment, may decide to take into consideration an individual's predisposition toward being concerned for others. However, screening candidates based on these criteria may be challenging to implement based on the motivation of candidates to present themselves positively to prospective employers. However, the use of less face-valid metrics, or peer and supervisor evaluations, may help with this issue.

Furthermore, leadership development programs should incorporate leader self-concept trainings (Day & Harrison, 2007; Lord & Hall, 2005; Venus et al., 2012). Venus et al. (2012) recommended training content that cultivates collective self-concept, while deactivating individual self-concept. Moreover, action training programs have been proposed by Day and

Harrison (2007) in their multi-level training program in which the higher up the leadership level, the more the training program emphasizes inclusive self-concepts. Likewise, Lord and Hall (2005) state that with advanced development in their leadership roles, leaders are expected to develop more inclusive self-concepts. Together these scholars propose that a collective self-concept can be developed in leaders.

Other ways of encouraging empowering behaviour through relational and collective self-concepts include encouraging physical intermixing across departmental units (Audia, 2012), engaging in regular perspective-taking exercises such as practicing getting in the mindset of customers or job candidates (Grant, 2013; Brown, 2012), and explicitly seeking feedback about when one's behaviour reflects a lack of empathy (Goleman, 2004).

In addition, practical implications can be offered in regards to moral identity. In predicting empowering practices, interventions or changes can accentuate to incorporate or to internalize an identity as a leader with an emphasis on developing higher levels of moral and judgment abilities. Acquiring higher moral standards requires not only compliance to a set of externally imposed values, but rather contemplating why they are important and their impact on behaviour.

Furthermore, given the suggestions in the literature of the link between leader inclusive self-concept and adult developmental theories, there are reasons to believe that interventions targeting the development of adults will result in leaders adopting more inclusive self-concepts. However, as van Knippenberg et al. (2005) suggest, teaching the behaviours of a collectivist mindset, and then expecting leaders to behave accordingly, is at best a short-term solution. What would be more realistic for longer-term leadership solutions is for leaders to have a deeper exploration of their level of development and an awareness of its implications in terms of their leadership roles and what it takes for further development and its link to their self-concept.

The results from the positional insecurity findings suggest that ideally, leaders should feel a minimum security in their position not to feel the need to seek approval from other organizational members, yet not too invulnerable in their position that they do not see the need to be accountable for their conduct. Organizations can help achieve this during the selection and promotion processes based on job-organization and person-job fit in both hiring and promotion (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). That is increasing the degree of fit between a leader's abilities and the demands of the job. Since leaders who feel aligned within their organizations and possess

the skills to perform their jobs will feel more efficacious (Gregory, Albritton, & Osmonbekov, 2010), and therefore have less uncertainty about their capacity to perform or about their hold on power, which in turn reduces the threat concerns.

In light of the association of leaders with lower sense of power and their reluctance to share it, is to inform leaders that power is expandable. This goal may be achieved through training initiatives that help managers increase their awareness of their own biases and understand that when employees become more powerful, they can be more effective in their roles.

Therefore, for organizations to improve empowering behaviours, interventions should begin at the highest levels of the hierarchy and ensure that leaders have the appropriate level of self-concept, personality factors, and situational attributes that enable them to practice behaviours that will empower their subordinates. Last, but not least, provided that the internal characteristics of the leader outweigh the influence of organizational culture on leader empowering behaviours, emphasis should be placed on intervention efforts aimed at the leaders.

Conclusion

To conclude, leadership empowering behaviours are expected to be a source of employee motivation and employee development (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002), contributing to leadership effectiveness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; Kark et al., 2003). Kanter (1977) introduced empowerment with a concern on how organizational structures allowed access to power through sharing and mobilization of resources. Subsequently, other perspectives have emerged in the empowerment literature. The critical perspective, concerned with the inherent power struggles in empowerment and whether power is shared with employees by focusing on issues at the macro level and how policymaking and industrial democracy affect empowerment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2008). The socio-structural perspective explains the set of structures, practices and policies designed to decentralize power and authority in the organization (Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). This perspective again consists of two sub-dimensions, the structural and the relational (Humborstad, 2013). The structural emphasizes the environment of the organization (Kanter, 1977), while the relational considers the behaviour of the leader as a source of empowerment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2008).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) introduced the psychological perspective, in which empowerment is also a motivational process in which an individuals' need for power and a sense of self-determination can be satisfied (Humborstad, 2013). This approach was later developed by other researchers (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995). While both the relational and the psychological perspectives are concerned with the motivational aspect in the empowerment process, the relational can be distinguished by its focus on the leader behaviours, whereas the psychological centers on the subordinate's experience of being enabled as a consequence of the leader's behaviour (Leach, Wall & Jackson, 2003; Hakimi et al., 2010).

The current research used this latter perspective as a fundament due to its focus on the leader's motivation for empowering behavior, which has rarely been addressed in the leadership literature. This empirical examination confirmed the hypotheses that leader empowering behaviour should integrate to the existing focus on environmental conditions, parameters of the leaders themselves, mainly his/her self-concept and the power afforded to them. The framework offered in the current study provides a stepping-stone for future efforts in the area to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the motivational factors behind the empowering behaviours of the leader.

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Appendix A: Introductory Letter

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Madam, Sir,

My doctoral dissertation at the University of Montreal hopes to contribute to our understanding of leadership and its relationship to organizational culture. To that end, I have prepared a questionnaire probing several aspects of leadership to which you are invited to respond.

Whereas your organization is supporting the goals of the study, your participation in it is entirely voluntary and **anonymous**. The overall results of the study will be feedback to your organization but be assured that no individual responses will be provided. No information that could identify you personally is needed and none is requested.

If you have at least **three employees directly reporting to you**, it would be most helpful were you to choose to participate in the study by answering the Internet survey through this link. To do so will take roundabout 20 minutes. Of course, you can withdraw your participation in the study at any time.

If you have any questions about this research study, and/or your participation in it, please do not hesitate to contact me at xxx-xxx-xxxx or at the email address ladan.mohebbinia@umontreal.ca. If you have any concerns you may also contact my thesis supervisor, Dr Haccoun (robert.haccoun@umontreal.ca).

Any complaints about your participation in this research may be addressed to the Ombudsman of the University of Montreal, telephone number (xxx) xxx-xxxx or email ombudsman@umontreal.ca (Ombudsman accepts collect calls).

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this research project!

Respectfully,

Ladan Mohebbinia
Ph.D. Candidate
University of Montreal

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

By signing the form electronically, I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, any potential risks to me as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential.

My electronic signature on the form indicates that I am over the age of 18, manage at least three direct reports and that I give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described by the researcher in the Introductory Letter.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

Appendix C – Table A1- Goodness-of-fit Indicators of Models of Self-reported Variables

Model	χ^2	*Df*	*RMSEA*	*SRMR*	*CFI*
Single Factor	4766	2144	0.086	0.105	0.354
Two Factor: Combined all personality items, and all contextual items	4478	2143	0.081	0.105	0.425
Eight Factor model: all scales	9341	4464	0.081	0.115	0.484

Note: N=165. All alternative models were compared with the hypothesized eight-factor model. Abbreviations: RMSEA is the root-mean-square error of approximation. SRMR is the standardized root mean square residual. CFI is the comparative fit index

The CFA of the 8 factor model, [$\chi2$ (4464, N = 165) = 9341, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .081; SRMR = .115; CFI = .484] was compared with a two factor model that combined personality items into one factor, and contextual items into one factor [$\chi2$ (2143, N = 165) = 4478.455, $p < .001$; RMSEA = 0.081; SRMR = 0.105; CFI = .43] and a one factor model in which all indicators were constrained to lead on a single factor (method factor), [$\chi2$ (2144, N = 165) = 4766.789 , $p < .001$; RMSEA = 0.086; SRMR = 0.105; CFI = .35].

Appendix D: Levels of Self-concept Scale

Levels of Self- Concept Scale (Selenta & Lord, 2005)

Individual Self-concept

1- I often find myself pondering over the ways that I am better or worse off than other people around me.
2- I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers.
3- I often compete with my friends
4- I thrive on opportunities to demonstrate that my abilities or talents are better than those of other people.
5- I feel best about myself when I perform better than others.

Relational Self-concept

1- Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me.
2- Knowing that a close other person acknowledges and values the role that I play in their life makes me feel like a worthwhile person.
3- If a friend was having a personal problem, I would help him/her even if it meant sacrificing my time or money.
4- I value fiends who are caring, empathetic individuals.
5- It is important to me that I uphold my commitment to significant people in my life.

Collective Self-concept

1- When I become involved in a group project, I do my best to ensure its success.
2- I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I'm not the main reason for its success.

3- When I’m part of a team, I am concerned about the group as a whole instead of whether individual team members like me or whether I like them.
4- I would be honored if I were chosen by an organization or club that I belong to, to represent them at a conference or meeting.
5- Making a lasting contribution to groups that I belong to, such as my work organization, is very important to me.

Appendix E: Leader Empowering Behaviour Questionnaire

Leader Empowering Behavior Questionnaire (Konczak et al. 2000)

Delegation of Authority

1. I give subordinates the authority they need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures

2. I give subordinates the authority to make changes necessary to improve things.

3. I delegate authority to subordinates that is equal to the level of responsibility that I am assigned.

Accountability

1. I hold subordinates accountable for the work they are assigned.

2. My subordinates are held accountable for performance and results.

3. I hold people in the department accountable for customer satisfaction

Self-Directed Decision Making

1. I try to help my subordinates arrive at their own solutions when problems arise, rather than telling them what he/she would do.

2. I rely on subordinates to make their own decisions about issues that affect how work gets done.

3. I encourage subordinates to develop their own solutions to problems they encounter in their work.

Information Sharing

1. I share information that subordinates need to ensure high quality results

2. I provide subordinates with the information they need to meet customers' needs.

Skill Development

1. I encourage subordinates to use systematic problem-solving methods (e.g. the seven-step problem-solving model).

2. I provide subordinates with frequent opportunities to develop new skills.

3. I ensure that continuous learning and skill development are priorities in our department.

Coaching for Innovative Performance

1. I am willing to risk mistakes on my subordinate's part if, over the long term, they will learn and develop as a result of the experience.
2. Subordinates are encouraged to try out new ideas even if there is a chance they may not succeed
3. I focus on corrective action rather than placing blame when my subordinates make a mistake.

Appendix F: Sense of Power Scale

Sense of Power Scale Items (Cameron Anderson, Oliver P. John, and Dacher Keltner, 2010)

In rating each of the items below, please use the following scale: Disagree, strongly Disagree, Disagree a little, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree a little, Agree, Agree strongly

1. In my interactions with my subordinates, I can get him/her/them to listen to what I say.
2. In my interactions with my subordinates, my wishes do not carry much weight. (r)
3. In my interactions with my subordinates, I can get him/her/them to do what I want.
4. In my interactions with my subordinates, even if I voice them, my views have little sway. (r)
5. In my interactions with my subordinates, I think I have a great deal of power.
6. In my interactions with my subordinates, my ideas and opinions are often ignored. (r)
7. In my interactions with my subordinates, even when I try, I am not able to get my way. (r)
8. In my interactions with my subordinates, if I want to, I get to make the decisions.

Appendix G: Honesty-humility Scale

Honesty-humility, measures tendencies toward honesty and sincerity (10 items from Hexaco PI-R, Lee and Ashton, 2009)

Sincerity:

1- I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.

2- If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes. (R)

3- I wouldn’t pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me.

Fairness:

1- If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million dollars. (R)

2- I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.

3- I’d be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it. (R)

Greed-avoidance:

1- Having a lot of money is not especially important to me.

2- I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods. (R)

Modesty:

1- I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is. (R)

2- I want people to know that I am an important person of high status. (R)

Appendix H: Moral Identity Scale

Moral Identity: valuing being a caring and compassionate person (5 items from Aquino and Reed's moral identity internalization, 2002)

Subjects are first presented a set of nine adjectives (e.g., caring, compassionate, fair, honest) along with the statement that these represent "some characteristics that might describe a person." Subjects then rate, with a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

1- It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.

2- Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.

3- I would be ashamed to be a person who has these characteristics. (R)

4- Having these characteristics is not really important to me. (R)

5- I strongly desire to have these characteristics.

Appendix I: Social Dominance Orientation Scale

Social Dominance Orientation Scale (Pratto, Cidam, et al., 2013)

Instructions:
There are many kinds of groups in the world: men and women, ethnic and religious groups, nationalities, political factions. How much do you support or oppose the ideas about groups in general? Next to each statement, write a number from 1 to 10 to show your opinion.
Extremely oppose 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 extremely favour

1. In setting priorities, we must consider all groups. (R)
2. We should not push for equality between groups.
3. Group equality should be our ideal. (R)
4. Superior groups should dominate inferior groups.

Appendix J- Organizational Culture Scale

36 items from Denison Organizational Culture Survey (2009)

Index	Scale	Items
Involvement	Empowerment	1- Most employees are highly motivated in their work. 2- Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when it's needed. 3- Everyone believes that he or she can have a positive impact.
	Team Orientation	1- Cooperation across different parts of the organization is actively encouraged. 2- Teamwork is used to get work done, rather than hierarchy. 3- People work like they are part of a team.
	Capability Development	1- Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own. 2- The capabilities of people are viewed as an important source of competitive advantage. 3- There is continuous investment in the skills of employees
Consistency	Core Values	1- There is a characteristic management style and a distinct set of management practices in comparison to other organizations. 2- Ignoring core values will get you in trouble. 3- There is an ethical code that guides our behavior and tells us right from wrong.
	Agreement	1- There is a strong culture. 2- There is a clear agreement about the right way and the wrong way to do things. 3- We often have trouble reaching agreement on key issues.
	Coordination & Integration	1- Our approach to work is very consistent and predictable. 2- People from different parts of the organization share a common perspective. 3- It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the organization.
Adaptability	Creating Change	1- The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change. 2- Attempts to create change usually meet with resistance.

		3- We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment.
	Customer Focus	1- Customer input directly influences our decisions. 2- All members have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs. 3- The interests of the customer often get ignored in our decisions.
	Organizational Learning	1- We view failure as an opportunity for learning and improvement. 2- Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work. 3- Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded.
Mission	Strategic Direction & Intent	1- There is a long-term purpose and direction. 2- Our strategic direction is unclear to me. 3- There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work.
	Goals & Objectives	1- There is widespread agreement about our goals. 2- We continuously track our progress against our stated goals. 3- Leaders set goals that are ambitious, but realistic.
	Vision	1- Leaders have a long term viewpoint. 2- Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our group members. 3- We have a shared vision of what the organization will be like in the future.

Appendix K – Table A2- Collinearity Diagnostics

Table A2

Collinearity Diagnostics

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.796	25.310	25.310	3.796	25.310	25.310	2.817	18.779	18.779
2	2.746	18.305	43.615	2.746	18.305	43.615	2.688	17.922	36.702
3	1.091	7.275	50.890	1.091	7.275	50.890	2.128	14.189	50.890
4	1.013	6.750	57.640						
5	.869	5.791	63.431						
6	.804	5.358	68.789						
7	.753	5.019	73.808						
8	.708	4.723	78.530						
9	.630	4.198	82.729						
10	.577	3.846	86.575						
11	.522	3.481	90.056						
12	.449	2.996	93.052						
13	.403	2.687	95.739						
14	.339	2.258	97.997						
15	.300	2.003	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.