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경영학석사 학위논문

Goal Orientation and Leader's Empowering

Behavior:

Mediating Effect of Trust

구성원의 목표성향과 리더의 임파워링 행위와의
관계:
신뢰의 매개효과에 대한 연구

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이 논문을 경영학 석사학위논문으로 제출함

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Abstract

**Goal Orientation and Leader's Empowering
Behavior:
Mediating Effect of Trust**

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Organizational scholars and practitioners have growingly paid attention to the topic of empowerment, and empowering leadership has been considered one of the most important ways to empower employees at work. Although many organizational studies have investigated the effect of leader's empowering behavior on employees' attitudes and behavior, few studies on the factors that affect leaders' empowering behavior have been conducted, despite its importance in empowering leadership literature. In

this regard, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the antecedents of leader's empowering behavior.

Specifically, this study examined the role of subordinate's goal orientation in leader's empowering determination. According to the situational leadership theories, follower characteristics may play a central and active role in leadership effectiveness. Moreover, since goal orientation is theoretically related to attitudes in achievement situation, it may be an important factor to perform empowered task. Therefore, this study investigated followers' goal orientation as an antecedent of empowering behavior.

The present study also investigated the mediating effect of trust on the relationship between subordinates' goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior. Since empowering behavior entails uncertainty and risks, from the leaders' perspective, their trust in followers would be critical in showing empowering behavior. This study examined how differently leaders develop trust in followers according to followers' goal orientation and the effect of trust on leaders' empowering behavior. Furthermore, considering that empowered employees are more likely to feel encouraged to challenge the existing ways to improve work efficiency, this study examined the effect of leader's empowering behavior on

employee proactive behaviors.

Analysis of field data from 169 leader-follower dyad revealed that subordinate's learning goal orientation was positively related to leader's empowering behavior. However, the relationships between performance goal orientations (i.e., performance prove goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation) and leader's empowering behavior were not significant. Subordinate's learning goal orientation was positively related to leader's trust in followers when trust was measured by subordinates. The mediating effect of leaders' trust in followers on the link between learning goal orientation and leaders' empowering behavior was also supported. However, when trust was measured by leader, the relationship between learning goal orientation and leader's trust was not supported. One interesting finding was that the correlation of two trust variables (i.e., measured by leaders vs. subordinates) was insignificant. Regarding this trust perception gap, I additionally conducted posteriori interview employees of the organization where survey was conducted to find out underlying reasons. The most frequent answers for the question about trust perception gap were hierarchical organizational culture and the lack of communication.

Since two performance goal orientations were not significantly

correlated to leader's trust, the mediating hypotheses of leader's trust on the link between two performance goal orientations and leader's empowering were not supported.

The analysis for the effect of leader's empowering on employees' proactive behaviors, such as personal initiative, taking charge, and creativity was conducted. The beta coefficients of leader's empowering on personal initiative and taking charge were positive but insignificant. However, leader's empowering was positively related to employees' creativity.

By investigating the role of goal orientation and trust in determining leader's empowering behavior, this study contributes to integrating goal orientation literature, trust literature, and empowering leadership literature. In addition, practical implications, such as selection of learning goal oriented employees and training of empowering leadership are suggested.

Keywords: Empowering Behavior, Goal Orientation, Trust, Proactive Behaviors, Personal Initiative, Taking Charge, Creativity.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In the past few decades, organizational practices have shifted towards more decentralized structures where employees are encouraged to participate in decision making (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005) in order to meet increasingly changing customer needs. Employee empowerment has been viewed as an important way to improve customer satisfaction by quick response to customer needs and problems (Bowen & Lawler, 1992). Accordingly, scholars have argued that hierarchical leadership style, which was traditionally predominant management practices, should be replaced with management practices focusing on empowerment of employees (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

As one of the important driving force for successful employee empowerment, many scholars emphasized the role of effective leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003). Specifically, empowering leadership, referred to behaviors whereby power is shared with subordinates, giving them job autonomy (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2007), have received more attention than ever before by practitioners and scholars. A number of studies have indicated that the quality of empowering leadership has a positive effect on their attitudes and behaviors (George, 2007; Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Zhang &

Bartol, 2010). For example, empowering leaders lead employees to be proactive at works by encouraging employees to challenge the old ways of performing and to take the risks required in generating useful ideas (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Zhou & George, 2003). Although previous studies have mainly focused on the ways that leader's empowering behavior influences their employees, there is a paucity of research on the ways leaders are influenced to determine their empowering behavior. Namely, the question of what motivates leaders to empower their followers remains unanswered, despite its significant impact on employee outcomes.

In organizations, leaders often fail to empower their followers since sharing power requires more responsibility and takes time and resources compared to offering direct instructions to subordinates. Therefore, organizations need to understand motivational aspects beyond leaders' empowering behaviors to encourage leaders to empower their subordinates.

Accordingly, the first objective of this study is to examine the main effects of subordinate's characteristics on leader empowering behaviors. Traditional leadership theories mainly posited subordinate's characteristics as dependent variables that are affected by the leader. The various models concentrated on the effect of the leader's personality, behavior, power

bases, and influence tactics on followers' characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors (Yukl, 1998). Although the situational leadership theories sometimes give follower characteristics a more central and active role by examining follower characteristics as moderators (e.g., Fiedler, 1964; House, 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973), much less effort (e.g., Merton, 1957; Osborn & Hunt, 1975) has been made to include follower characteristics as independent variables that affect leader behavior (Dvir & Shamir, 2003). However, given that effective leadership differ across the style and characteristic of employees, leaders are likely to perform different leadership or tactics to employees depending on their characteristics. That is, assuming that leaders treat all employees to the same degree is incomplete. For example, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) highlighted follower attributes such as emotional maturity and readiness to be empowered indicate the extent to which followers are able to share ideas and find motivation in greater responsibility (e.g., Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims 2013; Ghen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Spreitzer, 1995). However, situational leadership theories have found only limited empirical support (see Thompson & Vecchio, 2009).

In the present study, I suggest that subordinates' goal orientation determine the level of leader's trust in subordinate, which, in turn,

determine the level of leader's empowering behavior. Among several antecedents for leader's empowering behavior, I focus on employee goal orientations because they are theoretically linked to attitudes in achievement situation. Considering that individual behaviors in organizations are motivated and goal directed, motivational constructs such as goal orientation may be appropriate concept to captivate leader's evaluation and trust in subordinates. By describing empowering leadership based on subordinates' characteristic, this study aims to contribute empowering leadership literature.

The second objective of this study is to examine the mediating role of leader's trust in the relationship between subordinate's goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior. Previous studies that investigated the determinants of delegation have examined the direct effect of leader's and follower's characteristics on empowering behavior without revealing the mediating mechanism. Considering the risky aspects that are inherent to empowering, the current study incorporates trust literature to understand motivation beyond empowering behavior. By adding empirical evidence of the role of trust in empowerment process, this study also contributes to trust literature.

The third objective of this study is investigating the effect of

leader's empowering behavior on proactive behaviors. As organizational environment becomes increasingly uncertain, employee's proactive behavior, which is an anticipatory action taken by employees to have an impact on the self or the environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006), become a critical factor for organizational success and survival (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). Consequently, scholars pay more attention to seek factors to predict proactive behavior. However, prior studies have mainly focused on individual characteristics. In this study, I suggest that leader's empowering behavior promote subordinates to show proactive behaviors. By examining the indirect effect between the subordinate's goal orientation and proactive behavior via leader's empowering, this study aims to show the role of leader in inducing subordinate's favorable behaviors.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Leadership

Accumulating evidence suggests that leadership is significantly associated with employees' work attitudes and behaviors (Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Yukl, 2010). Accordingly, leadership has been a favorite research topic for scholars for several decades (Yukl, 2004). Despite a number of studies and discussions, the exact concept of leadership has long presented definitional problems for researchers and practitioners. Stogdill (1974) posited that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are people who have attempted to define the concept", indicating that consistent meaning of the "leadership" is needed in the area of leadership studies. Regarding this, Yukl (2010) defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives." In this study, I apply this concept for leadership and focus on leader's specific behavior (i.e., empowering behavior) that influences employees to perform shared goals of the organization. For the past several decades, investigating leadership that focuses on motivational aspects have emerged. In the present competitive economy, leaders are

expected to motivate their subordinates rather than control and direct them (Bass, 1990; Hakimi, 2008; Yukl, 2002). This trend has made leader's empowering leadership, which generates subordinates' feeling of empowerment an important factor in determining leadership effectiveness. With this importance of empowering leadership in mind, this paper will investigate the factors that may determine the level of leader's empowering behavior.

2.2 Empowering Leadership

Among the diverse leadership that have been studied (See table 1 for more explanation of theoretical basis and representative behaviors of major types of leadership), empowering leadership has received growing attention from scholars as it is consistent with the work environment trend toward offering increased autonomy to employees (Bennis & Townsend, 1997; Srivastava et al., 2006). Empowering leadership refers to behaviors of the leader that includes sharing powers and providing more responsibilities and autonomy to their employees (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Sims et al., 2009). Researchers have conducted study on empowering leadership from largely two theoretical perspectives (Leach et al., 2003; Menon, 2001). One approach is focusing on psychological empowerment

as a motivational construct, which indicates employee's psychological reactions toward leader's empowering behaviors (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggested that empowerment is a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information." Thomas and Velthous (1990) also described empowerment as "intrinsic task motivation resulting from a set of four task-related cognitions pertaining to an individual's work role: task assessments (a) meaningfulness, (b) competence, (c) choice, and (d) impact." Following prior studies on empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) developed the concept of psychological empowerment following those prior studies. He defined psychological empowerment as four dimensions that are meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Meaning refers to "the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individuals' own ideals or standards" (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990); competence refers to "individuals belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill" (Gist & Mitchell, 1992); self-determination: "individuals's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions" (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989);

impact: “degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work” (Ashforth, 1989).

Spreitzer (1995) noted that although these four dimensions are distinct, they overall refer to psychological empowerment.

The other approach is emphasizing a set of empowering management practices where empowering leadership plays a key role (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kirkman & Rosen, 1997). Under this approach, leaders’ behaviors have been played significant role in describing empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). That is, to empower employees, leaders should show certain behaviors. According to Arnold and his colleagues (2000), leaders empower their subordinates by leading by examples, informing, coaching, and participating subordinates in decision-making, processes that boost employee’s perceived self-efficacy. Moreover, Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005) developed the construct of leader’s empowering behavior that reflect four dimensions: (1) enhancing the meaningfulness of work, (2) fostering participation in decision making, (3) expressing confidence in high performance, and (4) providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints.

Table 1. Theoretical Basis and Representative behaviors of five types of leadership

| Leader Type | Theoretical Basis | Representative Behaviors |
|--------------------------|--|---|
| Aversive Leadership | Punishment research (e.g., Arvey & Ivancevitch, 1980) | Engaging in intimidation Dispensing reprimands |
| Directive Leadership | Theory X management (McGregor, 1960) Initiating structure behavior from Ohio State studies (e.g., Fleishman, 1953) Task-oriented behavior from Michigan studies (e.g., Bass, 1967) | Issuing instructions and commands Assigning goals |
| Transactional Leadership | Expectancy theory (e.g., Vroom, 1964) Equity theory (e.g., Adams, 1963) Path goal theory (e.g., House, 1971) Exchange theory (e.g., Homans, 1958) | Providing personal rewards Providing material rewards Managing by exception (active) Managing by exception (passive) |
| Transformational | Sociology of charisma (e.g., Weber, 1946, 1947) Charismatic leadership (e.g., House, 1977) | Providing vision Expressing idealism |

| | | |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| Leadership | <p>Transforming leadership (e.g., Burns, 1978)</p> <p>Transformational leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985)</p> | <p>Using inspirational communication</p> <p>Having high performance expectations</p> |
| Empowering Leadership | <p>Behavioral self-management (e.g., Thorenson & Mahoney, 1974)</p> <p>Social cognitive theory (e.g., Bandura, 1986)</p> <p>Cognitive behavior modification (e.g., Meichenbaum, 1977)</p> <p>Participative goal setting (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990)</p> | <p>Encouraging independent action</p> <p>Encouraging opportunity thinking</p> <p>Encouraging teamwork</p> <p>Encouraging self-development</p> <p>Participative goal setting</p> <p>Encouraging self-reward</p> |

Source: Pearce & Sims (2002)

The present study adopts this concept in describing leader's empowering behaviors. Especially, the fourth dimension is a key aspect of leader's empowering behavior, the delegation of authority. By sharing their power with subordinates, empowering leaders might be responsible for failure outcomes of delegated employees as well as successful outcomes. That means leaders' empowering behavior involves more risk than directive behavior does. Directive leadership, which is viewed as the opposite leadership of empowering leadership (Liao et al, 2013; Yun et al., 2005), is showed through direction and command. Under a directive leadership, there would be less uncertainty that subordinate show unexpected behaviors in performing tasks since leader provide subordinate with instructions regarding the way to perform tasks. In this regards, from the leaders' perspective, their empowering behavior are considered a risk taking behavior so that leaders are less likely to show empowering behavior without a certain motivation. Nevertheless, literature on empowering leadership have consistently demonstrated that leader's empowering behavior bring positive outcomes for the organization as well as for subordinates.

A number of studies have shown that high level of leader empowering behavior result in favorable outcomes such as job satisfaction,

affective commitment, managerial effectiveness, and employee creativity (e.g., Chen, 2007; Kirkman, 2004; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). For instance, Zhang and Bartol (2010) demonstrated the positive relationship between empowering leadership and the subordinate's creativity and identify its mediating mechanism. According to this study, empowering leadership was positively related to psychological empowerment, which subsequently predicted both creative process engagement and intrinsic motivation. Also, both creative process engagement and intrinsic motivation were positively related to individual creativity. Moreover, Vecchio and his colleagues' study (2010) revealed that leader's empowering behavior was positively liked to employees' job satisfaction and task performance. They explained that empowering behavior decreased the negative outcomes dysfunctional resistance which, in turn, resulted in increased job satisfaction and task performances.

The effects of empowering behavior have also been investigated at the team level. For example, Srivastava and his colleagues (2006) found that empowering leadership at the team level was positively related to team's level of knowledge sharing. They showed that empowering leadership increased the level of team's self-efficacy and knowledge sharing, which subsequently improved the team's task performance. In

addition, according to Kirkman and Rosen (1999), leaders' empowering behavior, such as providing power to a team members, participating team members in making decisions, and increasing team members' job autonomy, were positively related to subordinates' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and team commitment by enhancing team empowerment as a mediating mechanism.

Taken together, it seems that leaders' empowering behavior results in diverse positive outcomes for the organization. Therefore, encouraging leaders to show empowering behavior to their subordinates is critical to improve organizational effectiveness.

2.3 Goal Orientation

Achievement goal theory and studies suggest that employee's performance depend on their goal orientations (e.g., Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Phillips & Gully, 1997). Goal orientation refers to a mental framework for understanding how individual interpret and react to achievement situations (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999) and is viewed as "stable personality characteristics" among researchers (e.g., Dweck, 1999; Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004). Two distinct goal orientations are identified: learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation

(Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals high in learning orientation approach a task to learn something new or to increase their level of competence (Yi & Hwang, 2003). They believe ability as an incremental entity that can be progressively improved by obtaining knowledge and developing competencies (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Further, they view errors as natural parts of learning and seek challenging task which give chances to improve their knowledge. Individuals high in performance orientation, on the other hand, see ability as a fixed and uncontrollable entity that exposes their intelligence. They set performance goals to demonstrate their competence, choose tasks that minimize errors at the expense of learning new skills, and focus on their performance relative to others (Yi & Hwang, 2003). Performance orientation construct is bifurcated into performance-prove orientation, which refers to “the desire to prove one’s competence and to obtain favorable judgment of one’s competence about it” and performance-avoid orientation, which refers to “the desire to avoid the disproving of one’s competence and to avoid negative judgment about it” (VandeWalle, 1996, p.8). In goal orientation literature, two different perspectives explain the distinction between goal orientations. First perspective categorizes goal orientations to an internal versus external referent (Nicholls, 1975). Under this view, individuals who

focus on internal referent are high in learning goal orientation, and those who focus on external referent are high in performance goal orientation. The other perspective distincts goal orientations into entity versus incremental theory of intelligence (Dweck, 1975). Under this view, individuals who believe that intelligence is flexible are more likely to be high in learning goal orientation (i.e., incremental theory of intelligence), and those who believe that intelligence is fixed are more likely to be high in performance goal orientation (i.e., entity theory of intelligence). Numerous studies have proved the relationship between goal orientation and academic, task, and job performances. According to Meta-analysis of goal orientation (Payne et al., 2007), learning goal orientation was positively related to specific self-efficacy, self-set goals, learning strategies, feedback seeking, and is negatively related to state anxiety. For desirable outcomes such as academic performance, task performance, and job performance, learning goal orientation shows positive relationships with those outcomes. On the other hand, performance prove goal orientation was negatively related to learning strategies and revealed insignificant relationship with other performances. Performance avoid goal orientation was negatively related to self-set goal level and feedback-seeking.

2.4 Trust

When leaders empower their subordinates, they put themselves in a vulnerable situation by delegating power to subordinates. Being vulnerable indicates that there exists a potential loss for trustor. Considering inherent risk in empowering behavior, leader's decision on whether to empower or not and its underlying mechanism are likely to be explained by trust. In other words, unless leaders trust subordinates, they are unlikely to be willing to show risk taking behavior (i.e., empowering behavior). Trust refers to "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer, Schoorman, & Davis, 1995). Trust lead individuals to take risk: "where there is trust, there is the feeling that others will not take advantage of me" (Porter et al., 1975: 497). An individual's trust in others has an impact more on how individuals make decisions rather than on how they behave (McAllister, 1995).

According to McAllister's (1995) study, relationships of interpersonal trust are characterized by two dimensions: cognition-based trust and affect-based trust. First, trust is cognition-based as Louis and Weigert (1985) argued:

First, trust is based on a cognitive process which discriminates among persons and institutions that are trustworthy, distrusted, and unknown. In this sense, we cognitively choose whom we will trust in which respects and under which circumstances, and we base the choice on what we take to be “good reasons,” constituting evidence of trustworthiness. (p. 970)

Second, affective aspects for trust also present, consisting of emotional bonds between trustor and trustee (Louis & Weigert, 1985; McAllister, 1995). Individuals invest emotional resources to partners by expressing sincere care and concern for other’s welfare to build trust relationship. McAllister(1995) also found that cognition-based trust was positively related to affect-based trust. Underlying principle is that in building working relationship, a certain level of cognition-based trust such as peer reliability and dependability should be met before they invest further in relationship. In this regard, to understand trust, it is necessary to consider both aspects (i.e., affect-based and cognition-based trust).

Literature of trust identified several characteristics of trustee that are more likely to increase positive expectations from trustor. Those characteristics are called as trustworthiness. Mayer and his colleagues (1995) distinct trust from trustworthiness, with three individual characteristics of trustee: ability, benevolence, and integrity. The first dimension, ability, captures “the knowledge and skills needed to do a specific job along with the interpersonal skills and general wisdom needed

to succeed in an organization” (Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007: p.910). The second dimension, benevolence, refers to “the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good for the trustor, apart from any profit motives, with synonyms including loyalty, openness, caring, or supportiveness” (Colquitt et al., 2007: p.910). The third dimension, integrity, is defined as “the extent to which a trustee is believed to adhere to sound moral and ethical principles, with synonyms including fairness, justice, consistency, and promise fulfillment” (Colquitt et al., 2007: p.910). Trustworthiness of trustee make trustor have the positive expectation that another party will show a certain action (Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007). The concept of trustworthiness can be viewed as “good reason” and predicts the quality of trust.

Another factor that influence trust that trustor develop toward trustee is personality of trustor (Mayer et al., 1995). That is, some individuals are more likely to trust than other individuals. Numerous scholars have argued that individuals differ in their innate propensity to trust (e.g., Dasgupta, 1988; Farris, Senner, and Butterfield, 1973; Mayer et al., 1995; Rotter, 1967). For example, Farris and his colleagues (1973) defined trust as “a personality trait of people interacting with peripheral environment of an organization” In their study, trust is regarded as

personality that affects a generalized expectation about the level of trustworthiness of others (Mayer et al., 1995). Dasgupta(1988: 53) also approached to trust in a similar way. He measured trust as generalized expectation of others (i.e., “Can I trust people to come to my rescue if I am about to drown?”). Individual’s propensity to trust is regarded as a stable character and is called “trust propensity” in trust literature (Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007). People vary in their trust propensity depending on their culture, experience, and personality trait (Hofstede, 1980; Mayer et al., 1995). In this regard, leader’s trust propensity may affect the extent to which leader trusts subordinates.

Numerous studies have demonstrated the positive outcomes of trust (e.g., McAllister, 1995; Colquitt et al., 2007). For instance, Colquitt and his colleagues (2007) found in their Meta-analysis that trust was positively related to risk taking behavior, task performance, and citizenship behaviors, and negatively related to counterproductive behaviors.

2.5 Proactive Behavior

Despite many definitions, concepts that relate to proactive behavior typically focus on self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself (Crant, 2000;

Unsworth & Parker, 2003). Crant (2000) refers to proactive behavior as “taking initiative in improving current circumstances; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting present conditions” (p. 436). Frese, Kring, Soose, and Zempel’s (1996) concept of personal initiative has a similar focus, being defined as behavior that is self-starting without an explicit role requirement, proactive, and persistent. Taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) similarly has an action focus, but more specifically focuses on improving how work is executed. Related concepts are task revision (Staw & Boettger, 1990), role innovation (Schein, 1971), voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and transcendent behavior (Bateman & Porath, 2003). Collectively, Frese and Fay (2001) refer to these concepts as active performance concepts, since these concepts imply that people can go beyond assigned tasks, develop their own goals, and adopt a long-term perspective to prevent problems.

A confusing element in the literature is that proactive behavior has sometimes been regarded as a type of extra-role behavior (e.g., Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Speier & Frese, 1997). However, more recent work challenges this thinking. Crant (2000) and Frese and Fay (2001) have argued that employees can engage in all in-role and extra-role behaviors, with different degrees of proactivity. Consequently, a growing consensus is

that there is no need to confine proactivity to the contextual domain only.

In this study, I consider three dimensions of proactive behavior. First dimension is personal initiative which refers to proactive problem solving, self-starting, and future-oriented responses that aim to prevent repeated problem (Parker & Williams, 2006). The second dimension is taking charge which indicates a proactive idea implementation for improving the workplace, either by voicing the idea to others or by self-implementing the idea (Parker & Williams, 2006). The last dimension is creativity that refers to generating novel and useful ideas to workplace challenge (Amabile, 1988, Zhou & Shalley, 2003)

II. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Goal orientation and Trust

It is important to note that from the leader's perspective, empowering behavior can be regarded as risk taking. Once leaders share their power with subordinates, subordinates can make decisions that have significant potential to influence on leader's ability perform their goals (Hakimi, 2010). When subordinate perform better under empowering leadership than under directive leadership, leader's decision to delegate task will bring benefit for leader. However, if empowered employees do not adhere to values that leaders think of as positive and if they fail to achieve higher performance compared to under directive leadership, leader's empowering behavior eventually generate loss rather than benefit. In most cases, leaders tend to consider their security being more risk when they depend on others (Hakimi, 2010). That means, when leaders concede control to their employees and become more dependent on them, they are more likely to be uncertain about achieving organizational goals. Thus, when sharing their power with subordinates, leaders take risks and are likely to be circumspect in choosing whom they will empower. Accordingly, leaders would feel more comfortable to determine empowering behavior, if they think of subordinate as being trustworthy

(Hakimi, 2010).

In the present study, I suggest that leaders may make empowering decision based on their trust toward subordinates and such trust would be influenced by subordinates' goal orientation. Given that the value of employees at workplace is primarily determined by their ability and willingness to yield high performance, leader's cognition-based trust might be developed from subordinates' task performance and work motivation. I propose that individual difference in goal orientations may reflect this work engagement motivation and predict job performances. Namely, leader's trust in subordinates varies depending on subordinate's goal orientation. Achievement motivation theory construes goal orientation as a motivational orientation that affect how individuals approach, interpret, and respond to achievement situation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Church, 1997; Hirst, Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009). As I elaborated in theoretical background part, three types of goal orientations have been generally identified: a learning goal orientation, a performance prove goal orientation, and a performance avoid goal orientation.

Individuals who have a high learning goal orientation will actively seek to learn new skills at works and alter the environment for better work efficiency. They developed an intrinsic interest in the task itself and prefer

challenging works which give an opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge. Even in the absence of extrinsic motivation, those with high learning orientation tend to put effort and persevere to complete complex works (Dweck, 1999; Hirst et al., 2009). This need for mastery may be shown through work engagement, and as a result, they are likely to meet or even exceed leader's expectation toward them. Thus, leaders evaluate these employees as passionate and committed at works. Moreover, according to Meta-analysis of goal orientation (Payne et al., 2007), learning goal orientation was positively related to feedback seeking behaviors, task performance, and job performance. Therefore, those proactive behavior and excellent performances of learning goal oriented employees are more likely to lead a leader to experience cognition-based trust in them. Furthermore, prior studies have revealed a relational aspect of learning goal orientation. For instance, Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) found that employees with a high learning goal orientation establish high-quality exchanges with their leaders. Underlying logic was that since highly learning oriented employees tend to strive to develop their skills and ability, they view leaders as valuable sources of work-related knowledge and skills. Accordingly, learning goal oriented employees are more likely to seek social exchanges with their leaders to learn know-how in dealing with

challenging situation and leaders may provide them with support (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004).

Taken together, leaders and learning goal oriented followers tend to rely on each other for support and loyalty so that leaders may trust them both affectively and cognitively.

I also expect that leaders trust employees who are high on performance prove goal orientation. Considering that performance prove goal oriented employees make an effort to demonstrate their performance, their active participation at works may be favorably evaluated by leaders. In addition, performance prove goal orientations have been argued to motivate employees to rehearse task components and skills until they need little attention. As a result, they can perform in-role tasks in a very efficient and effective manner (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Steele-Johnson, Beauregard, Hoover, & Schmidt, 2000). Although characteristics of performance goal orientation are not theoretically linked to affective aspects in relationship with others, cognitive aspects mentioned above may lead leaders to believe their ability to perform tasks. On the other hand, for those who are high on performance avoidance goal orientation, I suggest that leader's assessment on their ability to outperform may be poor. Individuals who are high on performance avoid goal orientation are more

likely to regard achievement situations as threat that others can see their failure (Payne et al., 2007). Accordingly, they may sometimes show feeling of burden when taking responsibility. Furthermore, employees who have a strong performance avoid goal orientation tend not to seek feedback from their leaders. These passive behaviors are evaluated by leaders as low ability to overcome challenging situation and initiate change to improve work performance.

Overall, leaders tend to trust those who are high on learning goal orientation or performance prove goal orientation but not to those who are high on performance avoid goal orientation. Thus, I hypothesize as follows.

Hypothesis 1a: Subordinate's learning goal orientation is positively related to leader's trust in subordinate.

Hypothesis 1b: Subordinate's performance-prove goal orientation is positively related to leader's trust in subordinate.

Hypothesis 1c: Subordinate's performance-avoid goal orientation is negatively related to leader's trust in subordinate.

3.2 Leader's Trust in Subordinate and Their Empowering Behavior

In understanding empowerment process, the element of risk inherent to empowering behavior cannot be neglected (Hakimi, 2010). Although benefits of empowerment are well established, costs of empowering behavior have been overlooked in empowering leadership

literature. Researchers and practitioners have consistently encouraged managers to empower their team members to leverage employees' potential, but from the leaders' perspective, empowering behavior involves uncertainty and risk taking. If empowered employees perform tasks in ways that are unmet with organizational goals or fail to achieve performance from role ambiguity, leaders have to take more responsibility than directed employees produce poor results within expected range. When leaders believe followers are not ready to perform tasks in a high quality, they tend to adopt directive leadership, expecting employees to follow their instructions (e.g., Lorinkova et al., 2013; Muczyk & Reimann, 1987; Sims, Faraj, & Yun, 2009; Yun et al., 2005). That is because directive leadership can facilitate task achievement for employees by offering them detailed direction (Fiedler, 1968; Kahai et al., 2004; Lorinkova et al., 2013). Moreover, directive leadership helps subordinates to be better aware of the availability of role resources (Yukl, 1998), and thus reduce ambiguity about what they should do and in what way they perform tasks (Kahai et al., 2004; Lorinkova et al., 2013; Pearce et al., 2003). Another cost of empowering leadership compared to directive leadership is that it takes time to achieve its desirable effects. In this regard, when making a decision on whether to empower subordinates or not, leaders tend to adopt directive

leadership as they perceive uncertainty in delegating tasks to their followers. Accordingly, factors that reduce uncertainty regarding delegation will encourage leaders to empower followers.

According to Mayer and his colleagues (1995), trust would lead to risk taking in a relationship. Trust is the “willingness to take risk,” and the level of trust may influence the amount of risk the trustor is willing to take. Namely, a manager may take a risk by sharing their power with subordinates in performing important tasks as they trust them. For this reason, when leaders trust followers, they are more likely to empowering them. Therefore, the following hypotheses are suggested.

Hypothesis 2: Leader’s trust in subordinate is positively related to leader’s empowering behavior.

3.3. The Mediating Effect of Trust on the Relationship between Goal Orientation and Leader’s Empowering Behavior.

By incorporating hypotheses 1 and 2, I propose that goal orientation has indirect effect on leader’s empowering behavior through leader’s trust in subordinate. Yukl and Fu (1999) examined direct effect of follower characteristics on leader’s delegation. For example, they argued that subordinates’ competence, LMX, and period working together are positively related to leaders’ delegation. However, predicting one party’s

behaviors directly from other party's characteristic is insufficient to understand why one party shows a certain behaviors. Accordingly, this study suggests leader's trust in subordinate as an underlying mechanism of the relationship between goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior. Specifically, leaders tend to trust learning goal oriented employees as they put extra effort on tasks and persevere in the face of challenging situation. With this trust in learning goal oriented employees, leaders are willing to put themselves in a vulnerable situation by sharing their power to subordinates. Similarly, as performance goal oriented employees exert effort in in-role performance to demonstrate superior competence, leaders establish cognition-based trust that performance goal oriented employees perform well if they take responsibility. With this trust in performance goal oriented employees, leaders tend to delegate tasks to them. On the contrary, leaders are less likely to believe that performance avoid goal oriented employees outperform when leaders delegated tasks to them. Rather, leaders may believe that performance avoid goal orientated employees feel burden when they have more autonomy and responsibility, as they avoid situations that could make mistakes or failure. With this low level of trust, leaders are less likely to empower performance avoid goal oriented subordinates.

Hypothesis 3a: Subordinate's learning goal orientation has positive indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate.

Hypothesis 3b: Subordinate's performance prove goal orientation has positive indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate.

Hypothesis 3c: Subordinate's performance avoid goal orientation has positive indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate.

3.4 Leader's Empowering Behavior and Proactive Behavior

Empowering leadership is a reciprocal process in which leader and subordinate are influenced by each other. Leader treat followers differently after considering follower's characteristic, and these treatment affect follower's subsequent behaviors.

Existing research indicates that employees who work for empowering leaders are more likely to feel encouraged to challenge the existing ways to perform tasks and take the risks necessary for creative works (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Zhou & George, 2003). The representative empowering behaviors such as enhancing the meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints (Ahearne, 2005) are likely to sign

to employees that it is encouraged to be proactive, to take risks, and to engage in the kinds of creative change activities that are likely to lead to innovative new ideas (Srivastava et al., 2006; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). According to the sense-making process, favorable and trust-based relationships initiated by empowering leaders and their concern for subordinates' personal well-being are likely to lead subordinates to believe that mistakes and failures made resulting from attempts to be creative will not be punished (Shalley & Gilson, 2004; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Furthermore, this trust-based relationship makes employees commit themselves to extra works that are beyond the scope of the employee's in-role (Mayer et al., 1995).

Spreitzer (1995) noted that empowerment leads to proactive orientation toward jobs, management, and organizations, since empowered employee feel high levels of self efficacy in initiating behaviors and persistence in the face of obstacles. Accordingly, when leaders empower their employees, the increased self-efficacy leads employees to take risks at workplace challenging. Moreover, employees who have job autonomy experience self-determination and take initiative in work-related situations. These factors resulting from leader's empowerment will encourage subordinates to show proactive behaviors, such as personal initiatives,

taking charge and creativity.

Hypothesis 4: Leader empowering behavior is positively related to subordinate's personal initiative

Hypothesis 5: Leader empowering behavior is positively related to subordinate's taking charge

Hypothesis 6: Leader empowering behavior is positively related to subordinate's creativity

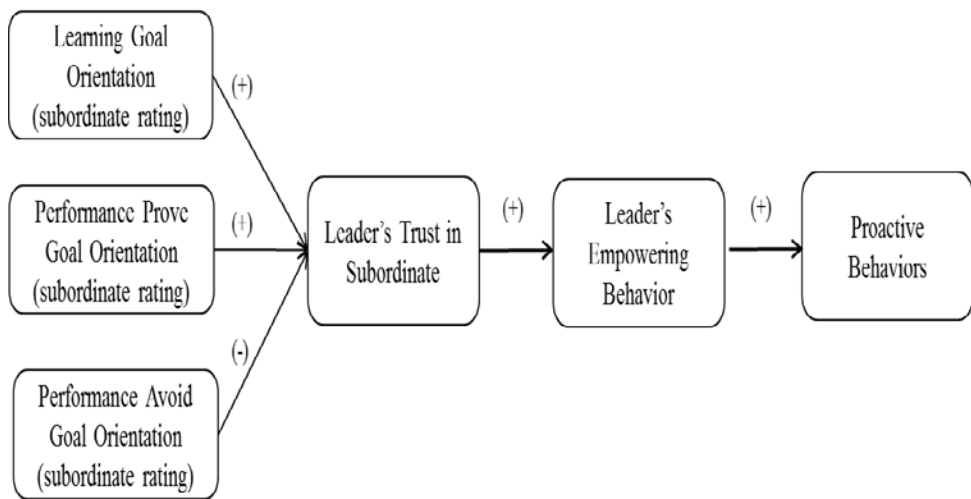


Figure 1. Research Model

IV. METHODS

4.1. Participants and Procedure

In order to test the hypotheses, survey data were collected from full time employees from petrochemical company in the Republic of Korea. The survey packages were initially distributed to 207 employees and their immediate leaders. Survey package included two types of questionnaires, a subordinate survey and a leader survey. Construct of goal orientation, leader's empowering behavior, leader's trust toward subordinate were measured by subordinates, and leader's trust toward subordinate, subordinate's proactive behaviors, such as personal initiative, taking charge, and creativity were measured by leaders. Although survey was conducted by two different sources (i.e., subordinate and immediate leader) to reduce the same source bias in measurement (Podsakoff, Mackenzin, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003), as to measure leader's trust in subordinate, I survey it from both leader and subordinate. Among questionnaires distributed to 207 subordinates and 207 leaders, 184 subordinate (response rate: 88.9%) and 177 leaders (response rate: 85.5%) returned the complete survey. After eliminating the data with missing variables, 169 leader-subordinate data were matched and used for final analysis. The subordinate sample was 75% male with an average age was 33.37 years, and the average tenure with

organization was 5.58 years. 27.6% of them had higher degrees from graduate schools, and 65.9% had undergraduate degrees. 4.1% of subordinate graduated from two-year technical college, and 2.4% of them graduated high school.

Supervisor sample was 95% male with an average age was 42.89 years, and their average tenure with organization was 13.96 years. 34.3% of them had higher degrees from graduate school, and 64.1% had undergraduate degrees. 0.6% of subordinate graduated from two-year technical college, and 0.6% of them graduated high school.

4.2. Measures

The specific measures are described below. Before setting the survey, all measures used in this study were translated from English to Korean using back-translation as recommended by Brislin (1980). As I mentioned above, three sub-dimensions of goal orientations, leader's empowering behavior, leader's trust in target subordinate, and demographic variables were measured by employees, while trust in subordinate and dependent variables (i.e., taking charge, personal initiative, creativity) in the present study were rated by direct leaders. All of the item except demographic variables were measured on a seven-point Likert-scale from 1 (strongly

disagree) to 7(strongly agree).

Goal Orientation: Goal orientation scale developed by Brett and VandeWalle (1999) consisting of three sub-dimensions: learning goal orientation (5 items), performance prove goal orientation (4 items), and performance avoid goal orientation (4 items). Each item will be measured by the 7-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample items for learning goal orientation are “I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge” and “I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from” Sample items for performance prove goal orientation are “I like to show that I can perform better than my coworkers” and sample” I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.” Items for performance avoid goal orientation are “I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others” and “Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.”

Leader’s empowering behaviors: Among diverse measures of leader’s empowering behavior, the present study used 12-item measure of Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005). The measure has four multi item subscales which are (a) enhancing the meaningfulness of work (sample item: “My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall

effectiveness of the company”), (b) fostering participation in decision making (sample item: “My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me), (c) expressing confidence in high performance (sample item: “My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes”), and (d) providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints. Items are indicating leaders’ behavior toward subordinates (sample item: “My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple”). In Ahearne and his colleagues’ study (2005), they averaged the four scale scores to generate a single construct since a factor analysis of these subscales showed a single underlying dimension of empowering behaviors. In the present study, I averaged the 12 items scores instead of four subscales.

Trust in Subordinate: 4 – items developed by Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (1996) were used. This construct was measured by both subordinate and leader. Sample items for leader’s questionnaire are “I would be comfortable giving my subordinate a task or problem that was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions” and “If I had my way, I wouldn’t let my subordinate have any influence over issues that are important to me.” For subordinate’s questionnaire, I changed the subject “I” into “my supervisor” and changed the word “my subordinate” into “me”

Sample items are “My supervisor would be comfortable giving me a task or problem that was critical to him/her, even if he/she could not monitor my actions” and “If my supervisor had his/her way, he/she wouldn't let me have any influence over issues that are important to him/her.”

Personal Initiative: 7- items developed by Frese, Fay, Hilberger, Leng, and Tag (1997) were used, Sample items are “This employee often attacks a problem actively” and “Whenever something goes wrong, this employee searches for a solution immediately”

Taking Charge: I used 10-item scale developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999). Sample items are “This employee often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department” and “This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.”

Creativity: I applied 13-item scale developed by George and Zhou (2001). Sample items are “This employee develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas” and “This employee searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/ or product ideas.”

Control variables: Four demographic variables of subordinate (i.e., age, gender, education, organizational tenure) that could influence the results

were controlled. Age was measured in years and gender was measured as dichotomous variable coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. Education level was measured as continuous variable coded as 1 for those who have high school graduates, 2 for those who have two-year technical college graduates, 3 for those who have undergraduate degree, 4 for the one who have masters or PhD degree.

4.3. Analytical Strategy

To test the hypotheses, this study adopted several different data analytic techniques. I first conducted CFAs to confirm the discriminant validity of multi-item measures and the dimensionality. I employed hierarchical regression to test hypotheses and used Indirect SPSS Macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004) to test indirect effect between goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior via leaders' trust in subordinate.

V. RESULTS

5.1. Validity and Reliability Analyses

Explanatory factor analyses were conducted using principal component analysis to test the validity of the measures. Items were rotated by varimax rotation. Reliability was measured using Cronbach's α .

Leader's empowering behaviors: Table 2 shows the result of factor analysis of the items measuring leader's empowering behavior. All twelve items were loaded on one factor. Therefore, all items were included in hypotheses testing. The Cronbach's α for this scale was .92.

Goal Orientation: Table 3 reveals the result of factor analysis of the items measuring goal orientation. Five items of learning goal orientation were loaded on one factor, and four items of performance prove orientation and four items of performance avoid orientation were loaded on expected factors. Therefore, all thirteen items were used in hypotheses testing. The Cronbach's α for this measure were .92, .86, .79 for each dimension.

Leader's Trust in Subordinate: Table 4 shows the result of factor analysis of the items measuring leader's trust in subordinate measured by subordinate. All four items were loaded on one factor. The Cronbach's α for this scale was .70. Table 5 shows the result of factor analysis of the

items measuring leader's trust in subordinate measured by leader. All four items were loaded on one factor. The Cronbach's α for this scale was .69. Therefore, all items were included in hypotheses testing.

Personal Initiative: Table 6 reveals the result of factor analysis of the items measuring personal initiative. All seven items were loaded on one factor. Therefore, all items were included in hypotheses testing. The Cronbach's α for this scale was .94.

Taking Charge: Table 7 is the result of factor analysis of the items measuring taking charge. All ten items were loaded on one factor. Therefore, all items were included in hypotheses testing. The Cronbach's α for this scale was .96.

Creativity: Table 8 shows the result of factor analysis of the items measuring taking charge. All thirteen items were loaded on one factor. The Cronbach's α for this scale was .98. Thus, all items were included in hypotheses testing.

Table 2. Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Leader’s Empowering Behavior

| Items | Factor loading 1 | α |
|--|------------------------|----------|
| 1. My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company. | .69 | .92 |
| 2. My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company. | .78 | |
| 3. My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture. | .82 | |
| 4. My manager makes many decisions together with me. | .77 | |
| 5. My manager often consults me on strategic decisions. | .76 | |
| 6. My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me. | .74 | |
| 7. My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks. | .78 | |
| 8. My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes. | .66 | |
| 9. My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level. | .69 | |
| 10. My manager allows me to do my job my way. | .78 | |
| 11. My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple. | .72 | |
| 12. My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer needs. | .71 | |
| Eigen Value | 6.61 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 55.05 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 55.05 | |

Table 3. Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Goal Orientation

| Items | Factor loading | | | α |
|--|----------------|------------|------------|----------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | | | | |
| 1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from. | .81 | .19 | -.17 | .92 |
| 2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge. | .86 | .12 | -.08 | |
| 3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills. | .88 | .22 | -.01 | |
| 4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks. | .82 | .12 | -.23 | |
| 5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent. | .84 | .17 | -.11 | |
| Performance Prove Goal Orientation | | | | |
| 6. I like to show that I can perform better than my coworkers. | .16 | .83 | .15 | .86 |
| 7. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work. | .15 | .87 | .10 | |
| 8. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing. | .13 | .87 | .07 | |
| 9. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others. | .49 | .65 | .06 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | | | | |
| 10. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others. | .10 | .09 | .79 | .79 |
| 11. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill. | -.27 | .19 | .71 | |
| 12. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability. | -.29 | .05 | .77 | |
| 13. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly. | -.07 | .04 | .80 | |
| Eigen Value | 4.94 | 3.05 | 1.32 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 38.00 | 23.48 | 10.17 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 38.00 | 61.47 | 71.65 | |

Table 4. Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Leader's Trust in Subordinate (Measured by Subordinate)

| Items | Factor loading 1 | α |
|--|------------------------|----------|
| 1. My supervisor would be comfortable giving me a task or problem that was critical to him/her, even if he/she could not monitor my actions. | .78 | .70 |
| 2. My supervisor would be willing to let me have complete control over his/her future in this company. | .65 | |
| 3. My supervisor really wish he/she had a good way to keep an eye on me (r) | .67 | |
| 4. If my supervisor had his/her way, he/she wouldn't let me have any influence over issues that are important to him | .80 | |
| Eigen Value | 2.13 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 53.25 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 53.25 | |

Table 5. Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Leader's Trust in Subordinate (Measured by Leader)

| Items | Factor loading | α |
|--|----------------|----------|
| | 1 | |
| 5. I would be comfortable giving this employee a task or problem that was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions. | .75 | .69 |
| 6. I would be willing to let this employee have complete control over my future in this company. | .75 | |
| 7. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on this employee (r) | .61 | |
| 8. If I had my way, I wouldn't let this employee have any influence over issues that are important to me | .77 | |
| Eigen Value | 2.09 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 52.26 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 52.26 | |

Table 6: Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Personal Initiative

| Items | Factor loading 1 | α |
|---|---------------------|----------|
| 1. This employee actively attacks problems. | .79 | |
| 2. Whenever something goes wrong, this employee searches for a solution immediately | .87 | |
| 3. Whenever there is a chance to get actively involved, this employee takes it | .89 | |
| 4. This employee takes initiative immediately even when others don't | .90 | .94 |
| 5. This employee uses opportunities quickly in order to attain his/her goals | .84 | |
| 6. Usually this employee do more than he/she is asked to do | .79 | |
| 7. This employee is particularly good at realizing ideas | .87 | |
| Eigen Value | 5.05 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 72.17 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 72.17 | |

Table 7: Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Taking Charge

| Items | Factor loading 1 | α |
|--|---------------------|----------|
| 1. This person often tries to adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job. | .79 | |
| 2. This person often tries to change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective. | .89 | |
| 3. This person often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department. | .90 | |
| 4. This person often tries to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company. | .87 | |
| 5. This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive. | .88 | .96 |
| 6. This person often makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization. | .85 | |
| 7. This person often tries to correct a faulty procedure or practice. | .83 | |
| 8. This person often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures. | .83 | |
| 9. This person often tries to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems. | .83 | |
| 10. This person often tries to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency. | .85 | |
| Eigen Value | 7.27 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 72.68 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 72.68 | |

Table 8: Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Creativity

| Items | Factor loading | α |
|---|----------------|------------|
| | 1 | |
| 1. This person suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives.. | .87 | .98 |
| 2. This person comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.. | .88 | |
| 3. This person searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/ or product ideas. | .90 | |
| 4. This person suggests new ways to increase quality. | .88 | |
| 5. This person is a good source of creative ideas. | .88 | |
| 6. This person is not afraid to take risks. | .82 | |
| 7. This person promotes and champions ideas to others. | .92 | |
| 8. This person exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to. | .93 | |
| 9. This person develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas. | .90 | |
| 10. This person often has new and innovation ideas. | .91 | |
| 11. This person comes up with creative solutions to problems. | .92 | |
| 12. This person often has a fresh approach to problems. | .85 | |
| 13. This person suggests new ways of performing work tasks. | .90 | |
| Eigen Value | 10.28 | |
| Pct of VAR (%) | 79.06 | |
| Cum of VAR (%) | 79.06 | |

5.2. Confirmatory Factor Analyses

I conducted Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to ensure construct validity among variables. Chi-square (χ^2) values, comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were reported to assess the model fit. According to Medsker, Williams, and Holahan (1994), value for CFI greater than or equal to .90 is viewed as of good fit. In addition, less than or equal to .08 of RMSEA values indicate good fit of a model (Browne & Cudeck, 1989).

Since five variables included in research model (i.e., learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation, leader's trust in subordinate, leader's empowering behavior) are measured by same source (i.e., subordinate), there is a possibility that there exists common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Regarding common method bias problems, Podsakoff and his colleagues (2003) suggested that if there exists common method bias (CMB issue), the chi-square difference between a five factor model and a four factor model may not be significant. To maintain a favorable indicator-to-sample-size ratio (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998), I parceled 4-items of leader's trust in subordinate into 2 parcels. I placed lower loaded items with higher loaded parcels (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, &

F.Widaman, 2002). Five-factor model of CFA was estimated and the results showed a good fit ($\chi^2 = 271.72$, $df = 142$, $p < .001$; CFI = .93; IFI = .93; RMSEA = .07). These fit indices were superior to other alternative models: a four-factor model in which trust and empowering behavior loaded on one factor ($\chi^2 = 295.28$, $df = 146$; $p < .001$; CFI = .91; IFI = .92; RMSEA = .08); a three-factor one in which performance prove goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation loaded on one factor ($\chi^2 = 507.12$, $df = 149$, $p < .001$; CFI = .80; IFI = .80; RMSEA = .12); Therefore, I used those five factor model in analysis.

5.3. Descriptive Statistics

Table 10 shows the means, standard deviations, zero order correlations, and reliabilities of variables included in the analysis testing hypothesized model. As shown in the table, learning goal orientation is positively related to leader's empowering behavior, and leader's trust in subordinate is positively correlated to leader's empowering behavior. As for the outcomes, leader's empowering behavior is positively related to taking charge and creativity, but not related to personal initiative,

TABLE 9: Descriptive Statistics of Variables

| Variables | Mean | s.d. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|--------------------------------|-------|------|---------|--------|--------|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1. Employee age | 33.37 | 5.58 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Employee gender | 1.25 | .43 | -.40*** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Employee education | 3.18 | .61 | -.09 | -.13 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Employee Tenure | 5.58 | 5.11 | .89*** | -.24** | -.24** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. LGO | 5.23 | .95 | -.00 | .01 | .06 | -.04 | (.92) | | | | | | | | |
| 6. PPGO | 5.05 | .91 | -.06 | .20** | .01 | -.01 | .42*** | (.86) | | | | | | | |
| 7. PAGO | 3.65 | .97 | -.08 | .03 | -.14 | -.03 | -.27*** | .17* | (.79) | | | | | | |
| 8. Leader's Trust ^a | 5.31 | .82 | .17* | -.03 | .11 | .17* | .12 | .07 | -.08 | (.70) | | | | | |
| 9. Leader's Trust ^b | 4.83 | .94 | .16* | -.16* | .08 | .15 | .29*** | .11 | -.02 | .10 | (.69) | | | | |
| Leader's | | | | | | | | | | | .64*** | | | | |
| 10. Empowering Behavior | 5.19 | .87 | .11 | -.02 | .16* | .11 | .31*** | .03 | -.15* | .25** | | (.92) | | | |
| 11. Personal Initiative | 5.07 | .91 | .10 | -.10 | .04 | .14 | .10 | .02 | -.10 | .57*** | .20** | .13 | (.94) | | |
| 12. Taking Charge | 4.90 | .89 | .16* | -.13 | .02 | .22** | .01 | -.04 | -.10 | .56*** | .18* | .17* | .82*** | (.96) | |
| 13. Creativity | 4.72 | .97 | .12 | -.18* | .07 | .14 | .12 | -.06 | -.15 | .53*** | .22* | .23** | .77*** | .82*** | (.98) |

Note. $N = 169$. Reliabilities of the scales are boldfaced and noted in the diagonals.

a: Leader-rated; b Subordinate-rated

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed)

5.4. Hypotheses Testing

Table 10 presents the result of the hierarchical regression analysis for leader's trust in subordinate. I first test hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c, which state that learning goal orientation and performance prove goal orientation are positively related to leader's trust in subordinate and performance avoid goal orientation is negatively related to leader's trust in subordinate. I entered control variables, which are age, gender, education, and organizational tenure of subordinate, in step 1, and main variables, which are learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation in step 2. As I mentioned in Methods section, leader's trust in subordinate were measured by both subordinate and leader. Therefore, I analyze both variables as dependent variables. As shown in Model 2A, learning goal orientation is significantly related to leader's trust in subordinate, but performance goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation show no significant relationship with leader's trust in subordinate. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was supported, and Hypotheses 1b and 1c were not supported. However, when dependent variable (i.e., leader's trust in subordinate) was measured by a leader, all three goal orientations have no significant relationship with leader's trust in subordinate.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that leader's trust in subordinate is positively related to leader's empowering behavior. In Table 11, Model 3A shows that leader's trust in subordinate, which was measured by subordinate, has positive relationship with leader's empowering behavior ($\beta = .64, p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported. When I input leader's trust in subordinate measured by leader, the result also reveals positive relationship between two variables ($\beta = .21, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 3 suggested that the relationships between goal orientations and leader's empowering behavior are mediated by leader's trust in subordinate. Test of mediation hypothesis is often conducted with multiple step approach recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). Recently, however, methodologists have pointed out the potential shortcomings of this approach such as the significant direct effect from the initial independent variable to outcome (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Consequently, scholars recommend the application of bootstrapped confidence intervals (CIs), since bootstrapping prevent power problems introduced by non-normal sampling distributions of indirect effects (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Accordingly, I tested the hypothesis 3 using a SPSS macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004). This SPSS macro facilitates estimation of indirect effect with a bootstrap

approach by providing CIs. As shown in Table 12, learning goal orientation had an indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate; this indirect effect was positive (.18, $p < .001$) and bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect not containing zero (.081, .308). Therefore, Hypothesis 3a was supported. Since the relationship between learning goal orientation and leader's trust in subordinate measured by a leader was not significant, the indirect effect of learning goal orientation on leader's empowering behavior not mediated by leader's trust in subordinate measured by a leader as shown in Table 13. By the same token, the indirect effect of performance prove goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation on leader's empowering behavior were not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b and 3c were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to personal initiative. As shown in Table 14 (Model 3), the relationship between leader's empowering behavior and personal initiative was not significant ($\beta = .08$, $p > .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 suggested that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to taking charge. As shown in Table 14 (Model 6), the relationship between leader's empowering behavior and taking charge was

positive but not significant ($\beta = .14$, $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 6 stated that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to creativity. As expected, leader's empowering behavior has significantly positive relationship with creativity (Model 9; $\beta = .18$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

TABLE 10: Hierarchical Regression Analytical Results for Leader's Trust in Subordinate

| Variables | Leader's Trust in Subordinate ^a | | Leader's Trust in Subordinate ^b | |
|----------------------------------|--|--------------------|--|----------|
| | Model 1A | Model 2A | Model 1B | Model 2B |
| <u>Step 1: Control Variables</u> | | | | |
| Employee age | -.01 | -.05 | .05 | .03 |
| Employee gender | -.12 | -.12 | .05 | .04 |
| Employee education | .10 | .10 | .16 | .15 |
| Organizational Tenure | .15 | .20 | .17 | .19 |
| <u>Step 2: Main Effect</u> | | | | |
| LGO | | .32 ^{***} | | .10 |
| PPGO | | -.01 | | .02 |
| PAGO | | .09 | | -.03 |
| <i>F</i> value | .2.08 | 3.70 | 2.31 | 1.65 |
| <i>R</i> ² | .05 | .14 | .05 | .07 |
| ΔF | | 5.63 ^{**} | | .79 |
| ΔR^2 | | .09 | | .01 |

Note. *N*=169. Entries are standardized regression coefficients.

a: Employee-rated; b Leader-rated

* *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001 (two-tailed)

TABLE 11: Hierarchical Regression Analytical Results for Leader's Empowering Behavior

| Variables | Leader's Empowering Behavior | | | | | |
|--|------------------------------|---------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3A | Model 3B | Model 4A | Model 4B |
| <u>Step 1: Control Variables</u> | | | | | | |
| Employee age | -.00 | -.09 | .00 | -.06 | -.01 | -.09 |
| Employee gender | .05 | .06 | .12 | .14 | .04 | .06 |
| Employee education | .20 | .20 | .14 | .13 | .17 | .17 |
| Organizational Tenure | .17 | .26 | .08 | .14 | .13 | .17 |
| <u>Step 2: Main Effect</u> | | | | | | |
| LGO | | .37*** | | .17* | | .35*** |
| PPGO | | -.15 | | -.14 | | -.15 |
| PAGO | | -.00 | | -.06 | | .00 |
| <u>Step 3: Mediating Effect</u> | | | | | | |
| Leader's Trust in Subordinate ^a | | | .64*** | .20** | | |
| Leader's Trust in subordinate ^b | | | | | .21** | .18* |
| <i>F</i> value | . | 2.14 | 25.35*** | 18.04*** | 3.23 | 4.28*** |
| <i>R</i> ² | .05 | .16 | .44 | .47 | .09 | .19 |
| ΔF | | 6.83*** | 112.38*** | 96.58*** | 7.28** | 5.61* |
| ΔR^2 | | .11 | .39 | .32 | .04 | .03 |

Note. *N*=169. Entries are standardized regression coefficients; a: Employee-rated; b: Leader-rated;

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed)

Table 12. Results of Bootstrap for Indirect Effect of LGO on Leader's Empowering Behavior via Leader's Trust (Measured by subordinate)

| Dependent Variable | Bias-Corrected Confidence Intervals | | | |
|------------------------------|--|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Indirect Effect | SE (boot) | Lower CI | Upper CI |
| Leader's Empowering Behavior | .177 | .057 | .081 | .308 |

Note. Confidence interval does not include zero; thus, the indirect effect is indeed significantly different from zero at $p < .05$ (two-tailed);

Control variables: Subordinate's age, gender, education, tenure with organization, PPGO, PAGO;

Number of samples used for indirect effect confidence intervals: 5000;

Table 13. Results of Bootstrap for Indirect Effect of LGO on Leader's Empowering Behavior via Leader's Trust (Measured by leader)

| Dependent Variable | Bias-Corrected Confidence Intervals | | | |
|------------------------------|--|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Indirect Effect | SE (boot) | Lower CI | Upper CI |
| Leader's Empowering Behavior | .015 | .018 | -.011 | .063 |

Note. Confidence interval does not include zero; thus, the indirect effect is indeed significantly different from zero at $p < .05$ (two-tailed);

Control variables: Subordinate's age, gender, education, tenure with organization; PPGO, PAGO

Number of samples used for indirect effect confidence intervals: 5000;

TABLE 14: Hierarchical Regression Analytical Results for Employee's Proactive Behavior

| Variables | Personal Initiative | | | Taking Charge | | | Creativity | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|---------|---------|---------------|---------|---------|------------|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | Model 5 | Model 6 | Model 7 | Model 8 | Model 9 |
| <u>Step 1: Control Variables</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| Employee age | -.27 | -.29 | -.29 | -.34 | -.36 | -.35 | -.25 | -.30 | -.28 |
| Employee gender | -.10 | -.10 | -.11 | -.13 | -.13 | -.13 | -.18 | -.18 | -.19 |
| Employee education | .09 | .07 | .06 | .10 | .08 | .06 | .10 | .09 | .05 |
| Organizational Tenure | .38* | .40* | .38* | .51** | .53** | .49* | .34 | .39* | .34 |
| <u>Step 2: Main Effect</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| LGO | | .09 | .06 | | .01 | -.04 | | .14 | .07 |
| PPGO | | .00 | .01 | | -.02 | .00 | | -.08 | -.05 |
| PAGO | | -.08 | -.08 | | -.09 | -.09 | | -.10 | -.10 |
| <u>Step 3: Main Effect</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| Leader's Empowering Behavior | | | .08 | | | .14 | | | .18 |
| <i>F</i> value | 1.66 | 1.38 | 1.32 | 3.36* | 2.12* | 2.25* | 2.53* | 2.32* | 2.68** |
| <i>R</i> ² | .04 | .06 | .06 | .08 | .09 | .10 | .06 | .09 | .12 |
| ΔF | | 1.01 | .85 | | .5 | 2.98 | | 1.97 | 4.85* |
| ΔR^2 | | .02 | .01 | | .01 | .02 | | .03 | .03 |

Note. *N*=169. Entries are standardized regression coefficients; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; Two-tailed.

5.5 Additional Analysis

5.5.1. Common Method Bias Statistical Treatment.

Since variables of goal orientation, leader's trust in subordinates, leaders' empowering behaviors were measured by same source, the subordinate, I conducted additional analysis following the suggestion of Podsakoff and his colleagues (2003). I conducted partial correlation procedure using structural equation model, in which research do partial out social desirability or affectivity as a surrogate for method variance. I used subordinates' trust propensity as a surrogate for method variance for the relationship between leader's trust and leader's empowering behavior, since it may affect two variables in a positive direction.

As shown in figure 2, The estimate for the relationship between leader's trust and empowering behavior was still significant when surrogate variable (i.e., trust propensity) was entered ($b = .69, p < .001$), and indirect effect between learning goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate remain significantly ($b = .23, p < .01$) The result showed little possibility of influence of common method bias.

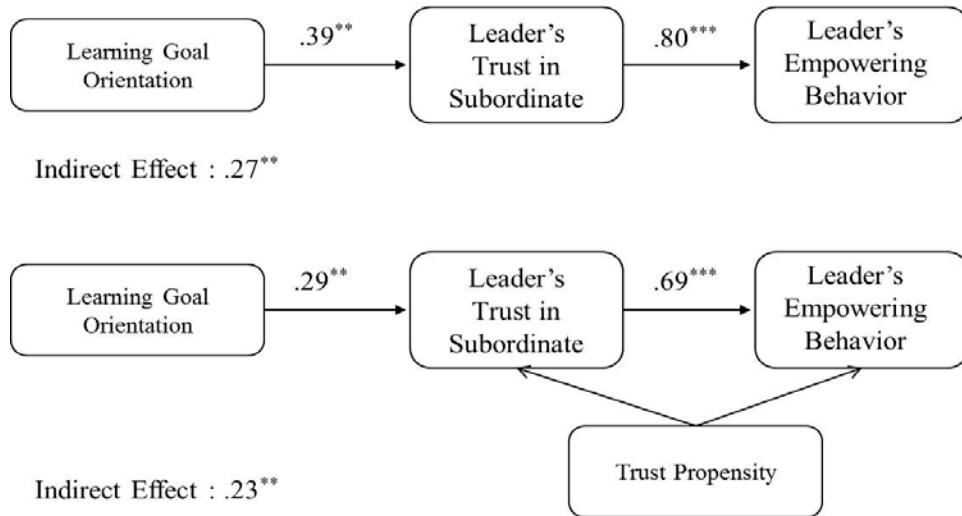


Figure 2. Partial Correlation Procedure

5.5.2 Difference between Leader and Subordinate

In regard to the insignificant correlation between leader's trust measured by leader and that measured by subordinate, I assumed that there exist differences between leader's perception and follower's perception for the same situation. Thus, I additionally analyzed correlation of some variables, which were measured by leader and subordinate respectively. As shown in Table 15, the correlation of leader's empowering behavior measured by leader and subordinate was significant but weak ($r = .21$). Similarly, correlation of LMX, measured by leader and subordinate, showed significant but weak correlation ($r = .24$). These weak or insignificant correlations indicate that there are gaps between leader's perception and

follower's perception for the same construct. Since this data was conducted by one single company, the characteristics of the organization have an effect on the perception gap between leader and subordinates. To find possible reasons for this gap, I conducted posterior interview to leaders and followers of the organization.

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics for variables measured by leader and subordniates.

| Variables | Mean | s.d. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---------------|------|------|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. S_LGO | 5.23 | .95 | | | | | | | | |
| 2. S_PPGO | 5.05 | .91 | .42 ^{***} | | | | | | | |
| 3. S_PAGO | 3.66 | .98 | -.27 ^{***} | .17 [*] | | | | | | |
| 4. S_EmpL | 5.19 | .87 | .31 ^{***} | .03 | -.15 [*] | | | | | |
| 5. L_EmpL | 5.50 | .76 | .10 | .06 | -.07 | .21 ^{**} | | | | |
| 6. S_TrustinS | 4.83 | .93 | .29 ^{***} | .11 | -.02 | .64 ^{***} | .25 ^{***} | | | |
| 7. L_TrstinS | 5.32 | .82 | .12 | .07 | -.08 | .25 ^{***} | .61 ^{***} | .10 | | |
| 8. S_LMX | 4.98 | .92 | .33 ^{***} | .10 | -.11 | .80 ^{***} | .18 [*] | .69 ^{***} | .19 [*] | |
| 9. L_LMX | 5.47 | .75 | .12 | .06 | -.06 | .23 ^{**} | .87 ^{***} | .21 ^{**} | .65 ^{***} | .24 ^{**} |

Note. $N = 169$. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed)

S_EmpL: subordinate measured leader's empowering behavior; *L_EmpL*: leader measured empowering behavior (self-measured); *S_TrustinS*: subordinate measured leader's trust in subordinate; *L_TrustinS*: leader measured their trust in subordinate

5.5.2.1 Results from Interviews

Examination of the responses by leaders and subordinates to questions in the interviews revealed interesting findings regarding the gap between leaders' perception and subordinates' perception on trust. The most frequent answers to the question about reason for trust gap between leader and follower were that hierarchical organizational culture and less communication between leader and follower seemed to cause this phenomenon. They said that hierarchical culture made leaders behave in typical leader ways, such as direction, giving negative feedback to followers and less praise, which lead followers to think that their leaders have less trust in followers. Moreover, the lack of communication between leader and follower may be an important reason for the gap between leaders' perception and followers' perception because there is less chance that followers perceive leaders' trust in them. The next frequent answer for reason for the trust perception gap was the limited promotion opportunity. Since leaders review subordinates' performance, subordinates may attribute missed promotion opportunity to their leaders. Although leaders give praise followers in usual days, lower grades on follower performances made followers perceive leaders' low trust in them. Even these different sides of leaders' behavior (i.e., frequent praise vs. low grade) deepen the

followers' perception on leaders' low trust in them. Therefore, the organization's HR practices on promotion and performance evaluation seem to be one reason that causes followers to perceive lower trust from leaders than leaders actually trust in followers.

Furthermore, I asked leaders about how they behave to express their trust in subordinates. Most frequent answer was that they give authority to followers in performing task, and followed frequent answer was that they express their concern and care about followers' currently faced problems, even not task-related problems.

TABLE 16: Summary of the Results

| | Hypotheses | Results |
|------|--|----------------|
| H 1a | Subordinate's learning goal orientation is positively related to leader's trust in subordinate. | Supported |
| H 1b | Subordinate's performance-prove goal orientation is positively related to leader's trust in subordinate. | Not supported |
| H 1c | Subordinate's performance-avoid goal orientation is negatively related to leader's trust in subordinate. | Not supported |
| H 2 | Leader's trust in subordinate is positively related to leader's empowering behavior. | Supported |
| H 3a | Subordinate's learning goal orientation has positive indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate. | Supported |
| H 3b | Subordinate's performance prove goal orientation has positive indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate. | Not supported |
| H 3c | Subordinate's performance avoid goal orientation has negative indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior via leader's trust in subordinate. | Not supported |
| H 4 | Leader empowering behavior is positively related to subordinate's personal initiative | Not supported |
| H 5 | Leader empowering behavior is positively related to subordinate's taking charge | Not supported |
| H 6 | Leader empowering behavior is positively related to subordinate's creativity | Supported |

VI. DISCUSSION

6.1. Summary of findings

Employee empowerment has received growing attention by organizational researchers as well as practitioners in the past decades. Accordingly, theoretical and empirical studies on the effect of empowerment have been actively conducted and they revealed diverse positive outcomes of employee empowerment. However, prior studies mostly have focused on consequences of empowerment but not on antecedents, with few exceptions. To my knowledge, only two studies (i.e., Yukl & Fu, 1999; Hakimi, 2008) investigated the antecedents of leaders' empowering behavior and delegation. With this deficiency in the literature in mind, the present study explores the antecedents of leader's empowering behavior and underlying mechanism. More specifically, I investigated subordinates' goal orientation as antecedents of leader's empowering behavior and suggested that leader's trust in subordinate mediate the link between goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior.

Hypothesis 1 stated the direct relationship between goal orientation and leader's trust in subordinate. Results showed that learning goal orientation was positively related to leader's trust in subordinate as expected, but performance prove goal orientation and performance avoid goal

orientation did not have significant relationship with leader's trust in subordinate. The positive relationship between learning goal orientation and leader's trust supports the idea that employees who are high on learning goal orientation are more likely to be empowered by leaders. However, the results should be interpreted with caution, since this relationship was supported only when leader's trust was measured by a subordinate, not by a leader. This difference might indicate that learning goal oriented employees tend to perceive work environments, such as leader support, more positively than those with low learning orientation. As shown in Table 15, while correlation between learning goal orientation and empowering behavior measured by subordinate was significantly positive, empowering behavior measured by a leader was not positively related to learning goal orientation. Similarly, only when LMX was measured by a subordinate, learning goal orientation has a positive correlation with it. Common method bias for this different results would be excluded, since performance prove goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation do not show these differences. Rather, performance avoid goal orientation is more negatively related to leader's empowering behavior when it is measured by a subordinate than when measured by a leader. In this regard, it seems that goal orientation influence the perceived level of leader support. One interesting finding was that the

correlation coefficient between leader's trust in subordinate measured by subordinates and that measured by leaders was not significant ($r = .10, p > .05$). In other words, even if leaders think of subordinates as trustworthy, the positive effect of trust will not be much significant to those who believe that leaders do not trust them. As shown in Table 15, additional analysis revealed that when variables which are associated with leader-member relationship were measured by subordinates and leaders respectively, correlation between those two variables were weak ($r < .30$). Posteriori interview on this issue was conducted among employees (i.e., leaders and subordinates) of the organization where survey was implemented. They pointed out hierarchical organizational culture and less communication as significant reason for the perception gap between leader and subordinates. HR system of the organization, such as limited promotion opportunity and zero-sum evaluation system, was also viewed as cause of difference between leader perception and follower perception. Future research focusing on this phenomenon will be needed. Regarding the insignificant relationship between learning goal orientation and leader's trust measured by leader, one possible explanation is that subordinates' attitudes toward achievement situation are not enough to make leaders trust subordinates. According to additional analysis, subordinates' professionalism, reputation, and

trustworthiness which are ability, integrity, and benevolence were positively related to leader's trust in subordinate. Compared to those factors, subordinates' preference to learn might be weak driving force to trust them. Furthermore, it is possible that goal orientation is not expressed by behaviors. Since goal orientation indicates a mental framework to interpret achievable situations, leaders could perceive subordinates' goal orientation incorrectly. Measuring subordinate's goal orientation by both subordinates themselves and leaders and comparing the results might be interesting future research.

The insignificant relationship between performance goal orientation and leader's trust in subordinate is consistent with the results of recent Meta-analysis on Goal orientation (Payne et al., 2007) that revealed inconsistent relationship between performance prove goal orientation and outcome. This inconsistent main effect of performance-prove goal orientation on trust indicates potential variables that moderate the relationship between them. Considering the results of previous study (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004) that performance prove goal orientation was negatively related to LMX, variables associated with affective aspects would moderate the relationship.

Regarding the insignificant relationship between performance avoid goal orientation and leader's trust in subordinate, it is possible that even if subordinates' performance avoid goal orientation lead leaders to distrust

cognitively but not to distrust affectively. In addition, when tasks require standardized way of working, it is less likely that the aspects of performance avoid goal orientation will be shown to leaders. However, the negative correlation between performance avoid goal orientation and leader's empowering behavior ($r = -.15, p < .05$) indicates that leaders are less likely to delegate employees with high performance avoid goal orientation than those with low performance avoid goal orientation.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that leader's trust in subordinate is positively related to leader's empowering behavior. As shown in Table 10, leader's trust shows strong effect on leader's empowering behavior regardless of sources who measured leader's trust in subordinate. Although the influence of trust on empowering decision has been explained theoretically, there is no study that empirically tested the relationship. Thus, this study adds empirical evidence on empowering leadership literature.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that the effects of goal orientations on leader's empowering behavior are mediated through leader's trust in subordinate. Since both performance prove goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation did not significant relationship with leader's trust in subordinate, the indirect effects were also not appeared. As I mentioned earlier, there is little affective aspect in characteristics of performance prove

goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation. In this regard, other variables that reflect cognitive aspect would be potential mediators of the link between performance goal orientation and empowering decision.

Hypothesis 4 stated that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to personal initiative. The regression coefficient was positive but not significant. Instead, one interesting finding on this regression analysis is that organizational tenure is strongly correlated to personal initiative in a positive way. One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that considering that proactive behaviors like personal initiative require taking initiative in improving current circumstances and challenging the status quo, employees who have power in group might be easier in implementing change orientation than those who have less power. Organizational culture where hierarchical order is manifested also can be a factor that explains the positive relationship between organizational tenure and personal initiative.

Hypothesis 5 stated that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to taking charge. Although regression coefficient was not significant, it was marginally significant ($p = .09$). In addition, zero-order correlation analysis shows significantly positive coefficient. Therefore, the results indicate that leader's empowering behavior is more likely to promote subordinate's change orientated behavior (i.e., taking charge). As in the

analysis for personal initiative, organizational tenure shows positive relationship with taking charge. The explanation for the relationship between tenure and personal initiative might be also applied to the case of taking charge.

Hypothesis 6 suggested that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to creativity. As expected, the relationship between them was positively significant. That means, empowered employees tend to show higher creative performance rather than those who are not delegated. This link is previously studied by Zhang and Bartol (2010). In their research, hypotheses were tested with soft engineers in an IT company, which typically require employees to show creativity in performing tasks. Considering the present study was conducted in petrochemical company, in which creativity is not necessary element in evaluating performance, the results add evidence to generalize the effect of empowering leadership on individual creativity.

6.2. Theoretical Implication

Findings of this study contribute to organizational research in several aspects. First, the present study increased the understanding of the determinants of empowering leadership, especially to whom leaders delegate

tasks. While the consequences of empowering leadership have been studied in many ways, few studies have been focused on the antecedents of empowering leadership. Considering the risky aspects of empowering behavior, the present study integrate trust literature into empowering leadership literature and suggested follower's characteristics (i.e., goal orientation) that may influence on the level of leader's trust as determinants of leader's empowering behavior. Results indicated that employees who are high on learning orientation tend to be trusted more by their leaders and as a result, receive more empowerment than those who are low on learning goal orientation. In Yukl and Fu's study, LMX was strong predictor of leader's delegation. Although I also found that LMX was positively related to leader's empowering behavior in additional analysis, this study focused more on cognitive aspects when determining to empower or not than affective aspects. The insignificant relationship between performance goal orientation and leader's trust in subordinate indicated that cognitive aspect only is insufficient to share their power. Future research regarding how leaders differently weigh on cognition-based trust and affect-based trust and which factors affect the extent of weighing will be interesting.

Second, this study contributes to goal orientation literature. Previous studies on goal orientation have mostly focused on what kind of attitudes and

behaviors individuals with a goal orientation might show. The current study extends this research and investigates how others evaluate individuals with goal orientation and develop trust in them. Regarding the insignificant relationship between performance avoid goal orientation and leader's trust, I proposed that there is a possibility that leaders perceive followers' goal orientation incorrectly. Future research will benefit by examining the difference of the level of goal orientation depending on source and investigating outcomes caused by this difference.

Third, the present study also contributes trust literature. Results add empirical evidence that leaders' trust in subordinates play an important role in performing risk taking behavior such as empowering. In addition, one interesting finding of this study is that the coefficient of correlation of leader's trust measured by subordinates and leader's trust measured by leaders was not significant. That means, there is a gap between trustor's trust and trustee's interpretation of this trust. Identifying the factors that bring the gap and the outcomes resulting from this gap will be interesting future research.

Lastly, study results also contribute to proactive behavior literature. Even though there have been numerous study examining desirable outcomes of empowering leadership, few studies investigated the relationship between

empowering leadership and followers' proactive behavior. Although regression results did not support the positive relationship between leader's empowering behavior and taking charge, the significant correlation indicated that leader's empowering behavior is more likely to lead followers to show taking charge.

6.3. Practical Implication

The current study provides practical implications in following ways. First, by demonstrating the positive relationship between learning goal orientation and leader's trust, this study offers implications for selection decision. Despite the positive effect of empowering leadership for both follower and organization, leaders often fail to show empowering behavior because it involves risks. To encourage leaders' delegation, the organizations need to select employees who are more likely to be trusted by their leaders. In this regard, this study suggests that organizations recruit individuals who are high on learning goal orientation. Since learning oriented employees are intrinsically motivated to learn new skills from tasks and invest more effort in search of their mastery focus, leaders tend to trust them and feel less risk in sharing power with them.

Second, findings suggest that managers need to be mindful that their

empowering behaviors are much more important for employees to show taking charge and creative performance. Although empowering leadership has inherent risks and takes time and resources in achieving desirable outcomes from employees, managers should try to empower their followers with future consideration. According to Srivastava and his colleagues (2007), empowering leadership can be developed through the training program and selection system. To encourage leaders to empower their followers, organizations also need to understand motivational aspect of leader's empowering behavior and try to motivate leaders to show empowering behaviors.

Third, posteriori interview about the gap between the levels of trust measured by leaders and by followers provides message that hierarchical organizational culture and less communication between leader and subordinates make subordinates not perceive actual trust from leaders. As the gap increases, factors required to improve team effectiveness, such as team cohesion and organizational commitment might be impaired. Therefore, there should be practices that make team structure platter and programs that promote communication between leaders and followers to reduce this perception gap at the organizational level.

6.4 Limitation and Future Research

As with most empirical study, this study has limitations. First, since the survey was conducted at one point of time, it is difficult to make inferences about the causal direction of relationships, and reverse causality cannot be ruled out. For example, while I found that leader's empowering behavior predicted proactive behavior, it is possible that employees' proactive behaviors contribute leader's empowering behavior. However, considering that goal orientation is individual characteristic which is relatively stable, it is unlikely that the outcomes (i.e., leader's trust in subordinate and leader's empowering behavior) lead to individual characteristic (i.e. goal orientation). However, future research conducted with longitudinal data will help the exact causal relationship.

Second, this study has potential that common method bias influences the results of analysis, since independent variable, mediating variable, and dependent variables are measured by same source. Following the suggestions of Podsakoff et al., (2003), I conducted several statistical techniques to address concerns about common method bias and the results indicated little possibility of the existence of common method bias. However, regarding the difference between leader-measured variable and subordinate-measured variable for the same construct, future research will be needed. Third, the

present study did not differentiate affective aspect and cognitive aspect of trust and did not distinct how goal orientation and trust in subordinate differently influence the level of each dimension of leader's empowering behavior (i.e., Enhancing the meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints). Therefore, future research addressing these specific mechanisms will be fruitful. Fourth, this study included only limited number of variables to conduct a focused study. Future researchers will benefit by identifying the dynamic processes between leader's trust in subordinate and diverse proactive behaviors. Also, finding follower characteristics and leader characteristics that may bring leader's empowering behavior will be promising. Lastly, this study was conducted in one petrochemical company in Korea, so that the influence of company character cannot be ruled out. To generalize results of the study, additional research replicating this focused model in diverse industry and different culture will be needed.

6.5 Conclusion

Empowerment practices have been growingly implemented by the organizations with the trend that need for more flexible work environment.

While researchers have paid attention to the consequence of empowerment practice or empowering leadership, few studies have examined the antecedents for empowering leadership. To fill this void in the literature, the current study investigated the role of followers' goal orientation in shaping the level of leader's trust in subordinate and subsequent empowering behavior. Consistent with prediction, learning goal orientation was positively related to leader's trust in subordinate, and it has indirect effect on leader's empowering behavior through leader's trust. The results indicate that understanding motivation beyond leader's empowering is important to better understanding of empowerment process. This study suggests that leader's trust in subordinates drive them to empower, and follower's learning goal orientation facilitate to establish trust from leaders. However, both performance prove and avoid goal orientations show insignificant relationship with leader's trust and leader's empowering behavior. It implies that subordinates' avoidance of challenging situation may not cause leaders to build trust in them.

Moreover, the study found that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to individual creativity and taking charge. As leaders empower their followers with trust, followers also develop the trust in leader and increase self-determination, leading them to take risks in workplace

challenge.

Considering the significance of empowerment process to enhance organizational effectiveness, organizations should understand the importance of motivational perspective in empowering leadership literature.

I hope the study results provide an important foundation for future research examining the trust development and subsequent risk taking behavior between leaders and subordinates. Future research applying similar approach could benefit the literatures.

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<설문 항목>

<구성원용>

상사의 임파워링 리더십

1. 나의 상사는 나의 목표와 회사의 목표가 어떻게 연관되어 있는지 이해할 수 있도록 도와준다
2. 나의 상사는 회사성공에 있어 나의 일이 얼마나 중요한 역할을 하는지 이해할 수 있도록 도와준다
3. 나의 상사는 회사의 전체적인 방향 속에서 나의 일을 이해할 수 있도록 도와준다
4. 나의 상사는 다양한 의사결정에 나를 참여시킨다
5. 나의 상사는 전략적 의사결정을 할 때 나와 자주 의논한다
6. 나의 상사는 나에게 영향을 미치는 의사결정을 할 때 나의 의견을 구한다
7. 나의 상사는 내가 어려운 과업을 잘 수행할 수 있다고 믿는다
8. 나의 상사는 내가 실수를 할 때 조차도, 나의 능력이 나아질 수 있다고 믿는다
9. 나의 상사는 내가 어려운 업무를 수행할 수 있다고 확신한다
10. 나의 상사는 나의 직무를 내 방식대로 수행할 수 있도록 해준다
11. 나의 상사는 공식적인 규칙과 규정을 단순화하여 나의 업무가 보다 효율적으로 진행될 수 있도록 해준다.
12. 나의 상사는 고객을 만족시킬 수 있도록 나에게 중요한 의사결정을 신속히 내릴 수 있게 해준다

나에 대한 상사의 믿음

1. 나의 상사는 본인에게 매우 중요한 과업을 나에게 (그가 내 행동을 볼 수 없을지라도) 거리낌없이 맡길 수 있다.
2. 나의 상사는 이 회사에서의 그의 커리어에 내가 관여할 수 있게 한다.
3. 나의 상사는 계속해서 나를 감시할 수 있는 방법을 찾고 싶어 하는 것 같다.
4. 나의 상사는 가능하다면 그에게 중요한 일들에 내가 어떠한 영향력도 행사하지 못하게 할 것이다.

학습성향

1. 나는 많은 것을 배울 수 있는 도전적인 일을 기꺼이 선택할 것이다
2. 나는 종종 새로운 기술과 지식을 개발할 수 있는 기회를 찾는다
3. 나는 새로운 것을 배울 수 있는 어렵고 도전적인 일을 즐긴다
4. 업무능력을 개발하는 것이 중요하기 때문에 나는 기꺼이 위험을 감수한다
5. 나는 높은 수준의 능력과 재능을 요구하는 일을 선호한다

성과증명성향

1. 나는 다른 동료보다 내가 일을 더 잘한다는 것을 보여주고 싶다
2. 나는 회사에서 다른 사람에게 내 능력을 증명할 방법을 찾으려고 노력한다
3. 나는 회사에서 다른 사람들이 내가 얼마나 잘하는지를 알아주는 것을 좋아한다
4. 나는 다른 사람에게 내 능력을 입증할 수 있는 프로젝트를 선호한다

성과실패 회피 성향

1. 나는 다른 사람에게 무능력하다고 비취질 가능성이 있는 업무는 피할 것이다
2. 새로운 기술을 배우는 것 보다는 내 능력이 부족하다는 것을 보이지 않는 것이 더 중요하다
3. 나는 내 능력이 부족하다는 사실이 드러날 수 있는 업무를 하는 것을 두려워한다
4. 나는 내가 낮은 성과를 낼 수 있는 상황을 피하려고 한다

<상사용>

부하직원에 대한 믿음

1. 나에게 매우 중요한 과제이나 문제를 이 직원에게 (내가 그의 행동을 볼 수 없을 지라도) 거리낌없이 맡길 수 있다
2. 나는 이 회사에서의 나의 커리어에 이 직원이 관여할 수 있게 한다
3. 나는 이 직원을 계속해서 감시할 수 있는 방법이 있었으면 좋겠다
4. 가능하다면, 나에게 중요한 일들에 이 직원이 어떠한 영향력도 행사하지 못하게 할 것이다

부하직원의 자기주도성

1. 이 직원은 적극적으로 문제를 해결한다.
2. 이 직원은 무언가 문제가 생겼을 때 즉각적으로 대안을 모색한다.
3. 이 직원은 적극적으로 참여할 기회가 있을 때 이를 놓치지 않는다.

4. 이 직원은 다른 이들이 망설일 때도 주도적으로 행동한다.
5. 이 직원은 목표를 이루기 위해 기회를 적극 활용한다
6. 이 직원은 주어진 업무보다 더 많은 일을 하는 편이다
7. 이 직원은 아이디어를 실행하는데 탁월하다

부하직원의 변화주도행위

1. 이 직원은 일을 할 때 개선된 업무절차를 적용하려 노력한다.
2. 이 직원은 업무방식을 효과적으로 개선하려 한다.
3. 이 직원은 우리 팀의 업무절차를 개선시키려고 노력한다.
4. 이 직원은 회사에 더 도움이 되는 새로운 업무방식을 정립하려 노력한다.
5. 이 직원은 비생산적인 조직의 규율이나 정책을 개선하려고 노력한다.
6. 이 직원은 조직 내 운영방식을 개선하기 위해 건설적인 제안을 한다.
7. 이 직원은 잘못된 절차나 제도를 바로잡으려 노력한다
8. 이 직원은 불필요한 절차들을 간소화하려고 노력한다.
9. 이 직원은 조직의 긴급한 현안에 대한 해결책을 실행하려 노력한다.
10. 이 직원은 업무 효율성 증진을 위해 새로운 기술이나 업무방식을 도입하려고 노력한다.

부하직원의 창의성

1. 이 직원은 목표 달성을 위한 새로운 방법을 제안한다
2. 이 직원은 성과향상을 위해 새롭고 실용적인 아이디어를 찾아낸다
3. 이 직원은 새로운 기술, 공정, 기술 및 제품 아이디어를 찾는다
4. 이 직원은 업무나 제품의 질(質) 향상을 위해 새로운 방법을 제시한다
5. 이 직원은 창의적인 아이디어의 원천이다
6. 이 직원은 위험을 감수하는 것을 두려워하지 않는다
7. 이 직원은 새로운 아이디어를 촉진하고 전파한다
8. 이 직원은 기회가 있을 때 마다 직무에 대한 창의성을 발휘한다
9. 이 직원은 새로운 아이디어의 구현을 위해 적절한 계획이나 일정을 고안한다
10. 이 직원은 종종 새롭고 혁신적인 아이디어를 가지고 있다
11. 이 직원은 문제해결을 위한 창의적인 방안을 고안한다
12. 이 직원은 종종 문제에 대해 기존에 없던 새로운 접근방식을 가지고 있다
13. 이 직원은 과업수행을 위한 새로운 방법을 제시한다

국문초록

구성원의 목표성향과 리더의 임파워링 행위와의

관계:

신뢰의 매개효과에 대한 연구

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한 수 정

조직분야의 연구자들과 실무자들 사이에 임파워먼트에 대한 관심이 나날이 증가하고, 임파워링 리더십은 구성원들에게 임파워링을 하는 중요한 방법으로 고려되어왔다. 기존의 조직분야의 연구들은 리더의 임파워링 행동이 구성원들의 태도와 행동에 미치는 영향에 대하여 밝혀온 반면, 어떠한 요소들이 리더에게 임파워링을 행동을 하게 만드는지에 대한 연구는 그 중요성에도 불구하고 드물었다. 이러한 맥락에서, 본 연구의 목적은 리더의 임파워링 행동

의 선행요인을 찾는데 있다.

구체적으로, 본 연구는 구성원의 목표성향이 리더의 임파워링 행동에 어떠한 영향을 미치는지 실증하였다. 리더십 분야의 상황이론 연구에서 구성원의 특성이 리더십의 효과성에 중요한 역할을 하는 것을 밝혀왔을 뿐만 아니라, 구성원의 목표성향은 성취상황을 대하는 태도를 반영하기 때문에 임파워된 직무를 수행하는데 중요한 요소가 될 것이라 간주되어, 구성원의 목표성향을 리더의 임파워링 행동의 선행요인으로 살펴보았다.

또한 본 연구에서는 리더의 구성원에 대한 신뢰가 목표성향과 임파워링 행동과의 관계를 매개하는지를 살펴보았다. 임파워링 행동은 리더 입장에서 불확실성과 이에 따른 위험을 수반하기 때문에 구성원에 대한 신뢰가 선행되어야 할 것이다. 리더가 구성원의 목표성향에 따라 신뢰를 형성하고 이러한 신뢰가 임파워링 행동으로 이어지는지를 검증하였다. 임파워링 행동이 구성원의 다양한 프로액티브 행동으로 이어지는지도 살펴보았다.

한국의 한 석유화학회사 직원들을 대상으로 실시한 설문조사를 통해 169쌍의 리더-구성원 데이터를 수집하여 분석한 결과, 구성원의 학습목표성향은 리더의 임파워링 행동과 정의 관계를 가지는 것으로 나타났다. 하지만 성과증명성향과 성과회피성향은 리더의 임파워링 행동과 유의미한 관계를 보이지 않았다.

구성원의 학습목표성향은 구성원이 측정한 리더의 구성원에 대한 신뢰와 정적인 관계를 나타냈고, 리더의 신뢰가 구성원의 학습목표성향과 리더의 임파워링 행동간의 관계를 유의미하게 매개하였다. 그러나 리더의 구성원에 대한 신뢰를 리더가 측정한 경우

에는 학습목표성향과 리더의 신뢰의 관계가 유의미하게 나타나지 않았다. 재미있는 분석 결과 중 하나는 리더의 신뢰를 구성원이 측정한 경우와 리더가 측정한 경우간의 상관관계가 유의미하지 않았다는 것이다. 이에 대하여 사후적으로 설문조사를 한 조직의 직원들을 대상으로 인터뷰를 실시한 결과 리더의 구성원의 대한 믿음이 구성원에게 잘 전달되지 않는 이유로 수직적인 조직문화와 리더-구성원 간의 의사소통의 부재가 가장 많이 제시되었다. 구성원의 성과증명성향과 성과회피성향은 리더의 신뢰와 유의미한 상관관계를 갖지 않아 신뢰의 매개관계 역시 지지되지 않았다.

리더의 임파워링 행동과 구성원의 다양한 프로액티브행동간에 관계를 분석한 결과 리더의 임파워링 행동은 구성원의 창의성과 정적인 관계를 나타내었고, 자기주도성과 변화주도행위와는 유의미한 관계를 나타내지 않았다.

결론적으로, 본 연구는 구성원의 목표성향, 리더의 부하 신뢰, 리더의 임파워링 행동, 구성원의 프로액티브행동간의 관계를 종합적으로 실증함으로써 이들 연구분야에 이론적으로 기여하고 있다. 뿐만 아니라, 구성원의 선발 시 목표성향의 고려 및 임파워링 리더십 훈련 등의 실무적 시사점도 제시하고 있다.

주요어: 임파워링 행위, 목표성향, 신뢰, 프로액티브 행동, 자기주도성, 변화주도 행위, 창의성

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